BLOCK 5
GROUP DYNAMICS

INTRODUCTION

The fourth block of this course consists of *two units*. In *the first unit*, you will come to know about the concept of group and its various types. We will also discuss the various stages of group formation. Further, the unit will also define various elements of a group and how they affect behaviour in a group as well as the various group processes. The unit will also explain decision making in a group and describe cooperation, competition and conflict in a group.

The *second unit* discusses about the meaning, characteristics and nature of leaders. It will also deal with the different types of leadership style and the role of leaders in conflictual situation.

UNIT 11 GROUP PROCESSES*

Structure

11.1   Objectives

11.2   Introduction

11.3   Groups: Definition and Concept

11.4   Types of Groups
  11.4.1   Perceived Bond among Group Members
  11.4.2   Entitativity
  11.4.3   Primary versus Secondary Group
  11.4.4   Formal versus Informal Group

11.5   Components of Group
  11.5.1   Status
  11.5.2   Roles
  11.5.3   Norms
  11.5.4   Cohesiveness

11.6   Stages of Group Formation

11.7   Group Effectiveness

11.8   Group Processes
  11.8.1   Social Facilitation
  11.8.2   Social Loafing
  11.8.3   Deindividuation

11.9   Group Decision Making
  11.9.1   Group Polarisation
  11.9.2   Group Think

11.10 Cooperation and Competition in a Group
  11.10.1 Determinants of Cooperation and Competition

11.11 Conflict in a Group
  11.11.1 Causes of Conflict
  11.11.2 Outcomes of Conflict
  11.11.3 Conflict Resolution Strategies

11.12 Communication
  11.12.1 Types of Communication
  11.12.2 Communication Style
  11.12.3 Barriers to Effective Communication

11.13 Let Us Sum Up

11.14 Unit End Questions

11.15 Glossary

11.16 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

11.17 Suggested Readings and References

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define Groups and its various types;

- Describe various stages of group formation;

- Define various elements of a group and how they affect behaviour in a group;

- Define various group processes;

- Explain decision making in a group; and

- Discuss the concept and relevance of cooperation, competition and conflict in a group.

11.2 INTRODUCTION

Living in a social world, we are rarely alone. At homes, we are surrounded by our family members, in school we are surrounded by classmates/teachers, in office we are surrounded by our colleagues,on the road we are surrounded by our fellow travellers, in the park we are surrounded by our friends and strangers. These people range from one whom we don't know at all to those whom we know very well. Few of them interact with us frequently, few of them sometimes and few of them rarely. Whatsoever the level of interaction, they all influence our behaviour. In this unit, we will be discussing about the persons whom we know and with whom we have a considerable amount of interactions are somehow connected to us and we are an intact part of group. Being intact suggests that we are dependent on each other for fulfilment of some of our basic needs, like survival needs, social needs, etc. Hence, these people are the ones who play a major role in shaping our core personality and are the cause behind most of our actions.

11.3 GROUPS: DEFINITION AND CONCEPT

Groupscan be defined as a collection of people who perceive themselves to be bonded together in a coherent unit to some degree (Brown, 2000; Dasgupta, Banaji & Abelson, 1999). Characteristics of a group are:

- A collection of two or more individuals who perceive themselves as the members of group.

- Members have common motives.

- Members are interacting (either directly or indirectly) and interdependent.

- Members influence each other.

- Members' behaviour governed by certain rules, roles assigned to them in the group and their status in the group.

All the above mentioned characteristics differentiate a group from a crowd, which is merely a collection of people, who happen to be at the same place at the same time with or without any common purpose.

- A group must be further differentiated from a team where the members have complementary skills, affect each other's activities, attain a positive synergy by coordinated effort and are collectively responsible for the performance.

For example, ten students doing combined study is an example of group. Here each individual studies the syllabus separately. On the other hand, a group formed in the company to complete a project is an example of team. Here, the person analysing the data cannot do the job until the data has been entered by the other person, who in turn is dependent on the person responsible for collection of data. Moreover, in the second example whole group is accountable for the completion of the project; whereas, in the first **Affinitive needs:** Provided by the group through friendship between individuals within it.

example, every student is responsible for her/his own performance in the examination.

The groups can provide, with or without the conscious knowledge of their members, a means of fulfilling many of the needs of the individuals in them, such as:

- **Egoistic needs:** Fulfilled through the development of self-esteem and status as the result of membership in the group through opportunity for individual contributions to group functioning.

- **Functional needs:** Aid in daily activities help in adjustment to work routine or even the avoidance of boredom can be met by the group.

- **Cognitive needs:** Satisfied by establishing and testing reality through developing consensus among group members, uncertain parts of social environment can be made certain and parts of social environment can be made "real" and "stable." Each person can validate perceptions and feelings best by checking them with others.

Thus, groups are instrumental in fulfilling the needs of individual members in various ways. It is possible that these functions may not directly link to the group's primary goal; although, by fulfilling these secondary needs of members their efforts toward achievement of group is facilitated.

11.4 TYPES OF GROUPS

Although various groups share the basic characteristics mentioned above, they are categorised in different types based on some subtle criteria.

11.4.1 *Perceived bond* among Group Members

On the basis of Perceived bondamong group members, groups can be classified into two types: **common-bond** and **common-identity** groups (Prentice, Miller &Lightdale, 1994).

In a *common-bond group*, members have face to face interaction and also a strong bond existsamong them. Players of a team constitute such a common-bond group.

In a *common-identity group*, members are associated with each other just by a category with rare face to face interaction. Citizens of a country or students of a University form such a group. In these groups, group members may not know each other personally. However, their affiliation to a particular category designates

them as the group member and all the members of such groups share the common identity of the group.

11.4.2 Entitativity

Entitativity is the extent to which groups are perceived as a coherent whole (Campbell, 1958). Low entitativity groups are a collection of people who happen to be at same place at same time with a common purpose. Group of interviewees for a particular job is an example of such group. A group which includes members of a family is an example of high entitativity group. Groups high on entitativity have following characteristics:

- Frequent interaction among members (either face to face or virtually on phones, internets, etc.).

- Common goals.

- Members are highly similar in some ways and are significantly different from the non-members.

- Group is a consequence of its members.

One thing that should be noted here is that, it is not the group size but the behavioural features such as acceptance of authority, sharing of resources, adherence to norms, etc. that affects the entitativity of a group (Lickel, Rutchick, Hamilton & Sherman, 2006). High entitative groups are more stereotyped than those low on entitative (Yzerbyt, Corneille & Estrade, 2001).

11.4.3 Primary versus Secondary Group

Primary groups are pre-existing formations whose memberships are conferred to the individuals, such asfamily, caste, etc. These groups play a vital role in developing a person's values and ideals. A person does not have an option to choose or relinquish the membership of a primary group. Whereas, an individual joins a secondary groups by her/his choice in order to fulfil certain motives. Here the membership is voluntary and the person has an option to relinquish the group.

11.4.4 Formal versus Informal Group

A formal group has explicitly stated rules and functions,definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms. These elements may be written or they may be spoken but unanimously accepted by the members. In contrast, an informal group does not have any explicitly stated rules and regulation. For example, a school has specified rules for both students and teachers, has a definite purpose of imparting quality education in the students and has clearly defined status and norms. On the other hand,group of children of a colony gathered in a park is anexample of informal group.

