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14 *Conflict management and economic meditation*



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CHAPTER 1

1.1. THE BASIS OF EFFICIENT COMMUNICATION: SELF-UNDERSTANDING

1.1.1. THE DEFINITION AND LEVELS OF SELF-UNDERSTANDING

In the everyday use of the term, self-understanding refers to knowledge about ourselves; it means that we know our abilities, competencies, desires, goals. It means that we are aware of the positive and negative factors in our personality; we know our deficiencies. Palfy K. Defines self-understanding as the individual's "review of the content, limits and abilities of their own character, insight into the motivations and drives behind their behavior, and the ability to correctly assess their role and impact in human relationships" (Palfy K, 1989: 15). The definition of the *self* has a similar meaning: it contains knowledge about the self, knowledge in relation to the self, including our corporeal self-image, social roles, desires and values. The representation of the self, or the reflection about the self has three important components. The *actual self* contains those elements that describe us; the *ideal self* describes elements that we would like to possess; and the *desired self* consists of characteristic features that we deem valuable, and would like to have. We consider the actual self the real one, while the ideal and desired selves are possibilities. The distance between real and possible self-images, and the assessment of their difference is a key factor in self-confidence. If the distance is too little, the ideal self does not motivate sufficiently; in these cases, the self-confidence of the individual is too positive without real grounds. A big distance between the real and possible self-images makes the individual think that their goals are unattainable, and therefore their self-confidence will be lower.

We distinguish between three features of the stability of self-understanding:

1. *Self-consistent*: seeking information that fits in the image we already have about ourselves, and rejecting information that does not fit with it.
2. *The motif of self-enhancement*: seeking to maintain the most positive self-assessment possible
3. *Desire for precision*: seeking accurate information about ourselves.

In conclusion, our self-image is a dynamic and complex representation. Its content is the dynamic balance of the subjective image (what I consider myself to be), the attributed image (what others see me to be), and the reflected image (Tokos 2005).

The levels of self-understanding

Self-understanding may have different levels. The first, superficial level is the level of our knowledge about our abilities and competences. This refers to our knowledge about our intelligence, will power, interests, and our tolerance for tension and failure.

The second level refers to a deeper historical level, and concerns experiences that impacted us. What were these experiences, and how do they impact the current goals, emotions, intentions and behaviors of the individual?

The third level concerns the social aspects of self-understanding. To what degree can we meet the expectations of different social roles and situations? How do others perceive us, and to what degree does this match the image we have of ourselves? (Pallfy K. 1989).

Self-understanding and personal development are two faces of the same coin, since the goal of personal development is the enhancement of the self-understanding of healthy individuals, the assistance of people in the understanding of themselves, and the development of emotional and communication skills (Buda 1994, 1998).

1.1.2. MODELS OF SELF-UNDERSTANDING

Johari window

The Johari window was developed by Joseph Luft and Harrington Ingham in the 1950s. The name is derived from the combination of the authors' first names. The model shows what we or others perceive of our personality (Figure 1.).

Figure 1. Johari window

		Self	
		Known to self	Unknown to self
Others	Known to others	Open self	Blind self
	Unknown to others	Hidden self	Unknown self

The *open self* refers to that area which the individual is actually aware of, and is willing to share with others. This area is known to self and others alike. Here belong those characteristics, behaviors and feelings that we are aware of, and which are easily visible by others, too (for example name, age, gender, physical appearance etc.).

The *hidden self* refers to that area which the individual knows about him or herself, but is unwilling to share with others. They hide these characteristics intentionally from others. Here belong those characteristics, feelings and behaviors that we are fully aware of, but we hide from others for some reason (for example private life).

The *blind self* refers to things that others know about us, but we are unaware of them. Here belong those characteristics, feelings and behaviors that others perceive, but we are unaware of.

The *unknown self* refers to those characteristics, feelings and behaviors that neither us, nor others are aware of. The unknown self cannot be consciously controlled or changed.

The borders of these four areas are quite flexible. Their change might depend on the situation, the nature of the relationship between two persons, the individual's prior positive or negative experiences, and his or her personality type. These factors determine the ratio of the area that the four quarters may have in the individual. The goal of personal development is to increase the area of the open self, which also means the decrease of the areas of the blind and hidden selves (Rudas 2001).

Robert Barlai (2001) examined the interfaces of the Johari window with social efficiency. His conclusions include that the size of the areas of the Johari window correlate to the personal efficiency of the individual in his or her social relationships. Depending on whether the areas of the Johari window are big or small; and whether personal efficiency is high or low, he distinguished between twelve combinations of personality (*Table 1*).

They are characterized by the following:

1. *Self-confident*: The kind of person whose blind self area is big, and whose efficiency in social relationships is high. This type is less aware of their strengths and weaknesses.
2. *Perceives with difficulty*: Has low efficiency and a big blind self area. This type of person has trouble perceiving the non-verbal clues he or she receives from others.
3. *Perceives easily*: Has small blind self area, and high efficiency. Perceives quickly and efficiently the non-verbal clues that come from others.
4. *Excessively cautious*: Has small blind self area, and low efficiency. Knows his or her strengths and weaknesses well, but spends too much time dwelling on their weaknesses.
5. *Rather keeps quiet*: Has a big hidden, closed self, and high efficiency. This type of person does not share their own views with others even when their opinion differs from others. Instead of voicing their opinion, they listen to that of others, and make up their mind on the basis of their own judgement.
6. *Introvert*: Has a big hidden, closed area, and low efficiency. Others may only guess what this type of person expects from them.
7. *Honest*: Has small hidden, closed self area, and high efficiency. They are open and honest, always give feedback to others, sometimes shamelessly voicing their views and showing their emotions.
8. *Egocentric*: Has small hidden, closed area, and low efficiency. This type tends to speak too much about themselves, and do not pay attention to the needs or views of others.
9. *Task-oriented*: Has high efficiency and a small open self. This type cares only about their own performance, and reduces communication with others to the task in question.
10. *Closed*: Has low efficiency and small open area. Typically, they do not pay attention to others, do not give feedback.
11. *Superficial*: Has a big open self area, and low efficiency. This type has superficial human relationships.
12. *Open*: Has a big open area and high efficiency. This type is ready to voice their opinions, but gives feedback tactfully and carefully (Barlai).

Feedback

Feedback has a very important role for the workings of the Johari window. Feedback is the process of communicating to others our feelings and perceptions about their behavior. In other words, by giving feedback we let others know what we think and feel about their behavior. The goal of feedback is to provide data and facts about behavior and its impact on others (Barlai – Torma).

The rules of giving feedback are the following, according to Nemeth (2009):

1. Feedback should be asked, not imposed on others. It is the receiver's task to make use of feedback. The receiver asks for feedback, and judges its content, and usefulness.
2. Feedback benefits the receiver. It is given to help the receiver, but at the same time they cannot be forced to change.
3. Feedback is merely the perception of its giver. It is neither good nor bad. It merely expresses the perceptions of the giver in any moment.
4. Since the feedback is about the experiences and perceptions of the giver, both parties might want to consult others as to how they see or experience the same situation.
5. Feedback is more efficient if it tightly follows the situation to which it refers.
6. The understanding and use of feedback may be more efficient if feedback is specific, rather than general.
7. Feedback will be received less defensively if it is descriptive, rather than judgmental.
8. Feedback should be useful and substantial. It should be important enough to motivate the receiver, and it should target behavior that can be realized.
9. Feedback should be acceptable for the partner. Rude criticism leads to offense and rejection.

The reception of feedback may vary independent of whether the giver fulfills the requirements above. Negative reception is more likely if feedback destroys or attacks the receiver's self-image, or falls far from the receiver's self-expectations. This dissonance causes tensions, which might alter behavior. The receiver might opt between two strategies for decreasing dissonance: they might become defensive, or may face the problem.

Table 1: Receivers' attitudes to feedback (Nemeth 2009)

Defensive behavior	Facing the problem
Denial, rejection	Acceptance, introspection
explanation	Empathy, reflection
Projection, substitution	Data collection, expression of emotions
Quick acceptance, withdrawal	Seeking help, restlessness
Power-based attack	Listening, sharing the problem
Joke, cynicism	Positive assessment behavior
Rationalization, theorizing	Seeking group relationships

1.2. TYPES OF COMMUNICATIVE SITUATIONS [1]

Communicative situations are extremely varied. They differ from one another in countless details. For example, a conversation proceeds differently when only two persons are participating in it rather than more. Communicative situations differ on the basis of the relationship between interlocutors, the formality of the message and the context, or the level of intimacy between participants. Communicative situations are also characterized by the degree participants can shape them: is there a chance to flip to roles of speaker and listener, for example? It is also important to consider whether certain interventions are spontaneous or require previous planning and logical-linguistic preparation. These factors distinguish between communicative situation types, which we will review here.

1.2.1 INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Experts say that we do not only communicate with our environment, but ourselves, too. Intrapersonal communication refers to the cognition of information, their understanding, collection, storage, and procession. This goes on before other communicative acts, and even during them. Its *cognitive* component includes information and the applied signs system (language); its *affective* component includes attitudes and self-perception; and finally, the *operative* component includes paying attention and speaking. The weight, importance and primacy of intrapersonal communication is manifest in the fact that all other communicative situations are based on it; we keep talking to ourselves even when talking to others, not only when we are alone, but also in crowded social situations. In these cases, the self is in touch with a kind of generalized self.

This might sound like intrapersonal communication takes place independent of the environment; however, that is not quite the case. The environment keeps impacting us, and affects our communication. If we are not brooding over ourselves or wondering, the social environment might also impact us.

Intrapersonal communication is often related to internal task solving. It happens together with the stimulation of the brain's speech centers, and often the subtle but measurable workings of muscles that enable articulation. It has been also observed that while focusing on solving challenging tasks, intrapersonal communication may increasingly resemble loud speech, and becomes mumbling (Kenesei 1995: 259).

[1] Based on Balázs –
Tomesz – Varga 2013.

1.2.2 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

In interpersonal communication, two or more persons create a relationship. Besides the transmission of information, participants might have other goals too, for example problem solving, conflict resolution, information acquisition (control or confirmation) about ourselves or others, time structuring, or the fulfillment of everyday social or psychological needs.

Broadly speaking, interpersonal communication includes every communicative situation in which interlocutors are present in space and time. [2]

The most characteristic type of direct communication, narrowly speaking, is **dyadic** (two-person) interpersonal communication. This is ubiquitous in our everyday lives; it frames our conversations with family members, acquaintances or even strangers. Intrapersonal communication is unbelievably diverse and rich, depending on the myriad kinds of relationships that may exist between people, and the infinite variation of situations. There is a world of difference, for example, between the conversation between friends, enemies, lovers, acquaintances, strangers, parents and children, teacher and student, boss and employee, doctor and patient, attorney and client, etc. Still, we may say that these conversations are still less formal, and there is an important degree of intimacy. In most cases, namely, the roles of speaker and listener are interchangeable.

Considering the factors of the situation we may see that it has two dynamic components: the sender, and the receiver. We may also see how they work in a communicative situation, how they make communication work, and what is the nature of their roles.

1.2.3. GROUP COMMUNICATION

Another important type of communication is group communication. This normally includes several persons and a so-called primary group situation where every participant has the same or similar chance to shape the communicative process, and the exchange of roles is free.

The communicating person belongs to smaller or bigger groups simultaneously. There are groups into which we are born; others we join throughout our life. If the group was established with a view of organized action, we may call it a *formally* organized group (school class, workplace team); if it was established spontaneously, we may call it *informal* (friends, passengers on a train). The nature of the group impacts the members, and its members impact the nature of the group. Formal and informal social networks offer different types of patterns, and determine the characteristics of conformity.

[2] Modern technology may question this, particularly presence in space and time (cell phones, video conferences, Skype etc.)

Griffin distinguishes between three types of relationships (2001: 123):

- Relationships of *friendship* are organized voluntarily, open, mutual, and independent of other types of relationships; they are based on shared values and interests.
- *Romantic* relationships differ from others in two factors: sexuality and emotional intimacy, and exclusiveness.
- The third type refers to *kinship* relationships. Here common ancestry and relatedness, common past experiences, and a sense of mutual responsibilities play an important role.

Bela Buda (2002) complements these types by looser relationships:

- Relationships of *acquaintances*: These are established as a result of transactions and interactions, which allow the participants to know the socially most salient characteristics of the other.
- *Fleeting* relations: These emerge in everyday life all the time, and are characterized by short transactions in a socially sanctioned manner.

These types, however, are only the informal types of our everyday relationships. We also belong to groups where we have formal relationships with members. It is the groups of school and work that impact us most directly, since they are immediate and unavoidable parts of our daily existence. These are not a result of individual choice, but of organizational regulations and interactive impositions (Budai).

We may also belong to various groups on the basis of sociological facts (age, gender, occupation, ethnicity, residence), and we communicate accordingly. What is more, these communities often exist and operate precisely as a result of communication. Every community – and the situations, functions and relationships in it – prescribes normative forms of behavior for its members. As a consequence, we must assume several roles at the same time, and we must conform to different expectations. Violating these may lead to confrontation with our environment.

1.2.4. PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

During public communication, institutions, organizations or social groups – or individuals who represent them – participate in a communicative situation which is usually public, thematic, and is accessible to strangers. They are normally broadcast by media, or take place with the involvement of big groups or crowds (Buda-Sarkozy 2001).

Public life is the scene of people's social interactions. The narratives that take place in these scenes are collectively called public discourse. Public discourse is the scene of discourses where a human community aims to build the material and symbolic institutions, tools, and processes of verbal interaction for its own workings. Public discourse is therefore a basic element of social communication (Bogar 2007). It is in public discourse that public opinion is formed and emerges.

Public communication studies the transformations of public opinion, and aims to identify its unique communicative patterns. It explores the appearance and resolution of conflicts in the public sphere, and analyzes the characteristic areas of public communication: political, campaign and crisis communication. It studies the linguistic and communicative changes that occur as a result of globalization, and the broader structures that characterize the public sphere.

The in-depth study of public communication and its characteristics enables that the workings of the public sphere may be better understood. The state, the legal system, the public sphere, the Church, the educational institutions, and the cultural sphere have different communicative functions, which have diverse explanations and social embeddedness.

1.2.5. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Intercultural communication is the science of communication between the different *cultures* of peoples, or the *subcultures* formed by groups of individuals. The main directions of international culture research include monocultural (the culture of a given nation), intercultural (the comparison of two or more cultures), multicultural (the encounter and impact of several cultures) approaches.

The basic definition of intercultural communication, and culture itself is a tremendously complex issue, which is why it has no single definition in spite of hundreds of propositions. Geert Hofstede's famous *onion model* likens culture to the layers of the onion. Inside the model, we see basic cultural values (good vs. evil, honesty, morality). The second layer consists of rites and rituals, these are relatively "functionless" and yet important for any given culture, such as courtship or greetings. The third layer belongs to heroes, those real or imagined persons who serve as models for behavior in a culture. Finally, the outer layers refer to symbols: words with a special meaning, gestures, objects, whose meanings are only known to those who share the same culture.

Another famous model is Goldman's *iceberg* model of culture. The model proposes that 90% of culture is invisible, just like 90% of an iceberg, and cannot be grasped by science. Goldman thinks that the "visible" parts of culture may be rationally studied, observed, researched (like language, customs, behavior, history). The remaining 90% of culture, which has a great emotional impact for the individual, is "invisible" (such as values, presuppositions, thought patterns and socialization practices) until they are compared to another culture.

According to Edward T. Hall, people make sense of communicative messages on the basis of knowledge shared by all, which includes cultural attitudes, values, and thoughts. Based on this commonly shared information base, the context and conditions of the message often complement the message, and help its interpretation. Hall argues that individuals of the same culture use shared tools (like body language and vocals) to make their message obvious.

1.2.6. MASS COMMUNICATION

The media of mass communication (print media, radio, television, Internet) are channels that broadcast messages. Communication becomes institutionalized through the media. Unlike other institutions, it does not use communication; it is communication itself (Szegfu 1999: 87). It aims to be universal: to serve every individual, collective, and organizational need. In technical terms, it is periodical, where some kind of technological tool transmits the same message to a large group of people at the same time.

1.3. COMMUNICATIVE STYLES ^[1]

The effectiveness of communication does not only depend on how we choose our words; body language, pitch, volume and intonations are also part of the message, and they all have to be aligned in order for the message to be congruous. A condition of successful communication, is, therefore, that we are able to communicate assertively in a given situation, that is, with the right level of confidence.

Science aims to explain human behavior by establishing various models. There are several models in the social sciences that communication science too uses for its own research purposes. The categorization and identification of communicative styles has similar origins. Borrowing from the field of psychology, we may distinguish three communicative styles: assertive, submissive, and aggressive.

The following is a general definition:

- *Aggressive*: attacking, offensive type
- *Assertive*: midway between submissive and aggressive; has the right confidence and self-concept
- *Submissive*: yielding behavior

In the following, we will see these communicative styles in greater detail

1.3.1 ASSERTIVE COMMUNICATION

Self-confidence is the basic building block of social competences. *Assertive communication* depends most of all on the self-confidence and empathy of the sender. The option to choose means that we may express our needs, articulate our opinions and feelings, and we may be sure that no one can force us into anything we do not want to (Bishop 2008: 7).

[1] Based on Balázs–
Tomesz–Varga 2013.

Assertiveness means that we are able to stand up for our rights without offending anyone, or making them anxious. No matter how well we choose our words, and how assertive our verbal message is, if it is not followed by the right facial expression or body language, our communication will be ineffective. An assertive sender has a positive self-image, and aims to close the communication on a positive note with their interlocutor.

An assertive attitude enables the equality of relationships, and makes the individual protect their interests and freely express their thoughts and feelings.

Assertive behavior is a chosen form of communication. There are, however, occasions or situations when it is not the best form of communication. Sometimes, passive or aggressive forms of communication are acceptable too.

Assertive behavior means the ability to express our feelings and thoughts without injury while standing up for our rights. It may be best captured through self-confident behavior.

It has three basic components:

- The ability to express our feelings.
- The ability to express presuppositions and opinions.
- The ability to stand up for our rights and not allow others to exploit us.

Assertive people are not inflexible or ashamed; they are able to show their emotions, often directly, without behaving aggressively or submissively.

Assertiveness – just like self-confidence – may be developed and improved. The increase of self-confidence typically means two things. Overcoming withdrawal, shyness, closeness, that is *submissiveness*; and the controlling of impulsiveness and *aggressiveness*. We must first determine where we are in a given continuum when we should be self-confident.

Do we withdraw shyly? Or fight for ourselves? Assertiveness requires empathy and courage. These qualities help us find the golden mean. Empathy helps us consider the interests and situations of others. Courage helps us take more risks. It helps us articulate our opinion independently, and stand up for our interests.

The assertive person is not passive, but not aggressive, either. Assertiveness is the happy medium. In verbal communication, assertiveness manifests itself in brief, concise messages; however, it may also manifest itself in tailoring our message to our interlocutor, and avoiding formulations with which the receiver might be unfamiliar.

During assertive communication, non-verbal clues have a great importance. Non-verbal clues may validate or invalidate the message; it is therefore important that our communication is congruent. Our facial expressions, gestures and body language should be in harmony with what we are saying. It is important to keep eye contact with our interlocutor, while staring might come off as aggressive, which is why we should halt eye contact every now and then. The movements of the head (such as nodding) may be signs of confirmation or disagreement. Movement reveals confidence, gestures should not be theatrical, eye contact should be direct and normal, expressing interest (Bishop 2008: 63).

Assertive rights

In order to harmonize body language and verbal communication, let us see what rights assertive people have [2]:

- We have the right to protect our self-respect and dignity.
- We have the right to say no without feeling guilty.
- We have the right to ask for more information.
- We have the right to clarify any uncertainties with regards to our assertive rights.
- We have the right to do anything as long as our action does not bother, limit or prejudice other persons.
- We have the right to be mistaken.
- We have the right to change our decisions.
- We have the right to our decisions lacking logic and rationality.
- We have the right to say “I don’t know.”
- We have the right to judge our own behavior, thoughts and feelings, and take responsibility for them.

[2] The list of assertive rights was developed by Smith in his book titled *When I say no, I feel guilty*. This list is based on the original list (Smith 1975), and some amendments (Nemeth 2002, 2009).

- We have the right not to give explanations for our behavior, if there is no prior agreement or common interest.
- We have the right to shape our relationship with others as we wish to, with tools we choose.
- We have the right to decide whether we take responsibility for other people's problems or not.
- We have the right not to feel dependent on the benignness of our surroundings.
- We have the right to tell others we do not understand what they are trying to communicate to us, if they are trying to communicate their intentions, problems, feelings and thoughts only through signs that they expect us to decipher.
- We have the right to be by ourselves.
- All these rights also belong to our interlocutor.

Knowing these rights, we might be more confident about the right communicative options in certain situations, and may better assert our thoughts and feelings.

Next, we will review the extreme ends of communicative styles in less detail.

1.3.2. AGGRESSIVE COMMUNICATION

This behavior comes from the fact that the people participating in the interaction do not have the same rights; in other words, one of them has more rights to express their thoughts, feelings and interests (Nemeth 2002: 74). It is characterized by aggressiveness, strong gestures, and high volume. It may have overt or covert forms in communication; either way, the interlocutor feels oppressed. Sometimes this kind of behavior might be advantageous, particularly with submissive types of people. However, this kind of communication may be successful only in its intent; at the level of emotions and relationships, it is destructive.

Aggressive body language

The body language of an aggressive communicator is tight, tense, straight; their movements are intermittent, impatient. Their facial expression is strict, while they may often have an uncertain smile. Eye contact is mostly intensive, and they nod often out of their impatience. The volume is either threateningly low or too high.

1.3.3. SUBMISSIVE COMMUNICATION

Submissive behavior is characterized by shyness, uncertainty; its gestures are withdrawn, the person's voice is low. The communicator feels there is an unequal relationship between them and their interlocutor, and therefore does not dare to voice opinions, ask questions, or reject queries. As they communicate little, their environment has trouble figuring out what they are thinking about. Submissive persons often feel themselves oppressed, and this might result in impulsive outbreaks.

Submissive body language

A passive, low self-confident person has a broken posture, and they are characterized by folded legs and arms. Passivity is reflected by the face as well: the facial expression of the communicator is too defensive, their vision is meek, and they show obvious signs of stress, tension, or worry. They often have difficulty keeping eye contact, they have downcast eyes, but the opposite may be also true: constant, inflexible eye contact, as a passive person hangs on to every word of their interlocutor (Bishop 2008: 63). Their gestures are insecure, they might be fidgeting with their clothes, their hair, or they may be holding on to an object (for example, a pen).

EXERCISES:

1. Match the concepts with their definitions (3 points). *Alább a helyes válaszokat adom meg.*

- *Aggressive*: attacking, offensive type
- *Assertive*: midway between submissive and aggressive; has the right confidence and self-concept
- *Submissive*: yielding behavior.

2. Highlight the basic features of assertiveness (3 points). *Félkövérrel szedve helyes válaszok.*

The ability to express our feelings.

The ability to express presuppositions and opinions.

The ability to stand up for our rights, and not allow others to bother or exploit us.

The ability to yield to the will of others.

The ability to openly express our aggressiveness.

The ability to endure frustrations.

CHAPTER 2

2.1. VERBAL COMMUNICATION [1]

Communication has several channels: verbal channels transmit linguistic signs (words), and non-verbal channels transmit messages that follow verbal communication. Verbal communication has a determining factor in human communication. Other forms of communication, such as non-verbal communication, function mostly as hidden communicative channels. However, these are sites of the same sign exchange as what happens during verbal communication.

Verbal communication is the most effective tool of expressing human relationships, transmitting and acquiring knowledge, and thinking. Among all communicative channels, verbal communication is the most complex sign system. Linguistic signs are able to express not only thoughts but emotions and moods as well. For this reason, in verbal communication it is very important to articulate with precision; it is important to organize well what we have to say.

In non-verbal communication, we may rely on several kinds of channels to transmit a message: visual, chemical, tactile, etc. In verbal communication, we distinguish between acoustic (speech) and visual (writing) codes. Writing – much like speaking – relies on the sign system of language, but it is wrapped differently. Today's writings try to harmonize with the signs of acoustic channels: they signify words and phrases, and sometimes – with a few exceptions – they also follow the structure of acoustic signs: this is what sound – letter correspondence serves. Through various typographical methods (punctuation, underlining, cutting) they also signify vocal elements (intonation, pause, stress). Visualness and the image of writing (in handwriting, the shaping of letters, in print font, the typographies of titles, the positioning of images and graphs) all have important communicative functions.

