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GENERALIZED CONFLICT STYLES AS PREDICTORS OF SPECIFIC CONFLICT **RESPONSES IN VARYING CONTENT** AND RELATIONSHIP SCENARIO CONDITIONS

By

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B.A., University of Montana, 1977

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Master of Arts

UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA

1977

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Chairperson, Board of Examiners

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Generalized Conflict Styles as Predictors of Specific Conflict Response in Varying Content and Relationship Scenario Conditions (86 pp.)

Director: Wesley N. Shellen

This study was designed to investigate the predictive power of the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument in specific conflict situations. The study explored the relationship between generalized conflict styles, specific conflict response and satisfaction with the specific response. It investigate the effect of differing conditions of content and relationship on specific conflict response. It examined the effects of content and relationship dimensions on satisfaction and the relationship between specific conflict response and satisfaction.

The procedure used in this study required subjects to complete the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument. Subjects then read one of four randomly assigned scenarios operationalizing differing conditions of content salience and power relationship (peer-important; peer-unimportant; superior-important; superior-unimportant) Subjects rated the scenarios for importance on a seven step semantic differential-type scale. Subjects then responded to an open-ended question asking what they would probably do if they were involved in the situation described in the scenario. Finally, subjects indicated their satisfaction with their response to the scenarios measured by the Faces Scale.

Stepwise multiple regressions yielded significant correlations for the response competition with the modes of competition and accomodation. The response of accomodation correlated significantly with accomodation, competition, and collaboration. The response of aggression correlated significantly with collaboration and compromise.

Partial multiple regressions yielded significant correlations for the modes of competition, collaboration and accomodation with the response of accomodation. Compromise and collaboration correlated significantly with the response of competition.

With the exception of the manipulations for salience, no other significant results were found. The ANOVA for consistency of generalized style with specific response yielded results just short of the level set for alpha (obtained p < .06).

Limitations of this study were discussed and implications for further research as well as applied implications for the organizational consultant were discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate whether it is possible to predict the response to a specific conflict situation based on an individual's generalized conflict style. Second, it explored the relationship between generalized conflict styles, specific conflict response and satisfaction with the specific response. Third. it investigated the effect of differing conditions of content salience and power relationships on specific conflict response. Fourth, it examined the effects of content salience and power relationship on satisfaction. Fifth, it explored the relationship between specific conflict response and satisfaction. Scenarios were used to manipulate the content salience and power relationship dimensions of conflict. The content dimension of the conflict scenarios varied in importance of the issue, and the relationship dimension of the conflict scenarios varied the power/dominance of the participants in the scenarios.

Review of the Literature

Conflict

Interpersonal conflict is an ubiquitous phenomenon. The prevalence and pervasiveness of conflict has led it to be termed "inevitable", and has caused the suggestion

to be made that conflict is "not necessarily destructive or lacking in pleasure" (Deutsch, 1971, 38).

Conflict has many elements and has been defined in many ways. Coser, (1967) said that conflict is "a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power and resources in which the aims of the opponents are to neutralize, injure, or eliminate the rivals" (8). Deutsch, (1973) has stated that conflict is a function of incompatible activi-"An action which is incompatible with another actties. ion prevents, obstructs, interferes with, injures, or in some way makes it less likely or less effective" (156). In order for conflict to occur there must be perceived opportunity for interference (Schmidt & Kochan, 1972), incompatible goals (Hall, 1969), verbal or nonverbal communication (Jandt, 1973), and an interdependent relationship between conflicting parties (Hall, 1969). Perhaps the clearest definition of interpersonal conflict was offered by Frost and Wilmot (1978) who stated:

Conflict is an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties, who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals. They are in a position of opposition with cooperation (8).

The development of conflict, like the development of any other communication encounter is dynamic and transactional in its process (Schmidt & Kochan, 1972). Thus, the characteristics of the conflict process are

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constantly changing as the conflict develops. <u>Content and Relationship Dimensions of Conflict</u>

The distinction that is made between the content and relationship dimensions of communication is the destinction made between an orientation participants make toward each other versus an orientation toward the objects or issues of communication. Several theorists have made this distinction (Newcomb, 1953; Watzlawick, Beavin_& Jackson, 1967; Rossiter & Pearce, 1975; and Wilmot, 1975). Watzlawick <u>et al</u>. (1967) pointed out that the content aspect of communication conveys information while the relationship aspect refers to how the message is to be understood. Further, they stated that "any communication implies a commitment and thereby defines the relationship. This is another way of saying that a communication not only conveys information, but at the same time it imposes behavior" (51).

The content and relationship dimensions of communication have been directly applied to instances of interpersonal conflict (Hall, 1969; Blake & Mouton, 1970; Thomas & Kilmann, 1974; Filley, 1975; Ruble & Thomas, 1976; and Shepherd, 1977). The conceptualization of two dimensions of conflict, content and relationship, is isomorphic with that of Guetzkown and Gyr (1954) who discussed the substantive and affective dimensions of conflict. The substantive dimension is rooted in the

substance or issue of the task and the affective dimension of conflict is rooted in the emotional, affective aspects of interpersonal relations.

Filley (1975) argued that "there are at least two major concerns in a conflict situation. One involves the extent to which an individual wishes to meet his own personal goals...Another concern is the extent to which an individual wants to maintain a relationship with another individual" (49). Ruble and Thomas (1976) found that concern for the relationship (which they called "cooperation") was positively correlated with the evaluative (goodbad) factor of connotative meaning (Osgood, Suci & Tannebaum, 1957). Concern for content (which they called "assertiveness") was positively correlated with the dyanmism (strong-weak) factor of connotative meaning. This is consistent with Newcomb's (1961) conceptualization that orientation toward interpersonal relationships vary along two dimensions: sign (positive-negative) and intensity (strong-weak).

The relationship dimension of conflict may be defined as how conflict messages are to be taken and this is affected by the degree of interdependence between the participants. Power and affiliation are important elements of relationships and also exert an influence over the choices people make in conflict encounters. The relationship between partners has been organized into two

dimensions. Leary (1957) noticed that descriptions given by respondents seemed to be related in some way to either power or affiliation. The descriptions appeared to cluster around four nodal points--<u>dominance</u>, <u>submission</u>, <u>hostility</u>, and <u>affection</u>. Leary organized these four nodal points into two dimensions as lines at right angles to one another forming the axes for a circle around which the various personality types could be arranged. These two axes were <u>dominance-submission</u> and <u>love-hate</u>. These power and affiliation dimensions of the relationship are an integral part of the environment in which conflict takes place.

Power relationship, or the <u>dominance-submission</u> axis is the aspect of relationship explored in the present study. Power has been operationally defined as control over the other participants' outcomes (Deutsch, 1958; Solomon, 1960; Apfelbaum, 1974). Likert and Likert, (1976) stated that "power is viewed as the capacity to influence behavior" (269). They further stated:

In win-lose approaches to resolving conflicts each party to the dispute seeks to force acceptance of its preferred solution upon the other. To attain its ends, each party often tries to mobilize and use some form of power which the opposing party perceives as having harmful effects for it. Strikes, work stoppages, lockouts or layoffs, firings, worker sabotage, and burning and looting in central cities are illustrations (269).

The effects of power as a variable in influencing conflict choices and styles has been studied and has

great applicability to organizational settings in which power is at issue. Studies have found that powerless subjects tend to reach agreement more frequently than do more powerful subjects (Deutsch & Krauss, 1960; Horenstein, 1965; Grant & Sermat, 1969; Gaghan & Tedeschi, 1969; and Apfelbaum, 1974). A somewhat different view of power and powerlessness has been offered by Bach and Wyden (1968) and May (1972) who pointed out that powerless people are the ones who are likely to become the most violent. Evidently, a point is reached at which one has nothing to lose and it is at this juncture when violent behavior is manifested. For the powerless, aggression and violence may be the last resort. "Too much losing doesn't build character; it builds frustration and aggression" (Frost & Wilmot, 1978, 62). Power, then, is relational in nature (Emerson, 1962; Frost & Wilmot, 1978) and is central to the choices participants make in conflict situations.

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Emerson (1962) argued that social relations entailed "<u>ties of mutual dependence</u>" (46) between participants. By virtue of this mutual dependence, it becomes essential for each party to be able to control or influence the conduct of the other. These ties of mutual dependence imply that each participant is in a position to facilitate or hinder the other's gratification. Emerson stated that "<u>power resides implicitly in the other's dependency</u>" (46). With respect to the relationship existing between

participants, Apfelbaum (1974) said:

Our understanding of the development of conflict (or of cooperation) cannot be complete without the consideration of (a) the relations existing between the individuals involved (b) their own perceptions of these relationships (c) their characterizations of each other (108).

In the same vein, Deutsch (1973) proposed that the stronger and more salient the friendly bonds between parties are, the more likely it is that the conflict will be resolved cooperatively. Furthermore, Deutsch said "a cooperative process is characterized by open and honest communication of relevant information between participants" (29). Bach and Wyden (1968) concurred with Deutsch's analysis and suggested that through open and honest communication of feelings, parties can effectively cooperate in conflicts. The connection between the relationship dimension of conflict and cooperation is a strong one.

This connection was elucidated by Apfelbaum and Moscovici (1971) who studied the effects of perceived similarity and dissimilarity on conflict behavior. They found that, over time, partners became significantly less and less cooperative (from 55% to 41% positive choices) toward a partner whom they perceived as different. In the case of a similar partner, however, the level of positive choices was high from the start and remained stable throughout the interactions. Furthermore, cooperation in this study was independent of the initial attitudes of

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the respondents. Wilson and Kayatani (1968) found that the level of cooperation is much higher toward an ingroup teammate than toward an outgroup individual. Similarly, Rekosh and Feigenbaum (1966) found that subjects were more cooperative toward peers than toward outsiders (91.3% positive choices when the partner was an undergraduate student versus 56% positive choices when the partner was a graduate student). A study done by Oskamp and Perlman (1965) can be interpreted in terms of similarity if one assumes that friends are perceived as more similar than acquaintances. Oskamp and Perlman also found that cooperation levels were closely linked with social norms.