11.5 COMPONENTS OF GROUP

There are number of components in any group that facilitate smooth functioning of the group. Although the groups may differ in terms of their size, types and functions they share some common features, such as status, roles, norms and cohesiveness, which affect behaviours of the group members.
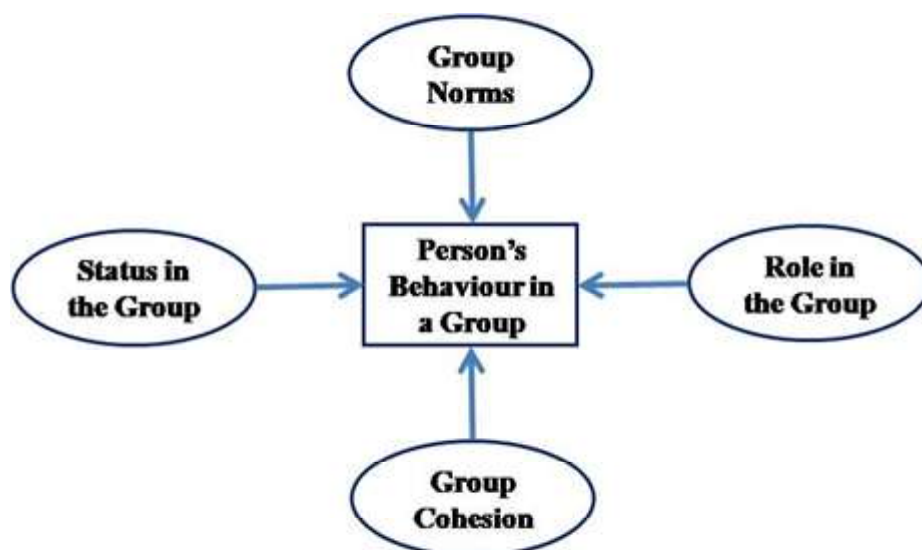
Fig. 11.1: Components of Group

11.5.1 Status

When a teacher enters into the classroom, all students stand in the respect of the teacher. No significant decision in the family is taken until the head of the family, generally parents in the Indian families, approve the decision. These examples characterise status of teachers and parents in their respective groups.

The status of a member may be defined by his/her physical attributes (Judge & Cable, 2004), usefulness to the purpose of the group and behaviour in accordance with the norms of group (Haslam, 2004). It may be an official position or rank in a group or it may be an implicit feature such as elders and new entrants in a group. Often, status is associated with many privileges in the group, such as access to resources of the group, respect, salary, influencing other group members,group responsibilities, making decisions in a group, etc. (Buss, 1999). It has been found that people with low status are more conforming to the group norms than those with high status (Jetten, Hornsey &Adarves-Yorno, 2006). By being more susceptible to group influence, new members, having low status, of the group attempt to increase their acceptability in the group.

11.5.2 Roles

Different members in a group are designated to perform different functions in the group. For example, in a cricket team the captain is responsible to lead the team on the ground, the coach arranges and manages smooth and strategic practice to the team, the physiotherapist ensures physical fitness of the players and the manager is assumed to be responsible for the issues pertaining to team travels and its interaction with media. All these people actually play different roles for the team or the group of players and officials representing a country at the national or international level.

Roles define the expected set of behaviours from different members of a group occupying specific positions in the group. Roles may be officially assigned to a group member or they may be gradually acquired by a group member without any formal assignment. A person may fulfil one role in a group while other role

in some other group (Slater, 1955). Often the roles are internalised and gradually become integral.

A clear recognition of one's goals, or role clarity, helps to avoid chaos in the group. Sometimes, however, members may be confused about the things that are expected of them, such as their level of authority or their responsibility. This is called role ambiguity and is typically experienced by new members. Some groups that are pursuing very dynamic and uncertain tasks have very lower degree of role differentiation and therefore, avoiding the situation of role ambiguity is extremely challenging in such groups.

11.5.3 Norms

Norms are the implicit rules within a group, guiding how its members should or should not behave. Norms are generally agreed-upon informal rules that guide members' behaviours. They represent shared ways of viewing the world. Norms differ from formal rules in that they are not formal and written. However, norms have powerful influence on group behaviour. If each individual in a group separately decides how to behave in each interaction, no one would be able to predict the behaviour of any group member and consequently, chaos would reign. Therefore, norms function as a guide to members' behaviours and reduce ambiguity in groups. Groups do not establish norms about every possible situation but only with respect to things that are significant to the group. Norms might apply to every member of the group or to only some members. Norms that apply to particular group members usually specify the role of those individuals. Norms vary in the degree to which they are accepted by all members of the group: some are accepted by almost everyone, others by some members and not others.

People are guided by the norms of a group only if they value being the member of that particular group. In contrast, they may even act contrary to the norms of a group with which they do not identify themselves (Jetten, Spears & Manstead, 1997; Moreland & Levine, 2001).

In various cultures across the globe, a predominant norm which varies considerably is collectivism versus individualism. A collectivistic group values the maintenance of harmony among its members, even on personal costs. In contrast, a group high on individualistic dimension values 'standing out' from the group.In such groups, dissenters of the groups are seen as courageous and disagreement among the group members is not discouraged. For example, Indian society is considered to be a collectivistic society; whereas western counties, such as USA, are considered to be individualistic societies.

11.5.4 Cohesiveness

Cohesiveness is the force that keeps a group intact (Ellemers, de Gilder &Haslam, 2004). Cohesiveness refers to how strongly group members desire to remain in their groups. Highly cohesive groups are ones in which the members like one another, accept the group's goals, and work towards meeting them. In very un-cohesive groups, the members dislike one another and may even work at cross-purposes. In essence, cohesiveness refers to a "we" feeling, a sense of belongingness to the group. Group cohesion tends to get strengthened under conditions of high external threat or competition. Cohesiveness generally tends to be greater when group members spend more time together. Lesser sub-

groupings are evident in high cohesive than in low cohesive groups.A group high on this dimension has following qualities (Hogg, 2007; Mullen & Cooper, 1994):

- Perceived homogeneity.

- More supportive and cooperative for in-groups than with the out-groups.

- More oriented towards group goals than toward individual goals.

- Have high morale.

- Perform better that the groups low on cohesiveness dimension.

- Highly adamant towards members of out-groups.

- Display more intra-group attraction and commitment towards group goal in presence of an out-group member.

Self Assessment Questions I

Fill in the blanks-

1) ………………… are the needprovided by the group through friendship between individuals within it.

2) ………………… is the force that keeps a group intact.

3) Norms are the ……………….. within a group, guiding how its members should or should not behave.

4) A ……………. group has explicitly stated rules and functions,definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms.

5) A person does not have an option to choose or relinquish the membership of a ………………. group.

11.6 STAGES OF GROUP FORMATION

As stated earlier that a crowd is different from a group in a sense that crowd is a mere collection of people; whereas a group is a homogeneous collection of people, with some specific and shared purpose, having some rules and regulation to guide their behaviours in various social situations. However, in the starting a group is also just a collection of people. The various phases through which the collection of people passes, differentiate it from crowd (Tuckman, 1965). According to TuckMan there are five phases of group Formation These phases are explained below:

Forming: The members of the group might be unknown to one another when they meet for the first time.Therefore, initially the group is quite similar to a crowd. This stage is marked by uncertainties regarding the group purpose, goals, members, procedures, etc.

Storming: At this stage, there is a lot of conflict regarding various roles and status of various members and the methods of achieving the group goals. By the end of this stage some sort of hierarchy develops among the members and some clarity is obtained regarding how the target has to be achieved.

Norming: At this stage, group members finalise various norms which regulate their behaviours and roles. Furthermore, division of responsibilities takes place at this stage. Members devise some scale to measure their progress. Finally, by the end of this stage the group gets a clear identity.

Performing: This is the execution stage of the group. Since the norms, status, roles, etc. have been finalised, members fully devote their efforts to achieve the group goals. For some groups with a single specific purpose this might be the last stage.

Adjourning: Only few groups have this final stage. Here group is disbanded after its purpose is achieved. For example,a committee of juries formed to investigate any case of corruption gets disbanded after submitting its report.

The above mentioned stages are merely a general illustration for the sequential functioning of a group and therefore, the sequence may be different for different groups. In a political committee, norms and status of various members may be pre-decided before the constitution of the group. Similarly, a group may undergo two stages simultaneously or it may switch back and forth between various stages or even it may skip any of the stages.

11.7   GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialized power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment, thereby sustaining the group as a team. Although these are the broader criteria of group effectiveness, organizations and groups differ in their specific criteria of effectiveness. Any group has its own particular environment (socio-cultural and technological), group task and life-span. These specific given circumstances interact with the internal dynamics of the group to produce a particular degree of group effectiveness.