Although vocal and graphic signs are considered to be non-verbal signs, this categorization is debatable. Because while non-verbal signs are independent of verbal ones, vocal and graphic signs “sit on” verbal them, and cannot exist independently (Varga H. 2001: 27).

	Acoustic	Visual
Segmental elements	speech	writing
Supra segmental elements	vocalness	image of writing

[1] Based on Balázs–
Tomesz–Varga 2013.

2.1.1. LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

Speech is the direct form of verbal communication. Speech is a unique human activity; it is the tool of transmitting images and thoughts. Speech is subjective, since it is produced by the individual in a certain situation, with a certain goal. Its tool is language. Language is a system of signs, and it is objective.

As a shared system of signs, language enables mutual understanding, and harmonizes our thoughts and actions. It is the basis of human culture. Language enables humans to record and access knowledge and experiences. It is through language that we get to know the world, and our personality emerges.

Language is not only a tool for communication between people; it is also a tool for intrapersonal communication, which we use for the representation of the world.

Language and thought are inseparable. Language use enables conceptual thinking, that is, to think through the symbols of the relationships between things and events. Its basic element, the word, is inseparable from the basic element of thought, which is concept.

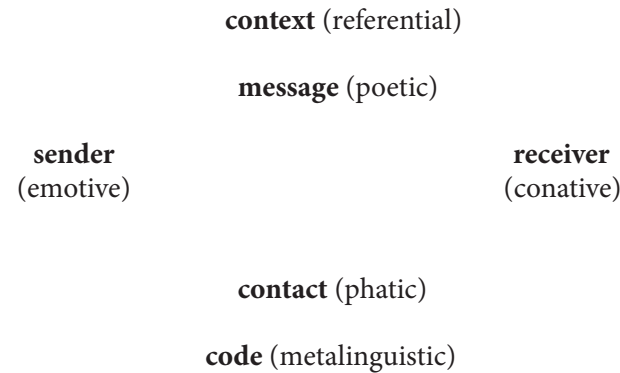
“Language – as a link between internal and external worlds – plays an important role for the development of culture and individuals. For individuals, it enables us to symbolize, collect and display our experiences; for groups and societies, it enables them to transmit accumulated knowledge to future generations. Language as a symbolic sign system is a basic constituent of social life, of social and cultural development” (Forgacs 2003: 137).

Because thought and language are inseparable, language is also very closely connected with culture. We use concepts to symbolically articulate the world around us, while the creation of concepts is dependent on language. Our conceptualization and categorizations of concepts mirrors the ways we see the world, and we perceive our environment through our conceptual categories. This is the basis of what we call linguistic relativism, a theory created by Sapir and Whorf. From their perspective, one's mother tongue determines thoughts and worldviews.

2.1.2 DIRECT COMMUNICATION

According to research, only a portion of communication happens through verbal channels; more than half of it takes place through non-verbal ones. Verbal communication is primarily used for the transmission of information, and the signs of non-verbal communication primarily serve the expression of emotions, of the relationship between interlocutors, or the substitution of verbal communication. As escorts of verbal communication, they mostly complement, nuance, or modify the message; sometimes, they can change the message, too. We already mentioned that the authenticity of our communication depends on congruence. Our communication will be congruent if verbal and non-verbal communication harmonize with metacommunication. If there is some kind of discrepancy between these, our communication will be incongruent.

Roman Jakobson's model shows verbal communication and the structure of the message in the following way. The sender sends a message to the receiver. In order for the successful decoding of the message, sender and receiver must share the same sign system to at least some degree. Context is also important, because the receiver can only make sense of the message in relation to its environment. There is a need for contact between sender and receiver, which may be based on physical forces (seeing, hearing), and also psychological connectedness. This enables them to enter in a communicative situation, and stay in it (Jakobson 1969: 234).



Jacobson ordered a linguistic function to each one of these elements. We distinguish between three primary, and three secondary functions.

Primary functions:

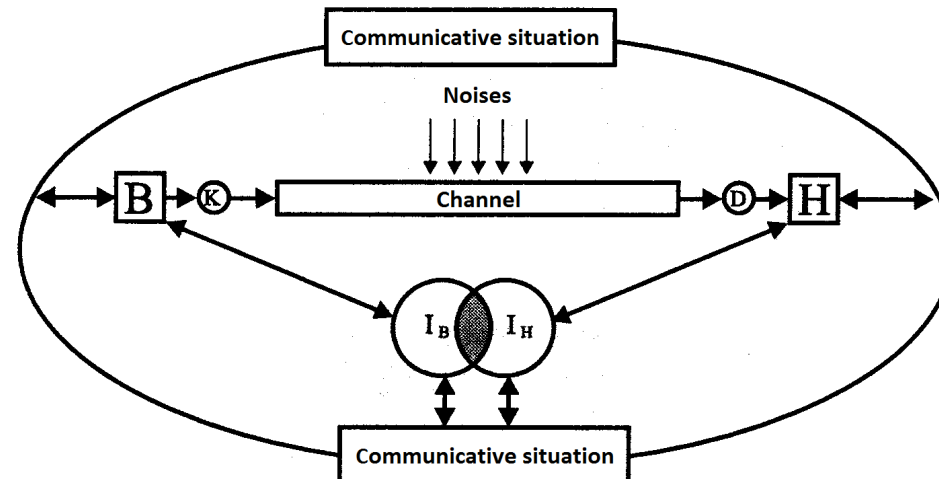
- Referential function: the truth content of the message, its reflection of reality
- Emotive function: refers to the coding of subjective experiences (emotions, moods, attitudes) into message
- Conative function: the impact of the message on the receiver (in language, this mostly means addressing or ordering the other).

Secondary functions:

- Phatic function: it is directed at maintaining the relationship
- Poetic function: the aesthetic impact of the message formed by language
- Metalinguistic function: it has linguistic interpretive role

In verbal communication, we call the sender of the message a speaker or writer; we call its receiver a listener or reader. Coding means the transformation of information into linguistic signs, and the editing of signs. By message we mean the linguistic sign that carries information along certain grammatical rules. The listener translates this back (decodes), and accesses information. In case of speech, the channel is usually air; in written communication, it uses paper (Varga H. 2001: 28). During communication, parallel to the communication between individuals, there is internal communication in both the sender and the receiver. A listener therefore does not only listen and keeps silent; they recall their previous experiences and knowledge, and compares them to what they just heard. Gyula H. Varga (2001: 28) summarizes this in the following graph:

Communicative situation, noises, channel



THE MODEL OF VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Speaker, Listener, K = Codinn, D Decoding, Knowledge and values of Speaker, Knowledge and values of Listener

The signs in the channel may be harmed by various noises or disturbing elements, and information may get distorted. In order to avoid communicative disturbances, the sender overdoes communication, and tries to ensure that information is secured through more than one signs. There are therefore signs that do not carry new information, but repeat and stress previous ones. Every message consists of entropy and redundancies. The ratio of the two is dependent on the communicative situation. Redundancy also helps the reception of information, which is particularly necessary if the receiver has to acquire and interpret information through listening.

Depending on its orientation, linguistic communication may be:

- Unidirectional: when the receiver or listener has no option to respond
- Bidirectional: the listener has the ability to respond

2.2. NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION AND METACOMMUNICATION [1]

On the basis of a widely accepted approach, we may say that communication is the exchange or transmission of information with the help of a suitable tool such as a sign system (language, gestures). The communicating parties are able to communicate about the environment that surrounds them, and the internal processes inside of them through an arbitrarily created system. The nature of communication is influenced by many factors. Every person acquires a range of sign systems in society (language, gestures, traffic signs), which are dependent on the culture of socialization, and the primary and secondary scenes of socialization. All of these together provide the context against which interpretation happens, a code system that enables immediate understanding and immediate response.

In this process, we distinguish between two levels of communication: the content level and the hidden level. At the content level, actual, information-based communication takes place; the hidden level consists of metacommunicative elements. It is through them that we communicate our feelings about others, our state of emotions, and our attitude to the subject. The metacommunicative level allows for humor to emerge through for example references or innuendos. Therefore, through metacommunication we communicate our emotional states of being about:

- The content of the message (true or false, important or unimportant)
- The situation of the communication (roles, the presence of other persons)
- The nature of communication (humor, playfulness) (Buda 1994).

Metacommunication appears at both verbal and non-verbal levels. Verbal messages constitute only a small part of communication between individuals. As we speak, we support or modify the meaning of our words by gestures, body language, posture, pauses, intonation, pitch, or stress. Non-verbal messages play a particularly important role in communicating values, attitudes, desires, conflicts, and other personal reactions. Normally, we send and receive non-verbal messages faster; we find their meaning more authentic; less conscious control is directed at them, and we pay less attention to them than verbal communication.

Metacommunication that expresses relationships also has a very important role. Typically, a relationship is a dynamically developing two-persons system, whose basis is communication. Development is ensured by metacommunication, it takes place through it. On the basis of the example of a young couple, the following phases are relevant here:

[1] Based on Balázs–
Tomesz–Varga 2013.

- 1.) *Addressing the other*: moving from the status of strangers to that of acquaintances. This change in the relationship is sanctioned by society. Strangers may address each other in only certain situations. Addressing another person has ethical and even legal regulations, based on tradition and conventions. In contrast, acquaintances may freely address each other, and have the right to start a conversation.
- 2.) *Acquaintance*: a communicative relationship that already contains a host of commonly shared norms. In this phase, cultural signals have a significant role. Here, shared norms do not serve the deepening of the relationship yet, but are directed at communicative contents (acceptable use of language, style of expression), and describe habitual interactive fields.
- 3.) *Courtship*: This phase further develops the relationship by involving intimacy. Acquaintance is usually linked to public spaces and communicative situations. Meeting for the sake of the other's personality is a hallmark of friendship. The initiation of this, and the metacommunication that this involves is an important step of norm establishment, whose acceptance legitimizes meeting for each other's sake.
- 4.) *Love relationship*: Moving from the phase of courtship to physical contact and the establishment of new norms, which lead to a romantic relationship. The emergence of norms is preceded by metacommunicative initiative, in whichever channel of communication may be involved.
- 5.) *The social legitimization of the relationship*: Steps towards the social legitimization of the partner: partnerships, betrothal, marriage (Buda 1994).

In summary, verbal and non-verbal communication is complemented by the unconscious, metacommunicative level of communication, which may be transmitted through both channels, and which carry extra information. Therefore, metacommunication has an important regulatory function. Through metacommunication, the individual determines the style and nature of the relationship they have with the other in a given situation and context; they also determine the subject and themes of communication.

2.2.1. THE FUNCTIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Now that we have clarified the difference between these two concepts that are often confounded, let us see what non-verbal communication means. In a simple way, we may say that non-verbal communication is the sum of analogous codes that follow verbal communication. It is not always an intentional form of communication, and its reception is not always conscious, either. It has no universal sign system, although we do know that some universally shared signs exist. Non-verbal communication is strongly culture-specific, it is hard to decode and easy to misunderstand.

The importance of non-verbal communication has been debated. Some argue that its import is a 7:93% ratio for non-verbal communication; that is, 93% of the message has non-verbal source (Pease cites Mehrabin 2000). Others argue for a 35:65% ratio. In any case, it is clear that non-verbal communication has an important function in face-to-face communication.

Let us recall when we just listened to our interlocutor or read their message, and non-verbal communication was in action. It continuously informed us for example about the process of communication.

Besides “direction,” non-verbal communication may have other functions, too. Among them is the control and regulation of the social situation, self-representation, expressing emotional states, communicating attitudes, and the control of the communicative channel. Let us see these more closely.

- *Controlling the social situation:* Through non-verbal communication we may transmit information to our interlocutor that expresses intentions to change the situation, our presence, and interests.
- *Self-representation:* There is certain information about us with regards to our identity, personality, social status or economic situation that we do not want to express verbally. These are transmitted by our appearance, our hair, style of clothing, etc.
- *The communication of emotional states:* It is proper to western cultures that the open expression of emotional states is discouraged. While we do encounter the verbal expression of emotions, we still use the more complex and nuanced channels of non-verbal communication. The relationship between body language and emotions is so strong that some research questions what was first: emotion followed by behavior, or the other way around. It has been proven that by conscious use of certain non-verbal behaviors we may access the emotions that are ordered to it. Such is for example the relationship between joy and a smile.
- *The communication of attitudes:* We mostly use non-verbal communication to express our relationship to our environment, to the actions and words of our interlocutor, and to the content of our own discourse. Here mimicry, posture and gestures may have a dominant role.
- *Controlling verbal communicative channels:* Non-verbal communication is dominant in the management of the verbal channel, in its control, in the give and take of words. For example, a sigh that calls attention, hand gestures, checking the clock often, the change of posture, lowering the voice, etc. (Forgacs 2006).

EXERCISES:

1. True or false? (5 points)

A válaszadók random 5 állítást kapjanak az alább felsoroltak közül. A helyes megfejtést zárójelben jelzem.

We distinguish between three levels of communication: physical, psychological, intellectual. (FALSE)

We distinguish two levels of communication: content and hidden. (TRUE)

Metacommunication only works at a non-verbal level. (FALSE)

Metacommunication works at both verbal and non-verbal levels. (TRUE)

Metacommunication that regulates relationships has a very important role in personal relationships. (TRUE)

We express our significant thoughts through metacommunication. (FALSE)

Non-verbal communication complements non-verbal communication. (TRUE)

Non-verbal communication is always characterized by intent. (FALSE)

There are universal non-verbal signs. (TRUE)

Some argue that non-verbal communication is 65% of the overall message and communicative act. (TRUE)

2. Put in order the following stages (5 points)

Alább a helyes sorrendet közlöm. A válaszadók random sorrendet kapjanak.

Addressing the other person

Acquaintance

Courtship

Love relationship

The social legitimization of the relationship

3. Match the functions and their explanations (3 points)

Az alább felsorolt 5 párosból a válaszadó random kapjon 3 párt, melyek kapcsolatát meg kell határozni.

- *Controlling the social situation:* Through non-verbal communication we may transmit information to our interlocutor that expresses intentions to change the situation, our presence, and interests.
- *Self-representation:* There is certain information about us with regards to our identity, personality, social status or economic situation that we do not want to express verbally. These are transmitted by our appearance, our hair, style of clothing, etc.
- *The communication of emotional states:* It is proper to western cultures that the open expression of emotional states is discouraged. While we do encounter the verbal expression of emotions, we still use the more complex and nuanced channels of non-verbal communication. The relationship between body language and emotions is so strong that some research questions what was first: emotion followed by behavior, or the other way around. It has been proven that the conscious use of certain non-verbal behaviors we may access the emotions that are ordered to it. Such is for example the relationship between joy and a smile.
- *The communication of attitudes:* We mostly use non-verbal communication to express our relationship to our environment, to the actions and words of our interlocutor, and to the content of our own discourse. Here mimicry, posture and gestures may have a dominant role.

- *Controlling verbal communicative channels*: Non-verbal communication is dominant in the management of the verbal channel, in its control, in the give and take of words. For example, a sigh that calls attention, hand gestures, checking the clock often, the change of posture, lowering the voice, etc. (Forgacs 2006).

2.3. THE DIMENSIONS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION [1]

There are two main approaches for the categorization of non-verbal communication, which complement each other. The first approach captures the process, the function of non-verbal signs. In this broader interpretation we may distinguish three categories: sign language, action language, object language. It considers communication non-verbal when words are not pronounced or written down. The following belong with these definitions:

- *Sign language*: It contains all those coding forms in which words, numbers, or forms have been pushed out by gestures. Examples include the hitch-hiker signal, or sign language.
- *Action language*: It refers to those movements that are not used as exclusive signs. Here we may mention the double functions of walking or drinking, which may serve personal needs on the one hand, but may also communicate statements to the observer, on the other.
- *Object language*: The intentional or unintentional display of material things.

Another, more varied and nuanced approach is the definition of the scholarly field of non-verbal communication. The following dimensions have been identified on the basis of research and common directives.

Body motion or kinetic behavior

Here belong gestures, the movements of the body, the limbs, the hand, the foot and the head; facial expressions, eye contact, body language, frowning, or relaxing the shoulders. All communicative signs of the entire human body belong in this category. Similar to verbal behaviors, we may encounter entirely individualistic and unique non-verbal signs, and universal ones, too. Some serve communicative functions, others are expressive. Ekman and Friesen created a categorization of acts of non-verbal behavior:

- *Emblems*: Non-verbal signs that have direct verbal translations or dictionary definitions. From the perspective of verbal definitions, there is a high level of correspondence among the members of the culture or subculture.

[1] Knapp M. L. (é. n.)
A nem verbális kommunikáció c. tanulmánya alapján.

- *Illustrators*: Non-verbal signs that closely follow speech, or may be linked to it directly. Their goal is to visualize verbal communication.
- *Affect displays*: Simple facial gestures that express emotional states. They repeat the verbal communication that has to do with emotions; they introduce them, reject them (contradiction, incongruence), or stand in a neutral relationship.
- *Regulators*: These verbal signs maintain the dynamic changes of speaking vs. listening between two or three interlocutors. They communicate to the speaker whether they should continue, repeat, or elaborate on what they are saying.
- *Adaptors*: The emergence of adaptors may be related to adaptive behavior that develops in childhood, such as fulfilling needs, executing actions, controlling impulses, or the establishment of social relationships. These are not coded: they are fragmentary manifestations of aggressive, sexual or intimate behaviors.

Bodily characteristics

Here belong those non-kinetic non-verbal signs such as body type and shape, appearance, body odors, height, weight, hair color and complexion.

Tactile behavior

Actual tactile contact is a separate class of non-verbal communication. Its sub-categories may include petting, striking, hitting, greeting, farewell etc.

Paralanguage

Paralanguage is the category most closely linked to verbal communication. It is not concerned with what we say, but how we say it. Trager identified the following features of paralanguage:

Voice set: the range and control of pitch, the control of rhythm, tempo, the control of voice production, resonance, lip control and the control of glottis.

Vocalizations:

- vocal characteristics: laughter, crying, yawning etc.
- vocal modifiers: intensity, pitch, and range.
- vocal independents: “aha,” “hmmm,” “uhh,” “ehh”

Proxemics:

Proxemic behavior was first defined by Edward T. Hall, and explores how we use individual and social spaces. The study of proxemic behavior, the management of space is just as relevant as the impact of architectural features on communities. Our space management has evolutionary roots. The proven distances that animals take – escaping, critical distance, group impact distance – show similarities to human space management. In studies of proxemics we may often encounter the concept of territoriality. This refers to the human impulse to draw boundaries that are untouchable for others, just like animals do.

Humans sense distances similarly to animals. Human perception is dynamic because it is linked to action, to what is doable in a given spatial and temporary matrix. Four main distances have been identified for human space management:

- Intimate (0–45 cm): One cannot ignore the presence of the other. The sight and smells, the presence of the other, their breath and sounds of breathing are perceptible. Here we may list love making, wrestling, or cuddling. In the next phase (15-45 cm) the two bodies no longer touch. From this distance, the dimensions of the head look bigger, and the facial features might look distorted.
- Personal (45–120 cm): Sometimes this distance is called a small bubble, protection zone or private sphere. In its closer variant (until 75 cm) we can still touch the other person, but we no longer see their facial expressions distorted. Staying in this area of the personal zone still expresses intimacy. In a more distant zone (75-120 cm) we talk of an arm's distance. This distance is used when discussing topics of personal interest.
- Social: (120–360 cm): Its closer area (until 210 cm) is usually used for the discussion of impersonal topics, although several personal elements might be present here. People who work together usually have this distance. In its distant zone (201-360 cm) we conduct formal or official conversations. From this distance we can no longer perceive the pigmentation of the other person's face, or their more nuanced features. The surface of the skin and its structure, the quality of the hair, teeth and clothes is well visible. In this distance the volume is higher.

- Public (360–750 cm and above): The closer variant of this distance corresponds to the escape distance of animals. The volume of distance is definitely big here, but not maximal. The body loses its spatial embeddedness, the head looks much smaller. The use of the distant area (750 and beyond) is proper to public speaking events. The small nuances of normal volume communication are lost, and so are the details of gestures and movement. From all non-verbal communication, it is gestures and posture that remains informative. The tempo of speaking slows down, and some changes in style are necessary for comprehension (Hall 1987: 160–175).

Products

Products include the placement and management of products that people partaking in the interaction wear, which work as non-verbal triggers. Here we can mention perfume, lipstick, glasses, makeup and cosmetics.

Perfume, as a smell, deserves some consideration. Smelling has great significance in one special area of relationships: romance. Everyone has a unique body odor, which is incomparable, just like our fingerprints. We smell this odor and find it attractive or unattractive when finding a mate, even if these are not conscious processes (Thornhill – Gangestad 1999).

Environmental factors

These refer to elements that are linked to human relationships, but are not integral parts of them. For example, architectural style or inside decoration, colors, smells and background music belong here. Communicative actions are hugely influenced by environmental factors. Suffice it to consider the very different communicative styles we may use with a person in different locations, for example in a coffee shop or at their workplace.

2.3.1. THE ROLE OF NON-VERBAL ELEMENTS IN THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION

The categorization and analysis of non-verbal communication should end with contextualizing the non-verbal communication channel itself. As a pioneering scholar of non-verbal communication said once: doing non-verbal research is studying the human organism without studying the heart (Knapp 49). Non-verbal communication may have various roles in the entire communicative process:

- *Repetition*: In this case, non-verbal communication simply repeats what verbal communication claims. For example, I invite someone to come in, and I make a hand gesture that ushers them in.

- *Contradiction*: It may happen that non-verbal communication contradicts verbal communication. For example, when a young couple argues, and one of them says angrily: “Of course I love you!” We should highlight the close relationship between verbal and non-verbal behaviors. Conscious misleading may be straight burdensome. For example, let’s try saying yes convincingly, while we shake our head. According to research, when verbal and non-verbal messages contradict each other, we tend to believe non-verbal ones.
- *Substitution*: Non-verbal communication may substitute verbal communication. For example, the case of the hitch-hiker, or giving signals to someone from the other side of the road belong in this category.
- *Complementing*: Non-verbal communication may modify or further stress the verbal message. The complementary function serves to mirror the intentions and attitudes of one person to another.
- *Emphasis*: Non-verbal communication may emphasize certain parts of the verbal message, just like highlighting in writing.
- *Comparison and regulation*: Non-verbal behavior also serves to regulate the communicative situation between the participants. For example, nodding, eye movement or moving around may mean to say that the other person should keep talking, or should stop it because we would like to speak.

At the beginning of this chapter, we emphasized the wholeness and congruence of communication. Now that we are also aware of the non-verbal “arsenal” and its workings, we have all the tools at our disposal to more consciously aim to produce congruent communication by harmonizing verbal and non-verbal messages.

CHAPTER 3

3.1. SITUATIONS THAT CHALLENGE ASSERTIVENESS [1]

Extreme forms of communication – and personality types – may create situations that challenge assertive behaviors.

Situations like that include (Nemeth 2002: 78–79):

- Articulation and rejection of a query
- Articulation and reception of criticism
- Articulation and reception of praise
- Articulation and rejection of opinions
- Clarification of false accusations
- Management of conflict situations

This submodule will assess these situations.

3.1.1 ARTICULATING QUERIES

Articulating queries is most difficult for submissive types of people. Fear of vulnerability, rejection and commitment are all normal human reactions; however, it is important that we are able to ask, or reject a query in certain situations. It is important to assess the situation as objectively as possible, and that we are able to prepare for what awaits us.

[1] Based on Balázs–
Tomesz–Varga 2013.

Academic literature presents several well-known pieces of advice for the formulation of an assertive message (Nemeth 2002, Bishop 2008):

Preparation

- It is important that our query is viable, or that there are viable alternatives.
- We should be aware of how difficult the execution of the query is.
- Let us prepare for the possible reactions of our interlocutor.
- Plan our discourse; our communication should be conscious.

The message

- The message should be brief, clear, and polite.
- Our messages should be concise (we should be able to explain well why we ask).
- Listen to the answer attentively.
- Show empathy and understanding.
- Be ready to make compromises.
- If our interlocutor agrees to our query, we should thank them.
- Specify the terms of the agreement.