The content dimension of conflict may be defined as the specific issue(s) under contention. Watzlawick <u>et al</u>. (1967) stated that the report aspect of a message conveys information and is synonymous with the <u>content</u> of the message. The content of a message may be about anything that is communicable. For the purpose of the present study, content refers to the salience, or importance of the conflict.

Situations in which concern for the content is high, that is, the content has salience for the participants, collaboration or competition are likely choices of conflict styles. Deutsch (1973) posited that the more substantially significant the conflict issue was perceived to be, the more difficult it was to resolve.

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When a conflict was viewed as being trivial or unimportant, avoiding the conflict was seen as the appropriate response (Rosenfeld, 1973). Hall (1969) suggested that when the content as well as the relationship were preceived to be important, avoidance was a likely occurrence. However, when a conflict was perceived to be unimportant while the relationship was seen as important, accomodation may have been the appropriate choice.

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When participants believe that the outcome of a conflict is important they are likely to engage in collaborative behaviors if they also believe that agreement is possible. If, however, the stakes are low and agreement is still seen as possible, the parties are likely to accomodate each other. When the stakes are high and agreement is not seen as possible, the parties will be more likely to compete. Avoidance is common when the stakes are low. This is consistent with Filley's (1975) and Hall's (1969) opinions. Hall suggested that individuals will compete or collaborate (depending upon the degree of concern for the relationship) when concern for the content of the conflict is high.

In a study designed to investigate perceptions of appropriate rules for responding to interpersonal conflict in differing conditions of content salience and the intensity of the relationship, Shepherd (1977) found no significant effects for either the importance of the content or the intensity of the relationship. In light of her findings, Shepherd suggested the possibility that people employ individual styles for interacting in conflict that remain relatively stable regardless of the salience of the content or the intensity of the relationship. However, in her study, the manipulations of content and relationship conditions may have been too weak to impact upon the respondents. In any case, Shepherd's study raised questions the present study was designed to investigate.

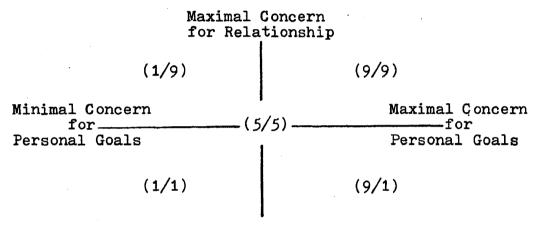
Conflict is a dynamic process in which interpersonal perceptions, cooperative and competitive, and task (content) and situational perceptions are ultimately interrelated (Apfelbaum, 1974). Thus, the power relationship of participants in a conflict is related to the content salience of that encounter. They affect and are affected by each other. This interrelationship between the two dimensions of conflict will, in turn, affect the choices participants make in conflict, and ultimately the outcome of the conflict.

Conflict Styles

The effect of content salience and power relationship dimensions on the behavioral choices people make in conflict are related to the amount of concern an individual feels for one or both of the dimensions. Concern for the relationship and concern for one's personal goals serve

to indicate "action alternatives" which will be perceived as appropriate for dealing with the conflict (Hall, 1969) Based on Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid, and the content and relationship dimensions of conflict, Hall, (1969) devised a five category scheme for classifying interpersonal conflict management behavior.

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Minimal Concern for Relationship

Figure 1

Hall (1969) Conflict Management Survey

Concern for personal goals, or the content of the conflict was scaled from 1 to 9, referring to an increase in importance of the content for the individual. Concern for the relationship was similarly scaled from 1 to 9 indicating low to high concern for the relationship.

Hall identified five conflict styles or action alternatives based on the conceptualization: high concern

for personal goals and low concern for the relationship (9/1), was characterized by a competitive orientation toward the other person. Filley (1975) said this style typified a "win-lose" orientation to conflict. Low concern for personal goals and high concern for the relationship (1/9) is typified by an accomodating or "yield-lose" conflict style in which the individual gives in to the other's wishes. People who have low concern for both personal goals and for the relationship (1/1) usually choose to avoid the conflict in a "lose-leave" style. Moderate concern for personal goals and moderate concern for the relationship (5/5) is characterized by seeking a position which allows both partners to gain something, but does not allow the full satisfaction of either party. This is a compromise style of conflict. Collaborative conflict behavior is typified by a "win-win" perspective in which there is high concern for the relationship and high concern for personal goals (9/9). When partners engage in collaborative styles of conflict both the content and the relationship issues are taken into consideration in order to reach goals which satisfy both parties.

Hall (1969) noted that action alternatives are indicated by one's concern for the relationship and concern for personal goals. In addition, Hall suggested that the importance of the relationship dimension may be rooted in

the nature of conflict dynamics:

Conflict requires a state of interdependency if it is to occur at all. The state of interdependency is...the bedrock of relationships, but also is the spawning ground of conflict (n.p.).

The conflict action alternatives proposed by Hall (1969) are consistent with recent research (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Blake & Mouton, 1970; Thomas & Kilmann, 1974; Kilmann & Thomas, 1975; and Ruble & Thomas, 1976). Kilmann and Thomas (1975) conceptualized the five conflict styles based on a system in which each style is composed of two partially competing elements--concern for self and concern for the other.

high aggressiveness	competition	collaboration					
<u>Concern</u> for Self	compromise						
low aggressiveness	avoiding	accomodation					
	low cooperation	high cooperation					
	Concern for Other						

Figure 2

Kilmann and Thomas (1975) Conflict Styles

A competitive style is typified by high assertiveness (Frost & Wilmot, 1978) or aggressiveness and by being uncooperative. The competitive individual will pursue his goals at the expense of the other. A collaborative style of conflict is both assertive and shows high concern for the other. Parties who collaborate work together to find solution which maximize payoffs for both. Intermediate between assertiveness and cooperation is the compromise style of conflict management. Compromising parties try to partially satisfy their goals through a process of give and take bargaining. Avoidance is both nonassertive and passive. It is characterized by low cooperation and the withdrawal from or refusal to engage in open conflict. Accomodation is characterized by low assertiveness and high cooperation. Accomodating people commonly neglect their own goals in order to satisfy the goals of the other (Frost & Wilmot, 1978).

The area of conflict styles has generated limited research. Kilmann and Thomas (1975) examined the relationship between Jungian personality dimensions and the five conflict management styles as measured by their MODE instrument (Kilmann & Thomas, 1971) and Hall's (1969) Conflict Management Survey. They found that greater reliance on the Jungian "feeling" dimension, as apposed to the "thinking" dimension, was positively correlated with a greater tendency for accomodation toward others.

In a study examining the effects of sex role identity of the respondents, sex of the other, and the affective nature of the relationship, Baxter and Shepherd (1976) did a factor analysis of the five conflict items. The factor analysis failed to indicate that respondents were perceiving five distinct action alternatives. Instead, four factors (accounting for 91.3% of the total variance) emerged--competition, accomodation, avoidance, and collaboration. Apparently, subjects perceived the "give" nature of compromise to be more salient than the "take" nature. As a result, the compromise item leaded with either accomodation or collaboration.

In their discussion of conflict styles, Frost and Wilmot (1978) made several assumptions. They pointed out that people have characteristic or preferred approaches to conflict. They said that people develop these generalized approaches for reasons which are reasonable to them. Frost and Wilmot argued that no one style is automatically better than another and that people's styles undergo change in order to adapt to the demands of new situations. Similarly, Harre and Secord (1973) suggested that people present themselves in conflict situations consistent with what they believe to be an appropriate manner. That is, people have expectations about the conflict; what they will do and what the other will do. Behavior in conflict situations is based on these

expectations. Harre (1974) posited that people consider various alternative actions and examine their consequences by an imaginative rehearsal of the situation. If this is indeed the case and if people do have preferred or generalized conflict styles, then it should follow that behavior in specific conflict situations would be somewhat consistent with the predisposition. The present study was designed to answer the question of whether generalized styles predict how people are likely to behave in specific conflict situations.

The consequences of any conflict encounter are probably a function of the social actions which are chosen. These social actions are themselves influenced by the expectations the individual had for the conflict. The style that an individual chooses for engaging in conflict, then, is often a preferred or generalized style. People choose their styles for reasons which make sense to them and may change their styles to suit differing situations or expectations. The outcome of a conflict encounter is largely determined by expectations and the style choices that are made.

Satisfaction

As a communication outcome, satisfaction has been indirectly linked with the study of conflict (Tajfel, Billig, Bundy & Flament, 1971; Apfelbaum, 1974; Filley, 1975; and Kilmann & Thomas, 1975). Satisfaction has

been defined by Aronson and Carlsmith (1962) and Hecht (1978) who maintained that satisfaction occurs at the expectation fulfillment level and decreases at outcome levels above or below that point. This position essentially maintains that we become dissatisfied with deviations from our expectations. For example, if we have certain expectations for the temperature of a room in which we are working, we become dissatisfied if the temperature deviates much above or below that level of expectation.