There is substantial agreement among psychologists working in the field of group functioning about the classes of factors that influence group outcomes. Among the most useful frameworks for thinking about groups and their effectiveness are the input-process-output models summarized by McGrath (1984). The model reflects that the success of a group (its outcomes) depends upon inputs or resources which the group has to work with (e.g., the members and the task they have been assigned) and the interaction among team members (e.g., communication, conflict, conformity, socialization, leadership, status, in-group-out-group differentiation, etc.).

By influencing the group process, inputs have both direct and indirect effects on group effectiveness. Inputs include resources, such as personnel, task, tools and time. Groups composed of more competent people, having appropriate knowledge, skills, and motivation, will on average be more effective than groups with less competent members. Work groups that are functionally diverse have a larger stock of ideas to draw upon, and differences in assumptions that allow them to generate more creative solutions. Members who have expertise in a wide variety of disciplines have the potential to be highly creative, bringing together old ideas in new ways (Hargadon & Sutton, 1997).

11.8 GROUP PROCESSES

How a person acts in presence of someone else may be completely different from what he would have been doing, had he been alone. This *'someone'* may be a co-worker of her/his group, an audience or a mere stranger. For instance, while dining out in some restaurant, you may refrain from doing many things which you would have done when dining at home. There are several influences of group on an individual called as group processes. Some of them have been mentioned in the sub headings below.

11.8.1 Social Facilitation

Social facilitation is defined as a tendencyof a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor.Presence of audience increases our arousal which affects our performance. Thus other's presence will improve performance if the performer iswell learned and his/her dominant responses are the correct ones in the situation. Furthermore, it will impair performance if performer's dominant responses are the incorrect ones and the less practiced responses are correct ones. This view is known as ***Drive Theory of Social Facilitation***(Zajonc, Heingartner & Herman, 1969). Social facilitation fails to occur if the performer does not pay attention to the other persons present there.

According to ***Distraction-Conflict Theory,*** a person is distracted when performing in front of others because he or she tries to divide attention between the task and the co-actor/audience. This produces cognitive overload on the performer and therefore, forcing the performer to pay attention only to the essential cues/stimuli.

11.8.2 Social Loafing

While working in a group, often motivation is reduced resulting into reduced efforts to achieve the group goal. This phenomenon is known as ***social loafing*** (Karau & Williams, 1993). When working in a group for a common task, a general feeling arises among the individuals that even though they will contribute a little less, the group goal will be achieved. Hence they have lower motivation and exert less effort to achieve the group goal. Instead, the individuals rely more on the efforts of their co-members. This might have grim implications. In situations, where each or most of the group members become victim of social loafing, the group performance suffers seriously. Social loafing is observed in variety of group tasks, such as cognitive, physical, verbal, etc. (Weldon & Mustari, 1988; Williams & Karau, 1991).

Price, Harrison and Gavin (2006) observed that there are two factors which contribute to social loafing: feeling of being dispensable to the group and feeling of unfairness in the group. When a member feels that the contributions made by her/him are not essential to the group, then she/he is more likely to loaf. Conversely, if a member has skills and knowledge relevant to the performance of group task, she/he is more likely to actively participate in the group activities. Similarly, if a member feels that she/he may be treated unfairly, even after making significant contribution, then she/he is more likely to loaf. Also, if a member is dissimilar from the other members on factors such as age, sex, ethnicity, etc. she/he is more likely to feel unfairly treated and thus more likely to loaf.

Following techniques may be implied to reduce social loafing:

- Reduced feeling of being dispensable in the group by making individual efforts readily identifiable (Williams, Harkins &Latane, 1981).

- Increasing individual member's commitment to the successful task performance (Brickner, Harkins &Ostrom, 1986).

- Increasing the importance of the task (Karau& Williams, 1993).

- Providing each member with some kind of standard performance, such as their past performance or how others are doing (Williams & Karau, 1991).

11.8.3 Deindividuation

Deindividuation is a psychological state characterized by reduced self-awareness and personal identity, brought on by external conditions such as being an anonymous member of a large crowd. This leads the members of a crowd to perform behaviours which they would have never performed when they were alone.Deindividuation leads to greater obedience of the norms of the crowd (Postmes & Spears, 1998).

Previously in one of the above section, you were informed about the differences between group and crowd, where, crowd is merely a collection of people, who happen to be at the same place at the same time with or without any common purpose. But this does not mean that crowd cannot have a norm. Consider a crowd gathered to watch a cricket match. Here the crowd norm is to cheer their team. Being in a crowd makes a person anonymous and hence they feel less responsible for their acts. Thus, they are more likely to resort to wild, unrestrained and anti-social actions (Zimbardo, 1970). *Hooliganism*is a special case of deindividuation, where the fans of English soccer team displayed extremely wild and unsocial behaviour in the matches involving English team.

Deindividuation does not always lead to negative and anti-social behaviour. It just increases the likelihood of obedience of crowd norms. In instances involving some mishaps like stampede, road accident or fires in buildings, deindividuation may elicit helping behaviour, too.

Self Assessment Questions II

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

1) Storming is the stage of group formation in which the members of the group meet for the first time.   (   )

2) Deindividuation is a psychological state characterised by reduced self-awareness and personal identity.   (   )

3) Hooliganism is defined as a tendencyof a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor.   (   )

4) Social loafing is a process in which often motivation of an individual is reduced resulting into reduced efforts to achieve the group goal.   (   )

5) Any group has its own particular environment (socio-cultural and technological), group task and life-span.   (   )

11.9 GROUP DECISION MAKING

Group decision making is also known as collaborative decision making which refers to the process of taking collective decisions by the members of the group. The decision is taken as well as accepted by all the members of that group. Basically there can be two processes involved in taking group decisions.

11.9.1 Group Polarisation

It is a general conception that decisions made by groups are better than those made by individuals. However, it is not always true. Sometimes, decisions taken by groups are more extreme than those taken by the individuals. This tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members is known as *group polarisation* (Burnstein, 1983). More precisely, during a discussion among group members the initial preference of the group is strengthened leading to the final outcome beingamore extreme decision. Hence group shows a phenomenon of **risky shift**, (if the initial preference of the group members is towards a riskier decision) to a**shift towards increased caution** (if initial preference of the group is towards a cautious approach).

There are two factors which contribute to this phenomenon of group polarisation. First, in order to prove themselves a worthy and loyal, the members of group hold a view which is in line with the group's overall image and simultaneously extreme than others. For example, in a terrorist group extreme ideas to create chaos will be considered more worthy. Hence members will tryto hold views which are more extreme than others. Second, due to persuasion, a group's initial preference gets strengthenedleading to extreme decisions.

11.9.2 Group Think

Another phenomenon observed in highly cohesive groups is *group think*. Members of a highly cohesive group think that their decisions cannot be wrong and all the members must support the decision taken by the group. Moreover, they are also under pressure to reject any information which is in contrary to the group's decision. Once this tendency develops, group is highly resistant to change its decision. It is the high cohesiveness among group members which is responsible for developing such tendency among them. Members are so well connected to each other that they think that any member of the group cannot be wrong and even if any member of the group is wrong, it is their moral responsibility to support him/her. Secondly, the norms of highly cohesive group suggest that the group is superior and infallible.The group sometimes may also fail to share the information relevant to the issue held by their members. This may affect the quality of the decisions taken by the group. This is even more problematic if the unshared information is critical to the decision.

11.10 COOPERATION AND COMPETITION IN A GROUP

A group often works on tasks which are common for all members and a coordinated group effort is needed to complete this task. However, sometimes individual performance is also credited along with the contributions to the shared

tasks. Suppose a cricket team is chasing a huge total and to achieve this total the whole team needs to bat with a fast run rate. But here also, man of the match award is given to only one player for individual performance. So an individual may bat with slow run rate in order to complete his/her century.