It is difficult to reject a query, too, because we are afraid that the other person may get offended. But we must not forget that by saying no, we reject not the other person, but their query. We should be respectful of others in our interactions, but we must not forget that we too have rights (Bishop 2008: 106).

An assertive communicator summarizes the query concisely, and then communicates the answer calmly. They explain the answer, and stress their own perspectives. During the discourse they show empathy, and pay attention to feedback.

3.1.2. ARTICULATING AND RECEIVING CRITICISM

Just like with queries, it is hard to be assertive when articulating criticism. Sometimes we are too dominant, and we are reluctant to issue criticism, or the opposite: we are too aggressive and impulsive. An assertive communicator is confident but empathetic, and formulates their criticism in a way that considers the other's reactions. It is very important to assess whether criticism has grounds at all.

Bishop distinguishes the following phases of feedback (2008: 125-126):

- Choose the place and the time carefully. Feedback is best given immediately, because this way the other knows for sure what it refers to. We should consider that there is enough time for discussion.
- Consider the environment, and whether we send the right non-verbal messages in that situation.
- Consider whether we want to curb the vehemence of the criticism, or the situation requires an honest, blunt assessment.
- Use messages of the “self.” Let us not forget that it is us who wants change, not the other.
- Articulate precisely what the other has done that bothers us. Do not generalize.
- Express feelings.
- Use silence. Careful thought needs time.

- Be perseverant.
- Close discourse on a positive note.

Erzsebet Nemeth proposes four simple articulation techniques for the reception of criticism (2002: 86):

- To manage excessive criticism, a good communicative solution is to repeat it, because this may make the other realize that their criticism was disproportionate:
So, you meant to say that I never completed my work by the deadline.
- Slowing down:
Apart from the lack of illustrations, what do you think of the book?
- Openness:
You are right, my answer was indeed not substantial.
- We place criticism between two positive things:
More and more places emphasize the importance of preservative-free foods. These products are somewhat more expensive, but it is important to consider the ingredients in our food for health.

3.1.3. Articulating praise

We often feel that when we make a mistake, we are criticized immediately; however, when we do things right, we never get any recognition. We are usually happy about praise, if it is honest. We must however learn to receive recognition efficiently, too.

It is important to recognize that positive feedback means the other pays attention to us, and if recognition is legitimate, we should receive it with gratitude.

Giving assertive recognition is just as difficult as receiving it. Scholars on assertiveness stress the lack of positive feedback at the workplace (Bishop 2008, Burg 2010, Nemeth 2002).

Erzsebet Nemeth (2002: 89) reviewed the possibilities of social praise, and thinks it is important to consider in what group we belong. It is important to stress that with some people, we share the same values, and that they accept and acknowledge us. It is very positive when someone is being listened to, and their cooperation is acknowledged.

3.1.4 Solving conflicts

Conflict is a kind of *confrontation* where needs, intentions, desires, goals, interests, views, opinions or values clash (Szekszardi 1995, 1996). Clash or confrontation occurs when the behavior of one party conflicts with the needs or interests of the other, or their values are different (Gordon 1994).

The nature of conflict depends on the motives behind the conflict (needs, intentions, desires, goals, interests, views, opinions or values). The more a person is committed and motivated, the more serious the conflict, such as in the case of value or ideology-based disagreements. If the structure of motivation is of a lower order, such as in case of curiosity, conflict may be less intensive, and its resolution may be smoother.

Conflict, however, may also facilitate improvement, and are part of life and play (Cseh-Szombathy 1995).

If we want to influence a standing conflict and solve it assertively, Berndt Zuschlag and Wolfgang Thielke recommend the following model (2008: 41):

Components	Analyses	The main question that guides analysis
1. The reasons of conflict	1. Analysis	What leads to conflict?
2. Current conflict	2. Analysis	What are the determining components of this conflict?
3. The goal of conflict management	3. Analysis	What are the optimal goals and solutions if we want to avoid unwanted side effects as a result of resolving the conflict?
4. What to do while managing conflict	4. Analysis	What steps may lead us to the desired goals and solutions?

I-message

A most basic tool of conflict resolution is the I-message. It consists of focusing on primarily myself in a conflictive situation, and keeping it on myself when contradictions emerge during the conflict. That is, I do not stress what the other did or failed to do; rather, I stress what the event meant or their actions meant for me.

Gordon (2001) argues that one objective of human communication is to understand the other party on the one hand, and to be understood by them, on the other. He distinguishes between two features of efficient communication: comprehensible message (clear articulation, self-messages), and clear reception (the right attitude). He distinguishes between five types of self-messages, which he calls “preventive I-messages.”

- Acknowledging I-message
- Preventive I-message
- Self-disclosing I-message (communicates needs and feelings)
- Rejecting I-message
- Confrontative I-message

I-messages have several advantages. If I communicate honestly what I think and how I feel, my self-confidence grows, my consciousness improves, and I will most likely come across to my interlocutor with my message.

In conclusion: I-messages assert our feelings and desires without judging, blaming, or threatening others, or holding them accountable. We disclose our current emotional state to another person in a way that we take responsibility for it. We provide facts about how we feel, but we do not judge the other’s behavior, or threaten the other, or moralize.

Understanding attention

Another important proposition of Gordon (2001) is “understanding attention,” whose precondition is that the receiver blocks their own feelings and judgment, and focuses on the message alone. Part of this kind of attention is feedback: did the receiver listen carefully to the discourse of the other? In this case the receiver repeats what they heard, but without analysis or adding their own feelings.

However, there are cases when we fail to use understanding attention, which results in blockage of communication. Gordon identified twelve “roadblocks to communication:”

1. Ordering
2. Warning, threatening
3. Preaching, moralizing
4. Giving advice, recommending solutions
5. Logical argumentation, reasoning
6. Judging, blaming
7. Mocking, humiliating
8. Diagnosing, analyzing, interpreting
9. Smoothing, calming, pitying, encouraging
10. Questioning, insisting
11. Avoiding, joking, keeping a distance

Understanding attention helps us with precise understanding; it helps us understand what the other person thinks and wants to communicate, whose consequence may be that disagreements and conflicts may be more manageable.

3.2. THE DEFINITION AND LEVELS OF CONFLICT

Today, the concept of conflict is mainly approached in two different ways. A basic premise of the literature on conflict management is that conflict is not necessarily evil. While ancient and medieval thinkers mostly believed that the ideal social structure eliminates conflict, it is an emotionally contaminated situation that harms coexistence. It was perhaps Karl Marx who first proposed that conflicts helped societies progress. Like with society, conflict may have a benign effect on the individual, too. The following are some of the opportunities carried by conflict:

- Opportunity to improve: This means knowledge of ourselves and our boundaries, and growing self-confidence and self-respect.
- Opportunity to deepen relationships: If we manage conflict well, the situation may well deepen the relationship and make it more profound.
- Opportunity to decrease tension: Through verbalization, we may bring tension to lower levels.
- Opportunity to assert my interests: Conflict gives us the opportunity to stand up for my interests (see details in Module 7).
- Opportunity for self-reflection: Feedback to ourselves.
- Breaking monotony: Conflicts make life interesting and more colorful.

3.2.1. THE NATURE AND DEFINITION OF CONFLICT

In a conflict situation, there is disagreement between two parties, and their interests clash. Often, they are followed by emotions, which do not necessarily come from the subject or stake of the conflict, but rather from the personalities of those involved, their emotional states, and the environment. Conflicts may range from different viewpoints to open confrontation and aggressive behaviors.

We hardly ever encounter conflicts in their pure state. Most of the time we perceive a detail, a presence, an element of it. It helps to understand the situation if we look at conflict as a process, not just a phenomenon. This helps us understand it, and we may make decisions about the necessity and manner of intervention.

The word “conflict” comes from Latin, and means “disagreement, confrontation.” The original and current usage of the word helps us grasp the phenomenon that various disciplines try to approach in their own ways. Since we are concerned here most of all with social, interpersonal conflict, we may define it as follows: a kind of *interaction where there are incompatible views among participants*. For participants, this kind of interaction causes injury, and it is mostly emotionally overheated (Glasl 2009).

We also need to distinguish between two kinds of conflicts: closed and open conflict.

By *closed or hidden* conflict, we mean the first level of conflict. At this level, some tension emerges for some reason in the participants, disagreements come to light, although they are not yet voiced. During this situation, the person experiencing tension has a decision to make: either to accept the situation and try to coexist with it without verbalizing it (hidden conflict), or express their position to the other.

By open conflict we mean the full display of disagreements. We allow ourselves and the other to express their thoughts in an open discussion. A constructive, open discussion has the potential to resolve the conflict.

For better conceptual clarification, we must mention the difference between internal and closed conflict. They are often confused, while they are by no means the same.

We call internal or intrapersonal conflict that takes place inside the individual, and has no external manifestations. These are typically about conflicts between the individual's values, or conflicts about decisions (Glasl 2009).

3.2.2. THE LEVELS OF CONFLICT

The most determining factor about a conflict is the forceful emotional component. Our conflicts may have two levels, similar to the content and hidden levels of communication:

Objective level:

- Facts
- Data
- Numbers

Affective, relational level:

- Emotions
- Desires
- Expectations
- Values
- Self-confidence
- Attitudes

Similar to the two levels of communication, in conflict too we find the objective level on the surface. These are the facts, data and numbers that we discuss. At the same time, we typically treat our emotions as taboos during a conflict; we suppress them. This way however, certain aspects remain hidden from our interlocutor, and also from ourselves, aspects that might explain tension. Conflict emerges when reality experienced by the individual is not met by their expectations, needs and desires. This kind of conflict often leads to issues in self-evaluation. Looking at the temporal proceeding of the conflict, we may see that the parties typically become aware of tensions even before actions and behaviors, that is, the open display of conflict. The question is whether it is necessary for the situation to lead to action or discussion; sometimes the recognition of disagreement may be enough to call it a conflict.

3.3. TYPES OF CONFLICTS

In order to manage conflict situations, it is important to be able to identify the type of conflict. Intrapersonal conflicts during direct interaction have been typologized in many ways. In the following, we will review the most practicable one.

3.3.1. BASED ON THE SOURCE OF CONFLICT

This typology may be traced back to Moore (1992); its point of departure is the sources of conflicts.

Relational conflicts: The source of conflict is in the relationship itself. It goes along with forceful feelings; it is characterized by false perceptions, the deployment of stereotypes, and communicative disturbances. They may occur as a result of wrong perceptions or communication, which means that they may occur even when there are no objective grounds for the conflict.

Value conflicts: Confrontation between people who profess different values (religious, political, personal convictions). It goes along with the judgment of behavior by different criteria. During conflict, we order different values to our goals, which may manifest themselves in different world views (religious or political), or cultural idiosyncrasies (for example subcultures of rockers, hippies, geeks).

Structural conflicts: These come from the unequal distribution of resources; unequal opportunities for control; unequal power relations; lack of time; physical and geographical environment. These all emerge as obstacles. Here belong conflicts that are proper to organizational structures and cultures.

Information-based conflicts: Here belong conflicts that come from lack of information, or too much information. Besides the volume of information, its interpretation too may cause conflicts.

Conflicts of interest: It emerges as a result of opposing participants' efforts to assert their own interests, which clash.

3.3.2. BASED ON THE NATURE OF CONFLICT

From another perspective, we may distinguish between six types of conflicts (Deutsch 1973, Csepli 1997):

Veridical conflict: In this type of conflict, participants pursue incompatible objectives. The departure in this conflict is the mistrust between individuals, the minimization of harm, and the maximization of gain. In order to resolve these conflicts, the parties must reconsider their interests, identify common interests, and once again establish trust.

Contingent conflict: If the interests of the parties are not defined in the right way, a kind of pseudo-conflict may emerge. In this case, the parties may exploit opportunities only by cooperating; however, they are unwilling to cooperate. Cooperation between individuals might lead to optimal solutions, although this might take time. If cooperation is lacking, the winning party may enjoy immediate gains.

Displaced conflict: In this kind of conflict participants, and also observers, often misdiagnose the cause of the conflict; they see symptoms rather than real causes of conflict. Often in these cases, intergroup conflicts become interpersonal ones. The conflict that emerges as a result of the diverging interests of two groups might surface in a conflict between two group members, while the real reason had nothing to do with the individuals.

Misattributed conflict: This type of conflict refers to the classic “divide and rule” kind of approach, where the parties that get into conflict had originally no disagreements at all. It is easy to generate these kinds of conflicts; however, there is always the danger that they turn real.

Latent conflict: In this type of conflict, participants often do not encounter any conflict at all. However, conflict may lie in historical inequalities, fossilized disagreements, and ideological structures. Such is for example the conflict between men and women, which has deep roots in society. The unearthing of latent conflicts may prevent them from bursting forth and causing greater destruction.

False conflict: The basic departure of these conflicts is misunderstanding. They emerge typically as a result of inefficient or incongruous communication, which leads to a lack of information. The danger of a false conflict is that it may turn into a real one. It is best countered by immediate and authentic communication, and the full disclosure of information.

Csepli (1997) categorized conflicts on the basis of motivations that move people, organizing them into four basic types of conflict. These four types revolve around conflict of interest, conflicting values, conflicting viewpoints, and conflicting styles or tastes. Conflicts of interest are always about the pursuit of some important advantage. This might mean economic interests, territory, power, money, or prestige. This type of conflict is solely motivated by the acquisition of ownership. The solution of this kind of conflict rests in the identification of mutual interests, and the acceptance of cooperation. In case of conflicting values, we may identify conflicting values, ideologies, or norms. These kinds of conflicts are harder to resolve, because of the importance of these views and values for individuals. Conflicts of viewpoints have to do with opinions and attitudes. Conflicts of style and taste are manifestations of false and misplaced conflicts, as explained above (Csepli 1997).

We may also typify conflicts based on whether they are present overtly or covertly in a given society (Simmel 1955; Park-Burgess 1921). Two levels may be identified here. We may speak of objective conflicts, and relational conflicts. When it regards the exchange of information, data, and acts, we may speak of objective levels. The conflicts here concern the disagreement with, or questioning of data and facts. It is at this level that official communication, or professional communication takes place, or for example it means the exchange of information in education. As opposed to this, at the level of relations, conflicts have an emotional relevance. These conflicts often complement the objective level, as the relational level expresses the affective and attitudinal relevance of communication. At this level, conflict is also mirrored by body language, gestures, mimicry, and proxemics, often in an unconscious form.

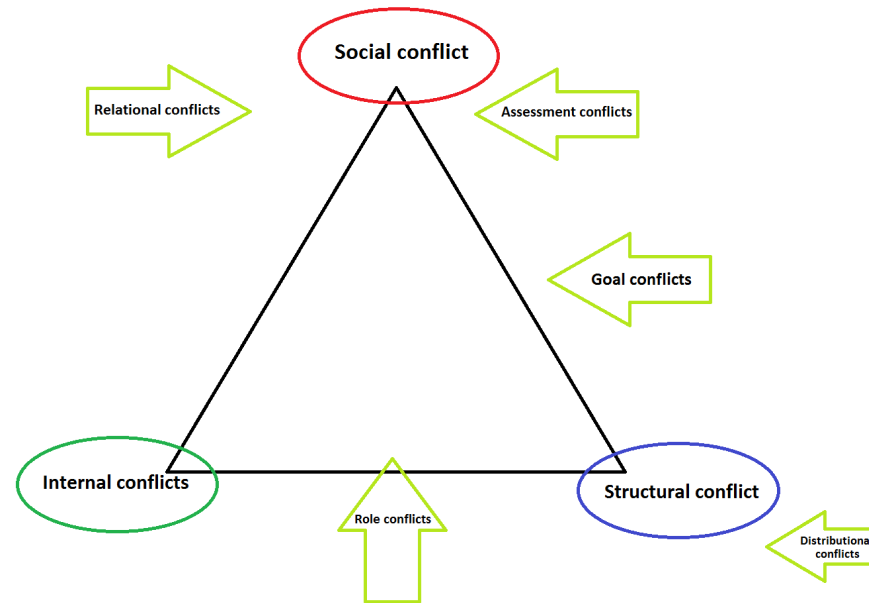
3.3.3 BASED ON THE RANGE OF CONFLICT

Three main categories may be distinguished here: internal conflict, social conflict, and structural conflict. These three types of conflict should be imagined as the equal sides of a triangle, as they cannot be considered separately.

Social conflict practically refers to the interpersonal and inter-group conflicts we already described. Here we basically mean interpersonal conflicts. These are conflicts that exist between different persons or groups, and become evident through the incompatibility of values, attitudes, emotions and objectives. Such is for example the conflict between two different religious groups, or conflict between football fan groups or a bar fight.

Internal conflict is quite different from this, which may be likened to intrapersonal conflicts; in this case however, some kind of compatibility issue emerges within the individual, mostly as a result of an external stimulus. This kind of conflict is basically the same we have in everyday life, when we are debating a decision within ourselves. An example may be a situation in the life of a family, when a parent receives a job offer that involves a higher salary, but more travel and time away from the family. Another example may be the internal conflicts experienced by the spouse who had been cheated on.

The third conflict type is structural conflict. This is a bit further removed from individual feelings and attitudes between individuals, and refers to conflicts related to processes in institutional structures. This type of conflict refers to formal structural conflict situations. The greater an institution, the greater the amount of institutional conflicts. In this case, it is objective confrontations rather than personal ones that are relevant.



These three types of conflict often emerge in ways that they intersect: two or even all three might be relevant in a given situation. Such conflicts are for example distributional conflicts, goal conflicts, assessment conflicts, relational conflicts and role conflicts. In case of *distributional conflict*, for example, we see the unequal distribution of resources in a given organization. In this case we do not just see the objective conflict that emerges within the institution; due to the injustice of unequal distribution, members in the organization will hold grudges and bitter feelings, that is they will have personal emotions and attitudes in the conflict situation. In case of *goal conflicts*, there are often organizational conflicts, too; in this case, conflict may emerge from the diverging goals and interests of employees and managers. Just like with distributional conflict, objective organization incompatibility carries within it the confrontation of groups and individuals. In case of *assessment conflicts*, members do agree on the goals; however, they disagree as to the means of achieving those goals. In *relational conflicts*, the subjective experiences of the other person or group becomes relevant. In this case, the source of conflict is antipathy, and personal antagonisms. This type of conflict is closest to social conflict, but may also carry within it internal conflict. Role conflicts emerge in case of incongruent role expectations from the individual. In this case, we may speak of both incompatibility at the level of internal conflict, as well as incompatibility at the level of organizational structure. An example for role conflict is the working mother, who has to resolve internal and external conflicts by making two diverging realms compatible (Schmidt 2009).

CHAPTER 4

4.1. INTRAPERSONAL CONFLICTS ^[1]

Many people consider conflict something bad and negative. For this reason, they consider it something to be avoided or radically urgent to solve. In fact, conflict is an *unavoidable, factual event* that is part and parcel of our everyday life. What we see in our world is that all the time, different *views, values, feelings, interests and opinions* are confronted, often by hidden antagonisms coming to light. In these cases, we talk about conflict.

The life of individuals, groups, and organizations progress along and due to conflicts. If we manage to channel them in the right direction and reach a more harmonious state, conflict can be a drive behind development and improvement.

Some kinds of conflicts emerge within the individual, within the same person: we call these intrapersonal or intrapsychic conflicts. We distinguish between three types of intrapersonal conflicts:

One type of intrapersonal conflict emerges as a result of tension between ethical, social and everyday *norms and rules*, and our natural human desires and instincts. In order to protect itself, society curbs our eating, entertainment and sexual impulses, and channels them into acceptable directions. Accepting this is not always easy for the individual. The individual must struggle with the tension between their impulses and desires, and the ethical limitations and orders.

These elements of subconscious conflicts—which may be nevertheless brought into the realm of the conscious—emerge between the three layers of our personalities. Our superego contains the moral orders, norms, barriers and rules of behavior mentioned above. Relying on this, our ego attempts to taboo all the impulses and desires of the id. Tabooing happens with the help of diverting mechanisms. These enable the integrity of the individual and the avoidance of anxiety on the one hand; on the other, they block the freer development of the individual, for example the development of certain skills.

In another dimension we may encounter a different type of intrapersonal conflict. This other type has a short-term effect, and is more relevant in youth. Activities and their contents, spirit and vision might conflict with the tendencies, ideas and expectations of family, school, or workplace. Here we may mention the peer pressure of age grades or reference groups to follow certain trends—which may also conflict with the individual's intentions, knowledge, or talent.

The third type of intrapersonal conflict has to do with the roles of individuals in groups. We will review the topic and categorization of roles with greater detail when we discuss intra-group conflicts. Here, suffice it to say that people who have different roles may have intrapersonal conflicts, which is by no means a judgement.

[1] Based on Rudas (2014).

One typical role conflict comes from the unclear boundaries of roles. Our environment expects us to behave differently in different contexts. Intrapersonal conflict may occur when the individual takes on roles without actually clarifying whether they have the right tools and skills or not. They do not know how to behave in a given role (group member, student, family member, volunteer, employee). This might make them shy and discontent with their situation and role, which may be followed by shyness that blocks their abilities, or the opposite: overcompensation.

Another important source of conflict is role confusion. This happens when a person is unaware of the boundaries and nature of the roles they took on.

Finally, we should also mention the kind of internal conflict that may come from the extremes of the role's realities. On one extreme, the individual might find their own roles rather tight; they become insecure; they have low self-worth; they cannot fully exploit their potential. On the other extreme, they hold themselves in higher esteem than reality warrants them; they presume a very broad range of roles, which sooner or later leads to failure. While the correction of these extreme role interpretations is a long process, and does not necessarily lead to the emergence of hidden abilities, facing realistic judgements, and reality checks may be useful here.

Of course, intrapsychic conflicts, among them internal conflicts, should not be imagined as hermetically closed boxes. Every person is exposed to influences since they were born. Therefore, the source of intrapersonal conflicts may be also found in early childhood experiences and environmental impacts as well as more mature exposures. The skillful treatment of these conflicts may help individual development, and the discovery and care of special talent.

[1] Based on Rudas (2014).

4.2. GROUP CONFLICTS [1]

When a group is formed, there might unavoidably emerge *interpersonal* conflicts between its members. This is proper even to the seemingly most docile and harmonious collective, or groups of any goal (class, extra-curricular activities, language tutorials, etc.).

4.2.1. THE PHASES OF CONFLICT DEVELOPMENT

The conflict development of any group emerges through the following five phases, according to D. R. Forsyth (1990):

1. *Disagreements*: When group members first meet, they exchange information with one another, which may cause confrontations or disagreements. These should be clarified in a sense whether they are real, and have to do with the objectives of the group. It might turn out that, at surface level, the conflict seems resolvable, but deep down there are irreconcilable differences. Disagreement might escalate as more and more group members may voice their opinions and views, who had been silent before but not want to get involved.
2. *Confrontation*: If group members think that there are important and not easily reconcilable differences, they might start working on them. This is manifest in that members with diverging views try to convince each other.
3. *Escalation*: Commitment, anxiety and polarization might generate a kind of spiral of conflict: more and more conflictive elements appear, and the relationship becomes increasingly hostile and uncontrollable. In some cases, it may escalate into violent actions. Cooperation is mainly blocked by frustration resulting from misunderstandings, lack of trust, and competition.
4. *Escalation reversal*: When the group passes the three phases, it might realize that over time, common objectives may be far away, and the group is threatened with disintegration. Tension becomes more and more unbearable. At this point, various conflict management strategies might help (discussion, arbitration, mediation).
5. *Resolution of conflict*: The group may only work on its objectives if all of its members are able to accept assistance (from a group leader for example), or recommendations from an external aid. Solutions may be varied, broadly speaking. The further dynamics of the group may be different in light of conflict management strategies.

4.2.2. ROLES IN A GROUP

The recognition of role types may help us gain insight into conflict in certain groups. In a new group, people behave differently; they might have different roles in the new group. But they carry along their previous role experiences, role resources, and role-specific behaviors. They have presumptions about role expectations.

It is from these roles that the *informal* structure of every group is built; their changes create group dynamics. This is an informal structure, since there are usually only two formal roles in a group: the group leader (teacher, senior professionals), and group members (students and participants).

The role of group members is to improve their skills and knowledge with the help and initiative of group leaders. The group leader's formal role comes from this capacity.

When a group starts to work, however, and execute tasks, informal behavioral modes become perceptible. As a result, intergroup tensions are generated, which grow into conflicts. Below we show a popular role categorization model.