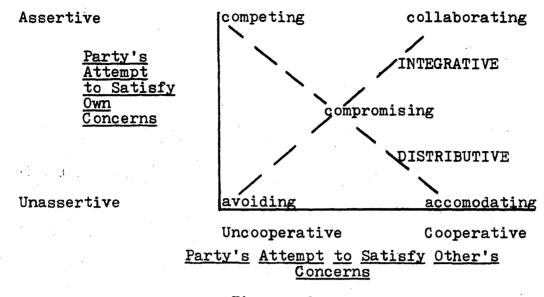
The relationships among content salience, power relationship, conflict styles, and satisfaction have been implied by some theorists. Apfelbaum (1974) held that cooperative choices are satisfying "because if reciprocated by the partner, both participants get mutually satisfying payoffs..." (107). Apfelbaum went on to say that perceived similarity as well as the development of cooperation is one determinant of mutually satisfying exchanges. Similarity, according to Tajfel <u>et al</u>. (1971) appears to be one determinant of cooperation while perceived dissimilarity induces defensiveness and increases the probability of competition. Filley (1975) stated:

... the behavior which parties exhibit in a situation depends upon several variables: (1) each party's beliefs about the possibility of arriving at an agreement, (2) the objective possibility of finding a win-win solution, (3) the relative consequences for each party if

either or both cannot find a satisfactory solution (56-57).

Thomas (1976) noted that the five conflict modes can be organized in terms of the integrative and distributive functions discussed by Walton and McKersie (1965). The integrative dimension represents the implication of a party's behavior with respect to the total satisfaction available for both parties in a conflict. The distributive dimension, on the other hand, represents the portion of satisfaction going to each person. That is to say that the integrative dimension is equal to the total satisfaction that is available to the participants. The distributive dimension represents how the participants choose to divide that satisfaction up. The five conflict modes can be divided up as follows:

Along the distributive or "give-take" dimension, <u>accomodating</u> represents giving and <u>competing</u> represents taking. Along the integrative dimension, <u>collaborating</u> represents an attempt by the participants to contribute to the "size of the satisfaction pie" by seeking alternatives which allow both parties to fully satisfy their concerns. <u>Avoiding</u>, on the other hand, functions to reduce the size of the satisfaction pie by neglecting an issue. With respect to the integrative dimension, the three other conflict modes are intermediate (Kilmann & Thomas, 1975).



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Figure 3

Kilmann and Thomas (1975)

Kilmann and Thomas pointed out that accomodating people have more difficulty in pursuing their own concerns without considering others. This difficulty in pursuing one's own goals may result in fewer payoffs for oneself and consequently, fewer satisfying outcomes. A similar relationship might exist for those people who avoid conflict. As pointed out earlier, collaboration is an attempt by the participants to add to the amount of satisfaction enjoyed by both parties through the discovery or generation of creative alternatives. If one engages in the "win-lose" paradigm of competition, it seems likely that there would be high satisfaction in winning and very low satisfaction in losing. Compromising people, over time, would probably be moderately

satisfied.

The investigation of satisfaction as an outcome of conflict encounters is a prerequisite to a thorough and integrated dexplanation of conflict behavior. Hecht (1978) pointed out that, not only is an outcome such as satisfaction influential in determining future communication behavior, it also provides a theoretical framework for grouping and assessing the importance of various process elements. Satisfaction, then, may be the key to understanding whether people's expectations of a conflict encounter are an accurate predictor of behavior in the encounter. Further, the satisfaction an individual experiences as a result of employing a particular conflict style in an encounter may influence future choices in similar conflict situations.

Statement of Research Questions

The literature discussed here suggests that there is a relationship between generalized conflict styles and specific conflict response to a particular situation. This raises the question.

1. Can specific conflict response to a given conflict situation be predicted based on measures of generalized conflict styles?

If there is a relationship between generalized conflict styles and specific conflict response, how does this affect satisfaction with the specific response?

2. Is a person whose gneralized conflict style is consistent with his specific conflict response more satisfied than if those styles and responses are inconsistent?

The importance of the content salience and power relationship kimensions of communication has been established. The effects of content and relationship have also been studied with respect to conflict behavior.

3. Will there be a difference in the number and type of specific conflict responses in any of the different conditions of content and relationship?

Satisfaction, as an outcome of conflict, may be a key to understanding why people behave as they do. Satisfaction may also predict how people will behave in future conflicts. Since satisfaction is predicted around the level of expectation, does the amount of satisfaction change when the issues or relationship of a conflict

<u>ب</u>

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change?

4. What are the effects of content and relationship dimensions on satisfaction?

Because satisfaction is predicted around expectations and individuals are likely to have expectations about how they will behave in specific conflict situations, this raises the question:

5. What is the relationship between specific conflict response and satisfaction?

CHAPTER II

METHOD

<u>Subjects</u>

One hundred hourly employees of the Champion International Plywood Plant in Bonner, MT. served as respondents for the present study. Respondents were both male and female and were an average age of twenty-five. Many had some college level training. All belonged to a labor union.

Materials

Four separate conflict scenarios were developed reflecting two levels of power relationships (peer; superior) and two levels of content salience (low import; high import). An open-ended question asking subjects to imagine themselves to be a part of the situation described and to report their probable response to the conflict scenario followed the scenarios. The Kilmann-Thomas (1971) MODE instrument was employed to assess generalized conflict styles. The Faces Scale (Kunin, 1955) was employed to measure satisfaction with the specific conflict response to the scenarios.

The Scenarios

The procedure employed in this study required subjects to respond to the scenarios in terms of what they would probably do if they were involved in the situation described. The scenario method has been suggested by Harré (1974) as appropriate for the discovery of perceived rules. Harré noted that the scenario method can give clues as to the kind of social action deemed appropriate or approved of by participants. In the case of the present study, the scenarios were used to discover what courses of action respondents said they would decide upon given the differing conditions of content salience and power relationship.

The conflict scenarios were developed based on interviews conducted with plant employees, observation of a Step II grievance committee meeting, and document analysis.

The interviews were conducted informally and took place in the lunch room of the plywood plant. Employees were interviewed on their lunch breaks or during their coffee breaks. They were interviewed singly, in pairs, or in small groups of up to six people. A total of 15 males and 7 females who work for an hourly wage were interviewed. Additionally, interviews were conducted with two top level management personnel, six first line supervisors, and six union officials, all of whom were male.

Interview questions were aimed specifically at the content of conflict which individuals had experienced or observed. Employees were asked how important they felt those conflicts were. Additional probes determined if

the conflict encounter was with a superior or with a peer Extensive field notes were taken. The following are examples of the kind of question asked:

"How would you describe the working relationships here? Do people get along with each other?"

"Do you get along with your supervosor?" "What kinds of things do people disagree about?" "Are some disagreements more important than others?" "Do people who work together disagree?"

Field notes were analyzed using a qualitative content analysis. The frequency with which particular responses or descriptions of conflict situations occurred was recorded and the most frequently appearing conflicts were chosen for the scenarios.

A second technique, observation, was carried out at a Step II grievance committee meeting. No notes were allowed at the meeting. Third, a document search was conducted reviewing summaries of grievances filed from 26 September 1977 through 1 November 1978. Categories of conflict that emerged as a result of these qualitative techniques were based on the frequency with which particular conflict issues or situations were cited by informants.

Manipulation of the salience of the content dimension was based on interviews, observations and a document search. A manipulation check was included in the form of

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a seven step semantic differential-type scale which asked respondents to rate the content of the conflict according to how important they felt it to be. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted to determine if the manipulation of the salience of content was strong enough. Twenty-five employees were asked to read each of the four scenarios andindicate on a seven step semantic differential-type scale how important they felt the situation described in each of the scenarios was to them. The respondents were also asked to answer an open-ended question which asked how the respondents would change the situation described to make it more or less important. Based on the results of the pilot study the four scenarios were adjusted to make them either more or less salient.

The Open-Ended Question

An open-ended question asking respondents what they would probably do in response to the conflict described in the scenarios was included. This open-ended question was a qualitative technique employed so that subjects' responses would not be restricted by an <u>a priori</u> category system imposed upon them. The open-ended question also served as a validity check on the MODE instrument to determine not only if the generalized conflict styles and specific conflict responses were consistent, but to see if the same categories emerged at all.

The responses to the open-ended questions were coded

by graduate students in an Interpersonal Conflict class at the University of Montana. These two graduate students were trained in qualitative methodologies and worked independently. Disagreements in their assignments of responses to categories were arbitrated by a thrid graduate student who had also received training in conflict and qualitative methodology. This process maximized discovery and avoided imposing preconceived categories on the data. The qualitative coding of responses also served as a cross-check to validate the categories of the MODE instrument.

The MODE Instrument

The MODE instrument, a five-category scheme for classifying interpersonal conflict-handling modes, first introduced by Blake and Mouton (1964), was used to measure the generalized conflict styles of the subjects. The instrument includes five modes of conflict styles, including competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accomodating. The five modes reflect independent dimensions of interpersonal conflict behavior and are based on two separate dimensions of cooperation (attempting to satisfy the other person's concerns) and assertiveness (attempting to satisfy one's own concerns) (Thomas, 1976).

The first version of the instrument was administered to a sample of 35 professionals involved in a management training program. The instrument is forced-choice, and

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preliminary responses indicated that 7 of the 30 pairs of items deviated significantly from a 50-50 split (at p .05). Revised pairs were generated and tested. After these revisions, the instrument was called the "Management of Differences Exercise" or MODE instrument (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974).

Results of a 1977 study by Kilmann and Thomas indicate that the instrument significantly reduced the social desiribility bias for overall population tendencies in comparison to the Blake-Mouton, the Lawrence-Lorsch, and the Hall Conflict Management Survey. The MODE instrument does not claim to guard against personality tendencies to distort self-descriptions. There is a consistent tendency for individuals who describe themselves positively on social desiribility scales (over items or over modes) to rate themselves as more collaborative on the MODE instrument, but the same criticism applied to the other three available instruments.