Cooperation can be defined as a behaviour, in which, whole group works together to attain the shared goal. Whereas, *competition* can be defined as behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others in completing their tasks. Cooperative goals of a group are such that the group achieves them only if the other members of the groups achieve their goal. While competitive goals of a group are such that an individual can get them only if others fail to achieve their respective goals. A group can simultaneously have competitive and cooperative goals, as seen in the example mentioned above. Also, competition within group may lead to conflict and disharmony among group members; whereas, cooperation between groups increase cohesion and solidarity within group members.

11.10.1 Determinants of Cooperation and Competition

Group performance largely depends on the cooperation and competition among group members. Social psychologists have studied various factors that determine the level of cooperation and competition.

Reward Structure: A reward structure that considers only group effort, promotes cooperation in the group. Such a reward structure endorses interdependence among the members. Contrarily, if the reward structure considers only individual efforts, it will promote competition among the members of the group. Suppose in the above example of cricket match, if the condition is set in such a way that the Man of the Match award will be given to the player of winning team only then players will first try to achieve the team target instead of focussing on their individual performance.

Interpersonal Communication: Healthy and ample communication among the group members enhances cooperation among them. Due to healthy communication among themselves, the members develop liking for each other and they tend to cooperate rather than compete. Such a communication also facilitates discussion and interchange of ideas. This leads the members to understand each other's stance and act in a more coordinated way.

Reciprocity: It is a tendency to return favours. If a member of the group has shown initial cooperation towards other member(s) then the other member(s) are also likely to respond in a similar manner. Same is applied for competition also. Thus cooperation or competition among group members looks like a chain reaction. If the group leader somehow manages initial cooperation among the members then it will keep on going.

11.11 CONFLICT IN A GROUP

Conflict is a situation in which individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest. Conflict is the recognition of incompatible interest between the members which may or may not be true (DeDreu & Van Lange, 1995). Conflict is different from competition in a way that conflict is just a perception; whereas, competition

includes a behavioural component as well. A conflict may lead to competition but not all competitive behaviours are result of conflict.

11.11.1 Causes of Conflict

- In many cases a *faulty attribution* can lead to conflict (Baron, 1990). After a failure to achieve one's own interest people try to attribute this failure to someone else. If somehow, they attribute this failure to other's interference then they are likely to develop conflict with the suspect interferer.

- *Faulty communication* may also cause conflict among members. If someone is criticised for his/her action then he/she may feel agitated and thus may develop conflict with the person who has criticised (Cropanzano, 1993). Faulty and improper communication may sometimes develop suspicion about others' interest which also consequently leads to conflict.

- A tendency to consider our *views* as objective and closest to the reality while that of others as biased and selfish leads to conflict (Keltner & Robinson, 1996).

- Initially the *poor performance* of the group followed by the negative feedback may force the members to blame each other for the group failure. This ultimately generates conflict among them. Studies have been reported showing that more the amount of negative feedback received by the group, higher the level of conflict reported (Peterson & Behfar, 2003).

- A *feeling of deprivation and discontentment* is developed when any member feels that he/she is not equally useful as the other members of the group are. This may trigger conflict in them.

- *Perceived inequity* with respect to work share and reward distribution also leads to conflict among the group members.

- *Feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group* may also lead to conflict.

11.11.2 Outcomes of Conflict

Just like competition and cooperation, conflict is also a chain reaction. Once it seeds in the thoughts of one party, it becomes visible in their actions and thus generating even more conflict in the mind of one or both the parties. Following may be the possible outcomes of the conflict:

- Poor communication, mistrust and suspicion among the group members.

- Magnification and escalation of even the trivial differences.

- An effort to increase own power and legitimacy over the other.

- Formation of sub groups and factions leading to separation in the group.

11.11.3 Strategies of Conflict Resolution

- *Introduction of super-ordinate goal:* The organization may introduce super ordinate goals for reducing the conflict among members as well as groups. Super-ordinate goals are those goals that both the parties having conflict,

needs to achieve. These goals can be achieved only by the combined efforts of both the parties. In real life, the super-ordinate goals are usually superior to the conflict interest and are necessary for survival (Sherif, 1958).

- *Altering perceptions:* Persuasions, education, media appeals etc. change the perception about each other and thus can reduce the conflict.

- *Increasing intergroup contacts:* Bringing together both the parties involved in a conflict on a neutral ground (task other than conflict interest) may reduce conflict. This gives them a chance to understand each other's stand. Best example of this type of conflict resolution strategy is frequent organisation of friendly cricket matches between India and Pakistan. However, for this technique to be successful the contact needs to be maintained.

- *Redrawing group boundaries:* Creating conditions in which conflicting parties perceive themselves as a part of common group can redraw the group boundary and thus reduce the conflict.

- *Negotiations:* Both parties undergoing conflict can be convinced to achieve a mutually acceptable solution. Such negotiation can help in reducing the conflict significantly. This strategy requires a mediator who allows them to focus on the discussion on relevant issues.

- *Structural solutions:* Redistribution of the resources according to various principles of justice, viz. principle of equality (equal distribution), principle of need (distribution according to need) and principle of equity (distribution according to contribution) may reduce the feeling of injustice and therefore, can ease the conflict.

- *Respect for other group's norms:*Manytimes conflict among various groups arises from the feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group. If, somehow, we are able to instil respect for other groups this conflict may be resolved.

11.12 COMMUNICATION

Communication is a process of interpersonal interaction in which thoughts, ideas, emotions and understanding between sender(s) and receiver(s) are exchanged (Guo and Sanchez, 2005). This simple definition of communication directs attention to three important issues:

- Communication involves transmission and reception of messages.

- Communication involves people, at least two: one to transmit the message (sender) and another to receive the message (receiver).

- Communication is best described as a process because it is active, continuous, reciprocal and dynamic.

11.12.1 Types of Communication

There are several forms of communication, the most important being verbal communication. Verbal communication can further be divided into two forms: oral and written. Most basic to the oral form of communication involves the

spoken word; as it is the quickest and most accurate because messages can be clarified through ongoing dialogue. Written form of communication involves exchange of ideas, thoughts, understanding, etc. with the help of letters, memos, office orders, e-mail, instant messaging, blogs, etc.

Another form of communication is non-verbal which consists of unspoken clues that a communicator sends in conjunction with spoken or written messages. Examples may include a person's tone of voice, facial expressions, eye contact, head nodding, posture, way of walking, etc.

Though verbal and non verbal communications are separate, both operate at the same time. The verbal part of a message conveys content or information. The non verbal component indicates how the verbal message should be interpreted and thus it is meta-communication. Whenever verbal and non verbal messages contradict each other, people are more likely to believe the non verbal.

11.12.2 Communication Style

Every individual has his or her own predominant communication style. People with different communications styles use different verbal and non verbal communication patterns. The communication styles can be broadly divided into four types: passive, aggressive, passive-aggressive and assertive. Each communication style conveys certain messages to listeners and leads to a specific outcomes.

* *Passive communication:* People with passive communication style are considered as people pleasers, shy and they usually go along with others to avoid conflict. They generally exhibit confused body language and avoid eye contact, place their hands at or over mouth, often play with pen, pencil, clips, paper, etc. during conversation and chew pen or pencil while listening. Because of their body language they are perceived as individual with low self-esteem weak, timid and indecisive.

* *Aggressive communication:* Those who use this style of communication often disregard the rights of others and force their own needs and opinions onto other people. This form of communication can lead to shouting and in some cases, physical aggression. Such people often use aggressive tone and gestures to emphasis their point of view.

* *Passive-aggressive communication:* In this style of communicating, a person may use passive means of communicating that have an aggressive result, because they often find it difficult to direct their thoughts and feelings. They sometimes use manipulation to get what they want which apparently does not look like manipulation.

* *Assertive communication:* People with an assertive style of communicating are able to respectfully express their thoughts and feelings clearly. They consider and value their own needs, but also the needs of others. This form of communicating can help to build strong, balanced, and respectful relationships with others.