Role categories

Self-directed roles

They aim at the easing of personal tensions between group members. The tensions behind them might have to do with group identity, group objectives, individual influence, the acceptance of the person, and insecurity that has to do with these factors.

- a) Dependence: submission to leader or other group members, or behavior that implies it (verbal, too).
- b) Opposition: becoming independent from leader or other group member, or behavior that implies it (criticism, antagonism).
- c) Rivalry: competing with leader or group members over a certain thing (participation, introduction of ideas and recommendations, emphasizing competence).
- d) Avoidance: channeling the activity to a direction that does not preoccupy the group in that moment (overtalking, telling anecdotes, cracking jokes, bringing up distantly related subjects).

- e) Pair development: behavior that aims to seek one or more accomplices (separate meetings, whispering about, distractions, wink-and-nod understanding).
- f) Withdrawal: passivity, staying in the background (minimal participation, withdrawal, focusing on one's own thoughts and fantasies).

Task-related roles

It is mainly in task and problem-oriented groups, such as talent care sessions that we may speak of roles that assist the execution of tasks and the resolving of problems.

- a) Initiative: Starting up, helping through an impasse (defining goals, identifying tasks, establishing work habits).
- b) Asking for information: eliciting facts, data, and information from group members (giving opinions, recommendations, ideas).
- c) Critical clarification: clarifying and controlling the situation and its conditions (categorizing recommendations, clarifying dark spots, smoothing out contradictions, offering alternatives).
- d) Overview: harmonizing recommendations, ideas and propositions, preparation for decision making (highlighting, tightening, summary, recommendations for decision).

Group maintenance roles:

These roles concern the maintenance of group dynamics, the elimination of disturbances, and the counterbalancing of centrifugal forces so that there is a good atmosphere for problem solving.

- a) Creating harmony: harmonizing different or opposing views, moving extreme opinions closer to each other, making views more compatible.
- b) Encouragement: Behavior that confirms behavior (confirmation, acceptance, also with non-verbal tools).
- c) Seeking compromise: Flexible and lenient behavior in order to keep the other party within the group (giving concessions, acknowledging being wrong, modifying previous views).

- d) Cognitive stimulation: In case of blocks, these impulses help group members overcome hindrances, identify the nature of the blockage, and finding its causes in order to resume normal activity.
- e) Relieving tension: Mediation, mood-boosting, conflict relief in conflictive situations.

4.3. CONFLICTS IN THE ORGANIZATION [1]

[1] Based on Rudas (2014).

As a result of the division of labor in an organization, statuses and dynamic functions emerge, which correspond to certain behavioral patterns. We call these roles, too, similarly to those roles that exist in classrooms or other groups. The carriers of roles (teachers, civil volunteers, director, city hall representative, or any role) carry out a set of activities within the organization. While doing that, they interact with carriers of other roles (inside and outside of the organization).

The more complex the relationships, the interactions and impacts, the greater the dependency between individuals, and the more strictly they need to follow the requirements ordered to their roles. It is easy to see how complicated interpersonal and inter-organizational relationships increase the chance for conflict.

The *actors* mentioned get in conflict within their roles if the behavior prescribed by their roles *does not function* well in different relations. For example, when teachers face different expectations from students, parents, maintenance management and the director.

While there is no perfectly conflict-free world, *internal* conflict does have recognizable and corrigible factors. It is mostly the less obvious, less well-defined and commonly shared role requirements, the unclear expectations that cause a given actor's internal role conflicts. The institutional workplace regulations, the mercurial expectations from the leadership or from the environment, lead to internal role conflicts, psychological pressure, and even neurotic reactions.

The role conflicts of employees are nuanced and driven by the interests of the organization or the department, as well as the competing interests within the organization.

Conflict may emerge *between the various roles* of the individual, as all of us have various roles at the same time (parent, teacher, employee, volunteer etc.). We may often encounter situations in everyday life when these roles are in contradiction, when it is impossible to fulfill them all at the same time.

Within the organizational unit, conflicts emerge when there is a relatively *homogenous group* in certain ways (function, tasks). This may happen for example when within faculty, artistic or music groups competing visions emerge about the place methods, financial needs, and assessment of students. These conflicts are particularly exacerbated by the fact that viewpoints and arguments are not black or white. That is, all interested parties bring reasonable arguments and positions.

Conflicts between organizational units, in other words inter-group conflicts are perhaps the most conspicuous. When we speak of cooperation, when we hold cooperation-development training in an organization, this is one of the most frequent topics.

There may occur other, not necessarily inter-group conflicts within an organization. These are mostly *conflicts of power*, which usually hide the particular interests of individuals. These conflicts are often wrapped into ideologies and values, which makes it difficult to see the real interests, values, and emotions. Conflicts like these often become a terrain of in-fighting between people of hierarchical relationships or equal rank alike.

Every organization is surrounded by an environment that gets in conflict with this or that member. Here a source of conflict may be relationships with maintenance authorities, umbrella organizations, or controlling bodies that feel their interests have been violated by the workings of the organization.

Intrapersonal conflict may be best demonstrated by the impact of work, and particularly of talent care, on the psychological states of the individual. Those who are generally more anxious, unbalanced, struggle with personal issues or have a distorted self-image react more sensitively to stressful situations, the less tactful impositions of the environment, or heightened performance. It seems obvious that these situations may require most self-analysis and development, and well as tips for stress management and conflict management.

As far as interpersonal conflicts are concerned, these are present everywhere if there are competing interests, differing value systems, and emotional confrontation between individuals. With some exaggeration, we could say that there is nothing outside of interpersonal relationships. Even inter-group or inter-organizational conflicts are carried and represented by individuals.

Group, organization and organizational unit exist only to the extent that they are a sum of individuals. Therefore, any form of conflict management must be directed at individuals and group members, even if this is not immediately obvious for actors. The same way, disharmonies between individuals may be traced back to interpersonal impacts, and their management has to happen through interpersonal relations, too.

Whatever the size of the organization (micro, mezzo or macro), we cannot disregard its internal duality. While there are authors who draw a sharp line between *formal* (institutional) and *informal* (unofficial, non-institutional) organizations that work in a parallel and alternative universe, this is not quite the case. Formal and informal systems, or from another viewpoint, formal and informal powers exist together, intersecting each other, conditioning each other; they are by definition in some kind of symbiosis in the organizations they share.

In the *formal* rule system of the organization some kind of system of roles (for example institutional regulations) determines the place of members, status and roles. In theory, therefore, anyone may fulfill any role, because the workings of the organization is independent of personal factors and interpersonal relations. The formal system may be quite understood through patterns and rules that structure the organization. At the level of formal systems, chance is reduced to the minimum; predictability and accountability, on the other hand, are elevated to the maximum.

Those who have ever worked at a workplace (economic, military, educational or public service), know well that the advantages of the formal structure sound better than they are in reality; in fact, they materialize only in a fraction of the cases. Because it is precisely the *informal* system (whether it is inside of the institution, or between institutions of hierarchical and collaborative orders), which is able to *override* formal rules, relationships, statuses and roles – at least some of them.

The *regulation* of informal systems is way more relaxed than that of formal systems. Here, individuals actively shape roles, there are no, or there are not always formally prescribed roles. Inter-organizational and intra-organizational strategical and tactical relations are interwoven with interpersonal relationships, likes and dislikes, former acquaintances, ad hoc deals and agreements. Informal systems are characterized by flexibility and spontaneity, which may have its own advantages and disadvantages.

Informality may confront formal systems not only inside of the organization, but also outside of it. External impacts, particularly the external relationships of members, their interests, values and emotional commitments may also impact the organization in hidden ways—or its inter-organizational processes. These conflicts may be difficult to identify, but they may be resolved if identified.

CHAPTER 5

5.1. THE PROCESS OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONFLICT ^[1]

Conflict a process has five phases:

1. Preceding situation
2. The perception and experience of conflict
3. Developing conflict management tools
4. Behavior during conflict
5. Consequences

Preceding situation: Every conflict situation has some kind of precedent: mutual lack of information about the intentions of the other, misunderstood or inefficient communication, unsuitable leadership style, different presuppositions and values may all lead to conflicts. Conflicts may merge as a result of disagreement, contradiction, incompatibility—different interests (goal conflict), convictions, world views, attitudes and emotional affective all generate conflicts. At the same time, it is not necessary for a latent conflict to turn into a real one.

Perception and experience: The possibility of conflict might turn into reality if one of the parties perceives it. They feel that the other has a different approach to something that is important to him. We call this *perceived conflict*. As the emergence of conflict is a matter of perception, there might be *assumed conflicts*, too. The reverse is also true – real antagonisms may be swept under the carpet when the parties involved do not perceive it as a conflict. Once they do recognize the conflict, it causes disappointment, tension, and passions. At this point, we may talk of *experienced conflict*. Therefore, for the emergence of conflict, it is necessary to perceive it on the one hand, and an uneasy feeling on the other. Already this point might be determining the outcome of the conflict. Another important aspect is weighing the possibilities of winning: do we see the conflict as a zero-sum game, or do we see it as something that can produce a win-win situation?

[1] Based on ANDICS–ROZGONYI (1977).

Another important factor has to do with the emotions that the conflict generates: if our emotions are too negative and strong with regards to the other, it may lead to the simplification of problems, and the distrust of the actions of the other person. This may have several consequences. It decreases the number of possible solutions, limits creative problem solving, and inhibits cooperative measures. If emotional commitment is too intensive, it may lead to confrontation rather than resolution. Emotions have another important consequence: while a question could have been solved logically, it becomes now a personal cause. It is no longer the problem that leads us through the conflict, but our emotions, grievances and passions.

Developing conflict management tools: The perception of conflict is followed by the choice of the intended management tool, and the establishment of a conflict management strategy. We decide how we intend to terminate an unpleasurable situation and solve a problem. It is advisable to delineate this phase from the next one—that of action—because immediate action fails to consider an important factor: the other person's conflict management strategies. Many conflicts escalate because we have false assumptions about the strategies and intentions of the other person. One error here is that we presume the other person to be passive: we only decide what we want to do, but we fail to disregard the counter-reaction.

Behavior during conflict: Many identify conflict itself with this phase, because this is where conflict is visible. This is where things are said, initiated, and this is where the reaction of the other becomes clear. In this phase, the two parties openly pursue their own conflict management strategies. This might be manifest in one confrontation, or in extreme cases, it may last years. Real behavior often deviates from intended behavior if we assess our options badly, we are clumsy in the execution of our intentions, or in the reaction to the other.

There are two typical processes of conflict:

- One is the escalation of the action-reaction-action-reaction spiral, which gathers greater and greater momentum, and causes the situation to aggravate. This is a dangerous process from the point of view of conflict resolution; it threatens with chronic disagreement, and the conflict might lead to three outcomes:
 - It remains unresolved (the parties take their contrary positions and will not move an inch from them)
 - One of the parties tried to resolve the conflict through tools of power
 - One of the parties exits the system. The first outcome might postpone resolution for a long time; the first two might offer some kind of resolution, but the organization might lose out on them too.

The other road leads to the path of resolution; the parties go beyond their grievances, and channel the tensions of the conflict to bearable directions. This might successfully resolve the conflict, with the emotional satisfaction of participants.

Consequences: These two laths show two kinds of consequences. One improves the performance of the relationship, the group, the organization; the other decreases it. It is in light of consequences that we may finally answer the question whether the conflict was destructive or constructive, after all.

EXERCISES:

1. Put the following phases in order (5 points)

A választ a helyes sorrendbe szerepeltetem, a válaszadó random sorrendet kapjon.

1. Preceding situation
2. The recognition and experience of conflict
3. Developing conflict management tools
4. Behavior during conflict
5. Consequences

2. Match the concepts with their explanations (4 points)

Alább a helyes válaszokat tűntettem fel.

Zero sum game – we may win only at the expense of the other

Win win situation – both parties benefit

Perceived conflict – the other person has a negative attitude to what is important to me

Experienced conflict – the perception of the facts and tensions of conflict

5.2. Escalation

To escalate means that the conflict deepens and extends. In the following, we review the process of escalation. Friedrich Glasl (2009) conflict specialist proposes the following steps towards escalation. As the conflict progresses, situations become more and more sensitive, which makes it difficult to find constructive solutions.

1. *Hardening*: At this level, for whatever reason, tension emerges in the individual. We perceive that there is a difference between the situation we desire, and the situation that exists. This may be about an event that happened, or one that did not happen.
2. *Argument*: The party who has more interest in the conflict makes it more open. During an open debate, there is opportunity for both constructive treatment, and escalation.
3. *Actions instead of words*: After the failure of the discussion, the parties withdraw and avoid each other. They find communication with each other superfluous, they act out of conviction and disregard the other person.
4. *Coalition*: Both persons try to release tension, and they seek alliances. They try to involve third parties who agree with them. They discuss their negative experiences, as a result of which the other party will appear in increasingly negative light.
5. *Loss of authority, attack on authority*: They do their best to make this negative image of the other known to everyone. The goal here is to make everyone aware of the “negative face” of the other person.
6. *Ultimatum*: Tension is high, and close to explosion. The parties feel they can barely hold themselves back. In order to “resolve” the problem as soon as possible, they launch threats and ultimatums.
7. *Minor strikes of destruction*: As the ultimatum did not work, the parties continue to struggle. They assume the worst of the other party, independent of what they do. Both parties become open to paranoid thoughts, and think that all means are legitimate if they serve their objectives.
8. *The destruction of the system of the other*: In these cases, aggression extends over the friends and relatives of the opponent. This is the terrain of open attacks (character smearing, humiliating).

9. *Together in the abyss*: All intentions of the participants in the conflict are directed at the total destruction of the other physically, psychologically, professionally, and financially, even if they too suffer serious blows.

With the escalation of conflict, opportunities for its management also change. According to Gasl, there is a chance for the constructive resolution of conflict between the individuals at levels 1., 2. and 3. At level 4. 5. and 6 however, a mediator is needed who is respected by both parties. In the case of level 7. 8. and 9., an independent legal organization has the last word (e.g. court).

Of courses, not all conflicts go through all phases, and they cannot always be distinguished. There are certain levels that might be skipped. What is important is that the recognition of certain phases might help participants to choose the quickest and most efficient management tool before they submerge too deep in the conflict.

Besides vertical escalation, we may talk about horizontal escalation as well, which has importance particularly in various institutions.

The levels of horizontal escalation:

Interpersonal level: Emotional signs, data collection, argument – convincing, assessment; evaluation.

Inter-group level: finding allies, the multiplication of interpersonal conflicts, informal group forming, enemy construction.

Inter-organizational level: the establishment of rules, exclusions, the creation of followers, attacks.

While reviewing escalation, we may encounter the involvement of a third party. This third party is a mutually respected person who has power; or a mediator (see later).

5.3. THE BASIC DIRECTIONS AND METHODS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT ^[1]

5.3.1. DIRECTIONS

From the perspective of what kinds of directions conflicts may take spontaneous, or as a result of an impact, we may distinguish between three categories:

Decrease: when the goal is to make the conflict go away; a rapid resolution.

Maintenance: In these cases there might be a chance for long term resolution; long-term conflict might set in.

Escalation: in this case both parties want to win over the other, and they have the right tools to pursue this objective.

Whether we recall international or interpersonal examples, one of these three directions characterize conflict.

It is just as important to recognize that choice between these three examples is not always a matter of rational, logical considerations. Often, irrational motivations assert themselves, such as emotions and impulses—which is not a problem in and of itself, but they must be considered when we analyze the situation and try to determine directions.

5.3.2 BASIC METHODS

The methods selected for conflict management have to do with the intended or unintended directions of conflict. Four methodologies may be distinguished.

Avoidance: When goals do not include escalation, resolving, or even making the conflict apparent, parties might choose to avoid each other, as well as the conflict situation. In this case, we may hardly speak of a conflict situation, as there is not much to talk about.

[1] Rudas (2014) nyomán.

Violence: Violence has long been a conflict management method across cultures for the resolution of conflicts; despite the overall decrease of violent tendencies and cultural mandates to control outbursts, violence still features prominently among conflict reactions. Suffice it to mention wars, state and domestic violence, aggression in the economic realms.

Admission: Sober self-restraint, realistic self-concept and the realistic assessment of the situation is relevant here, and characterizes participants. They are able to assess realistically that risk is greater, and gain is smaller when conflicts escalate. They are able to see the risks of turning losers from winners. They therefore aspire to create wink-and-nod understandings, and move on.

Methods of discussion: When the parties realize that the conflict cannot be resolved by way of avoidance or silent admission, and they do not want to resort to violence either due to ethical, professional, legal or political reasons, the path opens before discussion. Discussions may take place directly between the parties involved, such as for example between a school's leadership and the maintaining institutions. Often however, the parties cannot directly come to an agreement. In these cases, they need techniques like the involvement of a third party, who is not directly implicated in the matter in question.

CHAPTER 6

6.1. THE THOMAS–KILMANN MODEL (TKI)

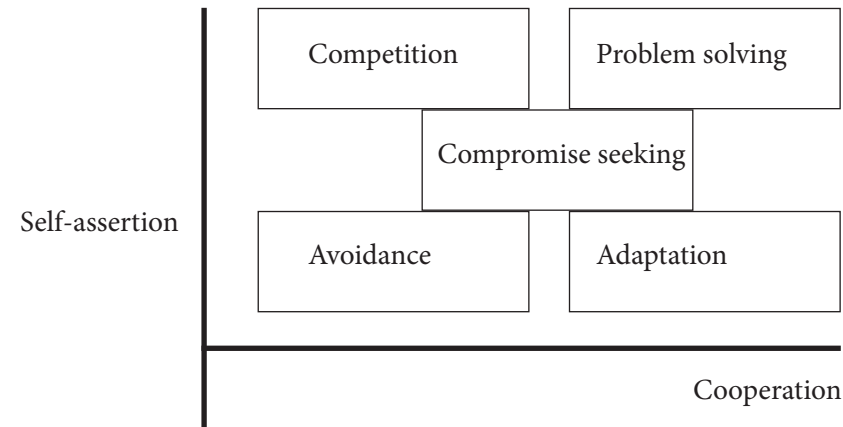
This model of conflict situations considers those situations conflictive, in which the pursuits of two persons are incompatible. In these cases, a person's behavior may be described along to basic dimensions:

- Self-assertion: which means that in every situation, the individual attempts to assert their own interests.
- Cooperation: which means that in a conflictive situation, to what extent does the individual aim to have the other person's interests fulfilled (Thomas—Kilmann 1974, 2002, 2007).

These two behavioral responses allow the definition of five types of conflict management methods.

Adaptation is a cooperative, but not self-assertive method. This is the opposite of competition. The individual gives up their own intentions so that the interests of the other may be fulfilled. There is a certain element of self-sacrifice in this behavior. Adaptation may have the form of selfless generosity, or charity; it may be yielding under pressure, or simply the acceptance of the viewpoints of the other.

Conflict management methods (Based on Thomas–Kilmann)



Avoidance is neither a self-assertive, nor a cooperative behavior. The individual does not follow directly their own intentions, or the intentions of the other person. Avoidance may have a form of diplomatic behavior, postponing interaction to a more convenient time, or withdrawal from a threatening situation.

Problem solving is both self-assertive and cooperative behavior, the opposite of avoidance. It contains the intention of working together with another person and finding a solution that is good for both persons. It means digging ourselves into a problem by defining the basic interests of both parties, and finding an alternative that is suitable for both. Problem solving might be the deeper exploration of a disagreement with the vision of finding a common ground where all interests may be satisfied. It may be an alliance, whose absence would make the parties confront or compete; or it may be striving to creatively solve an interpersonal disagreement.

Seeking a compromise is in-between self-assertion and cooperation. The goal is to find a viable and mutually acceptable solution, which satisfies both parties at least partially. The compromise seeker yields more than the competitor, but less than the adaptor. Compromise seeking means meeting at half-way between the parties, mutual concessions, or a quick solution that bridges interests.

Competition is a self-assertive, uncooperative behavior. The individual asserts their own interests at the expense of the other. This is a power-oriented method: the person uses every method of assertion possible—persuasion, rank, economic sanctions—in order to get into a winning situation. Competition at the same time might mean standing up for one's own right and protecting one's viewpoint; or simply, striving to win.

Each one of the five conflict management types may be useful in certain conflict situations. The efficiency of a conflict management method depends on the requirements of the situation, and how well they are employed.

We are all capable of using all five conflict management methods. No one has one single rigid method when it comes to conflict management. At the same time, we are all better at deploying one method or another, and therefore we tend to use some more frequently than others. (Thomas—Kilmann 1974, 2002, 2007).

6.2. TKI TEST

How do we react in situations where there is divergence between our intentions and the intentions of others? In the following, you will see statement pairs that include possible reactions. Circle statement A. or B. depending on how you think you would react. Even if neither A. or B. would be typical, still circle the one that you think is more likely.

Az alábbi tesztet interaktívan kellene prezentálni a hallagatóknak. Lehetőségük legyen az egyes számokhoz kapcsolódó két állítás közül választani. A válaszaik alapján a rendszer automatikusan megadhatná, hogy melyik módszer milyen mértékben jellemző a kitöltőre. A kiértékelés mátrixát a kérőív után közlöm – minél nagyobb a pontszám, annál jellemzőbb.

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 1. A. | There are situations in which I let others have the responsibility of problem solving. |
| B. | Instead of dwelling on what we disagree about, I try to emphasize things on which we both agree. |
-

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 2. A. | I try to find compromises. |
| B. | I try to focus on what is important for me and for the other party. |
-

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 3. A. | I am usually confident in the pursuit of my goals. |
| B. | I try to spare the feelings of others, and save the relationship. |
-

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 4. A. | I try to find a compromise. |
| B. | Sometimes I give up my own desires and yield to the desires of others. |
-

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 5. A. | I keep seeking the help of the other person in finding solutions. |
| B. | I try to do my best to avoid unnecessary conflict. |
-

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 6. A. | I try to avoid creating unpleasant situations for myself |
| B. | I try to get into a situation of winning. |
-

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 7. A. | I try to postpone the case so that I can reflect more about it. |
| B. | On the basis of mutuality, I yield in certain aspects. |
-

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 8. A. | I am usually assertive in the pursuit of my interests. |
| B. | I want to achieve that every single aspect of the case and every question is discussed openly. |
| 9. A. | I feel that it is not always worth the trouble of being worried about disagreements. |
| B. | I do not regret the effort so that I can go my own way. |
| 10.A. | I am assertive in the pursuit of my goals. |
| B. | I try to find a compromise. |
| 11.A. | I want to achieve that every single aspect of the case and every question is discussed openly |
| B. | I try to spare the feelings of others and save the relationship. |
| 12.A. | Sometimes I avoid making my position clear because it would create disagreements. |
| B. | I don't mind the other person having some of their positions if I am allowed to have some of mine. |
| 13.A. | I recommend a common ground. |
| B. | I try to have my arguments accepted. |
| 14.A. | I express my thoughts, and listen to the thoughts of others attentively. |
| B. | I try to show others the logic and advantages of my position. |
| 15.A. | I try to spare the emotions of the other and save the relationship. |
| B. | I try to do everything that is necessary to avoid tensions. |
| 16.A. | I try not to hurt the feelings of others. |
| B. | I try to convince others of the rightness of my position. |
| 17.A. | I am usually assertive in the pursuit of my goals. |
| B. | I try to do everything to avoid unnecessary tensions. |

- | | |
|-------|--|
| 18.A. | If it makes the other person happy, I let them have their way. |
| B. | I don't mind if the other person has their way, if I can have mine, too. |
| 19.A. | My goal is that every aspect of the case and every question is openly discussed. |
| B. | I try to postpone the case so that I can reflect a bit about it. |
| 20.A. | I want disagreements to be discussed as soon as possible. |
| B. | I try to find a combination of winning and losing that is good for both of us. |
| 21.A. | I discuss matters in a way that I consider the desires of the other person. |
| B. | I am always open to the direct and immediate discussion of disagreements. |
| 22.A. | I try to find a mid-way solution between their position and mine. |
| B. | I assert my desires. |
| 23.A. | I often aim for a situation where both of us are satisfied. |
| B. | There are situations when I let others have the responsibility of problem solving. |
| 24.A. | If the issue seems to be very important for the other person, I try to accommodate their ways. |
| B. | I try to get the other person to agree to a compromise. |
| 25.A. | I try to show others the logic and advantages of my position. |
| B. | I negotiate in a way that I try to consider the desires of the other. |
| 26.A. | I recommend a common ground. |
| B. | I am always concerned that the solution is mutually satisfying. |
| 27.A. | Sometimes I do not show my position if it would generate a disagreement. |
| B. | If it makes the other happy, I have no problem yielding to their desire. |

- | | |
|-------|---|
| 28.A. | I am usually assertive in pursuing my goals. |
| B. | I usually seek the other's cooperation in finding a solution. |
| <hr/> | |
| 29.A. | I recommend a common ground. |
| B. | I feel it is not always worth feeling anxious due to disagreements. |
| <hr/> | |
| 30.A. | I try not to hurt the feelings of others. |
| B. | I always share the problem with others for the sake of a solution. |
| <hr/> | |

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

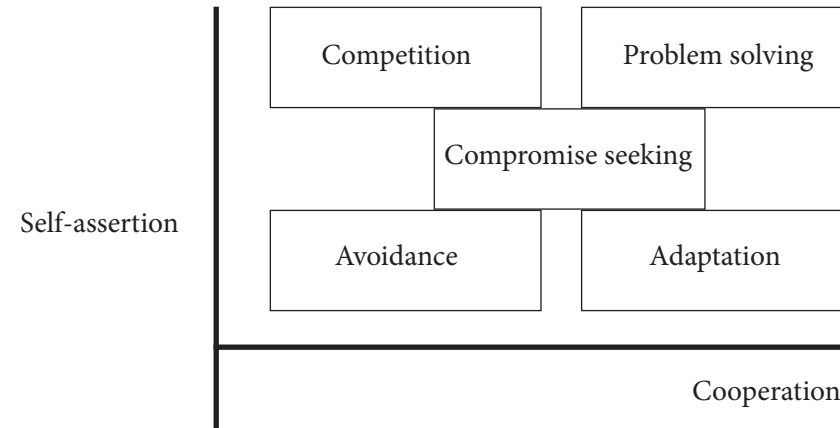
EVALUATION SHEET

Circle the letters you circled in the questionnaire.

	Competition	Problem solving	Compromise seeking	Avoidance	Adaptation
1.				A	B
2.		B	A		
3.	A				B
4.			A		B
5.		A		B	
6.	B			A	
7.			B	A	
8.	A	B			
9.	B			A	
10.	A		B		
11.		A			B
12.			B	A	
13.	B		A		
14.	B	A			

	Competition	Problem solving	Compromise seeking	Avoidance	Adaptation
15.				B	A
16.	B				A
17.	A			B	
18.			B		A
19.		A		B	
20.		A	B		
21.		B			A
22.	B		A		
23.		A		B	
24.			B		A
25.	A				B
26.		B	A		
27.				A	B
28.	A	B			
29.			A	B	
30.		B			A

6.3. TKI IN PRACTICE



The manner of conflict management therefore depends on to what degree parties want their position to be asserted, and to what degree they are willing to yield their position. This model, as the chart shows, works with five conflict management models.

Competition is the conflict management method of assertive people who cooperate little or not at all. The individual asserts their own conflict management strategies against those of the other, even if it may harm them. The cause is important for these people; their partner is not. This is mostly the method of people who are strongly prestige and power oriented. They argue authoritatively in a way that people cannot say a word. In extreme cases, these kinds of people use means that are ethically, morally or legally questionable. Such actions are for example revenge, or at another level the raiding of another country.

Competitive strategies may backfire. On the one hand, the other party may think that it is not worth cooperating with the other, as they cannot influence their decisions. On the other hand, interaction between them decreases, they cease to ask questions from each other, and they cut each other off from information.

It is however useful to deploy in case of:

- Having to act quickly and assertively
- Painful decisions
- Basic questions that the parties do not want up for debate
- Self-defense

Adaptation is the quality of non-assertive, cooperative individuals. It is totally opposite to competition. This kind of strategy does not try to contradict the other, and yields their point of view without criticism. Often, adaptive persons yield their own viewpoints and let those of others dominate. They give up the fight easily. The cause is not important to them (even if they pretend it is), while cooperation with the other is important. Sometimes their motivations are actually selfish, as by pursuing this strategy, they may appear selfless and generous. For example, when we stay longer after office hours to finish someone else's work.

This management strategy may backfire because some people may exploit and humiliate their partners.

It may be a successful strategy in case of the following:

- If we may want to learn from someone
- If we realize we were mistaken
- If you want to show understanding to the other
- If the problem is not important for the individual, but important for the other
- Ending competition, especially when bound to lose
- To avoid schism
- To facilitate the improvement of employees by letting them experiment.

Avoidance is characteristic of people who are neither self-assertive nor cooperative. In this case the individual is not seeking any way to resolve the conflict. The kind of people who pursue this technique usually have a strong need for security. They do not assert their own interests, but they do not facilitate the realization of the interest of the other, either. They think it is better to stay out of the conflict (which of course is not resolved with this). Many times, people have low self-esteem, and they do not think that their solutions are worthy of implementation. Therefore, they give up on them even before articulating them. It may also happen that the person who avoids is not invested in either the cause, or the relationship with the other.

The person who chooses this strategy politely and diplomatically avoids the question and postpones the problem to a later date. An example of this is when we are upset with our colleague, but we don't tell them why; we just wait for them to find out. Mind-reading however is not a learnable skill.

This kind of strategy might backfire, because the person of avoidance might not be taken seriously later; these persons lose their self-respect and self-confidence even more as a consequence and might lose their social relationships.

This strategy can be useful in case of:

- Unimportant questions
- If the individual has more pressing problems
- If the individual sees no chance for the assertion of their interests
- When confrontation would be more harmful than unrealized goals
- To smoothen passions
- When more information is needed
- When they want to delegate the problem to others

Problem solving is a strategy of people who are self-assertive but also cooperative. The individual asserts their own interests, but they also give room to the self-assertion of the other. They aim to have a cooperative relationship so that the problem may be solved together. They look at new solutions as innovations, and always aim to bring about creative outcomes. They strive to close the conflict with mutual satisfaction. The cause and the partner are both important. Both actors are active during the conflict.

If an issue carries great importance, this is the kind of problem-solving strategy that is likely to be adopted. If a building is built on a fairly big budget, it will carry great importance for both the construction company and the client. The building's construction must be safe for the sake of both parties. Any conflicts that might emerge should be approached with an attitude to problem solving.

But even this method might have its drawbacks. Often, this type of conflict management takes a lot of time. Partners must be patient and masters of communication.

Its use might be useful in the following situations:

- The individual finds their and the other's interests important, and do not want to lose them or part of them
- in case of learning and improvement
- in cases when the other's viewpoint is valuable
- in order to gain the other person's cooperation
- during the processing of negative feelings.

During compromise seeking, self-assertion and cooperation are both in the background. More precisely, we are partly assertive, but not too much; we are partly cooperative, but not entirely. This is in fact mid-way between competition and adaptation. To some extent, both the case and the partner are important. The goal is to find mutually acceptable solutions, which satisfies at least partially both parties. Similar to problem solving, this attitude too identifies the problem, if not as deeply and thoroughly.

For example, if we want to put closure to an argument in the family, we partly concede (even if in marginal questions) to our family members, we expect them to concede to us (at least partially) in certain issues. Then, we agree on a solution on a fifty-fifty basis. This kind of conflict management hardly brings a solution in the long run. The problem, since we haven't addressed all its aspects, might come up again, which means we will have to handle it again.

Useful examples of usage:

- In case of the importance of the goals, when cooperation is in danger
- If part of both parties' interest may be sacrificed
- If time is short, for the use of other problem-solving method
- In case of opponents who are equally strong, and their goals exclude each other's
- For a temporary solution

Everyone is able to use all five conflict management strategies; what's more, we all use them to different degrees. Of the five, some we use more often, others only sometimes. There are no inherently good or bad options. Besides our character and socialization, the conflict and our relationship with the other also determines when we use which strategy. The more strategies we are able to use, the more likely that we will use the right method based on the other person and the conflict itself.

CHAPTER 7

7.1. RIEMANN AND THOMANN'S PERSONALITY MODEL [1]

[1] Based on Sasfy
2018.

The research and definition of personality types has a long history. While some information is shrouded in uncertainty, as early as 2500 BCE there reportedly existed a description among sophists that the Jesuits later used to create the so-called *enneagram* personality type system. Later, the determined personality types through anthropological perspectives. These studies produced such presumptions like people of high foreheads are more intelligent, among other beliefs. These presumptions were later discarded by scientific results. Later, important psychologists too focused on personality typologies. Some of the most well-known ones are Carl Gustav Jung, Sigmund Freud, Lipot Szondi or Mihály Csikszentmihályi.

From the perspective of conflict management, Fritz Riemann and Christoph Thomann's personality model might be especially useful, which we will review here. Riemann's basic proposition is that people are essentially different, and unique not only in their behavior, but also in what makes them good when they are well. This later influences their human relationships, their communicative habits, and also their conflict management.

Fritz Riemann's 1961 book was titled *Basic Forms of Fear* (Grundformen der Angst). It proposes that our personality is based on the strategies we use to combat our basic fears.

What are these basic fears? They are fears of

- Trusting others, getting close to others, making commitments to others, and love for others
- Loneliness, independence, and self-realization
- Change, uncertainty, chaos, illegality, uncontrol and irregularity
- Constance, limitations, borders, lack of spontaneity, lack of creativity, and constant vulnerability or exposure.

These align into pairs: fear of the other – fear of loneliness, fear of change – fear of monotony. These pairs have opposing ends, but they are all present in the individual, and it is their ratio that defines personality. This is how we are all unique. On the basis of basic fears, we may draft a character typology. Riemann emphasizes that if one of these fears are pathologically dominant, it may lead to mental illness.

- The illness that corresponds to fears about trust in others is the inability to be attached to others.
- The illness that corresponds to fears about loneliness is depression.
- The illness that corresponds to fears about change is lunacy and obsessive compulsiveness.
- The fear that corresponds to fears about constancy is hysterics.

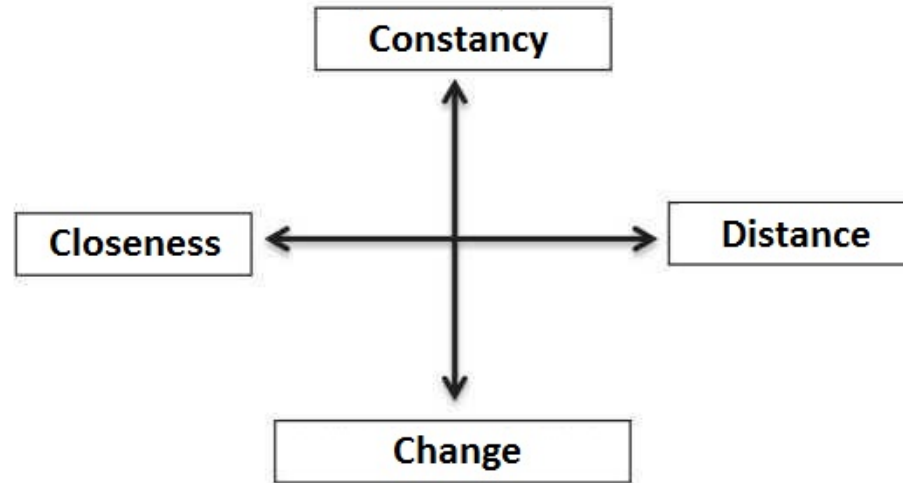
Swiss psychologist Christoph Thomann made Riemann's model more accessible in 1988. He established four basic orientations.

- Need for closeness: relationship with others, harmony, the desire to have relationships with people, attachment to the other, strong desire for the other.
- Need for distance: independence from others, the protection of the self, distance and alienation from others, strong antipathy against others.
- Need for constancy and long lasting: habits, regularity, the aggressive maintenance of the status quo, constant almost maniacal control
- Need for change: flexibility, variability, spontaneity, creativity; the desire for change in the shape of rebellion, escape, or revolution.

While all these needs are present in the individual, they consider one or two as the most important basic orientations. These dominate their relationships. The degree to which these are present yields our personalities that make us unique. At the same time, they may become sources of conflict, too.

The four basic orientations may be represented over two axes: constancy, change, closeness, distance.

The Riemann-Thomann model 1988.



The question is how we handle the different types in case of conflict.

- A personality that values closeness wants to feel that they are not criticized; whatever the nature of the tension, they want to feel appreciated and loved. It is important for them to be accepted by the other person, to have their needs and feelings considered.
- A personality type that values distance has troubles accepting criticism, unless it is communicated in a matter-of-fact way. They do not like others beating about the bush. They get to the point and are very direct. They cannot tolerate others gently feeling their moods instead of direct communication.
- Personality types that value constancy appreciate structured communication in conflict situations; they do not like chaotic information flow. Criticism or blame should be articulated in terms of data and numbers and facts; else, they will not be able to accept them. They expect deals and pacts to be respected by both parties.
- Personality types that favor change need space. They do not like to be cornered, they need to be given the opportunity to experience their feelings and show them without being judged. It is important for them to have options for creative and unusual conflict management strategies.

7.2. ACTIVE LISTENING AND UNDERSTANDING ^[1]

[1] Based on Balázs–Tomesz–Varga 2013.

There are three important groups to consider when it comes to the efficiency of conflict management:

- The source of communication (who says it?): Everyone responds to the content and manner of messages differently. In case of interpersonal communication, it is advisable to tailor the message to the intellectual or emotional dispositions of the receiver.
- The nature of communication (what was said): experiences make communication authentic due to their link to events, and make communication more efficient.
- The features of the receiver (to whom it is said, and how): Not everyone is easy to convince; some people are less than others. The same communication might impact one person, and leave the other unimpacted. Self-evaluation is one of the most important aspects of convincibility. Those with great self-confidence think much of their own opinions, and will be less easy to convince.

Any conflict management strategy may require more than one method and tool depending on the nature of the conflict.

The greatest trap of a conflict situation is that certain thoughts and feelings that could help the situation remain hidden. In these cases, we often think or believe about the other that they already know everything that takes place in me, as they probably experience the same thing. But this is not necessarily the case. It is therefore all the more important that we communicate more clearly in these situations.

We should express

- How we perceive the situation (approach)
- What feelings it evoked in us (emotions)
- How did it impact us (interpretation).

Relying on these three questions allows the other to gain insight into our world and better understand our motivations, needs and desires.

In the next step, we must find this information out about the other person so that the other's needs, desires and motivations may be uncovered. If there is mutual understanding (not necessarily agreement), it is easier to move toward the constructive resolution of the conflict. For successful cooperation, we should follow what the other has to say with active listening to the thoughts and feelings of the other.

The active listener does their best to understand the thoughts and feelings of the other. They pay attention, keep eye contact, have an open body posture, and make comments that encourage the speaker. In order to make sure they understood the speaker, they repeat the message from time to time, and expect confirmation or clarification. It is important that the listener should only give feedback to what they think the message meant—not more, not less.

The signs of active listening:

Eye contact

- Nodding
- Asking questions
- Attentive noises
- Open body posture
- The reproduction of information, clarification
- The mirroring of emotions
- Listener does not do any other activity
- Patient, does not interrupt

- Feedback, summary of information
- Paraphrasing: rephrasing what we heard in our own words
- Empathy

People remember 25% of what they have heard.

This has several reasons:

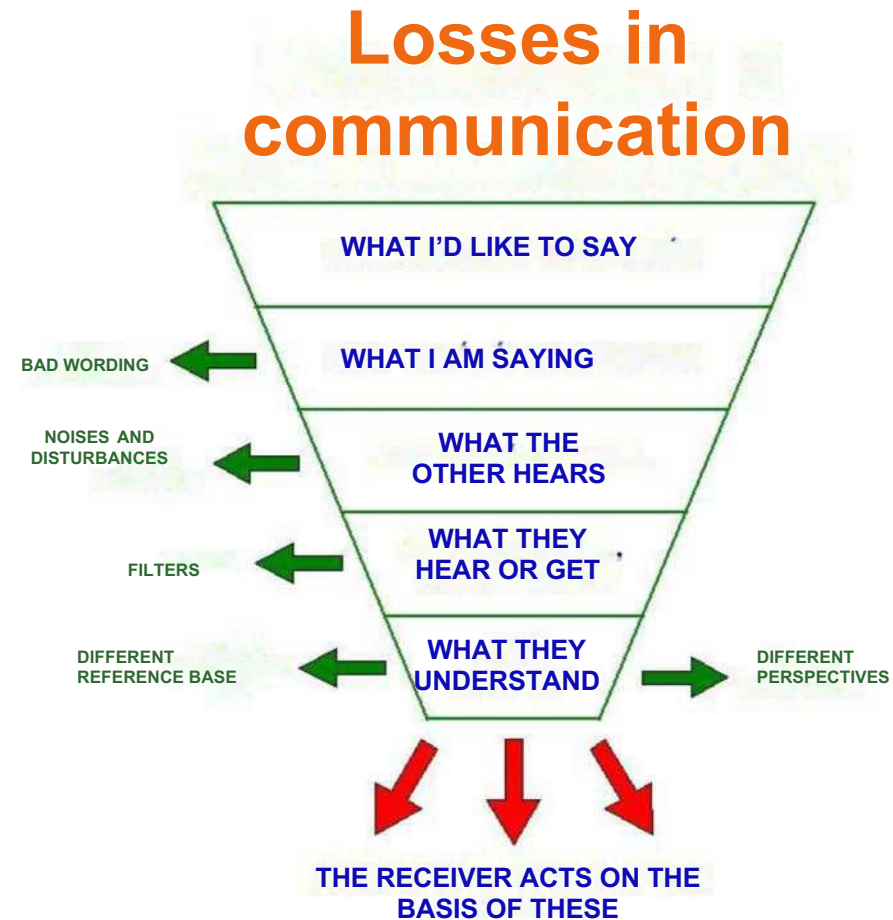
- We think of listening as a passive activity, and we think it is impossible to concentrate for long.
- We often digress and daydream.
- We do not get in the mode of listening.
- We concentrate more on the answer.
- The attitudes of the listener might be so different from those of the speaker, that information might be misinterpreted.

Basic rule:

- Everyone likes to be listened to.
- Most people are more interested in what they have to say than what others have to say.

The closest way to another person is by listening to them actively.
The following graph is worth thinking about.

It shows that in the process of communication, there might be several factors that might create or escalate conflict even without us wanting it.



7.3. I-MESSAGE/YOU-MESSAGE [1]

In the center of a popular approach to conflict stands an event that causes mental disturbance, which allows for the emergence of conflict. This event can be anything; the behavior of another person that causes worry and frustration; arguments between people; disagreements about how to reach a certain business goal; any even where the interests of two individuals diverge.

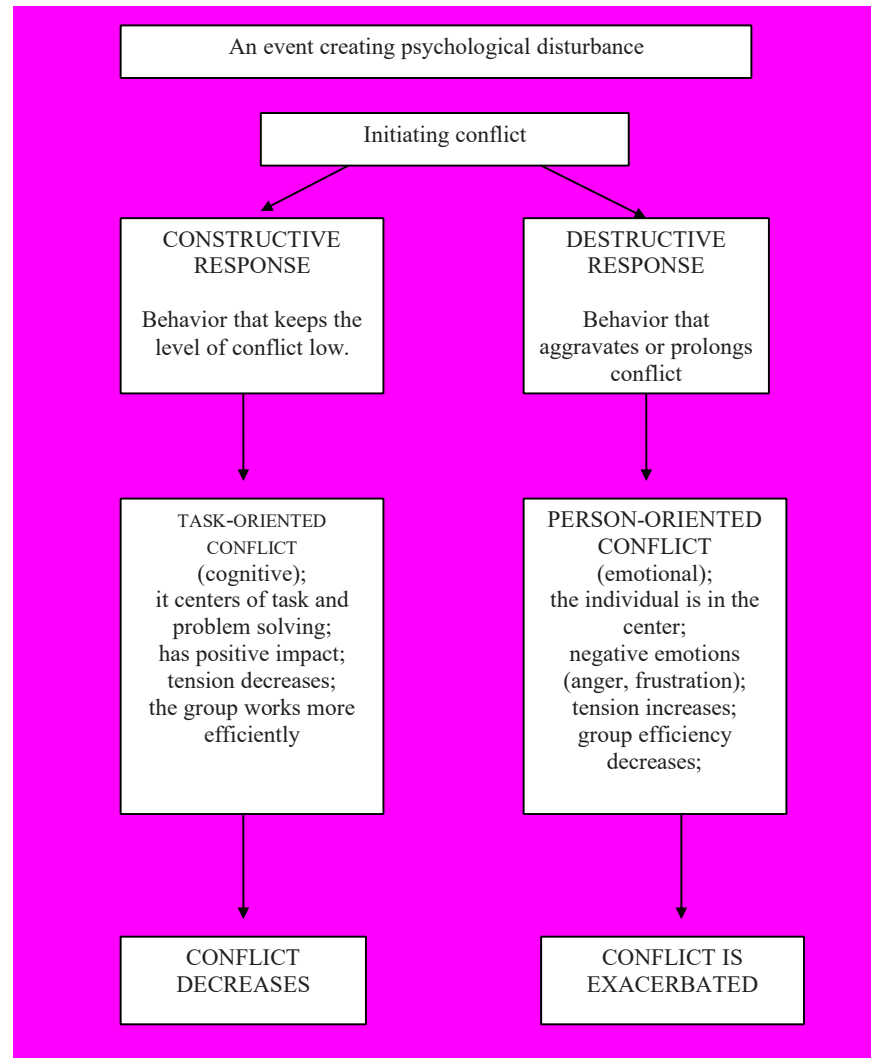
The presence of an event that causes mental disturbance starts the conflict, but the end result still needs to be defined. It most impacts the way people react to a certain conflict, as we saw before. It is up to the reaction of the other whether conflict management will focus on problem solving, or individuals. A constructive response may prevent the escalation of conflict. Tension decreases, and focus will be on ideas, and not persons. In case of destructive response, things get worse, and the conflict may get directed at persons.

The response given to conflict may be active or passive. In case of an active response, the person does something in a constructive or destructive manner. What makes it really active is the effort required by the situation. As opposed to this, passive reaction does not require effort from the individual; rather, it urges them to stay away from action. Passive reactions too can be constructive or destructive, which may make things better or worse. In the matrix of these four categories, behavior may be active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive or passive-destructive.

The reaction to provocation determines whether conflict will be problem oriented or person oriented. There might be situations when the conflict starts out as problem-oriented, but a bad response may turn it into a personal confrontation. With a lot of attention and care, the opposite may happen, too; a personal conflict may be turned into a problem-oriented one.

This approach (the Dynamic Model of Conflict) is directed at behavior. This profile does not quite identify the style of the conflict; rather, it shows the combination of the individual's behavior, personality, and motivations. Here we concentrate only on the typical behavior of the individual in conflict situations. Focusing on behavior allows us to investigate this with great detail, and we better understand how individuals react to conflict. On the other hand, approaching the issue from the perspective of behavior may have particularly useful information for individuals who want to change their behavior. We do not focus on the personality and motivation of the individual, only on how they act, because we think that people can change their behavior. The more we know how they behaved before, during and under conflict, the more they can and want to change their behavior. The following chart shows the development of conflict.

[1] Based on Dávid-Fülöp-Pataky-Rudas (2014)



Thomas Gordon's model of communicative skills and conflict management looks at the practical side of the chart above.

The basis of his model is that

- We must learn how to send messages, particularly I-messages
- We must be able to pay attention to understanding the other
- It is worth investing in communication that does not have losers.

7.3.1. YOU-MESSAGE

The essence of the you-message is that the assessment of the quality of the other person stands in the focus. There are four methods of verbal pointing.

The first method is “assessment, scolding, lecturing.”

- Assess (or rather, criticize negatively): Your approach is wrong, you do not pay enough attention to the details.
- Scold: You should get up in time in the morning. You should leave for your workplace on time.
- Lecture: You should have chosen your workplace with greater care, when you decided you would work so far away from your workplace.

These verbal methods might create defiance in the other person. It is not the situation that creates conflict, but the fact that these remarks appear in the interaction. It may also happen that the person who creates the conflict is right with regards to the content of the message. Even negative remarks can be learnt from, if they have elements that one should consider.

The second method of verbal pointing is the attack of the other person and their personality by verbal means.

For example:

- It is really typical of you to interrupt and make pejorative remarks or speak parallel with me.
- I can see that you like to be in the center. You always have to call attention to yourself.
- You get anxious because you do not understand what I am talking about.

There are many reasons for why someone deploys this method. However, these kinds of sentences have nothing worth considering. They have the least bit of constructiveness. It is best to step out of conversations or situations like these.

The third kind of verbal pointing is irony, sarcasm and mocking:

- How nice of you to join our meeting, even if a bit late!
- Your dress looks very nice—particularly compared to how you used to dress until recently.
- I see you've been to a hair stylist. I used to have the same haircut—fifteen years ago!

Many people use this kind of communication style. If there is no power differential between the parties, and they are friends, it might not lead to conflict. At a conversation among friends, there is a lot of friendly bartering and mockery. As long as they keep it under control, this kind of language is acceptable. However, if it hits a nerve and elicits verbal counter reaction, this situation might become conflict.

This kind of communication style may be efficient from a certain perspective because:

- It is hard to respond to them (unless we use irony)
- One may always say that they were only joking, and they did not mean it seriously.

The fourth method of verbal pointing is asking a lot of “whys.” This might be a form of verbal bullying.

For example, the following sentences can hardly constitute a conversation:

- Why didn’t you inform me about this?
- Why didn’t you pass this information on?
- Why didn’t you inform others?
- Why did you think you can make decisions by yourself?
- Why did you act without my consent?

This kind of communication may be efficient in a way, because the person who asks

- Does not express their opinion per se;
- Forces the other to defend themselves, to explain themselves;
- One is forced to answer the questions of “why.”

At the same time, this might also increase conflict even if we want to avoid it.

When should we deploy this strategy? When we feel that we are not important to the other person. The question is, to what degree are they important to us. If the cause is important but the other person is not (or we do not want to maintain a long term relationship with them), we may act competitively. If we do want to act cooperatively and need the other in the long run, we had better remove the thorns that such comments cause.

The general characteristics of you-messages:

- The emphasis is always on the personality and actions of the other;
- They keep moralizing about the actions of the other;
- Judge and blame the other person;
- Make the other person feel guilty;
- Often humiliate the other on purpose;
- Express disrespect toward the other;
- Never talk about their own feelings;
- Hurt the self-confidence of the other;
- You-messages harm rather than heal the relationship
- Often provoke counter reactions

I-messages

In I-messages we communicate our own thoughts, feelings, needs and expectations. Our feelings should not offend the other person. We never offend in I-messages. We do not blame, judge or preach. We express our thoughts and take responsibility for them. We communicate in a matter-of-fact way, even if we express our feelings.

We respect each other. We use I-messages when:

- Clarifying our thoughts and feelings helps solving conflicts (if the other is not interested, it's not worth telling them);
- The other person's position becomes rigid (we try to soften it in this case);
- The other also uses I-messages; we want to soften the emotional overheatedness of the other.

The I-messages serve to communicate that we are humans, and we deserve to be treated as such. We have feelings whose violation is unacceptable, and we expect the other to want to solve the conflict, too.

In situations other than the ones above, I-messages do not work. They might not work immediately for the first time. It might happen that I-messages must be repeated and packaged in a different form. In such cases, they usually work after 3 or 4 trials. If they do not, we should conclude that I-messages should not be deployed in the given situation.

How should we formulate I-messages? There are different methods.

First method: Three sentences or sentence parts

1. Emotions that the other feels
2. The actions of the other that evoked that feeling
3. The reason why the individual feels the way they do, or the consequence that that happens to the individual.

Examples:

I feel comfortable when my work is negatively critiqued in front of others; it makes me feel unsuitable for my position. (reason)

I feel sad when you forget my birthday, because it feels like you don't care about me. (reason)

It feels unpleasant when you assess my work in front of others, because others will see me as the weakest link in the team. (consequence)

Second method: 3M method

1. Tell me what happened! (Perception): I noticed that...
2. Tell me about the impact of this! (Facts and emotions): This means for me that... I feel...
3. Tell me what you'd like (Expectation): I wish... I would like to ask you...

Example: Yesterday you assessed my work negatively in front of others, as a result of which they consider me the weakest link in the team. Please next time assess my work in private.

CHAPTER 8

8.1. The definitions and processes of Nonviolent communication [1]

[1] Based on Serena (2017).

There are situations when both parties are interested in resolving the conflict in a non-aggressive manner without appealing to a higher authority.

In this case, it is advisable to consider the following rules:

1. *Acknowledge* the fact of the conflict. Accept the fact that the changes and existence of any community is marked by conflicts, and the necessity to resolve conflicts, as we implied earlier. That is, we should not consider conflict as something evil.
2. The parties should actually *want* to resolve the conflict. If they want to avoid the involvement of an external force (like a mediator or a higher authority), they have to realize that they all need to work on the conflict. This is the only way to have results that come from their own effort, and not external intervention.
3. Everyone should look at the other party as *part* of a shared problem, and not as an enemy that one must fight (this is no doubt one of the hardest parts of this process). We must realize that a position of win-lose might easily turn into a lose-win, and so we should strive for win-win solutions. That is, we must accept that the other party too is interested in fixing the problem. This already is a huge step forward, even if the actual problem must still be solved.
4. The ability to manage conflicts and optimally solve them is not some kind of transcendental ability, or genetic gift. Those knowledges and practical skills that make conflict management efficient are *learnable*.

These steps should be born in mind in situations that require conflict management. They are supported by the use of Nonviolent Communication. The concept of Nonviolent Communication may be linked to Marshall B. Rosenberg. He employed the model for the conflict management of various crisis situations, wars, and peace making across the world. Nonviolent Communication allows us to get in touch with ourselves, and reach others. The ultimate goal of Nonviolent Communication is that participants are connected at the level of the heart. In practice, what is required for this is empathy, which allows us to understand the other; and honest self-expression, which allows the other to understand us. For even when we do not think our words are “violent,” they may cause sorrow for the other person or ourselves.

Marshall Rosenberg called jackal language the kind of aggressive, blaming, and judgmental communication that we use to relate to each other as a result of our socialization. In a conflict situation, a jackal manifests two types of behavior: if they perceive their enemy weaker, they charge at them aggressively; if they perceive the other stronger, they hide with their tail between their legs.

The symbol of nonviolent communication is the giraffe. The giraffe has the biggest heart of all mammals that live on land. Giraffes are very strong animals, but they are also very docile; they could knock out their opponent with a single kick, but they don't do it. Its saliva can dissolve thorns, which symbolizes the ability to dissolve the thorns of conversations with empathy and understanding. Giraffes are very much aware of their needs and interests, they own them, and they will not give up on them (as opposed to the cowardice of the jackal). However, while they aim to have their needs fulfilled, they also do their best to understand the feelings of others, and the needs behind them. And when it comes to action, giraffes find solutions acceptable only if their partner's needs get the same attention as theirs.

A sentence created in the spirit of nonviolent communication consists of four steps:

1. **Observation.** This means separating facts from their interpretation and evaluation. Observation refers to what happens objectively in a given situation: what is that neutral outsiders would see the same way?

Therefore, observation does not contain: the interpretation of facts; the evaluation of the other; generalizations.

2. **Emotions.** Since our affective vocabulary is rather poor, we often encounter difficulties when it comes to articulating our feelings. Feelings are by nature beyond dispute. One cannot "feel falsely." A giraffe does two things with feelings. On the one hand, they tell their own feelings honestly; on the other hand, they listen to the feelings of others, even the inarticulate howling of the jackal.
3. **Needs.** In nonviolent communication, by needs we understand universal human needs. Needs, just like emotions, are all respectable, and they are equally hard to express.
4. **Query.** If I voiced my needs and feelings in a given situation, I may ask the other to act. Queries in NVC are positive, specific, doable or rejectable.

We have to provide the following conditions:

- Open communication between the parties, whose basis is honesty, trust, and acceptance
- Ability to listen to and understand the other
- Openness, empathy
- Respecting others
- Self-assertion (fulfilling our own needs and desires without harming the other person)
- At least one of the parties should be interested in the conscious control of the process; it is not absolutely necessary that the other knows the language of nonviolent communication, or that they show empathy. If we stick to the principles of nonviolent communication, they will eventually come around to it.
- Ability to cooperate

8.2. THE HARVARD METHOD

Roger Fischer and William Ury published their groundbreaking work *Getting to Yes* in 1981, which has sold several millions of copies and has been translated to 30 languages. The book has become a must-read in negotiation techniques and conflict management due to the fact that it clarifies major issues in a very accessible and concise language. Before, the education of negotiation techniques focused on what kind of advice should be given to a party in order to get the biggest gain out of the situation. What was groundbreaking in *Getting to Yes* is that the authors argued for the increase of overall, common net gains as opposed to increasing individual shares. If a better solution brings about more net gain and values, more can be redistributed, and everyone might leave the table happy.

The paradigm shift of this book lied in the fact that they changed the basic question. They asked what kind of advice could be given to both parties in order for the best solution to emerge. That is, here, the best solution was no longer understood as the best gain of one party, but as the maximum gain of the entire situation and process. It is this paradigm shift that started a decades-long process through which they developed the cooperative, integrative negotiation techniques that may be applied to the most diverse conflict situations.

The parties step outside of the culture of competitive negotiation, and work on a constructive process where they find solutions in which the different perceptions of the actors may merge. This is not a value-free process; rather, it has a very specific value of the belief in the dignity and abilities of people, and the belief in everyone's ability and right to form opinions and partake in decisions that concern them. If this basic premise does not exist, this method remains an empty narrative. As long as people do not believe that everyone has the right to partake in decisions whose outcomes affect them, and that they are capable of being part of the solution, and that they may contribute to problem solving, they will not be able to turn to others with the right openness and attention. They will lack curiosity, which is a basic ingredient for this method of conflict management and the discussions it requires. If this investigative aspect of negotiation is lacking, there will be no common values, either. Humbleness and dignity, freedom and responsibility, value creation and cooperation go together. If someone is unable to listen to various perspectives with openness and humbleness, and thus explore options, they will not negotiate cooperatively. They also need to acknowledge that others have the ability and skills to cooperate and find the most optimal solutions. When the involvement of partners or concerned parties is only a tactical or political move, participants will sooner or later feel that, and it hurts trust among them. One more final thought: in difficult and complex situations of negotiation, or escalated conflicts, sometimes values, humbleness and integrity are still not enough. One also needs skills. We need experience and tools to be able to cooperate in basically normal relationships; in relationships of conflict, special skills are required.

The Harvard method recommends four kinds of basic principles:

1. People and issues have to be separated
2. It is not positions that should be defended; rather they should focus on interests
3. Before decision making, several alternatives should be considered
4. One must agree on objective criteria for decision making

The first premise means that as long as our approach to the conflict is personal and people-oriented, our negative or positive thoughts about that person will occupy our mind, and we are unable to approach the issue with a cool head. However, in order to find a solution, we must be able to see the whole panorama of interests and needs. For this, the investigative phase must treat the expectations and opinions at least as important as our own.

The second premise highlights that it is important to define positions, interests and needs, and to find the essence of cooperative behaviors. Interests and needs must be fully explored. Active attention is necessary for this process. It is however important to see that we must understand the perspective of the other person. This does not necessarily mean agreement; only understanding. One does not have to agree on preferences. Just before we said that the creation of value was based on diverging preferences. We must explore these preferences for value creation, and for the creation of solutions that are acceptable for everyone.

The third and fourth premise is particularly important in complex conflict situations. When we face a monolithic situation, for example the distribution of a basket full of oranges, we negotiate the fair distribution of resources. In complex situations, however, we must negotiate about several elements at the same time, and not every one of them generates value. In a complex situation there are compatible, integrative and distributive elements.

- We call those elements compatible in which the position of the two parties does not clash, and there is a chance for mutually acceptable solutions.
- Distributive elements are those in which interests are opposing. These are zero sum situations: whatever one gains, the other loses.
- Integrative elements are those where value may be created by exploring preferences, and depending on their intensity, the parties decide if and where they can yield.

We may see that among the three elements, value creation is only present in integrative elements; the objective of investigative negotiations is to separate the three elements. That is how they may identify good solutions in compatible elements; exploit value creation in integrative elements; and balance distributive elements in a way that each “package” is fair and acceptable to all parties. These possible packages are called alternatives. It is good to consider several alternatives, because seeing these “packages of agreement,” parties become more confident in actually finding a solution. If options are divergent, the divergence of packages will show where changes should be made.

The fourth basic premise is that the parties must create criteria of decision making at the beginning, and not the end, of the process. Objective criteria for decisions is important because it helps us accept and understand interests and needs in a neutral terrain. If we manage to link criteria to general, or commonly shared values, principles and rights and regulations, a common perspective emerges, and there is a good chance that a more objective and structured path occurs. A lot of time and effort may be saved this way, and we may reduce risks that come from undesired tensions.

EXERCISES:

1. Fill in the missing parts. (10 points)

Alább félkövérrrel jelöltem a pótlendő részeket.

The paradigm shift of this book lied in the fact that they **changed** the basic question. They asked **what kind** of advice could be given to both parties in order for the best solution to emerge. That is, here, the best solution was no longer understood as the best gain of **one party**, but as the **maximum gain** of the entire situation and **process**. The parties step outside of the culture of **competitive negotiation**, and work on a constructive process where they find solutions in which the **different perceptions** of the actors may merge. This is not a value-free process; rather, it has a very **specific value** of the belief in the dignity and abilities of people, and the belief in everyone's ability and right to form opinions and partake in **decisions** that concern them. If this basic premise does not exist, this method remains an empty narrative.

2. Put in order the scheme of the Harvard negotiation and conflict management strategies. (4 points)

Alább a helyes sorrendet szerepelttetem.

1. People and issues have to be separated
2. It is not positions that should be defended; rather they should focus on interests
3. Before decision making, several alternatives should be considered
4. One must agree on objective criteria for decision making

CHAPTER 9

9.1. The concepts of ADR ^[1]

The most common definition of ADR is that it is a group of procedures that offer an alternative to the slow, inflexible and costly legal procedures of courts. This usually means the involvement of a neutral third party who helps the disputing parties find a common ground in their opposition. The literature about ADR describes the advantages and disadvantages of alternative dispute resolution as opposed to conventional legal processes. Below are some of those advantages and disadvantages.

The advantages of alternative dispute resolution over conventional legal methods:

- ADR may take much less time
- It may be much less expensive for the parties involved
- Parties may have greater control over the case
- Creativity may play a greater role
- It is based on mutual trust
- In case of successful ADR, there is a win-win solution
- There is greater likelihood of voluntary law-abidance in the future
- It adapts more flexibly to the needs of participants.

[1] Based on Varga (2009).

The disadvantages of ADR:

- Since it is voluntary, there is no guarantee of completion
- The public is mostly closed out, which might hinder successful resolution
- It cannot be applied in every case

THE TYPES OF ADR:

Across the world, there are many methods for ADR; here we present the most well-known ones.

The first one of these methods is consultation without the participation of a third party

There are positions that are differentiated within the same process, and they distinguish between consultation and negotiation. The first one refers to the situation when one of the parties shows willingness to find the other party (or their representative) and ask their advice, while keeping the right of decision making. In case of negotiations, we see the common effort of both parties at coming to an agreement, whose subject is common decision making about an agreement that is suitable for all.

A common feature of the other procedures is that after this consultation, the two parties reach out to a third party and involve them for the sake of mutual satisfaction. Sometimes this is not the decision of the parties in dispute, but that of a superior organization or person; in other cases, it is some regulation that forces parties in this direction; or the parties may have previously agreed on involving a third party in case there is no common agreement.

These procedures are the following:

- Conciliation
- Mediation

- Fact-finding
- Arbitration
- Court procedures
- Other procedures

9.2. THE EUROPEAN UNION REGULATION OF ADR

There are hundreds of ADR mechanisms in the European Union.

The following is a factual presentation of related regulations thus far recognized:

1. Green Paper on alternative dispute resolution in civil and commercial law
2. Council of Europe Committee of Ministers Recommendation Rec(2002)10 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on mediation in civil matters
3. Council of Europe Committee of Ministers – Recommendation No. R (99) 19 recommendation No. R (99) 19 of the Committee of Ministers to member States concerning mediation in penal matters
1. Council of Europe Committee of Ministers Recommendation No. R (98) 1 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on family mediation
2. Council of Europe Committee of Ministers Recommendation Rec(2001)9 on alternatives to litigation between administrative authorities and private parties
3. The 2008/52/EU European Parliament and Council directive (2008 May 21) about the various criteria of mediation in cases of civil and commercial issues—this directive applies in cases that go beyond borders, while presenting conceptual frameworks, principles and regulations that cannot be avoided by regulation of other mediation activities.
4. Finally, the following regulations have been approved: 2013/11/EU about the alternative resolution of consumers' rights; 2006/2004/EU ADR directives; 524/2013/EU resolution about consumer rights online; 2006/2004/EU regulation and 2009/22/EU directive (online ADR about consumers' rights. They were published on June 18 2013 in the official journal of the EU.

9.3. Types of ADR ^[1]

Besides mediation, we may also mention facilitation, or conference and discussion group models when discussing ADR. All these techniques are directed at easing conflict among parties in a way that all those involved—including the community at a small scale—take active part in resolution, and problem solving becomes a result of their input. At the same time, there may be significant differences between models depending on who participates in them, how rigid the process is, in what cases the given method may be used, and what the objective of the process is. The main motif of *conference* models for example is the discussion of stories or experiences that are important for the given community for some reasons (eg. the “warfare” of two big families in a small village), or they caused the violation of norms and relationships among people. The objective of discussion groups may be the cohesion of the community, the recovery after traumatic confrontations within the community. Facilitation or mediation may help the flow of communication, and conflict resolution within the community by releasing stress and tension. The objective of conference models is to restore hurt human relationships and norms, and shape communities. The process will involve not only those two or three individuals who are directly concerned in the conflict (for example, the neighbors of an aggressive drunk), but the entire community who are all impacted by it (for example people in the neighborhood).

The conference model has various forms. The conference models of young people’s family therapies allow the involvement of not only the youngster, but their families as well in order to avoid the occurrence of delinquency. The communal group conferences allow that the individual who harmed collective norms may understand the consequence of their actions; that the victim may partake in decision making; and all members of the community who are impacted may take part in the process of decision making. Community group and conference models are suitable for workplace or school conflicts as well, as they allow all participants to voice their feelings and thoughts in the matter, and have a say in the process of resolution.

In the case of discussion groups, we may find peace making groups, assessment groups and healing groups. They share the same basic premise that no one has the right to make decisions for another person. The goal of peace-making groups is to restore good relationships within the community. The parties involved in the conflict, as well as their friends and relatives show up besides the members of the community. Assessment groups allow judgements to be formed particularly when crimes are committed so that grievances are relieved and they may understand the crime and its motivations, while everyone may express their opinions. A very important aspect of this kind of conflict management technique is that both the parties involved in the crime, friends and relatives, and the community are fully present in the decision making as to what should be done to prevent the further occurrence of a similar crime. Healing groups aim to restore the harmony of the community through several steps. First, those most directly involved in the conflict – perhaps the victim and the culprit – partake in a separate session in a healing circle.

[1] Based on Rácz
(2015).

Involving the victim and their families serves to emotionally take care of the victim, and fulfill their psychological needs; involving the family of the culprit allows them to fully face the consequences of the crime, and that the culprit takes responsibility for it. These emotionally very significant phases may be followed by the integration of these two healing circles into an assessment group, and a final decision is made.

Alternative conflict management techniques include facilitation and mediation. In case of facilitation, professionals have diverging opinions about it as a conflict management model. Some think that it doesn't exist as such, as a separate model besides mediation, conference models and group models; others define it as a technique that prevents the emergence of conflict. We must therefore make a distinction between mediation, facilitation and conference models.

Facilitation, or directed negotiation, is a less structured alternative conflict management strategy through which the facilitator helps problem solving become more efficient by directing communication between the parties.

Facilitation may be used when:

- The communication of the parties beyond the negotiation is normal
- There are no irreconcilable differences between the parties
- It is necessary for the success of the negotiation

This process is less structured. The task of a facilitator is making decisions, and making the process of problem solving more efficient (for example by keeping the two parties' focus on the subject); the final decision, however, will be made by the parties.

Mediation – or mediated negotiation – is a kind of structured alternative conflict resolving strategy through which the mediator helps the two parties find a solution.

Mediation may be also used when:

- The organization of the negotiation would be otherwise hampered
- The parties are no longer able to communicate with each other
- There are irreconcilable differences between the parties

The process is structured. The mediator's task is complex. On the one hand, the mediator supports both parties in resolving the antagonism; on the other hand, they prevent the situation from escalating. In fact, they appear as a kind of catalyst, and they do not focus on the position of the parties, but their interests. But here too, decision making belongs with the parties involved. Facilitation and mediation have several common features. Such a condition is that the person of the facilitator or mediator must be acceptable to both parties.

The mediator or facilitator is therefore:

- Neutral
- Focus on processes, and not the professional content of the conflict
- They are motivated by the content of the end result, that is the agreement, not just its success

When we distinguish facilitation and mediation, there is a difference between:

- Its employment
- The task of the facilitator/mediator
- The structure of the process

CHAPTER 10

10.1. THE DEFINITIONS AND WORKINGS OF MEDIATION ^[1]

Mediation as a negotiation technique of conflict management works on a voluntary basis. In mediation, there is a third party, the mediator, whom the two conflicted parties choose together, in agreement. The frameworks of mediation are established together by both parties, and they rely on written or unwritten modes and processes. The process is directed by a neutral mediator, but it is the parties who come to an agreement. There is no compulsory agreement, but if the parties come to even just a partial agreement, it counts as a formal contract and may be executed as long as the parties want it. This conflict management technique is private, although some of its parts may be specified in legal frameworks.

We may identify the following four approached as they emerge in the literature on mediation based on the past decades:

1. *Satisfaction based on the fulfillment of needs.* This approach grew out from the actual practice of mediation, and generalized its experiences. Its goal and expected result is to find an optimal solution from the perspective of the needs of both parties as they defined them; this solution must be optimal for both. This presumes the cooperative attitude of both parties, and may lead to a win-win situation. Part of this type of mediation may be personal savings in both a financial and psychological sense; also, since courts are not involved, we may talk of communal savings, too. International and domestic examples both show that we may encounter mediation with this outcome, where all parties are satisfied. This approach considers generalized satisfaction as the main goal of mediation.
2. *The pursuit of interests and justice.* This approach is relevant among communities of different status. With the help of mediation, communities might become more independent of state and other powers. They may be able to identify common interests, and pursue them often against external powers. Mediation leads to the articulation of personal and communal interests, their bottom-up self-organization, and the improvement of their self-confidence.
3. *Empowerment of society and social groups.* This approach emphasizes that mediation contributes to the recognition of resources in these groups, how to put them to better use, and how to transfer those knowledges to other contexts. This approach highlights that mediation improves interpersonal and intergroup relationships. In this sense, the development of persons and groups is manifest in empathy, decentralization, self-strengthening, and mutual respect. That is, the greatest result of mediation here is the transformation of society.

[1] Rudas (2014) nyomán.

4. The fourth approach is the most ideological one. It is a kind of countercultural attitude, which actually positions itself against mediation as a method and movement. To this view, mediation is a tool of the rich and powerful to subjugate the poor and the weak; this intention is materialized by the mediator, who poses as a neutral person, while playing to the powerful actors. From this perspective, mediation is a *tool of exploitation*.

Like in many other cases, mediation started as a *movement* in the 1970s and 80s. Depending on the *objectives* of the groups participating in these movements, and what *consequences* they emphasized, we may speak of different kinds of approaches. We should be well aware of these so that we may place our work and the mediation process in a broader professional and social context.

10.1.1. THE WORKINGS, ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MEDIATION

Mediation as a process is characterized by the following main tendencies:

1. Participants in the mediation process aim to change the nature of the conflict and the disagreement, and create clearly definable *agreements*. Mediation functions well when it maintains equal rights and power relations between the parties through honest and fair methods.
2. The opportunities created during this process allow the parties to communicate and mutually learn about the other's feelings, thoughts, fears, opinions, and ideas for solution. Among these opportunities we may mention the right climate for negotiation, and the perspective that the parties involved may come to *make decisions about their own lives together*.
3. The right mediation process is constructive and useful, because it results in a common agreement between the parties. It is gradual, as it approaches the final solutions step by step. The mediator is an external, neutral person. Confidentiality is of great importance in the mediation process: the subjects, the events and the persons involved must be treated with the greatest confidentiality. Mediation is a voluntary process whose objective is to solve a problem; its focus therefore must be the *future*, not the past.

The main advantages of mediation for the parties involved:

- It may lead to a specific agreement between the parties.
- As a result, it may lead to long term solutions.

- It may change the attitudes of people involved towards the problem.
- Conflict management beyond this specific case might be more efficient in the future.
- The skills and experiences that actors learn during mediation may become part of their behavior, and they may be deployed in other situations as well.

Limitations of mediation:

- It is not a universal cure for all problems.
- Open aggressiveness and violent outcomes cannot be part of the essentially peaceful process of mediation.
- Mediation cannot be done with only one party; both parties must want to participate voluntarily.
- In case of certain conflicts, regulations require legal procedures, and exclude (implicitly or explicitly) the usefulness of mediation.
- It may happen that the parties might find another method more efficient than mediation, for example arbitration or a lawsuit.

enough for at least one party to want it. FALSE

10.2. THE CONTEXT AND PROCESS OF MEDIATION ^[1]

There are contexts and conditions that improve or hamper mediation.

Conditions that improve mediation:

- Partners find their personal or organizational relationship important.
- Persons find the establishment and maintenance of mutual trust important.
- They visibly aim to strike as many agreements as possible.
- There is a balance of power between them.
- Communication channels are not obstructed, and they exist.
- There is no opportunity for the emergence of conflicts.
- There are passions in the actors that need channeling outside.
- Both parties have a need for discussion, for the efficient resolution of conflict.
- Both parties suffer if the conflict goes unresolved.
- When parties agree, they are actually able to fix the given problem.
- The outcome of mediation does not threaten the safety of any party.

[1]Based on 2014.

- The Parties are voluntary participants.
- Parties weighed other options, but found mediation the most suitable.
- Both parties find the person of the mediator acceptable and neutral.

Of course, favorable conditions might include negative and unfavorable things, but that is what makes them positive for mediation.

Disadvantages and negative scenarios for mediation:

- There is a strong imbalance of power between parties.
- There are rules or regulations that assign power to a higher entity in the given issue.
- There is a legal procedure underway, which does not require or allow the involvement of mediation.
- Mediation threatens the legal or financial security of any of the parties.
- The two perspectives are very far apart and inflexible.
- One of the parties is actually not interested in agreement or is only interested in a future agreement.
- The parties cannot or will not participate in mediation.

Some of the basic premises and principles of mediation may be summed up in the following:

- Mediation as a conflict management strategy brings the parties closer and eases rigid opposition by bringing both parties to the table.
- They do not focus on past grievances but future solutions.
- Regulates tasks and behaviors necessary for success in quite a detail. This creates a climate of mutual trust between the parties.
- It turns negotiations based on diverging positions into discussions based on interests.
- It transforms the mutual blame and complaints of the parties into statements, needs and interests; this way, it removes passions and impulses from the situation.
- It strengthens tangible positive features.
- By the right treatment of the negotiation process, it creates a constructive communication mode instead of a destructive one.

Mediation must also abide by certain ethical principles. One of the most important principles concerns the *selection of the mediator*. This person must be accepted by all, and they must be neutral. Parties must look at the mediator as a person whom they find competent in the understanding of the problem itself, and the direction of the mediation process itself.

Another important principle is *confidentiality*. This means the confidential treatment of the mediation process. The negotiations must be attended only by the parties and their representatives. They must agree to treating the content of these meetings confidentially. (Later, if the case must go to court, mediators cannot be convoked as witnesses. At mediation, legal representatives may also participate, but unlike in lawsuits, they cannot substitute the parties involved; the parties' presence is absolutely necessary).

10.2.1. THE STRUCTURE OF THE PROCESS OF MEDIATION

The complete mediation process may be divided into distinguished phases, stations, and parts. These constitute the structure of mediation.

Preconditions and preparation

Information seeking and assignment. This stage decides whether there will be mediation at all. As voluntariness is a necessary component, it is in this stage that conflicted parties declare that they want the involvement of a third party. It is advisable to make this declaration in writing. After this agreement, the parties choose a neutral mediator that both parties trust. The organization that arranges for the selection of the mediator gives the parties a list of names that the parties choose from. This organization is well informed about the nature of the conflict and the situation of the parties. The parties too are informed about financial and temporal requirements of mediation.

Contacting the parties. Here it is the mediator that takes up contact with the parties together, or separately. The mediator introduces themselves and assesses the territory and the subject of conflict. Then, they try to clarify what kind of emotional background characterizes the conflict. Then, they notify the parties about mediation itself, its process, methods, possible results and the roles of the mediator. This is particularly important where this is the first time they use mediation for conflict management. Mediators have important functions in this case for disseminating knowledge. In this phase, it is also important that the parties and the mediator learn about the aims of the others and create a climate of trust.

Preparation for negotiation. During this phase, the mediator thinks through their task, and chooses the most suitable methods and techniques of mediation. They execute or delegate organizational and logistical tasks. Based on the information they have, they prepare for the discussion.

Negotiation

Opening the negotiation. The formal part of this phase is greeting the people; seating them; and mutual presentations. At this point, the mediator communicates the rules, regulations, and procedures of the mediation process. (These only apply if both parties agree to them). After this, the mediator gives both parties equal time for the articulation of their positions. This time cannot be interrupted. Neither the mediator nor the other party may interrupt this discourse. When they both have expressed their positions, the mediator summarizes what they heard.

Exploring the problem. The mediator chooses the problems that have to be solved together with the two parties. They encourage the parties to communicate. They clarify who thinks what, and what they fear. This is a very important phase of mediation, because through this, they must identify the emotions that lie behind the conflicts. In this phase, blame and complaints must be turned into statements and the open declaration of interests. It is not the task of the mediator to convince any party of changing their position.

Rather, the mediator's task is to clarify the differences between positions and interests; to summarize in what they agree and disagree. Then, they help the parties change their position by building on all the above. Changing position basically means turning away from the past towards the future.

Working out an agreement. First, they must work out those specific points that both agree on gradually, step by step. During this phase, they ask the parties' recommendations, encourage problem solving methods, and assess opportunities. Most likely, not all problems will be solved, and it is uncertain if there would be an agreement in every topic, particularly in complex questions. Still, every topic must be thoroughly discussed. Agreement must refer to issues only where there is agreement. Reasonable recommendations are not enough; if there is no agreement, we must let go of them. Agreement may only refer to the question of "what should we do?". It may not refer to the emotions of the parties or their values; changing those should not be the goal of mediation.

Writing down the agreement. A written agreement should be created before the closure of the negotiation. This must consider the interests of both parties, must be clear and comprehensible, and must record real elements of the agreement. Every topic should be included that the parties find important. Its tone should be balanced and neutral. Finally, the parties sign the agreement.

Follow-up. Normally, during the last phases of the process, mediators make sure that the parties get help putting their agreement in practice. Follow-up may take various forms, which should be specified (possibly in writing) during the negotiation. There may be a way for controlling the other's commitment to the agreement, if that is the intention of the parties. It may happen that one of the parties or both do not abide by the agreement and break it. In the absence of legal regulations in mediation, there should be a written agreement as to what happens in these cases (for example whether the conflict should be taken to court).

10.3. THE ROLE AND PERSON OF THE MEDIATOR

The most important feature of a mediator is independence and empathy. They relate to both parties in a disinterested way; at the same time, they are committed to a solution that is favorable, or at least acceptable to both parties.

A mediator helps the parties find a solution through their presence: they establish the procedure of mediation, decide how long a phase should last, determine the rules of mediation, and ensure that parties abide by them. They create the conditions for honest, open discussions and a constructive outcome.

However, mediators do not give advice to the parties or recommend solutions. Solutions are found by the parties. The mediator is only a catalyst who helps the parties find the solution by listening to and understanding the emotions and internal motivations of the parties.

This shows the opportunities and limitations of mediators. The mediator does not give ready-made solutions even when they know what could fix the problem; they only help the parties find an acceptable solution. The mediator must be entirely independent: they cannot have a family, business or friendship relationship with any of the actors. This must be assured before the start of mediation.

The mediator is also obliged by confidentiality. The mediator must not reveal any information that emerged at the meetings of preparation or actual negotiation—not even to the other party. They cannot reveal the parties' emotional state even when this would help the process. The mediator may only disclose this information if they are authorized by the party to do so. The mediator may not disclose information to legal courts either, even when that would speed up the process. They cannot be invoked as witnesses to court.

A frequently asked question is whether it is important that the mediator is an expert of the given subject; that is, do they need an expert mediator for conflict management? Scholarship argues that it is rather more important to have the right mediation techniques than knowledge of the subject matter itself. The argument that the mediator's knowledge in the area is important comes from the false assumption of what the mediator does: namely, that the mediator decides who is right, and they provide the right answer. This assumption likens the role of the mediator to that of a judge, and therefore they are expected greater expertise in the field of the conflict. This approach, however, misconstrues the role of the mediator (Strasser—Randolph 2008).

At the same time, it is also true that a mediator that has absolutely no knowledge in the field of the conflict may be harmful, inefficient, or may otherwise hinder the agreement between the parties. We should conclude therefore that a mediator who has some knowledge in the contested field has some advantage, as they better understand the source of conflict, and may find solutions more easily. However, a mediator with knowledge in the field is still no guarantee for a satisfactory outcome (Strasser—Randolph 2008).

As of today, mediators have no ethical code in Hungary that would determine rules of behavior for everyone. The parties must make sure that the mediator they choose is reliable and trustworthy. The lack of an ethical code is not good for the mediator, either. An important question for example is what a mediator should do when one of the parties reveal information that has to do with a crime. What if they learn that one of the parties is physically threatened? If they pass this information to that party, they break confidentiality. If they do not, the life and health of the other may be threatened (Strasser—Randolph 2008).

CHAPTER 11

11.1. THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MEDIATION ^[1]

11.1.1. ADVANTAGES

With the help of mediation, the two parties may have control over the case during the whole process. For this reason, the procedure may be tailored to their needs, as there are no specific legal procedures that must be observed. Contracting a mediator may be time and cost efficient. The process takes place between the parties, and the people who participate in it were chosen by the two parties, which means it is not public like a lawsuit.

One of the greatest advantages of mediation is **control over the case**. It is up to the conflicted parties whether they choose this procedure or go to court. If any of the parties wish not to participate, they cannot be forced to. The two parties select the mediator together, who will be a neutral participant in the process. It is also up to the two parties which part of the conflict they wish to resolve or address. They have the option to resolve the entire conflict this way, but they may choose to address problems only partially.

Besides control over the case, another advantage is **flexibility** in tailoring the process to the needs of the conflicted parties. They may choose what questions to discuss during the process, and when. They may determine the time and place of the process, even from one meeting to the next.

The **factor of time** may be advantageous from several perspectives. There is no timeline or deadline except the ones that the parties involved set for themselves. Another advantage of this is that unlike in lawsuits, mediations are flexible with their time and therefore may be much shorter.

The factor of costs has various considerations. The material costs may be realized quite simply. They include all the expenditures that the process required. The mediator's fees, travel fees, the wages that were missed due to the process, the cost of legal representation or experts all belong here. In lawsuits, however, it is not only these material costs that we need to consider. Besides "physical" costs, there might emerge "psychological" costs that have to be paid. Stress-related mental and psychosomatic illnesses and the cost of their treatment may be much higher in a high-stress lawsuit, while in mediation, they might be avoided (Nagy-Kahler 1995).

Another advantage is the **exclusion of the public** at mediation. In mediation, only specifically authorized people may take part besides the mediator and the parties. In this process, namely, trust and confidentiality have great importance. By excluding the public and maintaining confidentiality and trust, the parties may disclose information that they would not disclose during a lawsuit.

[1] Based on Varga (2009).

These factors may all achieve that the parties participate in the process in a more relaxed manner. Formal flexibility, confidentiality, control over time and decisions may result in that the parties may be more creative. **Creativity** may lead participants to solutions that they would not encounter during a court procedure. Agreements based on creativity and consensus may be **kept** voluntarily more efficiently than when it is imposed from above, unilaterally, by an authority. In mediation, they do not pursue zero-sum games; ideally, both parties will declare themselves winners after the process.

11.1.2. DISADVANTAGES

The disadvantages of mediation come from the lack of legal regulations, primarily. Current regulations treat mediation as a **voluntary** alternative. Besides the many advantages of this feature, a drawback is that an individual who is unwilling to participate may cause this conflict management method to be discarded. The other party who is open to compromises will have to pursue a lawsuit in this case, as no other options are left.

One of the oft-cited criticisms of mediation is that, at the end of the process, there is **no decision**. Unfortunately, lay people and professionals alike often think that a discussion is only successful if it is resolved once and for all. In mediation however, there is often no conclusion, or only partial conclusion between the parties, which means much of the case still has to go to court.

Here we must mention another disadvantage of unsuccessful mediation, which is **costs**. This factor already featured as an advantage; however, in some cases it might be a disadvantage. If mediation ends in failure, and one must go to court, the fees of mediation are still there and added to those of a lawsuit. Mediation may be also costly if the mediators, experts or legal counsel the parties hire is expensive. These costs will be affected by time, too.

The question of **execution** may be also important. Laws do not allow that, as a final act of mediation, parties ask the courts to enforce the agreements that were achieved during mediation in case the other party does not comply with them. This fact threatens the very start of mediation. It may be deterring that, even if there is an agreement, the actors cannot ensure that the agreement is actually executed by the other party. Many reject the option of mediation because there is no court order that can enforce the execution of its results.

Other disadvantages of mediation have to do mostly with a subjective factor, the person of the mediator. The neutrality of the mediator during the entire process cannot be questioned or negotiated. They are also responsible for keeping a **power balance** between the parties during the process. If one of the parties enjoys greater power due to financial background or any other factor, they might enjoy a more advantageous position. Mediators must be careful to avoid any kind of inequality between the parties. For this, they must of course know the right mediation techniques.

Another issue might come from **competence**, or the lack thereof. In a lawsuit, the institution of the court and the judge guarantee that the decision they reach is well grounded professionally, and it is made by competent people. The election of judges is based on strict professional criteria and education. A mediator does not need to have any education for mediating. There is not even a requirement of being able to mediate in the field where the conflict takes place. They do not need any training in psychology or law in order to register as a mediator and pursue this activity. In the absence of training, the right of the parties to a legally well-grounded decision. It may also jeopardize the framework of the process, which may fall short of expectations.

Mediation therefore has both advantages and disadvantages. However, by amending legal regulations most of these disadvantages may be eliminated, and conflicted parties may enjoy the advantages. Mediation might provide a way out from future conflicts; at the same time, however, it should not be over-mystified.

11.2. The process of mediation I. [1]

[1] Based on Varga (2009).

After the overview of the theoretical aspects of mediation, this module addresses the practical considerations of mediation. We review here the phases of mediation and the roles of the mediator.

11.2.1. SEEKING, CONTACT MAKING, PREPARATION

According to regulations, the two parties may formally ask a third party natural or legal person or entity in writing to act as mediator. The two parties may ask one or more natural or legal persons at the same time, if they wish to do so. In practice, however, what happens most of the time is that one of the parties takes up contact with the mediator, not both together. After this initial contact with one of the parties, it is the mediator's task to gain the trust of the other party so that the process may begin.

During the preparatory phase, before signing the contract, the two parties must clarify questions like who pays for the mediator, whether mediation is confidential, who may and should be present at the meetings, and what questions should be discussed. The place, frameworks and options of mediation (separate meetings for example) should be also clarified.

If both parties trust and support the procedure, and the circumstances have been clarified, they may formally appoint the mediator and sign the contract. The appointment should contain the names of the parties, their address or residence, mailing address, the name of the natural person appointed for mediation, or the name of the legal person. If the parties are represented by someone, the authorized representative's name, address, the subject of disagreement, and the language used during negotiation should also be specified. In the appointment, both parties must declare that on the basis of their common agreement, they wish to settle the disagreement between them with the help of a mediator. The mediator must respond to this query within eight workdays.

11.2.2. PRELIMINARY MEETING, THE START OF THE PROCESS

The manner of conducting the first preliminary meeting may leave its mark on the entire process. It is very important for the mediator that they prepare their opening statement carefully. Good communicative skills have great importance during the whole process; in this phase, however, more so than the rest.

While presenting their opening statement, mediators may observe the reactions of the conflicted parties, and have the chance to gain their trust. It is very important at this point that the mediator emphasizes their neutral position in the conflict.

In this phase, the mediator may express respect for the parties' willingness to resolve their issues by choosing mediation. After these preliminaries, they must lay down the rules and frameworks that will characterize the process; the rules of communication and the roles of the mediator must also be agreed upon now. It is the mediator's task to make sure the parties respect the rules of communication and civility. They must also encourage parties to partake at the meetings and communicate actively, to disclose the facts and factors that are important to them in the case. There should be absolutely no room for intimidation or threats. The mediator must communicate that they are responsible for observing the rules of the process, and the mediation process might end if they are broken (Lange).

In this preliminary phase, the parties must clarify that they cannot look at each other as enemies. The mediator must help them distinguish between the other person and the problem. They must clarify that what matters in the conflict is the difference between positions and interests, not past grievances.

11.2.3. THE COLLECTION OF INFORMATION

In this phase, the parties may have a chance to say how they see the problem without interruption, and how it impacts them. It is important that the other does not interrupt them in a literal sense. The first opening statement may be ceded to the person who initiated the process or, in case of family disputes, priority may be given—out of politeness—to women, or the older members of the family. It is important for the mediator to let the parties say whatever they want without the other interrupting them with comments. Loud disputes should be controlled, and the speaker should be reminded that they should speak to the mediator, not the other party. They must pay attention to the balance of time and limit the speakers if necessary. The mediator may ask questions if they need to encourage the shier party, but they must be careful not to turn the meeting into an interrogation. It is in this phase that they establish their positions, and clarify goals and interests. The success of this exploratory phase depends on the honesty of all, the information gathered, and the competence of the mediator. The mediator needs the necessary information to understand the basic problem, and the feelings and interests of the parties.

11.2.4. DISCUSSION

The most important task of this phase is that the parties understand the viewpoints of the other, and approach the conflict from the standpoint of the other. The main task of the mediator here is to moderate the process of the discussion. They have to curb unrealistic proposals and shed light on their impact; they may question whether the solutions offered may reach the desired goal. They must make sure that the process of the discussion proceeds in an orderly manner. They must handle the negative reactions that follow proposals, and inform the parties that several steps would be necessary to reach a solution. The mediator helps parties preserve their dignity and trustworthiness (Eorsi-Abraham 2003).

They may use different communication techniques to achieve this.

- **Factual, unimpassioned reiteration of what has been said.** Removing emotions from overheated, subjective arguments and making them more objective, and palatable for the other party.
- **Paraphrase.** Repeating what has been said with smaller changes to check if we understood what has been said.
- **Acknowledgement.** Recognizing and encouraging the effort of the other to reach an agreement.
- **Summary.** Summarizing the discussion from time to time to specify where it stands.
- **Nonverbal messages.** Mediators must listen not only to verbal messages, but for example also to those of silence, which may carry a lot of information.

This phase of the procedure must ensure that both parties are in the same position. Inequalities of power and other imbalances must be compensated, but only to a degree that power balance is maintained. The trust laid in the mediator must be preserved (Lange).

EXERCISES:

1. Which communication techniques help the mediator preserve the dignity of the parties? (5 points)

A helyes válaszokat kell jelölni

paraphrase TRUE
polymedia FALSE
acknowledgement TRUE
sandwich method FALSE
summary TRUE
dismissing the problem FALSE
asking questions TRUE
nonverbal messages TRUE

2. Match the phases with the tasks. (4 points)

Alább a helyes párosítást közlöm. Kérem, hogy a válaszadó random sorrendet kapjon.

- Seeking contact – finding a mediator, contacting them and establishing the basic frameworks.
The start of the process – clarifying the roles of the parties, shaping the right attitude, clarifying the roles of the mediator.
The collection of information – the parties may outline how they see and feel about the situation, and how it impacts them.
- Discussion – the parties understand the standpoint of the other; they look at the conflict through the other's perspective.

11.3. THE PROCESS OF MEDIATION II. [1]

11.3.1. COMING TO AN AGREEMENT

This is the phase of brainstorming. The parties separately collect the solutions and proposals that best suit their interests and needs, and evaluate them together. The task of the mediator is to motivate participants to gather as many proposals as possible for a solution. Brainstorming means that the parties articulate all the ideas that come to them without much reflection. The mediator encourages them to modify and shape these ideas. However, the mediator should not make any recommendations or bring ideas to the table at this point. If they do so, it may reduce the parties' commitment to finding a solution themselves, and the solvability of the problem may be questioned. It is relevant in this phase too, like in every phase: the participants may not judge the ideas of the other. After brainstorming, both parties should have the opportunity to identify the ones that suit them best, and discard what they do not find suitable.

11.3.2. OVERVIEW, DRAFTING AN AGREEMENT

Here the parties put in writing what they agreed upon verbally as ideas and solutions. Before the final version, it is advisable to create a draft so that the mediator may make sure that the agreement includes all the elements the parties want in the right form. Making an agreement is useful because both parties may declare what they want in no uncertain terms. This will serve as a departure for future tasks and deadlines.

The agreement has to be worked out in detail so that the parties may not interpret it subjectively. They should not say later that the agreement was not what they thought it was. For the same reason, the agreement must be worked out in every detail. The terms of the agreement must be specific, unimpassioned, and realizable. It is important that the viability and execution of the solution is measurable (they should avoid words like “always” or “regularly” for example). The mediator's task is to avoid agreements that go against these premises. They should make sure that the agreement does not include statements or proposals that are against the law.

One of the most important factors is that both parties are mutually satisfied with the agreement, even if they do not find a solution to every single issue. The agreement does not have to be perfect. It is important though that it contains some kind of a compromise in every important issue, which should be realizable and practical. The written agreement does not have to be signed right away. There should be a chance to seek legal counsel or to take the time to think about it more thoroughly.

[1] Based on Varga (2009).

11.3.3. CLOSING THE MEDIATION

At the end of the mediation process the mediator summarizes the tasks that have been accomplished. Just like in other phases of mediation, the parties must be recognized for their willingness to choose this constructive method for resolving their conflict, independent of whether the parties came to an agreement in every question or not. The mediator should express their appreciation about the work the parties did during the process. The process may have different endings.

Optimally, the parties strike an agreement about the contentious issue. In this case, the results should be summarized, and the mediator should emphasize the long way they have come from the initial position of conflict. The follow-up of the decisions that were made should also be mentioned. This means that the mediator gets informed about what comes next, how and when the agreement will be implemented, and then the mediator will know about the outcome. The mediator may offer the possibility of more meetings should the need for further guidance arise.

Even if there is no specific agreement between the parties as a result of the mediation, the mediator should still recognize the effort that the parties put into trying to resolve their conflict. The mediator could summarize those points which converged during the process, and mention the ones that were not resolved. It is advisable to make both parties aware that the option of mediation is there for unresolved problems in the future, too.

It is important that all parties are aware that it is okay if some problems remain unresolved. A mediation may end on a positive note with partial solutions, too—there is no need for complete resolution to call mediation a success. Mediation may end on a positive note not only when the parties come to an agreement on every issue; partial solutions are an achievement, too. It is already an achievement if the parties have become somewhat more understanding of the other, and their self-confidence grew.

EXERCISES:

1. Fill in the gaps. (8 points)

This is the phase of **brainstorming**. The parties separately collect the solutions and proposals that best suit their **interests** and **needs**, and evaluate them **together**. The task of the mediator is to motivate participants to gather as many proposals as possible for a solution. Brainstorming means that the parties articulate all the ideas that come to them without much reflection. The mediator **encourages** them to modify and shape these ideas. However, the mediator should not make any **recommendations** or bring **ideas** to the table at this point.

2. Put the following phases in order (7 points)

Alább a helyes sorrendet közlöm. A válaszadó random sorrendet kapjon.

taking up contact, preparation
preliminary discussions, starting the process
the collection of information
discussion
coming to an agreement
drafting an agreement
closing the mediation

3. True or false? (8 points)

Brainstorming means that the two parties say everything about the other without reflection. FALSE.

Brainstorming means that parties should articulate everything that they think may resolve the problem. TRUE

After brainstorming, both parties have the option to identify what they find most useful for them. TRUE

After brainstorming, the mediator decides which ideas to proceed with. FALSE

The parties record proposals for a solution in an agreement. TRUE

One of the most important things is to find a solution for every issue. FALSE

The mediator acknowledges everyone's effort and encourages future discussions only in case of successful mediation. FALSE

Even if there is no agreement between the parties, the work done must be recognized. TRUE

CHAPTER 12

12.1. The concept of economic mediation [1]

We may speak of an economic or financial conflict when in the clash of interests and needs, at least one of the parties is in the capacity of a financial or economic actor. In these conflicts, participants are entrepreneurs, legal persons, economic organizations or businesses. However, not every participant is a legal person in the world of economic and financial conflicts. In the world of business and economics, conflict is unavoidable. It sets change in motion, and goes along with change. One should go beyond the approach that conflict is evil, to be avoided, and negative.

Conflict management is a creative activity, and it is advisable for enterprises and businesses to be as knowledgeable as possible when it comes to the dynamics between conflict and harmony. Conflict managing creativity. In business, this is a progressive notion, complemented by the view that mediation is an art. We know the relationship between creativity and art, but focused on conflict management in business, companies are profit-oriented, and they will approach conflict management with the idea of how much they can benefit from it. The method of economic mediation must include constructive proposals, must react fast, and must offer various ways forward.

It is important to note that encounters with all kinds of international actors have a great weight for the relationship between legal actors. It must be acknowledged that the bases of conflict management must reckon with factors like different cultures and customs, different legal systems, behaviors, traditions, or customary laws. For this reason, professionals' knowledge in different languages, cultures, nations should shape the way they plan the mediation procedure. The tools of non-violent communication should have extraordinary importance in economic mediation as well. They must pay special attention to the nonjudgmental articulation of statements, as hidden value judgements, evaluations or gestures may undermine the success of the process. A single sentence may open a door, but the reverse is true, too; a judgmental statement may put up walls between people.

An overview of conflicts in the world of economy and finance:

- Conflict at the different levels of the organization
- Conflict between owners and the employees of a legal person
- Conflict between owners and leadership

[1] Based on Kohl-
hoffer-Mizser (2018).

- Conflicts between employees and leadership; between employer and employee
- Conflicts among owners
- Conflicts among employees
- Transformation of economic entities
- Profit
- Conflicts about copyright holding and licenses

In case of conflicts about employment, one side of the conflict is usually occupied by a legal person, the employer – however, the employee may be a legal person, too.

Conflicts outside of economics and finance:

- Conflicts arising from contracts and commitments
- Legal disputes and disputes of interest between legal persons
- Inheritance issues
- Conflicts between a legal person and the state
- Conflicts between entrepreneurs and subsidiaries
- Questions of compensation
- Questions and consumer protection
- Disputes of competition

12.2. The areas and use of economic mediation in the European Union [1]

Economic mediation includes conflict management mediation and conflict prevention between companies and their clients, or actors in an economic activity. It also includes conflicts arising in the micro-environment of companies. The range of deployment of mediation in the economic world is very broad including municipalities, enterprises, companies and other organizations, and conflict among their actors. Such conflicts may include contractual issues such as their preparation, drafting and delivery. They may include issues of execution, such as failed payments, quality complaints, or late fees. Mediation is often used in cases concerning expiry dates, compensation, copyright, patent, and/or ownership. Disputes in competition regulations, or a company's transformation may also require mediation. Besides mediation with external parties, it may be also relevant for conflict management with owners and partners, which is particularly important because it contributes to the overall image of the company, and ensures its profitability. Mediation might be useful for disagreements between owners and managers, questions about employment, the emergence of competing interests, and their resolution.

THE USE OF ECONOMIC MEDIATION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

There were discussions in the European Union about the alternative use and range of mediation. The European Commission published a discussion paper in 2000 (Green Paper), which discusses the alternative modes of problem solving outside of civil and economic lawsuits. The goal was to create an area of conflict management on the basis of freedom, security and law, and to provide access most of all to the justice system more efficiently. [2]

Economic mediation goes back to several decades in the European Union. The 2004 entrance of Hungary in the European Union made the incorporation of economic mediation in the legal system compulsory; that is, it prescribed the existence of fast and efficient ways of dealing with conflict. The legal objective of EU politics is harmonizing regulations, and establishing a legal basis in the legal system of newly incorporated states. This area of law is regulated by directives, which ensures common regulation and implementation across member states; EU harmonization also enables the resolving of international conflicts. The improvement of the rights of member states and legal harmonization may be affected by the interpretation of directives, which guarantees the content of certain legal concepts for member states. The directive ensures the following goals: [3] giving access to alternative dispute management methods; encouraging economic mediation; establishing a balanced and harmonious relationship between mediation processes and lawsuits; conflict management across borders. The main principles of the directive govern the process of mediation in the following way: it is a process where two or more parties voluntarily ask an external third party to help them come to an agreement. The procedure may be launched on the basis of their own decision, or it may be ordered by a court or some legal obligation. There may be an option for mediation by a judge, if there are no issues of compatibility. However, these directives do not include the conflict management objectives of lawsuits overseen by judges.

[1] Based on Diána Szekeres: *Mediáció a gazdasági életben*. [Mediation in the Economy] available at: <http://www.irisro.org/gazdasagtan2013januar/G109Szekeres-Diana.pdf>

[2] http://ec.europa.eu/civiljustice/adr/adr_ec_hu.htm in English: http://ec.europa.eu/civiljustice/adr/adr_ec_code_conduct_en.htm (last accessed April 15, 2012.)

[3] 2008/52/EC DIRECTIVE OF THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION AND COUNCIL (May 21 2008.) for mediation in civil and economic cases.

The definition of mediation in the directive is the following: a structured process in which two or more parties attempt coming to an agreement with the involvement of a mediator. It depends on the legal regulations of each member state whether the parties initiate the process, it is ordered by the court, or some other legal obligation makes it necessary. We cannot include in this definition, however, efforts of dispute management. For mediation management, one should hire someone who is efficient, neutral and professional. The impartial third party, their job and the method of assignment should not be considered as important. Member states pay a lot of attention to the training of mediators, the further training of mediators, the development of their competences and the enhancement of their objectivity.

It is common in business life that the legal protection of confidential information hinders conflict resolution between business entities. In business life, the protection of confidential information has paramount importance so that competitors do not get access to strategies. Usually, many of the conflicts between business enterprises come from the fact that they do not pay enough attention to confidentiality. It is becoming more and more important that no undue advantage may be gained from this issue.

12.3. The process of economic mediation ^[1]

The party that started the legal dispute may initiate the involvement of a mediator. The parties initiate the assignment of the mediator together in person, or electronically. The assignment includes the names of the parties, their address and mailing address, the names of legal or natural persons involved, the subjects of the disagreement, and the language that is used for mediation on the basis of common agreement. The mediator must respond within eight workdays whether they accept the assignment. In case of incompatibility or any hindrance, the mediator must reject the assignment.

The rules that regulate mediation contribute to the success of the process. The place of the meetings should be chosen without bias or favoritism. Regulations limit the process of mediation to four months in Hungary, but in most cases, one month is sufficient. More complex cases may require two to four meetings, while less complex ones may need a single meeting only. The parties come to an agreement voluntarily, and therefore abide by the regulations. An advantage of mediation is that even if it fails and the parties are unable to come to an agreement, they may still resort to legal action or a lawsuit or other conflict management strategy.

With regards to confidentiality, it must be highlighted that the obligation of confidentiality also includes the mediator's inability to serve as a witness during the process of mediation. The person of the mediator is a guarantee, because mediators must have at least five years of experience, higher education, and they cannot be banned from civil privileges. Mediators cannot have any pending legal or civil restriction as a result of previous criminal record. Mediators in the world of finance are often lawyers or former attorneys, who are often specialized on economic cases, and have experience as elected judges.

12.3.1. THE PHASES OF THE PREPARATION OF THE PROCESS

The mediator must present the facts and evidence of the case, and it is their responsibility to have all the necessary supporting documents for all the participants in the case. Careful preparation enables the successful completion of the process; sending a mail or email ensures that all parties receive and learn about the facts of the case and provide evidence for legal grounds. The party who initiates the case may ask the other party to state their own position and share the evidence that supports their position. In the legal dispute, the parties study and analyze the original documents, which help them clarify misunderstandings that may come from previous communication. This enables the successful documentation of previous communication, and the parties may record the case number of previous legal precedence in the same area of dispute. The two parties may communicate in person, or in writing, depending on the circumstances. They may use the fastest channels of contact and therefore may exchange phone numbers or email addresses.

[1] Based on Szekeres.

The next step is to put in record the facts and data of the case, their supporting documents, and the disagreements that may still exist between the parties. There is a window of 15 days that still gives an opportunity for the parties to settle disagreements. If they cannot come to an agreement, they might want to initiate a lawsuit.

12.3.3. WHEN SHOULD WE NOT USE MEDIATION IN BUSINESS?

There are certain specialized cases when mediation is not recommended, for example when any of the parties want to reject it, or when there is an incompatibility between personalities. Often, one of the parties may want to establish a legal precedent, create an example, or just want to hit the jackpot and make a lot of money. One of the parties may gain excessive power, which may be rooted in hierarchies of status, differences in backgrounds, or intellectual ability, in which case mediation should balance powers first. Mediation should be avoided when the parties merely want to create a precedent, or call attention to the breach of a legal breach.

CHAPTER 13

13.1. The definition of culture [1]

The concept of culture comes from the Latin word “colore,” whose meaning is “to do.” The expression “cultura agri” refers to the care of, and working on the natural environment. The first mention of the expression may be found in Cicero’s Tuscultanae disputationes (1st century BC), who uses the term “cultura animi” or “care of the soul.”

Today, the concept of culture refers not as much to a process but a phenomenon that is inherent to social existence; it is a consequence and interpretive reality of social life. This approach reflects cultural anthropologists and their definitions, while culture has been studied by sociologists, psychologists, and communication theorists alike.

Anthropological approaches look at culture as a way of life. E. B. Tylor’s definition proposes that culture is a complex whole that includes knowledges, abilities, preconceptions, art, morality (and a host of other things) that people learn as a result of their socialization in a society (1997, 108). Until 1952, more than 400 definitions of culture had been created (Niedermuller 1999). This great number also shows the variability of culture and the approaches that may study it from the perspective of different scholarly disciplines.

Some of the recent definitions of culture include the following:

- Geert Hofstede understands culture as the collective programming behind thinking.
- Fons Trompenaars thinks culture is the kind of method by which a group of people solve their problems and decide their dilemmas. These two authors approach the notion of culture from the perspective of its components. According to these approaches, culture consists of explicit and implicit components and behavioral patterns, which are mediated by symbols.
- Clifford Geertz approaches culture through symbols, and argues that culture consists of patterns that are historically transmitted through symbols and their meanings. It is a system of inherited concepts expressed in symbolic forms through which people communicate, and create their attitudes and knowledges (Geertz 1997).

[1] Based on Korpics (2011).

Therefore, social sciences use the definitions of culture and the concept of culture in broad terms. In this sense, the concept of culture includes institutions, values, experiences, symbols, and forms of expression in a society. Thus, the definition of culture includes the interfaces of symbols, habits and values that are passed on from generation to generation (Niedermuller 1999 98-102).

Culture may only exist in human societies. It exists and survives in communication, feedback and interaction between individuals. **Culture and communication are inseparable from each other; communication is the carrier of culture.**

1. Monocultural studies explore the characteristic features of nations.
2. Cross national comparisons are studies that compare the features of two nations.
3. Intercultural interaction is the study of the interaction between two cultures. It studies the effects that happen when two cultures meet (at individual, group or national level).

Here one of the most important aspects to consider is the cultural identity of the individual. Those features that feature prominently in this type of identity (origins, nationality for example) come to the surface only through interaction with members of other cultures.

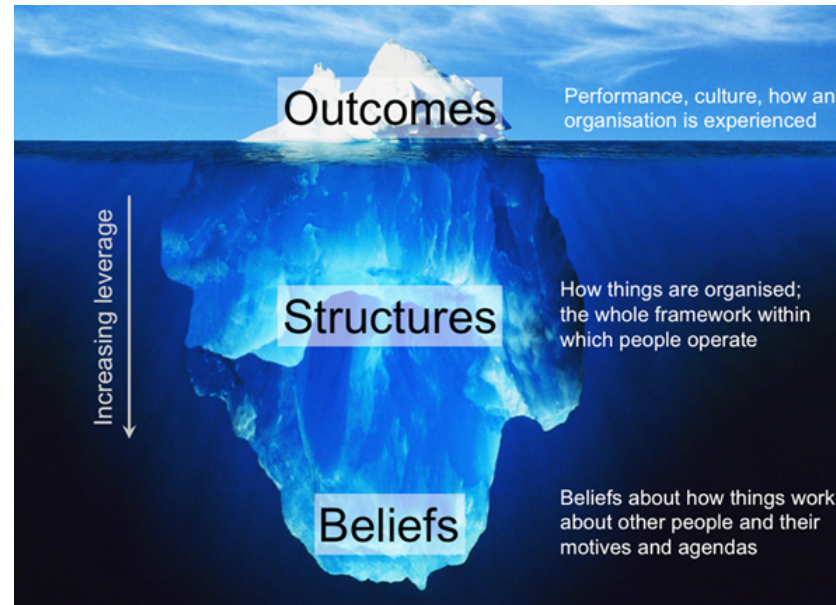
4. The fourth approach is called multiple cultures perspective, and focuses on complex societies where people of different national, religious and cultural identity coexist, or work in organizations that have this kind of complexity.

13.2. Models of culture [1]

In order to understand intercultural conflicts, we need to review models of culture that explore some cultural specificities and create a typology on their basis. We will present three models here.

13.2.1. THE ICEBERG MODEL

This model likens culture to an iceberg. The part above water can be easily seen and analyzed; however, there are underlying parts which are invisible and hard to access.



[1] Based on Bíró and Serfőző (2003).

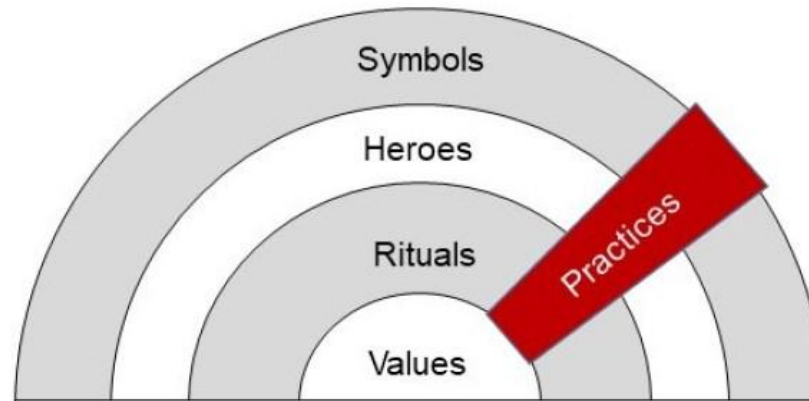
The visible parts include for example repeated celebrations, stories in an organization, language use, jargon, behavioral patterns, symbols, clothing.

But culture also rests in values, presumptions, preconceptions, feelings and attitudes, which remain invisible.

13.2.2. ONION MODEL

Most people associate culture with the cultural idiosyncrasies of a given community, which contains tangible (material) and symbolic elements (values, philosophies, ideologies), as well as behavior patterns.

According to this approach, culture has tangible and visible aspects; however, just like the layers of an onion, it also has aspects that are not readily visible.



We may imagine the layers of culture like the layers of an onion:

Symbols: Words, gestures of objects that have a unique meaning; these meanings are familiar to those who are in the same culture. These meanings and symbols may be created anew, and old ones may disappear.

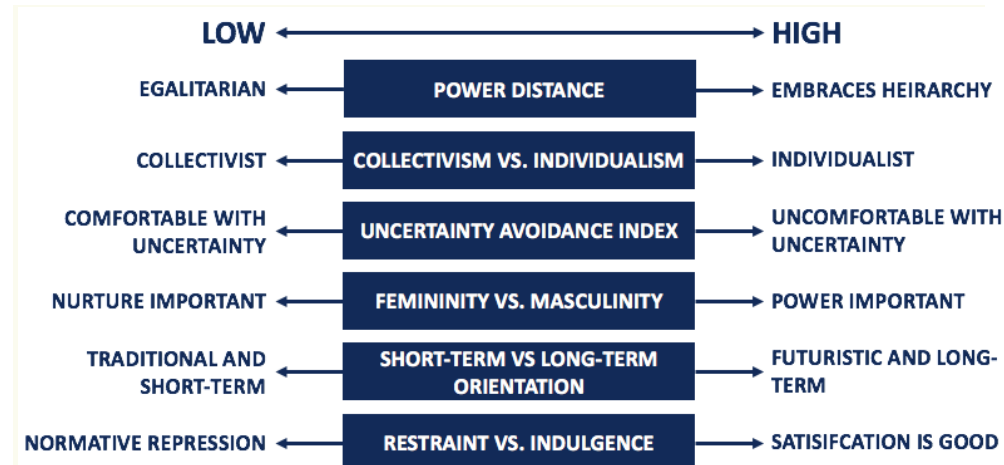
Heroes: Living or dead people, real or imagined, who have characteristic features that given culture appreciates, and who serve as role models.

Rituals: activities that are technically superfluous for the pursuit of some goal, which however are important in a given culture for some reason, and therefore they execute it.

In order to get down to the bottom, where presuppositions and values lie, we must first get through the outer layers if we want to reach down to the deeper understanding of culture. Those meanings deep down are not easy to identify, which means it is hard to change values and presuppositions which dwell down here.

13.2.3. NATIONAL CULTURE MODEL

Hofstede and his colleagues created a new framework, which allowed the comparison of national culture along five culture dimensions.



Hofstede created the following five dimensions (first it was four, but he complemented it with future orientation).

Power distance: the degree of inequality between people that they still find acceptable. Low power distance means relatively small degrees of inequality, while greater power distance corresponds to more serious inequalities.

Individualism-collectivism: does any given national culture favor individuals, or collectivities? Collectivism cultures show great loyalty to groups, and it is important for them to help the group and each other in the collective. As opposed to this, individualist cultures favor the person, the “I,” the individual who is self-reliant and independent.

Femininity vs. masculinity: national cultures may be characterized through gender roles that may be perceived in them as dominant. Masculine features may include preference of performance, success, competition, resilience; feminine features include care, solidarity, support, and an emphasis on human relations. In masculine cultures there is a sharper gap between these roles.

Uncertainty avoidance: it shows to what degree a society values structured, regulated frameworks. These may be written or unwritten. High uncertainty avoidance points at a society that is anxious and afraid of new things; a lower score here means a more flexible, open attitude.

Short-term vs long-term orientation: the time orientation of a society may be expressed through its short or long-term orientation.

13.3. Intercultural conflicts

13.3.1 THE DEFINITION OF INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT

Intercultural conflicts emerge at the intersections of multi-cultural coexistence, or between broader cultures. By definition, intercultural conflict presumes a variety of values and practices which clash for some reason. Intercultural conflict refers to the incompatibility of values, practices, beliefs, ideologies, norms, goals and resources, and the antagonism, clash and even violent confrontation that may emerge between two collectives. Intercultural relationships can be extremely positive and rewarding if they work well, as individuals and groups have a greater pool of collective resources. However, when there are conflicts, the results may be violent or even catastrophic. Intercultural conflicts may range from minor embarrassments and misunderstanding as a result of cultural ignorance, to major wars due to ethnocentrism and a desire to dominate other cultures.

Causes of, and solutions to intercultural conflict [1]:

1. **Ethnocentrism:** ethnocentrism refers to a kind of collective chauvinism that considers one's own group (collective, nation) superior to other groups. An ethnocentric perspective claims that "the right way of doing things" lies with one's own culture, and other cultures' practices and ways of doing things are inferior. This disrespect to other cultural forms and expressions causes hostile reactions. The best way to diminish ethnocentrism is approaching the other with an open mind, and trying to understand the real reasons why they do things the way they do.
2. **Different cultural values:** different cultures may value different things. For example, a person from a culture that values time will be annoyed when some one is late or otherwise disrespectful of their time. Intercultural conflicts due to different concepts of time often emerge in business life, for example. Other cultural values may concern work and how intensively one works; work-life balance; family life vs. careerism; individualism vs. collectivism. It is advisable that we learn about the basic cultural values of our interlocutor.

[1] Based on
<https://www.com-misceo-global.com/blog/causes-intercultural-conflict>

3. **Cultural communication:** In general, we know from communication theory that communication, that is the transmission of a message, may be hampered by noises, and misunderstanding may occur. The same may happen between cultures: communication may be hampered by factors such as language; different codes of body language and gestures; formulas of politeness; directness vs. indirectness. If one does not know the communicative rules of another person from another culture, mishaps easily occur, and may be misunderstood as offense, which creates conflict. Once again, it is advisable to study the rules and etiquettes of communication in other countries to avoid the misuse of codes and meanings.

13.3.2. CLASH OF CIVILIZATIONS [2]

One of the most well-known exponents of intercultural conflict is the American political scientist Samuel Huntington, and his *Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order* (1996). In this much-discussed book, Huntington projected that with the end of the Cold War, new types of conflicts would appear. He predicted that these conflicts would be not ideological, but cultural and religious in nature, and that the new wars would be fought not between nations, but civilizations and religions. Cultural and religious identities, therefore, will come to the forefront more than national or ideological ones. Huntington predicted the end of the old world order where the West dominated and exploited the Rest; he proposed that other civilizations will rise to contest the dominance of the Euro – American center.

Huntington proposed six reasons for inter-cultural conflict:

1. The differences between civilizations are very deep-rooted: language, culture, tradition, beliefs, history and particularly religion continue to shape people's identities.
2. Interactions are intensifying, and therefore the chances of conflict, in a shrinking, globalized world.
3. People are separated from old identities as a result of technological advancement, and religion takes their place as a distinguishing factor.
4. The rise of civilization-consciousness in the non-west will achieve that they have greater cultural and civilizational awareness, and therefore confidence, to confront the west.

[2] Huntington, Samuel P. (1996): *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order*. Simon & Schuster.

5. Cultural differences are more passion-filled, and therefore less easy to handle than for example political or economic questions.
6. Civilization-consciousness is also due to economic and political regionalism (as opposed to nation states). Regions and their economic interests may create yet another layer of conflicts.

EXERCISES

1. Fill in the gaps. (7 points)

Intercultural conflicts emerge at the intersections of **multi-cultural** coexistence, or between broader cultures. By definition, intercultural conflict presumes a variety of values and **practices** which clash for some reason. Intercultural conflict refers to the **incompatibility** of values, practices, **beliefs**, ideologies, norms, goals and resources, and the antagonism, clash and even violent confrontation that may emerge between two collectives. Intercultural relationships can be extremely positive and rewarding if they work well, as individuals and groups have a greater pool of collective **resources**. However, when there are conflicts, the results may be violent or even catastrophic. Intercultural conflicts may range from minor embarrassments and misunderstanding as a result of cultural ignorance, to major **Wars** due to ethnocentrism and a desire to dominate other cultures.

2. Match the definitions to the concepts. (3 points)

- **Ethnocentrism:** ethnocentrism refers to a kind of collective chauvinism that considers one's own group (collective, nation) superior to other groups.
- **Different cultural values:** different cultures may value different things. For example, a person from a culture that values time will be annoyed when someone is late or otherwise disrespectful of their time.

Cultural communication: In general, we know from communication theory that communication, that is the transmission of a message, may be hampered by noises, and misunderstanding may occur.

3. Fill in the missing words in Huntington's six causes of intercultural conflict (6 points)

1. The differences between civilizations are very **deep-rooted**: language, culture, tradition, beliefs, history and particularly religion continue to shape people's identities.
2. Interactions are intensifying, and therefore the chances of conflict, in a shrinking, **globalized** world.
3. People are separated from old identities as a result of **technological** advancement, and religion takes their place as a distinguishing factor.
4. The rise of civilization-**consciousness** in the non-west will achieve that they have greater cultural and civilizational awareness, and therefore confidence, to confront the west.
5. Cultural differences are more **passion-filled**, and therefore less easy to handle than for example political or economic questions.
6. Civilization-consciousness is also due to economic and political **regionalism** (as opposed to nation states). Regions and their economic interests may create yet another layer of conflicts.