<u>Reliability and Concurrent Test Validity</u>. Internal consistency co-efficients for the MODE instrument are in the moderate range with the exception of the accomodating mode which is lower. However, these co-efficients compare favorably with the other available instruments. The average alpha co-efficient for the MODE is .60 which is higher than reported reliabilities for the other available instruments.

Internal Consistencies and Test-Retest

Reliabilities for the MODE Instrument

(Kilmann & Thomas, 1977)

Table 1

Modes	Internal Consistency (N=86)	Test-Retest Reliability (N=76)	
Competing	.71	.61	
Collaborating	.65	.63	
Compromising	. 58	.66	
Avoiding	.62	.68	
Accomodating	.43	.62	

The test-retest reliabilities are also moderately high and consistent across modes. These co-efficients also compare favorably with the other available instruments. Correlations with the other instruments provide evidence of convergence.

<u>External Validity</u>. To date, the MODE instrument has only been applied in a few settings other than the research done with managers and graduate students. Consequently, the kind of results do not exist which would give strong evidence of external validity.

The Faces Scale

The Faces Scale, originally a measure of organizational satisfaction (Kunin, 1955) consists of a series of sketched faces which range by degree from positive to

negative expressions. Kunin argued that this nonverbal style of measurement was more effective than verbal measures in that the respondent would not have to translate feelings into words. As an organizational satisfaction measure, the Faces Scale has been found to provide moderate discrimination among the five areas of job satisfaction. It has good convergence with a graphic measurement scale, and wider and more nearly unimodal distributions than three other scales (Locke, Smith, Kendall, Hulin & Miller, 1964).

Validity co-efficients for the Faces Scale range from .64 to .87. Test-retest reliabilities of .60 and .73 have been reported for the Faces Scale when used to measure organizational satisfaction (Roberst & O'Reilly, 1974).

Procedures

The procedures employed in the present study will be described in terms of experimental procedures and statistical procedures.

Experimental Procedures

With the consent of both union and management, the experiment was administered during coffee breaks and lunch breaks in the lunch room of the plywood plant in Bonner, MT. The experiment took place during March 1979. Respondents were given a booklet containing the MODE instrument, one of four conflict scenarios, an open-ended question

asking them to report what they would probably do in response to the scenario, and the Faces Scale. The scenarios were randomly assigned.

After distributing the booklets, the experimentor gave the following standardized verbal instructions:

I am interested in looking at how people respond to disagreement with others. The first part of your booklet contains a series of questions I'd like you to answer as honestly as you can. Next, is a situation I'd like you to ima-That is followed gine yourself to be a part of. by a scale on which you rate how important the situation described is to you. Next, please answer the question that asks you what you would probably do in that situation. Finally, circle the face that best represents how you feel about what you said you would do in the situation. There are no right or wrong answers. The survey will take about fifteen minutes

The survey will take about fifteen minutes to complete. If you have questions bring the booklet up to me and I will answer them. Thank you.

After responding to the MODE instrument, respondents were asked to read the scenarios and rate them for salience. Then they were asked to report what they would probably do if they were involved in the situation described in the scenario. Finally, they were asked to indicate how satisfied they felt with how they responded to the scenarios.

Statistical Procedures

The relationship between generalized conflict styles and reported conflict behavior was analyzed in two ways. A stepwise multiple regression was carried out to determine if the matching categories from the two different

measures of conflict styles accounted for the highest amount of shared variance. Partial multiple regression was conducted to acertain the amount of variance each conflict mode shared with the specific conflict response independent of the other four Kilmann and Thomas modes.

The relationship among generalized conflict modes, specific conflict response and satisfaction was analyzed by an ANOVA. Scores on the Kilmann and Thomas instrument were compared with the scores of 339 practicing managers at middle and upper levels in business and government organizations (Kilmann & Thomas, 1977) to acertain if subjects scored in the high, medium or low ranges on a particular mode. These scores were then compared with the specific conflict response and the satisfaction rating to see if they were consistent and what the level of satisfaction was. Only those subjects whose scores on the Kilmann-Thomas modes were in the high percentiles were considered to score high enough to determine if the mode was consistent with the specific response.

The effect of content and relationship categories on specific conflict response was analyzed descriptively. Chi Square analysis could no be carried out because of small, unequal samples.

The effect of content and relationship categories on satisfaction was analyzed using a two-way ANOVA in a

2 x 2 completely randomized design. The relationship between specific conflict response and satisfaction was analyzed using a one-way ANOVA.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This chapter contains a presentation of results obtained through the analysis of data conscripted from employees at the Champion International Plywood Plant in Bonner, MT. Respondents to the survey completed questionaires which measured their generalized conflict styles using the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument. They received scenarios operationalizing one of four conditions of content salience and power relationship (peer-important; peer-unimportant; superior-important; superior-unimportant). They responded to the scenarios by telling what they would probably do given the situation described. Subjects also reported how important or salient they felt the situation described in the scenarios was. Finally, Subjects indicated how satisfied they felt with their specific conflict responses on the Faces Scale.

Subject Mortality

One hundred surveys were distributed to employees. Of these, only 64 contained complete data suitable for analysis. Seventy-nine of the surveys were coded by graduate students to determine categories of specific conflict responses. After these were coded it was discovered that only 64 of these 79 surveys contained complete information.

This high percentage of subject mortality may have

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been related to the treatment. That is, in the conditions of low salience it was noted that subjects did not fill out the space provided for their response to the openended question regarding what they would probably do. It is possible that subjects intended a blank space to be interpreted as no response. It is also possible that no response could be associated with avoidance. However, any interpretation would be based only on supposition so the surveys were not useable.

Another reason for the high mortality may be that the surveys were rather lengthy and questions were printed on both sides of the paper in an ill-advised attempt to make the booklets appear less ponderous to the subjects. As a result, some of the subjects evidently did not see the last page of the Kilmann-Thomas instrument and did not fill out answers to those questions. Other respondents did not see the questions on the last page and did not circle a face on the Faces Scale.

Subject mortality, then, was probably related to the treatment and the fact that respondents did not see the questions on the reverse sides of the survey pages. Generalized Conflict Styles

The means for each of the Kilmann-Thomas generalized conflict styles were computed for all of the 64 cases. The means are as follows: competition $(\overline{X}=3.98)$;

collaboration (\overline{X} =5.89); compromise (\overline{X} =5.95); avoidance (\overline{X} =6.63; and accomodation (\overline{X} =7.25). It appears that respondents were more likely to either avoid or accomodate in their generalized conflict behavior. Coding of Specific Conflict Responses

Since the responses to the scenarios were openended and required a written response in the subjects' own words, the coding of the specific conflict responses was accomplished qualitatively by two graduate students who had received training in conflict and qualitative methodologies. Content analysis of the responses was carried out by two coders working independently. The coders also disregarded the scenarios. Categories of specific conflict responses were developed for the 79 surveys for which there were answers to the response question. The percentage of agreement between coders for these 79 surveys was 68%.

Those surveys on which the coders did not agree were given to a third graduate student who had also been trained in qualitative methods and conflict. This individual was instructed to read the responses, read the descriptions of the categories which the first two coders had developed, and then make a decision as to which category the response best fit into.

For example, one of the responses was coded as both collaborative and compromising. The response said:

I would inform the other person of the problem and try to reach an understanding with him. If this fails I will go thru our supervisor to get the problem resolved.

Based on the categories of the first two coders, the response itself, and the description of what the coders meant by their categories, the third coder placed the above response into the collaborative category.

Six final categories of specific conflict responses resulted when all of the categories were integrated. Judgements about which categories would be collapsed were based on the frequency of agreement between the coders and the descriptions that were provided for what was meant by the categories.

The following is a list of the categories developed by the first coder. This list includes the descriptions of the the categories are meant to mean.

Avoidance-This indicates a choice not to deal with the issue.

Assertive-This is indicated by the worker standing up for himself in a firm manner.

Collaborative-This indicates an openness to the actions of the other and a willingness to co-operate.

Accomodating-This person doesn't make waves.

Competitive-This person is oriented by the need not to be low-power.

Aggressive-This person makes forceful and often competitive assertions.

Compromise-This person gives something for something.

Confrontative-This is the opposite of avoidance. The worker brings the issue out into the open and "lays it on the table".

The categories developed by the second coder are as follows:

Avoidance-This is non-assertive, passive and does not openly pursue his own concerns or those of the other person. This person goes limp, sidesteps, withdraws and changes the topic.

Assertive-This is getting your point across but taking into account the other person's feelings, opinions, etc. Open striving for goals, expressive, but caring for the other's opinion.

Collaborative-Two people work creatively to find new solutions that will maximize goals for both (likes to assert but will cooperate with others).

Accomodating-Nonassertive and cooperative-neglects one's own concerns in order to satisfy the concerns of other. Obeying when preferring not to, yielding when one disagrees.

Competitive-A lesser degree of aggressiveness-attempts to gain power by direct confrontation (aggressive people may simply "walk on" the person but never confront them) tries to win an argument without adjusting to the other's goals and_desires.

Aggressive-Does not take the other person's feelings into account. Actively works to promote one's own goals or opinions at the other's expense. Trying to win against other parties, destroy them in some way or actively work against them.

Compromise-When disagreements occur each will give a little, looking for middle position that will be hopefully satisfactory to both.

Task-oriented-"I'll play whatever role (aggressive, assertive, accomodating, etc.) but let's get the job done--let's find a solution soon."

The six final categories that emerged from integrating the above categories were: Assertive, Aggressive, Collaborative, Competitive, Avoidance and Accomodating.

An example of how the categories were integrated is provided by examining the category of task-oriented, used only by the second coder. Only one response was listed in that category. When the third coder was attempting to resolve the disagreements between the first two coders, that particular response was categorized as collaborative The confrontative category was coupled with another category in some cases by the first coder. One example is a case in which the confrontative category was couple with the assertive category. The second coder rated the same response as assertive. The third coder also rated this same response as assertive. Only three responses were coded as compromising by either of the two coders. In each case, the response ended up being coded in another category so compromise was not a category used in the final coding of specific conflict responses.

Manipulation Check

A pilot study was conducted to determine if the manipulations for the importance of the content salience dimension of the conflict scenarios were strong enough. Results of the pilot indicated that some changes were needed and the scenarios were revised accordingly (see Chapter II).

A manipulation check was also included in the surveys to determine how important subjects thought the situations described in the scenarios were. Respondents were asked to indicate the salience of the scenario on a seven step semantic differential-type scale. Results indicated that the scenarios intended to be important were perceived of as important. Unimportant scenarios were perceived of as unimportant. The means for salience were on either end of the 7 step scale.

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Mean Scores for Salience with Importance and Relationship

	Peer	Superior
Important	4.45	4.43
Unimportant	3.75	3.36

A two-way ANOVA was computed to investigate the relationships of salience with importance and relationship. The results of the ANOVA were significant (F=10.32; df=1, 63; p).05).

		ole 3			
_ANOVA for S	alience with	Importa	nce and	Relationship	
	SS	df	MS	F	
Relationship	.14	1	.14	.03	
Importance	47.77	1	47.77	10.32*	
Relationship Importance	x 6.38	1	6.38	1.38	
<u>Residual</u>	277.59	63	4.63		
*p) .05					

According to Table 3, the results of the two-way ANOVA indicate that the relationship dimension apparently had no effect on whether the conflict scenarios were perceived of as being important or having salience for the respondents.

Experimental Results

A stepwise mulitple regression was computed for each of the six specific conflict responses and the five Kilmann-Thomas modes to determine the predicitve value of the Kilmann-Thomas modes for specific conflict situations.

Competition correlated significantly with the Kilmann-Thomas modes of competition (F=4.80; df=1,62; p).05) and accomodation (F=3.45; df=2,61; p).05). Competition did not correlate significantly with any other of the Kilmann-Thomas conflict modes.

Aggression correlated significantly with the Kilmann-Thomas modes of collaboration (F=5.63; df=2,62; p).05) and compromise (F=3.33; df=2,62; p).05). No other correlations yielded significant results.

Accomodation correlated significantly with the Kilmann-Thomas modes of competition (F=6.60; df=1,62; p > .05) accomodation (F=3.7; df=3,60; p > .05) collaboration (F=4.96; df=2,61; p > .05) and avoidance (F=2.90; df=4,59; p > .05).

None of the specific conflict responses yielded

any significant correlations with the Kilmann-Thomas modes

using stepwise multiple regression.

Table 4

Stepwise of Competition with	Multiple Regression Kilmann-Thomas Con	
Predictive Rank	Competit	
of Generalized Conflict Modes	R ²	F
Competition	.07	4.80*
Accomodation	.10	3.45*
Compromise	.11	2.42
Avoidance	.11	1.86
Collaboration		.002
* \ 05		·

*p).05

Table 5

	ttiple Regressi		
of Aggression with Ki		المستجيب بالشاقي ويستعدهم والمتراج والتنازي والمتكرم والمتكافي والمتكرم والمتكافي والمتك والمتكافي والمت	
Predictive Rank	Aggression		
of Generalized Conflict Modes	R ²	F	
Collaboration	.08	5.63*	
Compromise	.09	3 • 33*	
Competition	.10	2.24	
Avoidance	.10	1.71	
Accomodation	.12	1.67	
*p) .05			

Table 6

	ltiple Regressi	
of Accomodation with K	ilmann-Thomas C	onflict Modes
Predictive Rank	Accomod	ation
of Generalized		
Conflict Modes	R ²	F
Competition	.09	6.60*
Collaboration	.14	4.96*
Accomodation	.15	3.75*
Avoidance	- 16	2.89
Compromise	.16	2.29
*p \.05		

	tiple Regressi	on	
of Avoidance with Kilm			
Predictive Rank of Generalized	Avoidan	<u>ce</u>	
Conflict Modes	R ²	F	
Collaboration	.02	1.24	
Avoidance	.03	1.12	
Accomodation	.04	.81	
Compromise	.04	.64	
Competition	.00	.00	· ·

Table 7

Table 8

Stepwise Mult	iple Regression	nfligt Modes	
Rredictive Rank	ss with Kilmann-Thomas Conflict Modes Assertiveness		
of Generalized Conflict Modes	R ²	F	
Avoidance	.02	1.71	
Accomodation	.04	1.43	
Compromise	.05	1.03	
Competition	.05	.82	
Collaboration	.06	.80	

Table 9

Stepwise Multip of Collaboration with Kilm			
Predictive Rank	Collaboration		
of Generalized <u>Conflict Modes</u>	R ²	F	
Collaboration	.02	1.32	
Competition	.03	.87	
Compromise	.03	• 59	
Accomodation	.03	. 44	
Avoidance	.03	•37	

Partial multiple regressions were computed to acertain the amount of variance each conflict mode shared with each specific conflict response independent of the other

modes.

The specific response category of aggression correlated significantly with collaboration (F=5.63; df= 1,62; p).05). Aggression did not correlate significantly with any of the other conflict modes.

Competition correlated significantly with only one of the Kilmann-Thomas modes; competition (F=4.80; df= 1,62;p >.05). All other correlations were non-significant.

Accomodation was significantly correlated with two Kilmann-Thomas modes; competition (F=6.60; df=1,62; p).05) and accomodation (F=4.49; df=1,62; p).05).

The partial multiple regressions for collaboration, assertiveness and avoidance did not yield any significant correlations.

Partial Multiple R Generalized	egression for Con Competit	
Conflict Mode	R ²	 포
Competition	.07	4.79*
Collaboration	.00	.29
Compromise	.01	•75
Avoidance	.00	.12
Accomodation	.04	3.15

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Table 11

	Regression for		
Generalized	Aggres	sion	
Conflict <u>Mode</u>	R ²	<u> </u>	
Competition	.00	.28	
Collaboration	.08	5.63*	
Compromise	.03	2.03	
Avoidance	.00	.01	
Accomodation	.01	.81	
*p <b>&gt;.</b> 05			

# Table 12

Partial Multipl Generalized	e Regression for Accor	<u>Accomodation</u> nodation	
Conflict Mode	R ²	F	
Competition	.09	6.60*	
Collaboration	.02	1.37	
Compromise	.00	.22	
Avoidance	.01	,91	
Accomodation	.06	4.49*	
*p <b>&gt;</b> .05			

# Table 13

Partial Multiple	Regression for	Avoidance	
Generalized	Avoidar	nce	
Conflict Mode	R ²	F	
Competition	.00	• 34	
Collaboration	.01	1.24	
Compromise	.00	.12	
Avoidance	.01	1.02	
Accomodation	.00	.13	

Table 14

Partial Multiple Generalized	e Regression for Assertiv	
Conflict Mode	R ²	 F
Competition	.02	1.17
Collaboration	.00	•39
Compromise	.01	.71
Avoidance	.02	1.71
Accomodation	.00	.21

	Ta	b]	e	1	5
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Partial Multiple	Regression for C	ollaboration	
Generalized	Collabo	ration	
Conflict <u>Mode</u>	R ²	<u> </u>	
Competition	.01	•74	
Collaboration	.02	1.32	
Compromise	.00	.06	
Avoidance	.00	.03	
Accomodation	.00	.11	

Thus, question number one was investigated by computing stepwise and partial multiple regressions. Both statistical techniques were employed to determine the amount of variance the Kilmann-Thomas generalized conflict modes shared with the specific conflict responses, together and independently.

The second research question asked if individuals whose generalized conflict style was consistent with specific conflict response would be more satisfied than if those styles were inconsistent. This question was analyzed by computing a one-way ANOVA comparing the satisfaction scores of consistent cases with the satisfaction scores of inconsistent cases. Consistency of the Kilmann-Thomas modes with the specific conflict response was determined by using the Kilmann-Thomas model (1977) in which the scores are graphed in relation to the scores of 339 practicing managers at middle and upper levels of business and government organizations.

No significant effects were found for consistency of conflict style and response for satisfaction. The results were slightly short of the level of significance required for rejection of the null hypothesis (obtained p > .06). The scores did occur in the expected direction, however. The mean satisfaction rating for those individuals who were consistent in generalized conflict style and specific conflict response was 5.33 on a 7 step semantic differential-type scale. The mean satisfaction ratings for those individuals whose responses were inconsistent was 3.47.

Table 16

ANOVA for Con	nsistency of	Response	with	Satisfaction
	SS	df	MS	<b>F</b>
Main Effects	10.64	1	10.64	3.52
Residual	187.36	62	3.02	

The third research question asked if there would be a difference in the number and type of specific conflict

responses in any of the differing conditions of content salience and power relationship. Because of the small, unequal sample sizes and nominal data, no inferential statistic was appropriate to analyze these data. Therefore, the question was analyzed descriptively. While no definitive results were obtained, certain trends might be inferred from the data.

Among subjects who gave an aggressive response, 5 of the 8 cases appeared in the two important conditions. Those subjects whose responses were categorized as assertive tended to fall into the two important categories Twelve of the 16 assertive cases appeared in the also. important conditions. It would appear that people are more likely to be either assertive or aggressive when the conflict has salience for them. The same trend appeared for people who responded competitively. Seven of 9 cases responded competitively when the conflict was important. Among subjects who gave an avoiding response, 6 of 11 cases occurred in the peer-unimportant condition It appeared that people were most likely to avoid when the conflict was with a co-worker and was not important. Five of 5 people chose to collaborate in an important conflict with a superior. Twelve of 15 subjects chose to accomodate with a superior regradless of importance.

Table	17
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Scores of				lespons	е	
	<u>Scena</u>		<u>ndition</u>			
Scenario		Spe	cific Co	onflict	Respon	se
Condition	Agg.	Ass.	Cmp.	Col.	Acc.	Avd.
peer- important (n=17)	3	7	4	0	1	2
p <b>eer-</b> unimportant (n=12	0	3	1	0	2	6
superior- important (n-22)	2	5	3	5	5	2
superior- unimportant (n=13)	3	1	1	0	7	1
·····	<u>ŏ</u>	16	9	5	<u>15</u>	11

Question number four asked what the effect of the content salience and power relationship dimensions were on satisfaction with specific conflict response. This question was investigated statistically by computing a two-way ANOVA. The analysis yielded no significant difference in satisfaction with response regardless of the importance of the scenario or the relationship (peer; superior) with the other person in the conflict scenario.

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$\mathbf{Ta}$	D	Т	e	1	О

ANOVA for Content and Relationship with Satisfaction					
	SS	df	MS	F	
Relationship	5.40	1	5.40	1.76	
Importance	8.88	1	8.88	2.90	
Relationship X Importance	.41	1	.41	.13	
<u>Residual</u>	183.88	60	3.06		

A one-way ANOVA was computed to answer the fifth question which asked if there was a relationship between

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specific conflict response and satisfaction. Satisfaction was compared with each of the six specific conflict response categories. Again, the ANOVA failed to yield a significant effect.

Гa	Ъ	1	е	19

ANOVA	for	Specific	Conflict	Response	and	Satisfaction

	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects	30.32	· 5	6.06	2.098
Residual	167.68	58	2.89	

The following is a table of the mean scores of satisfaction for each of the specific conflict response categories. The table indicates that those individuals who chose to either accomodate or avoid were slightly higher in satisfaction than in any other category.

### Table 20

Mean Satisfaction Sco	ores of Specific	<u>Response Categories</u>
Specific Conflict <u>Response</u>	N	Mean
Collaboration	5	4.80
Assertiveness	16	4.25
Aggressiveness	8	3.50
Competition	9	3.67
Accomodation	15	5.33
Avoidance	11	5.64

## Summary

This study was designed to investigate the relationships among generalized conflict styles, specific conflict responses to four differing conditions of content salience

and power relationships in conflict, and satisfaction. Statistical analyses of the data yielded significant correlations for the specific conflict response of competition with the Kilmann-Thomas modes of competition and accomodation. The specific response of accomodation also correlated significantly with the modes of accomodation and competition. The specific response aggression correlated significantly with collaboration and compromise.

Partial multiple regressions were computed to acertain the amount of variance each mode shared with each specific conflict response independently. The Kilmann-Thomas modes of competition, collaboration and accomodation all correlated significantly with accomodation. Compromise and collaboration correlated significantly with the specific responses of aggression and competition. Accomodation correlated significantly with competition.

With the exception of the manipulation of salience for the conflict scenarios, no other significant effects were found. It should be noted, however, that the results for question two occurred in the expected direction. The F-ration for main effects barely missed the level set for alpha and the results were significant at the .06 level.

## CHAPTER IV

## DISCUSSION

# Test of Research Questions

This chapter will provide a discussion of the results of the analysis of data. Limitations and implications for further research will be discussed. Additionally, applications of the results of the present study, as they apply to organizational consulting will be discussed.

The stepwise multiple regressions computed for each of the six specific conflict responses and the five Kilmann-Thomas modes yielded some significant results. The specific response of competition correlated significantly with the generalized modes of competition and accomodation. The specific response aggression was significantly correlated with the generalized modes of collaboration and compromise. The specific response of accomodation correlated significantly with the generalized modes of competition, collaboration, accomodation and avoidance. None of the other specific response categories yielded any significant correlations with the Kilmann-Thomas modes.

Of the significant correlations, the correlation of the response competition with the mode comeptition; the response accomodation with the modes of collaboration and avoidance; and the response of aggression with the mode

collaboration seem to make conceptual sense. It would be expected that competition would predict competitive behavior in specific conflict situations. Accomodation would also be expected to correlate with itself. an indication that a generalized style of accomodation would predict accomodating behavior. The fact that accomodation correlated significantly with the modes of collaboration and avoidance also makes sense given the conceptualization the Kilmann and Thomas (1977) presented. It is possible that the cooperative dimension of accomodation was perceived by some subjects as salient, causing accomodation to correlate with collaboration. Similarly, the low assertiveness dimension of accomodation may have resulted in the high correlation with avoidance ( see Chpater one, figure 2).

With respect to the significant correlation between aggression and the mode collaboration, it would seen that the aggressive dimension of collaboration might account for that correlation (see figure 2). The significant correlation between aggression and avoidance might result from the tendency of people who generally avoid conflict to respond aggressively in specific situations. This aggressive response may be the result of what Bach and Wyden (1968) call "gunnysacking" or avoiding conflicts. Eventually, the frustration and unreleased tension of avoiding causes the gunnysack to burst, resulting in aggressive behavior.

The significant correlations between comeptition and accomodation, however, do not at first seem to make conceptual sense. This correlation may be a statistical artifact. All 64 subjects were included in each regression. Since the mean competition score was closest to the mean of all Kilmann-Thomas scores, competition may have been chosen as the best predictor of accomodation because it was the mean category. When there is no correlation between two variables, the mean of X is chosen as the best predictor of Y. A conceptual explanation might be found by examining the sequential nature of the relationship between accomodation and competition. Again, Bach and Wyden's (1968) concept of gunnysacking applies. If an indicidual accomodates all of the time, eventually he will become frustrated enough that he will attempt to satisfy his own concerns -- even at the expense of the other as is the case in the win-lose paradigm of competition.

The significant correlation between the specific response of comeptition and the generalized mode of accomodation makes conceptual sense if one assumes that comeptition and accomodation are sequential in their relationship. In addition, accomodating people may be more flexible in their behaviors and may chose a wide variety of behaviors in specific conflict situations.

Accomodation was the most preferred generalized conflict style, thus there may have been a tendency, whether

statistical in origin or because accomodators tend to be more flexible, for accomodation to correlate with competition.

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The fact that no other significant results were obtained may be attributed to a number of causes. First, it is possible that the Kilmann-Thomas modes do not have strong predictive power for behavior in specific conflict situations. Second, because the specific conflict response categories did not match the Kilmann-Thomas categories, the fact that there was little or no shared variance may be attirbuted to a difference in the definitions and semantic sets between the coders and the Kilmann-Thomas categories.

The results of the partial multiple regressions revealed that the specific response of aggression correlated significantly with the generalized mode of collaboration. The specific response of comeptition correlated significantly with the mode of competition. The specific response of accomodation correlated significantly with itself and with competition. The partial multiple regressions were computed to determine the amount of variance each specific response category shared with each of the Kilmann-Thomas modes independent of the other modes. Again, all of these correlations appear to make conceptual sense with the exception of the correlation of the response of accomodation with the mode comeptition. This correlation may

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be a statistical artifact based on the fact that the Kilmann-Thomas mode of competition was closest to the mean of all five modes. The fact that the specific conflict response competiton was <u>not</u> significantly correlated with the mode accomodation when partial multiple regressions were computed would tend to support the theory that the significant correlation between the mode competition and the response accomodation is a statistical artifact.

The results of the partial multiple regressions indicated that in the case of predicitng specific conflict responses, the Kilmann-Thomas appears to have little predictive power. Again, this may be attributed to the Kilmann-Thomas or to the qualitative categories of specific conflict response.

The second research question asked if individuals whose generalized conflict style was consistent with specific conflict response were more satisfied than if those styles and responses were inconsistent. The oneway ANOVA computed to investigate this question failed to yield significant results. However, it should be noted that the results fell just short of the level set for alpha. The scores did occur in the expected direction and the obtained level of significance was .06.

Individuals whose generalized conflict styles and

specific conflict responses were consistent numbered over one-third of total subjects. From this finding it may be inferred that people may have preferred or characteristic conflict styles that they employ not only in generalized ways but in specific conflict situations as well. Further, although this finding was not significant, it may indicate that the Kilmann-Thomas instrument may have greater predicitive power than was previously indicated by the stepwise and partial multiple regressions. If the relationship were truly random, only about 20% of the subjects would show consistency. The regression analysis of the separate styles may have masked the overall consistency of one-third of the subjects. These five separate correlations may have chopped the sample apart to the point at which the overall impact was diminished below the level of significance. However, it cannot be ignored that two-thirds of the subjects did respond in an inconsistent manner and the effect was not significant at the .05 level. Such inferences are supposition only and are not statistically grounded.

The third research question asked if there would be a difference in the number and type of specific responses in any of the differing conditions of content and relationship. This question was analyzed descriptively. Since the sample size was small and unequal and the data were nominal, no inferential statistic was appropriate to

analyze the data.

Among subjects who gave an aggressive response to the scenarios, 5 of 8, or 62% of these cases appeared in one of the two conditions in which the conflict had salience. Individuals may be more likely to resort to aggressive behavior when the situation has salience for them. The small number of aggressive responses may indicate that aggression is not a common response to conflicts of the nature described in the scenarios. Also, since aggressive behavior is often viewed as socially unacceptable or inappropriate, and conflict behavior is governed by norms, (Likert & Likert, 1976) perhaps aggression is resorted to only in more extreme cases.

Twice as many subjects gave responses that were categorized as assertive than as aggressive. Of these 16 cases, 12 appeared in response to the important scenarios. Seventy-five percent of all assertive responses were given when the conflict was important. Assertiveness may be a more socially approved behavior than aggressiveness, but like aggressiveness, individuals seem more likely to assert themselves in important than in unimportant situations. Individuals also appeared slightly more likely to assert themselves with peers than with superiors.

Subejcts who gave competitive responses were also more likely to behave competitively in the important conflict scenario conditions. Seven of 9, or 77% of all

those who responded competitively, did so in the two improtant scenario conditions. It may be that competition is seen as being "worth the effort" only when the stakes are high.

There were only five collaborative responses and all of these, or 100% appeared in the superior-important con-The fact that no other collaborative responses dition. appeared in any other conditions may be an artifact due to the small sample size. However, it does seem likely that even if the sample size were larger, more people would be likely to expend the energy necessary to collaborate when the conflict was important and with a superior (Hall, 1969). The fact that so few people responded in a collaborative manner may be attributed to the fact that the subjects in this study are members of an active labor union that can be relied on to act on behalf of any employee in a labor-related conflict. Thus, the union would be likely to serve the function of collaborator in the stead of the employee.

Of those subjects who gave an avoiding response, 6 of 11, or 55% of all cases appeared in the peer-important condition. The other responses were spread fairly evenly across the other conditions. It seem reasonable to assume that those people who would choose to avoid would also choose to do so with a peer, possibly a

co-worker or a friend, over a conflict that was not important. Avoidance in such a situation would seem to be the most expedient way to deal with the conflict because the situation would not warrant a more elaborate response.

Fifteen subjects chose to accomodate the other in their responses to the conflict scenarios. Twelve of these, or 80% chose to accomodate superiors in either of the important or unimportant. Workers appeared far more likely to accomodate a superior than a peer. Also, they seemed more likely to accomodate when the stakes were low.

In summary, the high numbers of individuals who chose to either avoid or accomodate may be a result of the desire to just do the job with as few confrontations as possible. As one of the subjects volunteered, since everyone has to work at the plywood plant for one reason or another (mostly for the money) people try to get along, make the work as pleasant as as possible and not make waves.

The trends indicated by the data revealed that people were more likely to be confrontative; that is aggressive assertive or competitive, when the conflict was important to them. This is consistent with previous research (Hall, 1969; Filley, 1975; and Shepherd, 1977). People were more likely to avoid engaging in conflict with their co-workers or peers, particularly when the conflict was unimportant

(Hall, 1969; Filley, 1975). When engaged in a conflict with a superior, workers were much more likely to accomodate than in any other condition, regardless of the importance of the conflict. It may be possible that the immdeiate response to the conflict might be accomodation but a later response might be to file a grievance. This would seem likely to occur if the conflict was related to the job and was important (e.g., if the individual was going to be suspended without pay for a few days as was the case in the superior-important scenario). Additionally, the sequential relationship between accomodation and competition might serve to explain the high numbers of grievances that are filed.

The effects of content salience and power relationship of the conflict scenarios on satisfaction with specific conflict response was analyzed by computing a twoway ANOVA. No significant differences in the subjects' ratings of satisfaction with their specific responses were found. The importance variable had slightly more effect on satisfaction than the relationship variable, but this effect did not approach the level set for significance. From these results it seems clear that satisfaction with specific conflict response is simply not a function of the content salience or power relationship dimensions of the conflict scenarios.

The fifth question asked what the relationship was

between specific conflict response and satisfaction with that response. Again the ANOVA failed to yield a significant effect. The mean satisfaction ratings for accomodation ( $\bar{X}$ =5.33) and avoidance ( $\bar{X}$ =5.64) were slightly higher than any of the other response categories, although they were not significantly higher. Since accomodation and avoidance were the preferred responses on the Kilmann-Thomas instrument, this slight tendency toward more satisfaction might indicate that the norm system in the plywood plant might offer more rewards for avoiding or accomodating, making these behaviors more satisfying. The mean satisfaction ratings were lowest for aggressiveness  $(\bar{X}=3.50)$  and competition  $(\bar{X}=3.67)$  indicating that the rewards for these behaviors may be fewer. The Social Exchange theorist (Homans, 1961) might suggest that since more energy is needed to behave in an aggressive or competitive manner, these behaviors are more costly and less rewarding than either accomodation or avoidance.

## Limitations and Implications

Several limitations of this study should be noted. First, high subject mortality resulted in a small sample size with unequal numbers of subjects in each of the four conditions of content salience and power relationship. In the case of the first question, inferential statistics were appropriate and stepwise and partial multiple regressions were computed. The other questions were

analyzed by computing one and two-way ANOVAs. Because of small sample size the third question had to be analyzed descriptively, and small sample size may have led to low levels of significance in some of the conditions for all of the questions. In other comparisons between categories the failure to reject the null hypothesis may have been brought about by combining qualitative and quantitative techniques. Although the coders were familiar with the Kilmann-Thomas (a situation which may have biased them either for or against the instruments category scheme) the categories they developed for the specific conflict responses did not exactly match those of the Kilmann-Thomas instrument. This difference in category schemes may have been the reason why the correlations were so low.

The significant correlation between the Kilmann-Thomas generalized mode, competition and the specific response accomodation may have been a statistical artifact caused by competition being the closest to the mean of all Kilmann-Thomas categories. It is interesting to note, however, that competition was not chosen as the best predictor in all cases. This finding is not clear and further research should focus on investigating this further.

One major limitation of the present study was that all of the data were from self-report instruments. While

the Kilmann-Thomas instrument is supposed to control for social desireability bias, the open-ended question and the Faces Scale do not make such claims. As a consequence the data are suspect. It is not known whether people told the truth in the answers or if other, extraneous variables such as home conflicts may have affected answers. The study did not measure actual conflict behavior, but only how people thought they might behave in a given conflict situation.

The homogeneity of the group of subjects was never explored. While most subjects were young there were differing levels of education and both males and females served as subjects. Since the behavior of homogenous groups has some tendency to cluster, the possiblity that the subject group was not homogenous may be an explanation for the inconsistent results.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques may be viewed as either a strength or a limitation of this study. The scenarios were developed based on interviews with employees. Some cross checks were made to validate the data, a document search was conducted and a grievance committee meeting was observed. However, all of the interviews were conducted by one researcher and this may have opened the door to researcher bias.

The qualitative technique of having subjects respond to an open-ended question was employed in order to avoid

imposing a preconceived category system on the data. The open-ended question was designed to maximize discovery by allowing subjects to express their reactions to the conflict in their own words and by allowing coders to develop categories based on the data and not on an <u>a</u> <u>priori</u> system of categories.

The failure to reject the null hypotheses in many of the questions suggests a need for further research using both a qualitative and a quantitative approach to examine the predictive power of the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument. It is possible that people employ individual styles for behaving in conflict situations and that these styles remain relatively stable regardless of the salience of the content or the power relationship with the other.

#### Applied Implications

If an organizational consultant were requested to intervene in the hypothetical conflicts described in the scenarios, and had obtained the same results as are presented in this study, what might be some of the uses for the results and the options for intervention? This section will explore some of the possibilities for intervention given the results of this study.

The Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument has utility for the consultant in that it provides information about the generalized conflict styles that the employees think they would use. Results of the Kilmann-Thomas indicated that

more employees tended to either accomodate or avoid in their conflicts. Further data obtained from the openended question indicated that in specific conflict situations, accomodation and avoidance were also preferred and that assertiveness was also preferred. The Faces Scale, which measured satisfaction with specific conflict response indicated that subjects felt slightly more satisfied when they accomodated or avoided than when they behaved in any other way. Employees tended to be least satisfied when they manifested aggressive or competitive behavior and they tended to be moderately satisfied when they were assertive.

Although the above results were not significant, they could be useful to the consultant because they reveal patterns and tendencies toward behavior that occur in the plywood plant. Before acting on the information the consultant would be well advised to gather more data. However, for the sake of applying these results, the following discussion will assume that the consultant has gathered more data and these are consistent with the present results.

Assuming the focal issue of intervention would be conflict management, one option for intervention would be Catalytic intervention (Blake & Mouton, 1976). Catalytic intervention would be appropriate to this organizational problem because it incorporates principles of process consultation (Schein, 1969) in which the agent attempts

to understand and work within the frame of reference of the employees. The open-ended question provided valuable information about the frame of reference some of the workers operate in when they respond to conflicts on the job. These responses could be used to frame interview questions to further explore how people think they react to conflict. In addition, the specific conflict responses could be used to stimulate discussion in small groups designed to help workers explore their conflict behavior themselves. Such discussion could center around why people respond they way they do and how the group members feel about their own and others' responses.

Catalytic intervention attempts to bring about desired change by the agent working within the status quo and collaborating with the workers to clarify what their felt need are for change. The philosophy of process consultation would involve the employees and management personnel in the diagnosis and intervention to such a degree that the termination of the consulting relationstip would be facilitated. Members of the organization would be able to continue to intervene without the consultant's constant aid. Discussion groups such as the one suggested above, are just one technique by which the consultant helps the members of the organization to help themselves.

If job satisfaction were an issue, the results of the

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Faces Scale might be useful because they indicate that certain behaviors tend to be more satisfying than others in conflict situations. The consultant might intervene by calling representatives of both the management and the employees together (including employees who are active in the union and those who are not so active) to feed this information about conflict behavior and satisfaction back to them. During the meeting discussion could take place between the groups and within each group separately. Discussion might center on questions such as: If employees really do feel more satisfied when they accomodate a superior, why are hundreds or grievances filed each year? How can we change our conflict behavior so that we feel more satisfied with how we act? How can we change our conflict behavior so that it is more productive for us?

The groups might wish to separately clarify what their goals for change are focusing on concrete issues of conflict. The specific responses to the scenarios would be useful in this process of clarification because they reveal what people say they are likely to do in specific situations. Given this qualitative measure of behavior, the group of employees could more clearly understand how their peers responded and this could stimulate discussion concerning how they might respond differently and more productively. The responses to the scenarios would serve as a stimulus to get employees to examine their behavior

and the behavior of others. Such an examination could produce many ideas for change.

The catalytic consultant could help the groups explore areas of conflict and improve understanding of goals and behaviors. Working with the groups would help them to integrate their thinking, overcome some barriers to communication between and within their groups and perhaps even develop a plan for improving conflict management behavior throughout the organization.

The consultant may wish to help the employees and management personnel design a series of workshops or training sessions. Such sessions could focus on more prescriptive types of intervention. Using the conflict scenarios provided by the present stduy and the specific responses to those scenarios, participants could role play the situations and try out different response styles. Such training session could involve the teaching of theories and principles of conflict management. Using the specific responses to illustrate different response styles might be one application of the present study. Application of theories through role playing and other experiental learning techniques could help employees and managers internalize the theories. Role playing and application of different behaviors and solutions to typical working problems should be followed by evaluation of the solutions.

The Kilmann-Thomas measure has utility for the

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consultant because it measure generalized conflict styles. It provides a general picture of how people in the organization think they would behave in conflict situations. The results of the open-ended questions would be useful because it allows the consultant to focus on how people view their own responses. That is, it allows the consultant to experience the frame of reference the employee has for conflict. This information provides the basis for the employees to learn about their own behavior so that through discussion and workshops they can begin to intervene in their own organizational problems without the aid of the consultant.

The applications discussed here are just a few of the ways in which the results of the present study might be applied to the organization. Because the results were inconclusive more data should be conscripted before any intervention would be adviseable. They applications described here are hypothetical only.

#### Summary

This study was conducted to determine the predictive power of the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument for specific conflict responses in avrying conditions of content salience and power relationships. Specific responses to the conflict scenarios were analyzed to see if subjects were more or less satisfied in differing conditions of content and relationship and if they were more or less satisfied

when their generalized styles and specific responses were consistent, and if they were more or less satisfied when they gave certain specific responses.

The procedure employed in this study required subjects to complete the Kilmann-Thomas MODE instrument. then each participant received one of four randomly assigned conflict scenarios describing a conflict between the subjects and either a peer or a superior. The scenarios also operationalized two different levels of content salience (important; unimportant). Subjects indicated how important they felt the scenarios were on a seven step semantic differential-type scale ranging from important to unimportant. Subjects then responded to an open-ended question which asked them to think how they would be likely to react and what they would probably do it they were involved in the situation. Finally, the subjects indicated how satisfied they were with their response to the open-ended question on the Faces Scale.

Stepwise multiple regressions yielded significant correlations for the response of competition with the modes of competition and accomodation. The response of aggression was correlated significantly with the modes of collaboration and compromise. The response accomodation correalted significantly with the modes of compeition, collaboration, accomodation and avoidance. None of the other specific response categories yielded any

other significant correlations.

Partial multiple regressions yielded significant correlations for competition with the mode competition. The response of accomodation was significantly correlated with the modes of accomodation and competition.

No other significant results were found but it should be noted that when subjects' generalized conflict styles were consistent with their specific conflict responses they tended to be more satisfied than when those styles and responses were inconsistent (obtained p > .06).

The manipulations for content salience of the conflict scenarios were significant. Subjects perceived important conflicts as important and unimportant conflicts as unimportant.

Several limitations of this study were discussed. A discussion of the implications for further research and applied implications for the organizational consultant were included.

It is hoped that the results of this study, recognizing its limitations, can offere some insights into the study of interpersonal conflict styles, responses to conflict in generalized and specific conditions, and the effects conflict behavior has on satisfaction.

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#### APPENDICES

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### APPENDIX A

## FOUR CONFLICT SCENARIOS

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## Low Import-Peer Scenario

In the area you work there is one person who likes to "kid around". Most of the time no one really cares because it helps to relieve the boredom of the job. Now this person has chosen you to direct some horseplay at. Yesterday he caused you to be late from your break.

#### High Import-Peer Scenario

Imagine that you are working at a job which requires all those who are doing the work to "pull their wood" or share the work equally. When each person does his share of the work the job goes smoothly. If one person doesn't pull his share of the job, the others have to work that much harder.

There is one person on your work crew who is not doing his share of the work. This is not just an occasional thing, but keeps happening. Because of the way the job is set up, you end up doing most of the work that other person is not doing, and your supervisor is hassling you about the quality of the work.

### Low Import-Superior Scenario

You are an employee who belongs to the union. You are usually pretty good about getting back from your break on time, but once in a while you come back a little late. Today as you were coming back from your break your supervisor stopped you and mentioned that you were late.

### High Import-Superior Scenario

You are an employee who, for various personal reasons, has had to miss work several times lately. One or two times you were unable to call in to work an hour before your shift began. Now your supervisor comes up to you and tells you that you are going to be suspended for a couple of days with out pay.

### APPENDIX B

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## TABLE OF RAW DATA

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# Table of Raw Data

		Kilı		nn-T odes	Specific Conflict Response				
subject	competing	collaborating	compromising	avoiding	accomodating	scenario condition	salience	satisfaction	
1	3	6	3	7	11	PI	7	3	competing
2	6	8	2	5	9	PI	4	6	avoiding
3	7	9	7	3	4	SI	7	3	competing
5	5	7	5	7	65	PI	4	4	assertive
8	6	<b>6</b> 5	3	9	6	PUI	5	4	assertive
9	4	3	9	5	9	PI	1	4	avoiding
10	0	7	9	7	7	SUI	4	4	accomodating
'a <b>11</b>	8	5	8	5	4.	PUI	5	5	competing
12	5	10	4	7	4	SI	1	7	accomodating
13	2	3	5	11	9	SI	7	6	collaborating
14	7	6	4	7	6	PI -	7	1	aggressive
15	8	6	2	11	3	SUI	3	7	accomodating
16	2	9	9	4	6	SI	7	7	assertive
17	0	8	5	8	9	SI	1	7	avoiding
18	2	3	7	7	11	SI	2	7	accomodating
19	6	8	6	5	5	SI	6	65	collaborating
20	1	7	6	9	7	PUI	5	6	accomodating
21	1	8	9	6	6	SI	1	7	assertive

# Table of Raw Data Continued

				-				 	
23	8	4	5	8	5	SI	6	5	collaborating
25	4	6	11	4	5	SUI	1	7	competing
26	3	8	4	6	9	PUI	1	7	avoiding
27	7	4	8	6	5	PUI	4	5	avoiding
28	5	4	6	8	7	SUI	1	7	avoiding
29	3	6	7	8	6	PUI	2	3	assertive
30	1	5	4	10	10	SI	2	6	accomodating
31	1	5	5	9	10	SUI	1	5	aggressive
32	1	3	7	10	9	PUI	2	4	avoiding
33	7	8	5	3	7	SI	7	1	assertive
34	2	4	9	10	5	SI	7	3	collaborating
35	5	7	6	6	6	SI	7	1	aggressive
36	3	6	4	8	9	PI	4	4	assertive
37	6	6	4	8	6	PI	6	4	competing
38	2	5	8	9	5	PUI	1	7	avoiding
39	0	7.	9	8	6	PI	7	6	assertive
40	6	2	7	10	5	SI	4	7	competing
41	1	8	5	8	8	SUI	1	4	accomodating
42	3	2	9	9	7	SUI	7	4	accomodating
44	0	7	6	; <b>9</b>	8	SUI	7	7	accomodating
45	7	2	3	9	9	SI	7	4	assertive
46	6	4	6	8	6	SI	6	5	accomodating
47	2	6	9	7	6	SUI	5	6	aggressive
48	5	5	4	7	9	PUI	1	5	avoiding
50	1	9	5	11	4	PI	6	2	aggressive
51	8	8	8	3	3	PI	7	7	assertive

# Table of Raw Data Continued

				-					
53	9	5	5	3	8	SUI	5	4	assertive
54	1	5	9	8	7	PI	7	3	assertive
56	5	11	2	7	5	PI	7	7	competing
57	7	1	6	11	5	SI	6	3	assertive
59	5	2	8	12	4	SI	2	4	accomodating
60	2	4	6	8	9	SI	1	7	avoiding
61	11	7	4	8	0	SI	6	4	aggressive
62	5	5	11	6	3	PI	6	5	competing
64	1	6	8	7	8	PI	3	2	accomodating
65	2	8	6	8	6	SUI	3	5	accomodating
66	4	9	5	6	6	PI	6	4	assertive
67	2	4	9	8	7	SUI	6	5	accomodating
.68	2	5	10	9	4	SUI	4	5	aggressive
69	9	5	6	7	3	PUI	4	4	assertive
72	2	- 8	9	4	7	PI	5	3	assertive
73	9	8	5	5	3	PI	6	4	aggressive
74	4	7	4	6	8	SI	7	4	collaborating
75	8	7	5	6	4	SI	7	1	competing
76	4	4	9	9	4	PUI	5	3	avoiding
77	0	8	4	9	9	PUI	1	7	accomodating
*+1	hia	tah		inal	ngog	only	those	64	subjects who provide

*this table includes only those 64 subjects who provided complete data

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