11.12.3 Barriers to Effective Communication

Anything that filters, blocks or distorts the message or the information during the process of "encoding-sending-decoding" between the sender and the receiver is considered as barriers of communication. Barriers of communication can be broadly classified into two types (Longest, Rakich, & Darr, 2000):

- *Physical-environmental barriers:* Environmental and physical barriers of communication pertain to the physical-environmental components of the communication process. These may include noise in the communication channel, an improper time of communication, significant distance between sender and receiver.

- *Psychological barriers:* Psychological barriers are created due to poor listening skills, biases, prejudices, mistrust, negative attitude, fear of failure, evaluation anxiety, public embarrassment, obsessive thoughts of being judged negatively by others, inferiority complex, etc.

Self Assessment Questions III

State whether the statements are 'True' or 'False':

1) People with an aggressive style of communicating are able to respectfully express their thoughts and feelings clearly.   (   )

2) In negotiation, both the parties undergoing conflict can be convinced to achieve a mutually acceptable solution.   (   )

3) Cooperationcan be defined as behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others.   (   )

4) The tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members is known as group polarisation.   (   )

5) A group can simultaneously have competitive and cooperative goals. (   )

11.13 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above discussions that, group is a collection of people with common motives, who interact and influence each other. Groups are distinguished from a crowd where people may not have a common motive and also they do not interact. We, living in a social world, are part of many groups. These groups may be of many types: common bond and common identity groups; cohesive groups, formal and informal groups; primary and secondary groups, etc. Whatever type of group we belong to, they all have a certain structure. They have certain norms and statuses. Group members have some definite roles to fulfil and also, they have a degree of cohesion among them.

A group passes through various phases of development which turn it into a full-fledged functional entity. These phases are forming, storming, norming, performing. Few groups are disbanded after the purpose of their formation is solved. Such groups have an additional phase of *adjourning*.The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a

sense of status and socialized power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment.

Since, members of a group frequently interact with other members of the group; their behaviour is quite different from what it would have been in isolation. According to *drive theory of social facilitation,* presence of others when we perform increases our arousal level which may either improve or impair our performance. Similarly, *distraction conflict theory of social facilitation* states that others' presence leads to cognitive overload resulting into altered performance. When group is involved in some task, a tendency among the members is to rely on others' efforts and contribute less. This propensity is known as social loafing. This reduces the groups' overall productivity.

Since groups are formed for some specific motives, they are frequently involved in various decision-making processes. However, often we mistakenly consider that the decisions taken by groups are always better than those taken by an individual. Sometimes group may be victim of group polarization and thus they may take highly extreme decisions. In this condition, the group members lean towards group's initial position so intensely that the final decision is an extreme one. Another tendency of a highly cohesive group is to consider their group to be always correct and hence they display a tendency of group think where they think that the group's decision can never be wrong. Other vulnerabilities in group's decision can be improper sharing of information.

Recurrent interaction among the group members may cultivate tendencies like cooperation, competition and conflicts. Cooperation occurs when group works in unison to achieve the common goal of the group. Competition in the group is observed when members give priority to their individual interests over the group goals. In the case of competition, one member can achieve the target only if the other members fail to attain that. Conflict is a realisation of fact that others' interests are incompatible to that of ours which may or may not be true. Communication is a relevant process and affects the group interactions and processes.

11.14 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Define Groups and explain its various components.

2) Present an account of various types of groups.

3) Taking reference of various stages of group formation, differentiate between crowd and group.

4) Describe the process of decision making in a group. How decisions taken by a group can be different from that of an individual?

5) Describe cooperationand competition in a group. What factors are responsible for cooperationandcompetition in the group? Explain them with example.

6) Explain various causes and outcomes of conflict in a group. How can conflict be resolved?

7) Justify that cooperation, competition and conflict are chain processes in a group.

11.15 GLOSSARY

Groups: Collection of people who perceive themselves as the members of the group, have common motives, are interacting and interdependent, influence each other and are governed by certain rules, roles assigned to them in the group and their status in the group.

Common-bond groups: Members of the group having face to face interaction and a strong bond among them.

Common-identitygroups: Members of the group associated with each other just by a category with rare face to face interaction.

Entitativity: The extent to which groups are perceived as a coherent whole.

Primary and secondary groups: Primary groups are pre-existing formations whose memberships are conferred to the individuals. Whereas, an individual voluntarily joins a secondary groups in order to fulfil certain motives.

Formal and informal groups: A formal group has explicitly stated rules and functions,definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms. In contrast, an informal group does not have any explicitly stated rules and regulation.

Status: An official position or rank of an individual member in a group.

Roles: The expected set of behaviours from different members of a group occupying specific positions in the group.

Norms: The implicit rules within a group guiding how its members should or should not behave.

Cohesiveness: The force that keeps a group intact.

Group effectiveness: Viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes and satisfaction of personal needs of the members in order to sustain the group as a team.

Social facilitation: A tendencyof a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor.

Social loafing: Reduced motivation of group members resulting into reduced individual efforts to achieve the group goal.

Deindividuation: A psychological state characterized by reduced self-awareness and personal identity, brought on by external conditions such as being an anonymous member of a large crowd.

Group polarisation: Tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members.

Group think: Assumption of the embers of a highly cohesive group think that their decisions cannot be wrong and all the members must support the decision taken by the group.

Cooperation: Behaviour in which whole group works together to attain the shared goal.

Competition: Behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others in completing their tasks.

Conflict: A situation in which individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest.

Super-ordinate goals: The goals, usually superior to the conflict interest, which both sides in a conflict need to achieve.

11.16 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions I

1) Affinitive needs

2) Cohesiveness

3) implicit rules

4) formal

5) primary

Self Assessment Questions II

1) False

2) True

3) False

4) True

5) True

Self Assessment Questions III

1) False

2) True

3) False

4) True

5) True

11.17 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

Kassin, S., Fein, S., & Markus, H. R. (2017). *Social Psychology (10thed.)*. Cengage Learning.

Baron, R. A., &Branscombe, N. R. (2016). *Social Psychology (14th ed.)*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn& Bacon.

References

Baron, R. A. (1990). Attributions and organizational conflict. In S. Graha& V. Folkes (Eds.), *Attribution theory: Applications to achievement, mental health, and interpersonal conflict* (pp. 185–204). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Brickner, M., Harkins, S., & Ostrom, T. (1986). Personal involvement: Thought provoking implications for social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 763-769.

Brown, R. (2000). *Group Processes: Dynamics Within and Between Groups(2nd Ed.).* Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Burnstein, E. (1983). Persuasion as argument processing. In M. Brandstatter, J. H. Davis, & G. Stocker-Kriechgauer (Eds.), *Group Decision Processes.* London: Academic Press.

Buss, D. M. (1999). *Evolutionary Psychology: The New Science of the Mind.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn& Bacon.

Buss, D.M. (1999). *Evolutionary Psychology: The New Science of the Mind.* Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Campbell, D. T. (1958). Common fate, similarity, and other indices of the status of aggregates of persons as social entities. *Behavioral Science, 4,* 14-25.

Cropanzano, R. (Ed.). (1993). *Justice in the Workplace* (pp. 79–103). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dasgupta, N., Banji, M. R. & Abelson, R. P. (1999). Group entiativity and group perception: Association between physical features and psychological judgment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75,* 991-1005.

DeDreu, C. K. W., & Van Lange, P. A. M. (1995). Impact of social value orientation on negotiator cognition and behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 21,* 1178-1188.

Ellemers, N., de Gilder, D., & Haslam, S. A. (2004). Motivating individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academy of Management Review, 29,* 459-478.

Guo, L. C. & Sanchez, Y. (2005). Workplace Communication. In Borkowski, N. (Ed.), *Organizational Behavior in Health Care* (pp. 77-110). Jones and Bartlett Publications.

Hargadon, A., & Sutton, R. I. (1997). Technology brokering and innovation in a product development firm. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 42(4),* 716-749.

Haslam, S. A. (2004). *Psychology in Organisations: The Social Identity Approach (2nd ed.).* London: Sage.

Hogg, M. A. (2007). Organizational orthodoxy and corporate autocrats: Some nasty consequences of organizational identification in uncertain times. In C. Bartel, S. Blader& A. Wrzesniewski (Eds.), *Identity and the Modern Organization* (pp. 35–59). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Jetten, J., Hornsey, M. A., &Adarves-Yorno, I. (2006).When group members admit to being conformist: The role of relative intragroup status in conformity self-reports. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 32,* 162-173.

Jetten, J., Spears, R., &Manstead, A. S. R. (1997). Strength of identification and intergroup differentiation: The influence of group norms. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 27,* 603-609.

Judge, T. A., & Cable, T. A. (2004). The effect of physical height on workplace success and income: Preliminary test of a theoretical model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89,* 428-441.

Karau, S. J., & Williams, K. D. (1993). Social loafing: A meta-analytic review and theoretical integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65,* 681-706.

Keltner, D., & Robinson, R. J. (1996). Extremism, power, and the imagined basis of social conflict. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 5,*101-105.

Lickel, B., Rutchick, A. M., Hamilton, D. L., & Sherman, S. J. (2006). Intuitive theories of group types and relational principles. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 42,* 28-39.

Longest, B. B., Rakich, J. S. &Darr, K. (2000). *Managing Health Services Organizations and Systems* (4th ed.) (pp. 808-810). Baltimore, MD: Health Professions Press.

McGrath, J. (1984). *Groups: Interaction and Performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Moreland, R. L., & Levine, J. M. (2001). Socialization in organizations and work groups. In M. Turner (Ed.), *Groups at Work: Theory and Research* (pp. 69–112). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Mullen, B., & Cooper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin, 115,* 210-227.

Peterson, R., &Behfar, K. J. (2003). The dynamic relationship betweenperformance feedback, trust, and conflict in groups: A longitudinalstudy.*Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 92,*102-112.

Postmes, T., & Spears, R. (1998). Deindividuation and antinormative behavior: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 123,* 238-259.

Prentice, D. A., Miller, D. T., &Lightdale, J. R. (1994). Asymmetries in attachments to groups and to their members: Distinguishing between common-identity and common-bond groups. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 20,* 484-493.

Price, K. H., Harrison, D. A., & Gavin, J. H. (2006). Withholding inputs in team contexts: Member composition, interaction processes, evaluation structure, and social loafing. *journal of Applied Psychology, 91,* 1375-1384.

Sherif, M. (1958). Superordinate goals in the reduction of intergroup conflict. *American journal of Sociology,* 349-356.

Slater, P.E. (1955), Role Differentiation in Small Groups.*American Sociology Journal, 20,*300-310.

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental Sequence in Small Groups. Psychological Bulletin. 63, 384-399.

Weldon, E., &Mustari, L. (1988). Felt dispensability in groups of coactors: The effects of shared responsibility and explicit anonymity on cognitive effort. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 41,* 330-351.

Williams, K. D., & Karau, S. J. (1991). Social loafing and social compensation: The effects of expectations of co-worker performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61,* 570-581.

Williams, K. D., Harkins, S., & Latane, B. (1981). Identifiability as a deterrent to social loafing: Two cheering experiments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 40,* 303-311.

Yzerbyt, V. Y., Corneille, O., & Estrada, C. (2001). The interplay of subjective essentialism and entitativity in the formation of stereotypes. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 5,* 141-155.

Zajonc, R. B., Heingartner, A., & Herman, E. M. (1969). Social enhancement and impairment of performance in the cockroach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 13,* 83-92.

Zimbardo, P.G. (1970). The human choice: Individuation, reason, and order versus deindividuation, impulse, and chaos. In W.J. Arnold & D. Levine (Eds.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation* (Vol. 17, pp. 237–307). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

UNIT 12 LEADER AND LEADERSHIP*

Structure

12.0   OBJECTIVES

After reading this Unit, the learner will be able to :

- Describe the Characteristics of leader;

- Explain types of leadership;

- Summarize the social categorization; and

- Explain role of a leader in conflict resolution.

12.1   INTRODUCTION

Imagine that you were living in the 18th century, when social issues such as the Sati system troubled the entire India, then how would you have enacted to stop the system? That was the time when Raja Ram Mohan Roy retired from the East India Company and was always interested in reforming the society. He worked very hard to improve people's conditions and did a great job in the field of social, religious and educational work. His active contribution and leadership skills towards prohibiting the Sati system is best recalled.

Who do you consider are really great leaders? The names that always come to your mind are all political leaders: Nelson Mandela, Mahatma Gandhi, Indira Gandhi and Narendra Modi. Some names such as Adof Hitler and Kim Jong-un also come to our mind.

Many leaders are visionaries, some use their power of authority and others force us to do as they want. It is not difficult to see the burden in all of this for making enormous changes in our lives. It is interesting fact that the study of leader and leadership has held a central role for over 75 years in social psychology.In unit 11 you have learned about Group Dynamics. In this unit, you will learn about the characteristics of leader, types of leadership, social categorization and role of a leader in conflict resolution.

12.2 CONCEPT AND ROLE OF LEADER

The *leader* is the person who has the greatest impact on the group actions and beliefs. She or he is the individual who initiates action, gives orders, makes decisions, addresses conflicts between group members, provides inspiration, serves as a model, and is at the heart of any of the operational activities.

Formal or Informal Groups differ in whether they have formal/informal leaders. Large organisations have uniform organisational charts showing the official chain of command and providing instructions on decision-making, problem solving and supervisory patterns, such as companies, cooperative societies, schools, colleges or universities. In small groups, such as Housing society, Rotary clubs etc. there may be elected leader with special duties.

On the other hand, within certain groups, there is no formal leader at all. Friendship/ Board or Commotions groups show a trend of informal leadership. In group discussions, one member may be more fluent and convincing than others and may therefore have more effect on decisions making and conflicts resolution.

Many tasks in the group are handled by a leader. The fundamental roles of the leader differ from the form of formal or informal group being headed. If we go through the different opinions expressed by the various social and organizational psychologists, we will certainly infer that leaders typically perform any or all of *the following roles* in group decision making and during conflicts resolution.

- To encourage the members for better communication.
- To inspire the members of the group to obey the law.
- Acting as a bridge between the group and other formal and informal institutions.
- Monitoring and enhancing the efficiency of the group.
- To cultivate interpersonal relationships between group.
- To settle disputes between members of the group.
- To give the group strategic direction.
- In different locations and places to represent the groups.
- Expressing and engaging with the group goal.
- Secure productivity of group effort.
- Recruit new members and trained the members in core competencies.
- Developing team spirit.

12.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADER

When you think about some of the leaders in society, whether it is your supervisor, boss at workplace or the politicians for whom you vote, you might find yourself wondering exactly what makes them fit for a leadership position. Social scientists and psychologist have attempted to identify some of the characteristics of a leader. The attributes required to be a leader vary from group to group, place to place, time to time, and situation to situation. The key psychological *characteristics* of a leader are as follows:

i) Integrity and Honesty

A leader must possess the characteristic of honesty. The importance of honesty should be obvious. Although it may not necessarily be an assessment in member reviews, integrity is essential for the leader and the group. It is incredibly necessary for leader who plan the group's direction and make countless other useful decisions.

ii) Communication

Leadership and successful communication are intertwined. Leader need to be able to communicate in a variety of ways, from transmitting information to coaching the group members. In addition, through occupations, social identities, and more, a wide range of member must be able to listen to, and communicate with others. The quality and efficacy of communication within group directly affects the effectiveness of group cohesiveness, groupthink and plan, too.

iii) Drive and Motivation

This involves desire, enthusiasm, high energy and strategies for achievement. Many leaders have a strong sense of mission, aim, concentration and dedication.

iv) Self-esteem

To the degree to which a person is at peace with himself and has a good overall assessment of her or his self-worth and skill, any individual is considered appropriate to be a leader. Leaders with high self-esteem respect their followers more.Higher levels of self-confidence can affect those with high self-esteem and this affects their image in the eyes of their followers. Self-esteem can also explain the correlation between certain physical attributes and the emergence of leaders.

v) Intelligence

Either aleader is appointed or elected, intelligence is one of the important attribute of leadership.

vi) Empathy

A leader has enough open-mindedness to understand their followers' motives, dreams, expectations, and challenges so that they can build a profound emotional touch with them.

vii) Maturity

A leader should have a high degree of emotional quotient. She or He needs to maintain her/his temper of calmness. She or He must be highly tolerant. She or He should be open minded to explore fresh ideas. She/ He should be able to look at situations logically.

viii) Physical Features

A leader must have an image that is pleasing. For a good leader, physique and fitness are very important.

ix) Sense of responsibility

To bring a sense of power, responsibility and accountability for the work of a person is very important. A leader must have a sense of accountability for group objectives and only then, in a real sense, will he get full potential exploited. She

or He has to motivate himself and arouse and urge herself or himself to give the best of her or his skills for this. Only then can the members motivate the best.

x) Vision and foresight

If leader shows that she or he is forward thinking, a leader can not retain power. Leader needs to imagine scenarios and so logical programmes have to be framed.

xi) Passion

Leaders should feel a passion for their work and show it. The buy-in of members would be stronger if their leader indicates that they care for the job they do.

xii) Influence

Great leaders will positively affect their workers. Earn the organisation 's confidence and appreciation so that you can inspire them to work hard, stay optimistic and show ingenuity.

Self Assessment Questions I

State whether the following are True or False

1) Self-esteem can also explain the correlation between certain physical attributes and the emergence of leaders.

2) Leaders with low self-esteem respect their followers more.

3) A leader has enough open-mindedness to understand their followers' motives.

4) For a good leader, physique and fitness are not important.

12.4 STYLES OF LEADERSHIP

1) Autocratic Style

"Do as I say" is the most illustrative expression of an autocratic leadership style. An autocratic leader usually assumes that she or he is the best individual at any context and better than anyone. With no input from group members, they make all the decisions.

2) Participative Style

Participative leadership is a form of leadership in which all group members working together for taking decisions. Participative leadership is also known as democratic leadership, where everyone is supposed to participate.

3) Laissez -fair Style

A laissez-faire leader does not directly apply power over its members under this model of leadership. Since members are highly experienced and require minimal guidance, under her or his supervision, a laissez-faire leader fails to provide members with continuous input. This style of leadership is also related to leaders who do not track their group members, who have not given ongoing input resulting in high costs , poor service, failure to meet deadlines, loss of control and production.

4) Narcissistic leadership Style

Narcissistic leadership is a form of leadership in which the leader only thinks for herself/ himself. At the detriment of their people / group participants, their focus

is themselves. This leader displays the characteristics of a narcissist: arrogance, superiority and aggression.

5) Toxic leadership Style

A toxic leader is a person who is responsible for a member of or a federation and exploits the relationship between the leader and member by leaving the group or foundation in a worse position than when they first found them.

6) Charismatic leadership Style

In this type of leadership, The charismatic leader shows her or his revolutionary authority. Charisma does not mean sheer change in actions. Currently, it requires a transformation of the ideals and convictions of members.

Charismatic leaders appear to have positive personalities and to attract enormous followers. Mahatma Gandhi, Indira Gandhi, Narendra Modi, Medha Patkar are examples of such leaders.

7) Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership, unlike other leadership types, is more about facilitating change in organisations, groups, oneself and others. Transformational leaders inspire others to do more than they initially expected and sometimes much more than they considered feasible. They set more difficult goal and generally achieve a higher result. Statistically, transformational leadership tends to have more committed and satisfied followers. This is mostly so because followers are motivated by representatives of change.

8) Transactional Leadership

Transactional Leadership is a theory or style first explored by sociologist Max Weber in 1947 and subsequently extended by Bernard M. Bass, who also played a leading role in the growth of Transformational Leadership.It is leadership that requires an exchange process in which members receive immediate, benefits for carrying out the instructions of the leader.

9) Bureaucratic Leadership

Bureaucratic leadership refers to organisational leadership through a highly formalised set of procedures, protocols, and systems. Laws , policies and hierarchies here set up a straightforward set of objectives as well as an explicit chain of command. At each level of a bureaucracy, organisational members are obliged both to their immediate subordinates and to a wider ecosystem of rules and procedures. Through channelling defined laws, implementing current systems, and ruling over particular parts of the hierarchy, bureaucratic leaders lead.

10) Consultative Leadership

Consultative leaders regularly ask members for input and take members complaints seriously. They also have an open-door policy that allows members to share in the group what is and is not working. Although leader consult with members, they inevitably maintain supreme decision-making authority.

11) Socio-emotional Leadership

A socio-emotional leadership style involves a leader, who, by driving away fears, reducing tension, resolving conflicts, and settling arguments and disagreements, is concerned with raising the morale of his or her group at a high level.

12) Paternalistic Leadership

Paternalistic leadership is a management strategy involving a dominant authoritative personality that acts as a matriarch or patriarch and treats partners and staff just as they are members of large extended families. The leaders, in turn, expect the staff to have confidence, obedience, and loyalty.

13) Sociocratic Leadership

The sociocratic leader tries to run the group, like a Social Club. Leader gives less significance to development and more significance to friendship. Leader wants to make her or his members really satisfied, in other words. Therefore, leader provides a warm and good social atmosphere.

14) Situational Leadership

In different situations, the situational form of leader uses different types. That is, according to the case, leader alters his or his style. Leader may be autocratic, or consultative, or participative often, etc. Most leaders now-a-days use this form of leadership.

15) Neurocratic Leadership

This style involves a task-oriented leader who is highly neurocratic. At any expense, they needs to get the job done. If there is some loss, they becomes very agitated. Leader is really emotional, sensitive and eccentric. In decision-making, leader does not consult her or his members. Leader take her/his own decisions.

Self Assessment Questions II

State whether the following are True or False

1) An autocratic leader usually assumes that leader is the best individual at the situation.

2) Laissez -fair style of leadership is related to leaders who track their group members.

3) The charismatic leader does not shows her or his revolutionary authority.

4) Consultative leaders regularly ask members for input.

12.5 SOCIAL CATEGORIZATION

Social categorization such as gender, race and social category, influences our perceptions as well.

For instance, when we meet a new teacher, we could classify his as men, a middle-aged man, an Asian, an academic, and so on. Social categorization is a natural feature of social cognition; it provides a mental shortcut in that it helps us to infer an individual's properties based on the properties of others in the same community.

Social categorization is the distinction between oneself and others and between one's own group and other groups, and it is such a natural and spontaneous phenomenon that we are not aware of it often.

A third perspective on the origins of stereotyping and prejudice begins with this basic fact that people generally divide the social world into two distinct categories Us and Them–social categorization Ingroup is US and the Outgroup is THEM (Charles Sumner, 1906, Page 12). Persons in the Ingroupare perceived favorably while those in the latter are perceived more negatively. This tendency to make more favorable and flattering attributions about members of one's group than members about the other group is known as the ultimate attribution error.

Evidence from research suggests that by identifying with certain special classes, people seek to boost their self-esteem. And so the final outcome is inevitable, as each group seeks to see itself better than the rivals. Thus, dividing our group into two opposing groups is one of the significant causes of stereotyping and discrimination.

12.6 ROLE OF A LEADER IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Leaders who use conflict management skills can provide support and direction towards conflict resolution. A common trait of leaders is they are able to build groups that work well together and help to set the tone for the group.

The resolution of conflicts is conceptualised as the techniques and procedures involved in facilitating the peaceful end of conflict. Committed group members or Leader also strive to overcome group conflict by openly sharing information to the rest of the group members (e.g. intentions; reasons for maintaining those beliefs) about their contradictory motives or agendas and by participating in collective bargaining.

At work and in groups, nobody likes conflict. It can fester and affect group morale, interpersonal relationships , and work efficiency if not addressed properly and in due time. A lot of research has been done to identify measures for better dispute resolution that are time-efficient and impactful.

Researcher Kenneth Thomas and Ralph Kilmann developed a model for conflict resolution in the 1970s. Following them, it was called the Thomas-Kilmann model. The word 'conflict' is defined as the situation under this model in which the concerns of people can not be contrasted with others. If two or more individuals or groups care about items that are conflicting with each other, then conflict is the result.

When selecting a mode of behaviour in a situation of conflict, this model defines the two main dimensions:' assertiveness' and 'cooperativeness.' The degree to which you strive to resolve and resolve your desired results is assertiveness.

Thomas-Kilmann's five modes for resolving conflicts.

Thomas-Kilmann gave us the following five ways to deal with the conflicts posed, based on the similarity of these two and the degree of implementation:

1) *Competing*

The first Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode, which is competing, is assertive and non-cooperative. It refers to answering only one's own issues at the detriment of the other's concerns. It is a power-oriented mode that uses whatever dynamic of power seems necessary to achieve a desirable outcome for itself.

The willingness of a person to argue, their place in the hierarchy, or their financial power matter the most. It strictly means standing up for your own convictions and actually striving to win. Competing is defensive.

2) *Accommodating*

According to the Thomas-Kilmann model, the Accommodating Mode is both accepting and cooperative. That's the opposite of being competing. While welcoming, the individual in question neglects their own interests or values to tackle the issues of the other party. The self-sacrifice element is emphasised in this mode. Usually, accommodating requires selfless comprehension, generosity, or charity. At times, accommodating would require you to obey the instructions of the other person if you would not like to do so, or adhere to the opinion or decisions of the other person.

3) *Avoiding*

Avoiding is both unassertive and uncooperative in the Thomas-Kilmann model. The person does not want to tackle his or her own problems or others' problems. This essentially suggests that they do not want to participate in the dispute at all. At times, avoidance may be seen as a diplomatic move involving bypassing or ignoring the issue. It may also mean putting the problem away until the time is right, or simply standing back from an unpleasant or unsafe situation.

4) *Collaborating*

In the Thomas-Kilmann conflict model, working together is the most advantageous outcome. It is assertive as well as cooperative. The complete opposite of avoiding is this mode. Collaborating requires a voluntary attempt to work together with the opposition to find a perfect solution that solves the collective issue entirely. Collaborating requires deep-diving into a dilemma to define the critical criteria of the members or group involved. A desire to understand the 'why' of the dispute could take the form of collaborating between two or more individuals. It means trying to look for interesting solutions to interpersonal problems and enriching yourself from the experiences of the other members.

5) *Compromising*

In the Thomas-Kilmann conflict model, the last outcome falls on both the assertiveness and cooperativeness scales on the average point. The aim here is to find a mutually satisfactory and robust solution that satisfies both individuals in some way.

Midway between competing and welcoming, it comes. It tackles a problem more explicitly than ignoring it, but it falls short of analysing it with as much depth and rigour as working together. Compromising can include finding middle-ground solutions in some cases, making compromises, or seeking a fast solution that offers a path forward from the impasse.

To sum up the modes of conflict resolution:

- Competing with the objective of winning
- Accommodating: "to yield" is the purpose
- Avoiding:' delaying' is the goal
- Collaborating: the aim is to find a win-win solution.
- Compromising: 'Finding a middle ground' is the aim.

Self Assessment Questions III

State whether the following are True or False

1) Social categorization is a natural feature of social cognition.

2) Kenneth Thomas and Ralph Kilmann developed a model for conflict resolution.

3) Accommodating Mode is both accepting and cooperative.

4) Avoiding is both unassertive and uncooperative in the Thomas-Kilmann model.

12.7 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above discussion that leader is the person who has the greatest impact on the group actions and beliefs.The Characteristic of leader:**Integrity and Honesty, Communication, self esteem, empathy, maturity, physical features and influence.** The various type of leadership are**:**Autocratic, Participative, Narcissistic Bureaucratic, Consultative, Social categorization etc.

12.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

1) Describe the various functions of leader.

2) Name ten leadership type.

3) Explain the characteristics of leader.

4) What do you mean by Laissez –fair?

5) How does Autocratic differ from Participative type of leadership?

6) Write a short note on Social categorization.

7) Describe Thomas-Kilmann's five modes for resolving conflicts.

12.9 GLOSSARY

Leader: The leader is the person who has the greatest impact on the group actions and beliefs.

Autocratic: An autocratic leader usually assumes that she or he is the best individual at the situation and better than anyone.

Participative: Participative leadership is a form of leadership in which all group members working together for taking decisions.

Narcissistic: Narcissistic leadership is a form of leadership in which the leader only thinks for herself/ himself.

Bureaucratic: Bureaucratic leadership refers to organisational leadership through a highly formalised set of procedures, protocols, and systems.

Consultative: Consultative leaders regularly ask members for input and take members complaints seriously.

Social categorization: Social categorization such as gender, race and social category, influences our perceptions as well.

12.10 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions I

1) True

2) False

3) True

4) False

Self Assessment Questions II

1) True

2) False

3) False

4) True

Self Assessment Questions III

1) True

2) True

3) True

4) True

12.11 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

Baron, R.A., Byrne, D. & Bhardwaj. G (2010). *Social Psychology* (12th Ed).New Delhi:Pearson.

References

Allport, F.H. (1924). *Social Psychology,* Houghton, Mifflon.

Chadha, N.K. (2012). *Social Psychology.* MacMillan: New Delhi

Deaux.K&Wrightsman, L. (2001). *Social Psychology.* California: Cole Publishing

Kassin,S., Fein, S., &Markus,H.R. (2008). *Social Psychology*. New York: Houghton Miffin.

David, H. (1968). *Social Psychology,* Harper and Row, New York.

Davis, L. E., Galinsky, M.J. and Schopler, J. H. (1995). RAP : A framework for leading multiracial groups, Social Work, 40 (2), 155-165.

Dawson and Gettys, Introduction to Sociology.

Deutsch, M. and Gerard, H. (1955). A study on normative and informational social influence upon individual judgement. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51, 629-636.

Dollard, J. (1939). Frustration and Aggression, Yale University Press. Eldredge and Merrill, Culture and Society, p. 483. Gillin and Gillin, Cultural Sociology, p. 488.

Gish, N.P., Fundamentals of Sociology, p. 63. Green Arnold, *Sociology,* p. 71. Green, A.W., Sociology, (5th edition) p. 60.

Hopps, J.G. and Pinderhughes, E.B. (1999). Group work with overwhelmed clients, New York : Free Press. Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachy (1962). Individual and Society, McGraw Hill, New York.

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballacy (1962). *Individual and Society,* McGraw Hill, New York.

Kuppuswamy, B. (1980), *An Introduction to Social Psychology,* 2nd revised edition, (reprinted, 2004), Asia Publishing House, Mumbai.

Kuppuswamy, B. (1980). *An Introduction to Social Psychology,* Asia Publishing House, New Delhi. Kuppuswamy, B.(2002), *Elements of Social Psychology,* 7th Revised Edition, Konark Publishers Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.

Macgowan, M.J. (2000). Evaluation of a measure of engagement for group work, Research on Social Work Practice, 10(3), 348-361. MacIver, R. M., Society, p. 521.

MacKenzie, K.R. (1983). The clinical application of a group climate measure. In R. Dies and K.R. MacKenzie (Eds.) Advances in group psychotherapy: Integrating research and practice (155-170). New York: International Universities Press.

Misra, G. (2009). *Psychology in India,* Volume 4: Theoretical and Methodological

Developments (ICSSR survey of advances in research). New Delhi: Pearson.

Myers, D.G. (2008). *Social Psychology* New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill.

Taylor,S.E., Peplau,L.A. &Sears,D.O. (2006). *Social Psychology* (12th Ed). New Delhi:

Pearson.

Shetgovekar, S(2018) *An introduction to Social Psychology,* Sage publication India Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi.