

# **CONFLICT MANAGEMENT**

## **2014 Edition**

Setyabudi Indartono, Ph.D

## **Conflict Management**

by: Setyabudi Indartono, Ph.D @ 2014

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Layout: Ws Yuyu Wiyogo

Cover Design: Hendro Kuncoro

First Published by Aksara Media Pratama

Printed by Yukaprint

Jl. Perintis Kemerdekaan No. 31A

Umbulharjo, Yoryakarta

Telp. 0274-3004949

ISBN: 978-602-71256-1-2

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# PREFACE

Conflict Management may be regarded as an approach to the management of conflict that provides a strategic framework to support short to long-term business goals and outcomes. In this book, Setyabudi believes that even there were various discourses on the social science propositions the approach of managing conflict is concerned with the concept of conflict and strategies to managing conflict in deep. Social science is basically developed on the response of positivism which the effect of secularism movement at 18 to 20th century. However, at the middle of 20th century scholars begun to criticize their concept of social science included political science, economics, sociology, psychology and so on. They tried to find out the science development concepts which are believed to have more sense of humanism. Accordingly scholars try to find the source of science ideas from many holly books such as Quran, Gospel, and Torah. These present social science movements have now seems to be more religiosity and locally wisdoms. Hence scholars proposed several ideas i.e., generalize and integrate the source of science to develop social science. It is aimed to protect a human life heading to a dynamic movement of environment. Therefore, I believed that this book which is included several perspectives of social science such as secular point of views, religiosity, and comprised a local cultural wisdom, able to enrich our knowledge and perspective regarding conflict and its resolution.

Setyabudi urged readers to gain an understanding of and proficiency in major theories of conflict and its resolution in the context of globalization. They will be able learn how to critically assess the role of material factors, irrationality, identity, and subjective justice. Readers will also learn to differentiate between structural and relational sources of conflict and effectively discuss the dynamics of conflict settings and underlying theories of change regarding potential interventions. They will understand the relationship of theory to practice and vice-versa.

With this book, I believe that readers able to develop the knowledge in conflict analysis, negotiation, communication, cross-cultural interactions, and may strengthen their ability to work effectively with groups in diverse contexts. They will also learn key basic skills in mediation, dialogue, facilitation, and other core processes in the field. They will acquire an understanding of the conflict resolution field, its history, institutions (including donors, policy institutions, and implementers), and current ethical and practical debates.

Furthermore, I am sure that by using of this book, readers will learn how to conduct a conflict analysis in community settings and to apply theory to practice. They will cultivate an understanding of third party roles, the complexity of intervening in conflict settings, and core ethics, such as do no harm and cultural sensitivity. They will explore how to integrate conflict resolution skills and principles across diverse sectors. They will also gain the ability to discuss the challenges and opportunities in integrative peace building. Over several points of views, readers will hone their reading, writing, research, and oral communication skills. They will begin to think holistically about conflicts and know how to gather data from primary and secondary sources. They will be introduced to the basic aspects of conflict related research such as conflict assessments, community mapping, exploring the roles and needs of multiple parties, and examining potential intervention roles.

This book is believed to contribute on several perspectives of managing conflict. However, it is needed to be further discussion intensively to provide a robust perspective, concept, theory, and even managerial implication as well. Various suggestions are needed to improve this book in order to maximize it contribution on a human life.

November 2014

Prof. Dr. Moerdiyanto, M.Pd., MM

# ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I am indebted to many individuals who have helped, encouraged, and inspired me during finishing this book. Without their contribution, this book would not have been possible to the hand of readers. All of my praise only for Allah SWT, the only one God and the owner of universe, guided me to the light in Islam. My biggest thanks go to my senior, Prof. Dr. Moerdiyanto, M.Pd., MM, Prof. Dr. Nahiyah Jaidi Faras, M. Pd for their invaluable advice, guidance, encouragement, and patience through these collecting ideas into writing processes. They have been selfless mentors and inspiring various ideas. I have learned much from them and will be grateful for them mentorship and friendship.

The adventure of the completion of these ideas would not have been possible without the love and the support of my family. My lovely wife, Dr. Yayuk Soraya, AAK has accompanied and supported me through the hardest works, and made me always feel eternally optimistic about life and remind me to pray. Her love and support kept me going through all the difficult time in various responsibilities at this academic works. My beloved sons Aiman Hilmi Asaduddin, Rofiq Wafi' Muhammad and Muhammad Kaisan Haedar have brought to my life richness, fullness, and keep in purpose.

Professionally, I also extend my sincerely thanks to International office of Yogyakarta State University (YSU) who support directly to this writing, faculty members of management department of YSU and also Hendro Kuncoro who technically support the publishing process of this book.

November 2014

Setyabudi Indartono, Ph.D



# CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION TO CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

## **Historical path of Social Science**

Positivism knowledge philosophy (1848/1865) arised from the secularism point of view (1851) that be promotedby industrial revolution (1750 to 1850). Technological changes that promote industrial revolution change the whole of civil society and propose intellectual paradigm such as Capitalism, Socialism and Romanticism. The revolution also challenged the theological basis of royal authority and endorsed doctrine challenged the right of kings. The king was to govern on behalf of the people and not under the orders of God as well as the term of Secularism. This cultural movement of intellectuals sought to mobilize the power of reason in order to reform society and advance knowledge, named an Age of Enlightenment. Enlightenment was a desire for human affairs to be guided by rationality rather than by faith. The age of enlightenment proposed positivism knowledge philosophy as well as rationality guidance. Social science is commonly used as an umbrella term to refer to a plurality of fields outside of the natural sciences. These include anthropology, archaeology, criminology, economics, education, linguistics, political science and international relations, sociology, geography, history, law, and psychology. Social sciences came forth from the moral philosophy of the time and were influenced by the Age of Enlightenment. Social science was influenced by positivism focusing on knowledge based on actual positive sense experience and avoiding the negative metaphysical speculation was avoided.

However nowadays scientists promotes religion as a sources of knowledge and sciences postulates. A large degree of academic discussions such as international conferences and journals published are endorsed by religion motivation. For example, Islamist scientist proposed body of knowledge based on Quran and Jews tried to explore relationship between Torah with science. Accordingly scientists seem un-satisfied on positivism as a basic of knowledge and science development and return to religious in developing science and technology (Indartono, 2012).

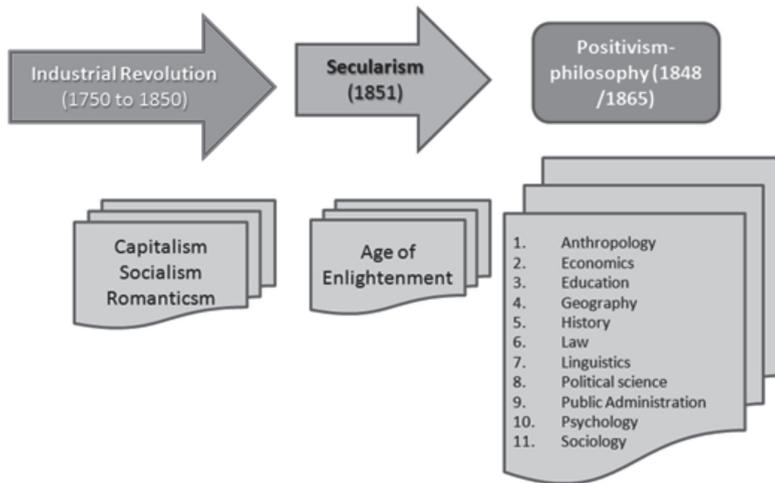
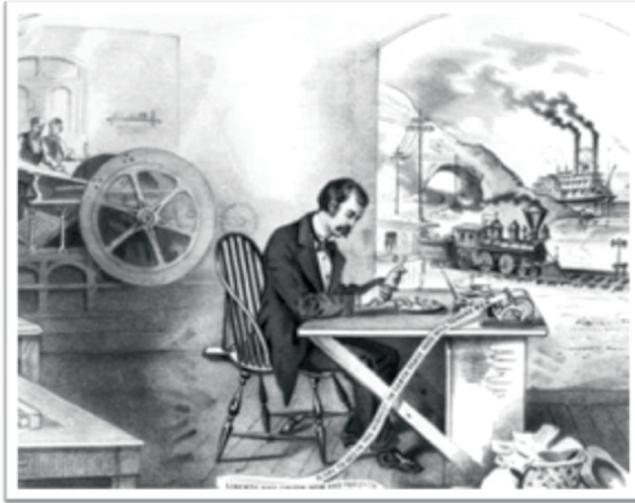


Figure: Development Path of science

The Industrial Revolution was the transition to new manufacturing processes in the period from about 1760 to sometime between 1820 and 1840. This transition included going from hand production methods to machines, new chemical manufacturing and iron production processes, improved efficiency of water power, the increasing use of steam power, and the development of machine tools. It also included the change from wood and other bio-fuels to coal. Textiles were the dominant industry of the Industrial Revolution in terms of employment, value of output and capital invested. Textiles were also the first to use modern production methods.

The Industrial Revolution marks a major turning point in history; almost every aspect of daily life was influenced in some way. In particular, average income and population began to exhibit unprecedented sustained growth. Some economists, such as Robert E. Lucas, Jr., argue that the real impact of the Industrial Revolution was that "for the first time in history, the living standards of the masses of ordinary people have begun to undergo sustained growth. Nothing remotely like this economic behavior is mentioned by the classical economists, even as a theoretical possibility."

Others, however, argue that while growth of the economy's overall productive powers was unprecedented during the Industrial Revolution, living standards for the majority of the population did not grow meaningfully until the late 19th and 20th centuries, and that in many ways workers' living standards declined under early capitalism: for instance, studies have shown that real wages in Britain only increased 15% between the 1780s and 1850s, and that life expectancy in Britain did not begin to dramatically increase until the 1870s.



Source: <http://history-world.org/>

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain and spread to Western Europe and the United States within a few decades. The precise start and end of the Industrial Revolution is debated among historians. Eric Hobsbawm held that it 'broke out' in Britain in the 1780s and was not fully felt until the 1830s or 1840s, while T. S. Ashton held that it occurred roughly between 1760 and 1830. Some 20th century historians such as John Clapham and Nicholas Crafts have argued that the economic and social changes occurred gradually and the term revolution is a misnomer. This is still a subject of debate among historians. GDP per capita was broadly stable before the Industrial Revolution and the emergence of the modern capitalist economy. The Industrial Revolution began an era of per-capita economic growth in capitalist economies. Economic historians are in agreement that the onset of the Industrial Revolution is the most important event in the history of humanity since the domestication of animals, plants and fire. The First Industrial Revolution evolved into the Second Industrial Revolution in the transition years between 1840 and 1870, when technological and economic progress continued with the increasing adoption of transport steam (steam-powered railways, boats and ships), the large-scale manufacture of machine tools and the increasing use of machinery in steam powered factories.

The earliest recorded use of the term "Industrial Revolution" seems to have been in a letter of 6 July 1799 written by French envoy Louis-Guillaume Otto, announcing that France had entered the race to industrialize. In his 1976 book *Keywords: A Vocabulary of Culture and Society*, Raymond Williams states in the entry for "Industry": "The idea of a new social order based on major industrial change was clear in Southey



Source: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Louis-Guillaume\\_Otto](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Louis-Guillaume_Otto).

and Owen, between 1811 and 1818, and was implicit as early as Blake in the early 1790s and Wordsworth at the turn of the [19th] century."

The term Industrial Revolution applied to technological change was becoming more common by the late 1830s, as in Jérôme-Adolphe Blanqui description in 1837 of *la révolution industrielle*. Friedrich Engels in *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1844 spoke of "an industrial revolution, a revolution which at the same time changed the whole of civil society". However, although Engels wrote in the 1840s, his book was not translated into English until the late 1800s, and his expression did not enter everyday

language until then. Credit for popularising the term may be given to Arnold Toynbee, whose 1881 lectures gave a detailed account of the term.

The movement of Industrial Revolution effects Social daily life such as on standard of living, food and nutrition, housing, Population increase Labour conditions, Factories and urbanization, Child labour, Luddites, Organisation of labour, and others. The effects on living conditions the industrial revolution have been very controversial, and were hotly debated by economic and social historians from the 1950s to the 1980s. A series of 1950s essays by Henry Phelps Brown and Sheila V. Hopkins later set the academic consensus that the bulk of the population, that was at the bottom of the social ladder, suffered severe reductions in their living standards. During 1813–1913, there was a significant increase in worker wages. Chronic hunger and malnutrition were the norm for the majority of the population of the world including Britain and France, until the late 19th century. Until about 1750, in large part due to malnutrition, life expectancy in France was about 35 years, and only slightly higher in Britain. The US population of the time was adequately fed, much taller on average and had life expectancy of 45–50 years. In Britain and the Netherlands food supply had been increasing and prices falling before the Industrial Revolution due to better agricultural practices; however, population grew too, as noted by Thomas Malthus. Before the Industrial Revolution, advances in agriculture or technology soon led to an increase in population, which again strained food and other resources, limiting increases in per capita income. This condition is called the Malthusian trap, and it was finally overcome by industrialization. Transportation

improvements, such as canals and improved roads, also lowered food costs. Railroads were introduced near the end of the Industrial Revolution.

Living conditions during the Industrial Revolution varied from splendor for factory owners to squalor for workers. In *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1844 Friedrich Engels described backstreet sections of Manchester and other mill towns, where people lived in crude shanties and shacks, some not completely enclosed, some with dirt floors. These shantytowns had narrow walkways between irregularly shaped lots and dwellings. There were no sanitary facilities. Population density was extremely high. Eight to ten unrelated mill workers often shared a room, often with no furniture, and slept on a pile of straw or sawdust. Toilet facilities were shared if they existed. Disease spread through a contaminated water supply. Also, people were at risk of developing pathologies due to persistent dampness.

The famines that troubled rural areas did not happen in industrial areas. But urban people—especially small children—died due to diseases spreading through the cramped living conditions. Tuberculosis (spread in congested dwellings), lung diseases from the mines, cholera from polluted water and typhoid were also common. Not everyone lived in such poor conditions. The Industrial Revolution also created a middle class of professionals such as lawyers and doctors who lived in much better conditions. Conditions improved over the course of the 19th century due to new public health acts regulating things such as sewage, hygiene and home construction. In the introduction of his 1892 edition, Engels notes that most of the conditions he wrote about in 1844 had been greatly improved. Consumers benefited from falling prices for clothing and household articles such as cast iron cooking utensils, and in the following decades, stoves for cooking and space heating.

According to Robert Hughes in *The Fatal Shore*, the population of England and Wales, which had remained steady at 6 million from 1700 to 1740, rose dramatically after 1740. The population of England had more than doubled from 8.3 million in 1801 to 16.8 million in 1850 and, by 1901, had nearly doubled again to 30.5 million. Improved conditions led to the population of Britain increasing from 10 million to 40 million in the 1800s. Europe's population increased from about 100 million in 1700 to 400 million by 1900. The Industrial Revolution was the first period in history during which there was a simultaneous increase in population and in per capita income.

In terms of social structure, the Industrial Revolution witnessed the triumph of a middle class of industrialists and businessmen over a landed class of nobility and gentry. Ordinary working people found increased

opportunities for employment in the new mills and factories, but these were often under strict working conditions with long hours of labour dominated by a pace set by machines. As late as the year 1900, most industrial workers in the United States still worked a 10-hour day (12 hours in the steel industry), yet earned from 20% to 40% less than the minimum deemed necessary for a decent life. However, harsh working conditions were prevalent long before the Industrial Revolution took place. Pre-industrial society was very static and often cruel—child labour, dirty living conditions, and long working hours were just as prevalent before the Industrial Revolution.

Industrialisation led to the creation of the Factories and urbanisation. Arguably the first highly mechanised was John Lombe's water-powered silk mill at Derby, operational by 1721. Lombe learned silk thread manufacturing by taking a job in Italy and acting as an industrial spy; however, since the silk industry there was a closely guarded secret, the state of the industry there is unknown. Because Lombe's factory was not successful and there was no follow through, the rise of the modern factory dates to somewhat later when cotton spinning was mechanised. The factory system contributed to the growth of urban areas, as large numbers of workers migrated into the cities in search of work in the factories. Nowhere was this better illustrated than the mills and associated industries of Manchester, nicknamed "Cottonopolis", and the world's first industrial city. For much of the 19th century, production was done in small mills, which were typically water-powered and built to serve local needs. Later, each factory would have its own steam engine and a chimney to give an efficient draft through its boiler. The transition to industrialisation was not without difficulty. For example, a group of English workers known as Luddites formed to protest against industrialization and sometimes sabotaged factories.

In other industries the transition to factory production was not so divisive. Some industrialists themselves tried to improve factory and living conditions for their workers. One of the earliest such reformers was Robert Owen, known for his pioneering efforts in improving conditions for workers at the New Lanark mills, and often regarded as one of the key thinkers of the early socialist movement. By 1746, an integrated brass mill was working at Warmley near Bristol. Raw material went in at one end, was smelted into brass and was turned into pans, pins, wire, and other goods. Housing was provided for workers on site. Josiah Wedgwood and Matthew Boulton (whose Soho Manufactory was completed in 1766) were other prominent early industrialists, who employed the factory system.

The Industrial Revolution led to a population increase but the chances of surviving childhood did not improve throughout the Industrial Revolution,

although infant mortality rates were reduced markedly. There was still limited opportunity for education and children were expected to work. Employers could pay a child less than an adult even though their productivity was comparable; there was no need for strength to operate an industrial machine, and since the industrial system was completely new, there were no experienced adult labourers. This made child labour the labour of choice for manufacturing in the early phases of the Industrial Revolution between the 18th and 19th centuries. In England and Scotland in 1788, two-thirds of the workers in 143 water-powered cotton mills were described as children.



Source: <http://webs.bcp.org/sites/vcleary/>

Child labour existed before the Industrial Revolution but with the increase in population and education it became more visible. Many children were forced to work in relatively bad conditions for much lower pay than their elders, 10%-20% of an adult male's wage. Children as young as four were employed. Beatings and long hours were common, with some child coal miners and hurriers working from 4am until 5pm. Conditions were dangerous, with some children killed when they dozed off and fell into the path of the carts, while others died from gas explosions. Many children developed lung cancer and other diseases and died before the age of 25. Workhouses would sell orphans and abandoned children as "pauper apprentices", working without wages for board and lodging. Those who ran away would be whipped and returned to their masters, with some masters shackling them to prevent escape. Children employed as mule scavengers by cotton mills would crawl under machinery to pick up cotton, working 14 hours a day, six days a week. Some lost hands or limbs, others were crushed under the machines, and some were decapitated. Young girls worked at match factories, where phosphorus fumes would cause many to develop phossy jaw. Children employed at

glassworks were regularly burned and blinded, and those working at potteries were vulnerable to poisonous clay dust. Reports were written detailing some of the abuses, particularly in the coal mines and textile factories, and these helped to popularise the children's plight. The public outcry, especially among the upper and middle classes, helped stir change in the young workers' welfare.

Politicians and the government tried to limit child labour by law but factory owners resisted; some felt that they were aiding the poor by giving their children money to buy food to avoid starvation, and others simply welcomed the cheap labour. In 1833 and 1844, the first general laws against child labour, the Factory Acts, were passed in Britain: Children younger than nine were not allowed to work, children were not permitted to work at night, and the work day of youth under the age of 18 was limited to twelve hours. Factory inspectors supervised the execution of the law, however, their scarcity made enforcement difficult. About ten years later, the employment of children and women in mining was forbidden. These laws decreased the number of child labourers, however child labour remained in Europe and the United States up to the 20th century.

Luddites smashing a power loom in 1812. The rapid industrialisation of the English economy cost many craft workers their jobs. The movement started first with lace and hosiery workers near Nottingham and spread to other areas of the textile industry owing to early industrialisation. Many weavers also found themselves suddenly unemployed since they could no longer compete with machines which only required relatively limited (and unskilled) labour to produce more cloth than a single weaver. Many such unemployed workers, weavers and others, turned their animosity towards the machines that had taken their jobs and began destroying factories and machinery. These attackers became known as Luddites, supposedly followers of Ned Ludd, a folklore figure. The first attacks of the Luddite movement began in 1811. The Luddites rapidly gained popularity, and the British government took drastic measures, using the militia or army to protect industry. Those rioters who were caught were tried and hanged, or transported for life. Unrest continued in other sectors as they industrialised, such as with agricultural labourers in the 1830s when large parts of southern Britain were affected by the Captain Swing disturbances. Threshing machines were a particular target, and hayrick burning was a popular activity. However, the riots led to the first formation of trade unions, and further pressure for reform.

The Industrial Revolution concentrated labour into mills, factories and mines, thus facilitating the organisation of combinations or trade unions to help advance the interests of working people. The power of a union

could demand better terms by withdrawing all labour and causing a consequent cessation of production. Employers had to decide between giving in to the union demands at a cost to themselves or suffering the cost of the lost production. Skilled workers were hard to replace, and these were the first groups to successfully advance their conditions through this kind of bargaining.

The main method the unions used to effect change was strike action. Many strikes were painful events for both sides, the unions and the management. In Britain, the Combination Act 1799 forbade workers to form any kind of trade union until its repeal in 1824. Even after this, unions were still severely restricted. In 1832, the Reform Act extended the vote in Britain but did not grant universal suffrage. That year six men from Tolpuddle in Dorset founded the Friendly Society of Agricultural Labourers to protest against the gradual lowering of wages in the 1830s. They refused to work for less than 10 shillings a week, although by this time wages had been reduced to 7 shillings a week and were due to be further reduced to 6. In 1834 James Frampton, a local landowner, wrote to the Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne, to complain about the union, invoking an obscure law from 1797 prohibiting people from swearing oaths to each other, which the members of the Friendly Society had done. James Brine, James Hammett, George Loveless, George's brother James Loveless, George's brother-in-law Thomas Standfield, and Thomas's son John Standfield were arrested, found guilty, and transported to Australia. They became known as the Tolpuddle Martyrs. In the 1830s and 1840s the Chartist movement was the first large-scale organised working class political movement which campaigned for political equality and social justice. Its Charter of reforms received over three million signatures but was rejected by Parliament without consideration.

Working people also formed friendly societies and co-operative societies as mutual support groups against times of economic hardship. Enlightened industrialists, such as Robert Owen also supported these organisations to improve the conditions of the working class. Unions slowly overcame the legal restrictions on the right to strike. In 1842, a general strike involving cotton workers and colliers was organised through the Chartist movement which stopped production across Great Britain. Eventually, effective political organisation for working people was achieved through the trades unions who, after the extensions of the franchise in 1867 and 1885, began to support socialist political parties that later merged to become the British Labour Party. It also had other effects. The application of steam power to the industrial processes of printing supported a massive expansion of newspaper and popular book publishing, which reinforced rising literacy and demands for mass political participation.

During the Industrial Revolution, the life expectancy of children increased dramatically. The percentage of the children born in London who died before the age of five decreased from 74.5% in 1730–1749 to 31.8% in 1810–1829. The growth of modern industry since the late 18th century led to massive urbanisation and the rise of new great cities, first in Europe and then in other regions, as new opportunities brought huge numbers of migrants from rural communities into urban areas. In 1800, only 3% of the world's population lived in cities, compared to nearly 50% today (the beginning of the 21st century). Manchester had a population of 10,000 in 1717, but by 1911 it had burgeoned to 2.3 million.

Industrial revolution promoted various Intellectual paradigms and criticism included, Capitalism, socialism, and romanticism. The advent of the Age of Enlightenment provided an intellectual framework which welcomed the practical application of the growing body of scientific knowledge—a factor evidenced in the systematic development of the steam engine, guided by scientific analysis, and the development of the political and sociological analyses, culminating in Scottish economist Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*. One of the main arguments for capitalism, presented for example in the book *The Improving State of the World*, is that industrialisation increases wealth for all, as evidenced by raised life expectancy, reduced working hours, and no work for children and the elderly.

## **Capitalism**

Capitalism is an economic system in which trade, industry, and the means of production are largely or entirely privately owned and operated for profit. Central characteristics of capitalism include capital accumulation, competitive markets and wage labour. In a capitalist economy, the parties to a transaction typically determine the prices at which assets, goods, and services are exchanged. The degree of competition, role of intervention and regulation, and scope of public ownership varies across different models of capitalism. Economists, political economists, and historians have taken different perspectives in their analysis of capitalism and recognized various forms of it in practice.

These include *laissez-faire* capitalism, welfare capitalism, crony capitalism and state capitalism; each highlighting varying degrees of dependency on markets, public ownership, and inclusion of social policies. The extent to which different markets are free, as well as the rules defining private property, is a matter of politics and policy.

Many states have what are termed capitalist mixed economies, referring to a mix between planned and market-driven elements. Capitalism has



## CAPITALISM

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and is now the encompassing system worldwide, with the mixed economy being its dominant form in the industrialized Western world. Barry Gills and Paul James write: The process remains uneven, but notwithstanding the continuing importance of national and regional economies today, global capitalism is undoubtedly the dominant framework of economics in the world. There are many debates about what this means, but across the political spectrum 'capitalism' has become the taken-for-granted way of naming the economic pattern that weaves together the current dominant modes of production and exchange.

Different economic perspectives emphasize specific elements of capitalism in their preferred definition. Laissez-faire and liberal economists emphasize the degree to which government does not have control over markets and the importance of property rights. Neoclassical and Keynesian macro-economists emphasize the need for government regulation to prevent monopolies and to soften the effects of the boom and bust cycle. Marxian economists emphasize the role of capital accumulation, exploitation and wage labor. Most political economists emphasize private property as well, in addition to power relations, wage labor, class, and the uniqueness of capitalism as a historical formation.

Proponents of capitalism argue that it creates more prosperity than any other economic system, and that its benefits are mainly to the ordinary person. Critics of capitalism variously associate it with economic instability, an inability to provide for the well-being of all people, and

existed under many forms of government, in many different times, places, and cultures. Following the demise of feudalism, capitalism became the dominant economic system in the Western world.

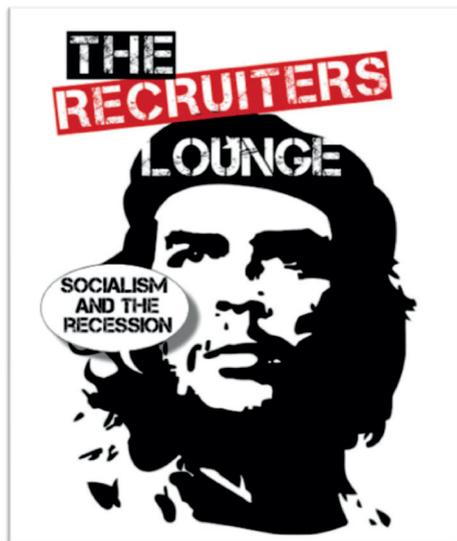
Capitalism was carried across the world by broader processes of globalization such as imperialism and, by the end of the nineteenth century, became the dominant global economic system, in turn intensifying processes of economic and other globalization. Later, in the 20th century, capitalism overcame a challenge by centrally-planned economies

an unsustainable danger to the natural environment. Socialists maintain that, although capitalism is superior to all previously existing economic systems (such as feudalism or slavery), the contradiction between class interests will only be resolved by advancing into a completely social system of production and distribution in which all persons have an equal relationship to the means of production. The term capitalism, in its modern sense, is often attributed to Karl Marx. In his magnum opus *Capital*, Marx analysed the "capitalist mode of production" using a method of understanding today known as Marxism. However, Marx himself rarely used the term "capitalism", while it was used twice in the more political interpretations of his work, primarily authored by his collaborator Friedrich Engels. In the 20th century defenders of the capitalist system often replaced the term capitalism with phrases such as free enterprise and private enterprise and replaced capitalist with rentier and investor in reaction to the negative connotations associated with capitalism.

## Socialism

Socialism emerged as a critique of capitalism. Marxism began essentially as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution. According to Karl Marx, industrialisation polarised society into the bourgeoisie (those who own the means of production, the factories and the land) and the much larger proletariat (the working class who actually perform the labour necessary to extract something valuable from the means of production). Socialism emerged as a critique of capitalism. Marxism began essentially as a reaction to the Industrial Revolution.

According to Karl Marx, industrialisation polarised society into the bourgeoisie (those who own the means of production, the factories and the land) and the much larger proletariat (the working class who actually perform the labour necessary to extract something valuable from the means of production). He saw the industrialisation process as the logical dialectical progression of feudal economic modes, necessary for the full development of capitalism,



Source:  
<http://www.therecruiterslounge.com/>

which he saw as in itself a necessary precursor to the development of socialism and eventually communism.

Socialism is a social and economic system characterised by social ownership of the means of production and co-operative management of the economy, as well as a political theory and movement that aims at the establishment of such a system. "Social ownership" may refer to cooperative enterprises, common ownership, state ownership, citizen ownership of equity, or any combination of these. There are many varieties of socialism and there is no single definition encapsulating all of them. They differ in the type of social ownership they advocate, the degree to which they rely on markets or planning, how management is to be organised within productive institutions, and the role of the state in constructing socialism.

A socialist economic system is based on the organisational precept of production for use, meaning the production of goods and services to directly satisfy economic demand and human needs where objects are valued based on their use-value or utility, as opposed to being structured upon the accumulation of capital and production for profit. In the traditional conception of a socialist economy, coordination, accounting and valuation would be performed in kind (using physical quantities), by a common physical magnitude, or by a direct measure of labour-time in place of financial calculation. On distribution of output there have been two proposals, one which is based on the principle of to each according to his contribution and another on the principle of from each according to his ability, to each according to his need. The advisability, feasibility and exact methods of resource allocation and valuation are the subject of the socialist calculation debate.

The socialist political movement includes a diverse array of political philosophies. Core dichotomies within the socialist movement include the distinction between reformism and revolutionary socialism and between state socialism and libertarian socialism. State socialism calls for the nationalisation of the means of production as a strategy for implementing socialism, while libertarian socialists generally place their hopes in decentralized means of direct democracy such as libertarian municipalism, citizens' assemblies, trade unions, and workers' councils coming from a general anti-authoritarian stance. Democratic socialism highlights the central role of democratic processes and political systems and is usually contrasted with non-democratic political movements that advocate socialism. Some socialists have adopted the causes of other social movements, such as environmentalism, feminism and liberalism.

Modern socialism originated from an 18th-century intellectual and working class political movement that criticised the effects of industrialisation and private property on society. The revival of republicanism in the American Revolution of 1776 and the egalitarian values introduced by the French Revolution of 1789 gave rise to socialism as a distinct political movement. In the early 19th century, "socialism" referred to any concern for the social problems of capitalism irrespective of the solutions to those problems. However, by the late 19th century, socialism had come to signify opposition to capitalism and advocacy for an alternative post-capitalist system based on some form of social ownership. During this time, German philosopher Karl Marx and his collaborator Friedrich Engels published works criticizing the utopian aspects of contemporary socialist trends and applied a materialist understanding of socialism as a phase of development which will come about through social revolution instigated by escalating and conflicting class relationships within capitalism. Alongside this there appeared other tendencies such as anarchism, revolutionary syndicalism, social-democracy, Marxism–Leninism and democratic socialism as well as the confluence of socialism with anti-imperialist and anti-racist struggles around the world. The socialist movement came to be the most influential worldwide movement and political-economic worldview of the 20th century. Today, socialist parties and ideas remain a political force with varying degrees of power and influence in all continents leading national governments in many countries.

## **Romanticism**

During the Industrial Revolution an intellectual and artistic hostility towards the new industrialization developed, associated with the Romantic movement. Its major exponents in English included the artist and poet William Blake and poets William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, John Keats, Lord Byron and Percy Bysshe Shelley.

The movement stressed the importance of "nature" in art and language, in contrast to "monstrous" machines and factories; the "Dark satanic mills" of Blake's poem "And did those feet in ancient time". Mary Shelley's novel *Frankenstein* reflected concerns that scientific progress might be two-edged.

Romanticism (also the Romantic era or the Romantic period) was an artistic, literary, and intellectual movement that originated in Europe toward the end of the 18th century and in most areas was at its peak in the approximate period from 1800 to 1850. Partly a reaction to the Industrial Revolution, it was also a revolt against the aristocratic



Source:

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romanticism>.

social and political norms of the Age of Enlightenment and a reaction against the scientific rationalization of nature. It was embodied most strongly in the visual arts, music, and literature, but had a major impact on historiography, education and the natural sciences. Its effect on politics was considerable and complex; while for much of the peak Romantic period it was associated with liberalism and radicalism, its long-term effect on the growth of nationalism was probably more significant.

The movement validated intense emotion as an authentic source of aesthetic experience, placing new emphasis on such emotions

as apprehension, horror and terror, and awe—especially that which is experienced in confronting the sublimity of untamed nature and its picturesque qualities: both new aesthetic categories. It elevated folk art and ancient custom to a noble status, made spontaneity a desirable characteristic (as in the musical impromptu), and argued for a natural epistemology of human activities, as conditioned by nature in the form of language and customary usage. Romanticism reached beyond the rational and Classicist ideal models to raise a revived medievalism and elements of art and narrative perceived to be authentically medieval in an attempt to escape the confines of population growth, urban sprawl, and industrialism. Romanticism embraced the exotic, the unfamiliar, and the distant in modes more authentic than Rococo chinoiserie, harnessing the power of the imagination to envision and to escape.

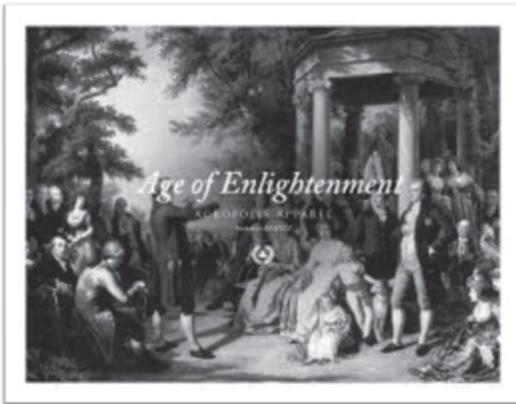
Although the movement was rooted in the German Sturm und Drang movement, which prized intuition and emotion over the rationalism of the Enlightenment, the events of and ideologies that led to the French Revolution planted the seeds from which both Romanticism and the Counter-Enlightenment sprouted. The confines of the Industrial Revolution also had their influence on Romanticism, which was in part an escape from modern realities. Indeed, in the second half of the 19th century, "Realism" was offered as a polar opposite to Romanticism. Romanticism assigned a high value to the achievements of 'heroic' individualists and

artists, whose pioneering examples, it maintained, would raise the quality of society. It also vouched for the individual imagination as a critical authority allowed of freedom from classical notions of form in art. There was a strong recourse to historical and natural inevitability, a *Zeitgeist*, in the representation of its ideas.

## The Age of Enlightenment

The Age of Enlightenment (or simply the Enlightenment or Age of Reason) was a cultural movement of intellectuals beginning in late 17th-century Europe emphasizing reason and individualism rather than tradition.

Its purpose was to reform society using reason, to challenge ideas grounded in tradition and faith, and to advance knowledge through the scientific method. It promoted scientific thought, skepticism, and intellectual interchange. The Enlightenment was a revolution in human thought. This new way of thinking was that rational thought begins with clearly stated principles, uses correct logic to arrive at conclusions, tests the conclusions against evidence, and then revises the principles in the light of the evidence.



Source: <http://www.acropolisapparel.com/archives/acropolis-summer-mmxii-age-of-enlightenment/>.

Enlightenment thinkers opposed superstition. Some Enlightenment thinkers collaborated with Enlightened despots, absolutist rulers who attempted to forcibly put some of the new ideas about government into practice. The ideas of the Enlightenment continue to exert significant influence on the culture, politics, and governments of the

Western world. Originating in the 17th century, it was sparked by philosophers Francis Bacon (1562-1626), René Descartes (1596-1650), Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677), John Locke (1632-1704), Pierre Bayle (1647-1706), Voltaire (1694-1778), Francis Hutcheson, (1694-1746), David Hume (1711-1776), Cesare Beccaria (1738-1794) and Isaac Newton (1643-1727). Ruling princes often endorsed and fostered these figures and even attempted to apply their ideas of government in what was known as enlightened absolutism. The Scientific Revolution is closely tied to the Enlightenment, as its discoveries overturned many traditional concepts and introduced new perspectives on nature and man's place

within it. The Enlightenment flourished until about 1790–1800, at which point the Enlightenment, with its emphasis on reason, gave way to Romanticism, which placed a new emphasis on emotion; a Counter-Enlightenment began to increase in prominence. The Romantics argued that the Enlightenment was reductionistic insofar as it had largely ignored the forces of imagination, mystery, and sentiment.

In France, Enlightenment was based in the salons and culminated in the great *Encyclopédie* (1751–72) edited by Denis Diderot (1713–1784) and (until 1759) Jean le Rond d'Alembert (1717–1783) with contributions by hundreds of leading intellectuals who were called *philosophes*, notably Voltaire (1694–1778), Rousseau (1712–1778) and Montesquieu (1689–1755). Some 25,000 copies of the 35 volume encyclopedia were sold, half of them outside France. These new intellectual strains would spread to urban centres across Europe, notably England, Scotland, the German states, the Netherlands, Poland, Russia, Italy, Austria, Spain. It was also very successful in the United States, where its influence was manifested in the works of Francophiles like Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson, among others. It played a major role in the American Revolution. The political ideals of the Enlightenment influenced the American Declaration of Independence, the United States Bill of Rights, the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, and the Polish–Lithuanian Constitution of May 3, 1791.

## Secularism



Source: <http://amiodo.blogspot.com/>

Secularism is closely related to the path of industrial revolution movement and its' effect. The central principle of the medieval, Renaissance and ancient régime periods, monarchical rule 'by God's will', was fundamentally challenged by the 1789 as French Revolution.

The revolution was a direct threat to clerical and noble privilege: the legislation that abolished the feudal privileges of the Church and nobility dates on August 4, 1789.

The revolution also challenged the theological basis of royal

authority. The doctrine of popular sovereignty directly challenged the former divine right of kings. The king was to govern on behalf of the people, and not under the orders of God as well as term of Secularism.

Secularism is the principle of the separation of government institutions and persons mandated to represent the state from religious institutions and religious dignitaries. One manifestation of secularism is asserting the right to be free from religious rule and teachings, or, in a state declared to be neutral on matters of belief, from the imposition by government of religion or religious practices upon its people. Another manifestation of secularism is the view that public activities and decisions, especially political ones, should be uninfluenced by religious beliefs and/or practices. Secularism draws its intellectual roots from Greek and Roman philosophers such as Marcus Aurelius and Epicurus; from Enlightenment thinkers such as Denis Diderot, Voltaire, Baruch Spinoza, James Madison, Thomas Jefferson, and Thomas Paine; and from more recent freethinkers and atheists such as Robert Ingersoll and Bertrand Russell.

The purposes and arguments in support of secularism vary widely. In European laicism, it has been argued that secularism is a movement toward modernization, and away from traditional religious values (also known as secularization). This type of secularism, on a social or philosophical level, has often occurred while maintaining an official state church or other state support of religion. In the United States, some argue that state secularism has served to a greater extent to protect religion and the religious from governmental interference, while secularism on

a social level is less prevalent. Within countries as well, differing political movements support secularism for varying reasons.

The term "secularism" was first used by the British writer George Jacob Holyoake in 1851. Although the term was new, the general notions of freethought on which it was based had existed throughout history.

Holyoake invented the term "secularism" to describe his views of promoting a social order separate from religion, without actively dismissing or criticizing religious belief.



Source:  
<http://gerald-massey.org.uk/holyoake/>.

An agnostic himself, Holyoake argued that "Secularism is not an argument against Christianity, it is one independent of it. It does not question the pretensions of Christianity; it advances others. Secularism does not say there is no light or guidance elsewhere, but maintains that there is light and guidance in secular truth, whose conditions and sanctions exist independently, and act forever. Secular knowledge is manifestly that kind of knowledge which is founded in this life, which relates to the conduct of this life, conduces to the welfare of this life, and is capable of being tested by the experience of this life."

Barry Kosmin of the Institute for the Study of Secularism in Society and Culture breaks modern secularism into two types: hard and soft secularism. According to Kosmin, "the hard secularist considers religious propositions to be epistemologically illegitimate, warranted by neither reason nor experience." However, in the view of soft secularism, "the attainment of absolute truth was impossible and therefore skepticism and tolerance should be the principle and overriding values in the discussion of science and religion.

In political terms, secularism is a movement towards the separation of religion and government (often termed the separation of church and state). This can refer to reducing ties between a government and a state religion, replacing laws based on scripture (such as the Torah and Sharia law) with civil laws, and eliminating discrimination on the basis of religion. This is said to add to democracy by protecting the rights of religious minorities. Other scholars, such as Jacques Berlinerblau of the Program for Jewish Civilization at Georgetown University, have argued separation of church and state is but one possible strategy to be deployed by secular governments. What all secular governments, from the democratic to the authoritarian, share is a concern about relations between church and state, Each secular government may find its own unique policy prescriptions for dealing with that concern (separation being but one of those possible policies. French models in which the state carefully monitors and regulates the church being another).

Maharaja Ranjeet Singh of the Sikh empire of the first half 19th century successfully established a secular rule in the Punjab. This secular rule allowed members of all races and religions to be respected and to participate without discrimination in Ranjeet Singh darbar and he had Sikh, a Muslim and a Hindu representatives heading the darbar. Ranjit Singh also extensively funded education, religion, and arts of various different religions and languages.

Secularism is often associated with the Age of Enlightenment in Europe and plays a major role in Western society. The principles, but not

necessarily practices, of separation of church and state in the United States and *Laïcité* in France draw heavily on secularism. Secular states also existed in the Islamic world during the Middle Ages (see Islam and secularism). Due in part to the belief in the separation of church and state, secularists tend to prefer that politicians make decisions for secular rather than religious reasons. In this respect, policy decisions pertaining to topics like abortion, contraception, embryonic stem cell research, same-sex marriage, and sex education are prominently focused upon by American secularist organizations such as the Center for Inquiry.

Most major religions accept the primacy of the rules of secular, democratic society but may still seek to influence political decisions or achieve specific privileges or influence through church-state agreements such as a concordat. Many Christians support a secular state, and may acknowledge that the conception has support in Biblical teachings, particularly the statement of Jesus in the Book of Luke: "Then give to Caesar what is Caesar's, and to God what is God's." However, some Christian fundamentalists (notably in the United States) oppose secularism, often claiming that there is a "radical secularist" ideology being adopted in current days and see secularism as a threat to "Christian rights" and national security. The most significant forces of religious fundamentalism in the contemporary world are Fundamentalist Christianity and Fundamentalist Islam. At the same time, one significant stream of secularism has come from religious minorities who see governmental and political secularism as integral to preserving equal rights. Some of the well known states that are often considered "constitutionally secular" are USA, France, India, Mexico South Korea, and Turkey although none of these nations have identical forms of governance.

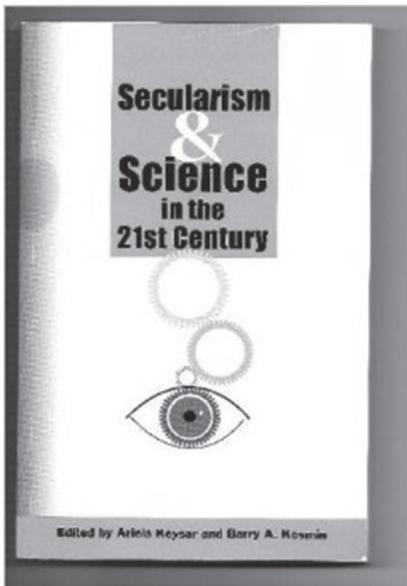
In studies of religion, modern democracies are generally recognized as secular. This is due to the near-complete freedom of religion (beliefs on religion generally are not subject to legal or social sanctions), and the lack of authority of religious leaders over political decisions. Nevertheless, religious beliefs are widely considered a relevant part of the political discourse in many of these countries. This contrasts with other Western countries where religious references are generally considered out-of-place in mainstream politics. The aspirations of a secular society could characterize a secular society as one which: Refuses to commit itself as a whole to any one view of the nature of the universe and the role of man in it, Is not homogeneous, but is pluralistic, Is tolerant. It widens the sphere of private decision-making, While every society must have some common aims, which implies there must be agreed on methods of problem-solving, and a common framework of law; in a secular society these are as limited as possible, Problem solving is approached rationally,

through examination of the facts. While the secular society does not set any overall aim, it helps its members realize their aims, and is a society without any official images. Nor is there a common ideal type of behavior with universal application.

Positive Ideals behind the secular society are included deep respect for individuals and the small groups of which they are a part, Equality of all people, Each person should be helped to realize their particular excellence, Breaking down of the barriers of class and caste. Modern sociology has, since Max Weber, often been preoccupied with the problem of authority in secularized societies and with secularization as a sociological or historical process. Twentieth-century scholars whose work has contributed to the understanding of these matters include Carl L. Becker, Karl Löwith, Hans Blumenberg, M. H. Abrams, Peter L. Berger, Paul Bénichou and D. L. Munby, among others. Some societies become increasingly secular as the result of social processes, rather than through the actions of a dedicated secular movement; this process is known as secularization.

### **The root of social science**

Secularism are believed to endorse Intellectual paradigm. View of superstition, intolerance and abuses in church and state in 18th century in Europe promoted interchange science and intellectual. This cultural movement of intellectuals sought to mobilize the power of reason, in order to reform society and advance knowledge, named an Age of Enlightenment.



Sources; <http://www.amazon.com/>.

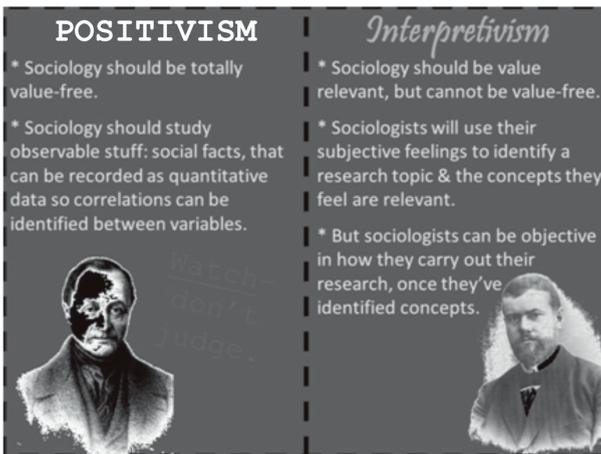
The phrase "separation of church and state" is derived from a letter written by President Thomas Jefferson in 1802 to Baptists from Danbury, Connecticut

Beginning of the age of Enlightenment has little consensus such as Descartes on Discourse Method (1637), Isaac Newton's on Principia Mathematica (1687), and the beginning of the Napoleonic Wars (1804–15) as the end of the Enlightenment. Enlightenment was a desire for human affairs to be guided by rationality rather than by faith,

superstition, or revelation; a belief in the power of human reason to change society and liberate the individual from the restraints of custom or arbitrary authority; all backed up by a world view increasingly validated by science rather than by religion or tradition (Dorinda Outram).

## Positivism

The age of enlightenment proposed positivism knowledge philosophy. Positivism is philosophy of science based on the view that in the social as well as natural sciences, data derived from sensory experience, and logical and mathematical treatments of such data, are together the exclusive source of all authentic knowledge as well as rationality guidance. Positivism is the philosophy of science that information derived from logical and mathematical treatments and reports of sensory experience is the exclusive source of all authoritative knowledge, and that there is valid knowledge (truth) only in this derived knowledge. Verified data received from the senses are known as empirical evidence. Positivism holds that society, like the physical world, operates according to general laws.



Source: <http://slideplayer.us/slide/274790/>.

Introspective and intuitive knowledge is rejected. Although the positivist approach has been a recurrent theme in the history of western thought, the modern sense of the approach was developed by the philosopher and founding sociologist Auguste Comte in the early 19th century. Comte

argued that, much as the physical world operates according to gravity and other absolute laws, so does society. Positivism is part of a more general ancient quarrel between philosophy and poetry, notably laid out by Plato and later reformulated as a quarrel between the sciences and the humanities, Plato elaborates a critique of poetry from the point of view of philosophy in his dialogues Phaedrus 245a, Symposium 209a, Republic 398a, Laws 817 b-d and Ion. Wilhelm Dilthey popularized the distinction between Geisteswissenschaft (humanities) and Naturwissenschaften (natural science). The consideration that laws in physics may not be absolute but relative, and, if so, this might be more true of social sciences,

was stated, in different terms, by G. B. Vico in 1725. Vico, in contrast to the positivist movement, asserted the superiority of the science of the human mind (the humanities, in other words), on the grounds that natural sciences tell us nothing about the inward aspects of things.

Positivism in the social sciences is usually characterized by quantitative approaches and the proposition of quasi-absolute laws. A significant exception to this trend is represented by cultural anthropology, which tends naturally toward qualitative approaches. In psychology the positivist movement was influential in the development of behaviorism and operationalism. The 1927 philosophy of science book *The Logic of Modern Physics* in particular, which was originally intended for physicists, coined the term operational definition, which went on to dominate psychological method for the whole century.

In economics, practising researchers tend to emulate the methodological assumptions of classical positivism, but only in a de facto fashion: the majority of economists do not explicitly concern themselves with matters of epistemology. In jurisprudence, "legal positivism" essentially refers to the rejection of natural law, thus its common meaning with philosophical positivism is somewhat attenuated and in recent generations generally emphasizes the authority of human political structures as opposed to a "scientific" view of law. In the early 1970s, urbanists of the positivist-quantitative school like David Harvey started to question the positivist approach itself, saying that the arsenal of scientific theories and methods developed so far in their camp was "incapable of saying anything of depth and profundity" on the real problems of contemporary cities.

The key features of positivism as of the 1950s, as defined in the "received view", are: A focus on science as a product, a linguistic or numerical set of statements; A concern with axiomatization, that is, with demonstrating the logical structure and coherence of these statements; An insistence on at least some of these statements being testable; that is, amenable to being verified, confirmed, or shown to be false by the empirical observation of reality. Statements that would, by their nature, be regarded as untestable included the teleological; thus positivism rejects much of classical metaphysics. The belief that science is markedly cumulative; The belief that science is predominantly transcultural; The belief that science rests on specific results that are dissociated from the personality and social position of the investigator; the belief that science contains theories or research traditions that are largely commensurable; the belief that science sometimes incorporates new ideas that are discontinuous from old ones; the belief that science involves the idea of the unity of science, that there is, underlying the various scientific disciplines, basically one science about one real world.

The belief that science is nature and nature is science; and out of this duality, all theories and postulates are created, interpreted, evolve, and are applied. Positivism is elsewhere defined as the belief that all true knowledge is scientific, and that all things are ultimately measurable. Positivism is closely related to reductionism, in that both involve the belief that "entities of one kind... are reducible to entities of another," such as societies to configurations of individuals, or mental events to neural phenomena. It also involves the contention that "processes are reducible to physiological, physical or chemical events," and even that "social processes are reducible to relationships between and actions of individuals," or that "biological organisms are reducible to physical systems. While most social scientists today are not explicit about their epistemological commitments, articles in top American sociology and political science journals generally follow a positivist logic of argument. It can be thus argued that "natural science and social science can therefore be regarded with a good deal of confidence as members of the same genre.

Social science is the field of study concerned with society and human behaviors. It is commonly used as an umbrella term to refer to a plurality of fields outside of the natural sciences. These include: anthropology, archaeology, criminology, economics, education, linguistics, political science and international relations, sociology, geography, history, law, and psychology. The social sciences developed from the sciences (experimental and applied), or the systematic knowledge-bases or prescriptive practices, relating to the social improvement. Social sciences came forth from the moral philosophy of the time and was influenced by the Age of Enlightenment. Scholar strengthen the ideas of social science was influenced by positivism focusing on knowledge based on actual positive sense experience and avoiding the negative, metaphysical speculation was avoided (Kuper, A., &Kuper, J., 1985). The term "social science" established by thinkers such as Comte, Durkheim, Marx, and Weber, or more generally to all disciplines outside of noble science and arts. By the late 19th century, the academic social sciences were constituted of five fields: jurisprudence and amendment of the law, education, health, economy and trade, and art. At the turn of the 21st century, the expanding domain of economics in the social sciences has been described as economic imperialism (Lazear, 2000).

### **Critic to Positivism**

The 2010 World Social Science Report from the International Social Science Council (ISSC) Unesco try to critic social science concepts and theories. They believe that social science concepts and theories influence

public opinion and public debates more than ever before. These are all indications of social sciences' success. It is include critic to science of economic, politic, and sociology.



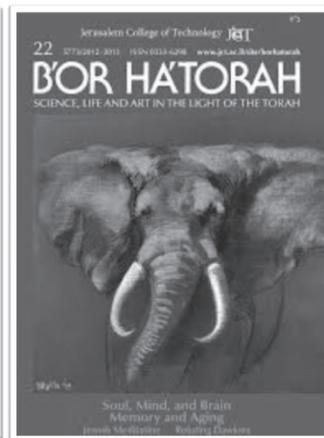
Economists evaluate that the economic crisis (started in 2008) and that conflicting advice has been given on dealing with it. Political scientists are sometimes accused of not anticipating deep changes in opinion; and Sociologists of failing to identify major social trends. The social sciences have been accused of being fragmented, overspecialized and sometimes too abstruse and disconnected. Social sciences have become so diffuse and widespread that nobody notices their role in understanding and shaping our world and daily lives any more. Hence, their findings and concepts must be constantly re- evaluated. Social sciences have to be endeavoured to bring

Source: <http://www.worldsocialscience.org/activities/world-social-science-report/>.

rational wisdom to economic, social, political and personal topics that used to be dealt with through personal beliefs and religion.



Source: <http://www.baselinemag.com/careers/>



Source: <http://www.jct.ac.il/en/bor-hatorah-home>.

Scholars try to promote religion as a basis of conceptual basic of science building. Motivated by Pope Benedict XVI, Journal of Business Ethics 2009 endorse Global Leadership for special issues. Journal of Science, Art, and life in the light of Torah. B'OR HA'TORAH is a peer-reviewed international forum for all Jews who want to understand the relationship of Torah with science, artistic creativity, personal behavior, and social issues. Call for papers with the issues of Buddhist Insights for a New World Economy, The 3rd Conference of the Buddhist Economics Research Platform, January 18-19, 2010, Brisbane, Australia applied to find the economic theory by using the perspective of Buddhism. Call for papers at The 8th Islamic Manuscript Conference The Science of manuscripts; Manuscripts of Science 9–11 July 2012, Queens' College, University of Cambridge, United Kingdom, discussed the science and technology described by Quran. Proposition of Kuntowijoyo in "Islam sebagai Ilmu" (2004): Epistemology, methodology, and ethics try to propose a point of view to integrate Quran and Science. He conceptualized that Text (Quran) to Context (Application) As well as theological and theoretical Postulate to Empirical approaches. He believed that science based positivism has historical and intellectual bias such as cultural and sociological science views a reality through a phrase (such as wording, concept, symbol culture and mutual agreements) than directly on the objects. Accordingly views of secular science are subjective (Social sciences are not free from values). He proposed that sources of Islamic science included Qauliyah (God's words), Kauniyah (Universe), and Nafsiyah (Human being). Kunto has also required Islamic science paradigm included Wholeness (kaaffah), Transformation (mutaghayiroh), and Self Regulation (Originality of Quran). Whether the characteristics of Islamic science are Interconnectedness, Innate structuring capacity (Tauhid-syariah-behavior), and Binary Opposition and equilibrium. He also promoted a method to explore science and technology using a perspective of integralization and objectification.

## Perspective and Theory of Conflict



### Socio Behavioral point of views

Etymologically deriving from the Latin *conflictus*, which means the act of striking together from *confligere* to strike together, from *comfligere* to strike, conflict arises in relationships and it is a universal human experience. Conflict is defined as a disagreement through which the

parties involved perceive a threat to their needs, interests or concerns. Needs, interests or concerns - There is a tendency to narrowly define "the problem" as one of substance, task, and near-term viability. However, workplace conflicts tend to be far more complex than that, for they involve ongoing relationships with complex, emotional components. Simply stated, there are always procedural needs and psychological needs to be addressed within the conflict, in addition to the substantive needs that are generally presented. And the durability of the interests and concerns of the parties transcends the immediate presenting situation. Any efforts to resolve conflicts effectively must take these points into account.

Within this simple definition there are several important understandings that emerge: Disagreement - Generally, there is some level of difference in the positions of the two (or more) parties involved in the conflict. But the true disagreement versus the perceived disagreement may be quite different from one another. In fact, conflict tends to be accompanied by significant levels of misunderstanding that exaggerate the perceived disagreement considerably. If we can understand the true areas of disagreement, this will help us solve the right problems and manage the true needs of the parties. Parties involved - There are often disparities in our sense of who is involved in the conflict. Sometimes, people are surprised to learn they are a party to the conflict, while other times we are shocked to learn we are not included in the disagreement. On many occasions, people who are seen as part of the social system (e.g., work team, family, company) are influenced to participate in the dispute, whether they would personally define the situation in that way or not. In the above example, people very readily "take sides" based upon current perceptions of the issues, past issues and relationships, roles within the organization, and other factors. The parties involved can become an elusive concept to define. Perceived threat - People respond to the perceived threat, rather than the true threat, facing them. Thus, while perception doesn't become reality per se, people's behaviors, feelings and ongoing responses become modified by that evolving sense of the threat they confront. If we can work to understand the true threat (issues) and develop strategies (solutions) that manage it (agreement), we are acting constructively to manage the conflict.

While no single definition of conflict exists, most definitions involve the following factors: there are at least two independent groups, the groups perceive some incompatibility between themselves, and the groups interact with each other in some way (Putnam and Poole, 1987). Two example definitions are, "process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party"

(Wall & Callister, 1995, p. 517), and "the interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities" (Rahim, 1992, p. 16). Jeong states that traditionally conflict arises where there exist competition for resources, value differences and adversarial relationships and the term conflict means incompatibility of goals between parties. Moreover, just as the relationships take on many forms, so do the ways in which conflict is managed or resolved.

Conflict is an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e. individual, group, organization). Rahim (2002) sought that there are several causes of conflict. Conflict may occur when a party is required to engage in an activity that is incongruent with his or her needs or interests, a party holds behavioral preferences, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person's implementation of his or her preferences, a party wants some mutually desirable resource that is in short supply, such that the wants of all parties involved may not be satisfied fully, a party possesses attitudes, values, skills, and goals that are salient in directing his or her behavior but are perceived to be exclusive of the attitudes, values, skills, and goals held by the other(s), two parties have partially exclusive behavioral preferences regarding their joint actions, and or, two parties are interdependent in the performance of functions or activities.

Workplace conflict is may be because of scarce and insufficient resources; such as time, status or budgets: because of values; such as political preferences, religious beliefs, deep rooted moral values: and because of insights, facts, perceptions, world views and may be because of any possible combination of these issues. Conflict management is something that companies and managers need to deal with. Conflict significantly affects employee morale, turnover, and litigation, which affects the prosperity of a company, either constructively or destructively. (Lang, 2009, p. 240) Turnover can cost a company 200% of the employee's annual salary (Maccabeus & Shudder, p. 48). It is the process of limiting the negative aspects of conflict while increasing the positive aspects of conflict. The aim of conflict management is to enhance learning and group outcomes, including effectiveness or performance in organizational setting (Rahim, 2002, p. 208). Properly managed conflict can improve group outcomes (Alpert, Tjosvaldo, & Law, 2000; Bodtker& Jameson, 2001; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979; Kuhn & Poole, 2000; DeChurch& Marks, 2001). No supervisors spend more than 25% of their time on conflict management, and managers spend more than 18% of their time on relational employee conflicts. This has doubled since the 1980s. Reasons for this are "the growing complexity of organizations, use of teams and group decision making, and globalization." (Lang, 2009, p. 240)

Although conflict is a normal part of organization life, providing numerous opportunities for growth through improved understanding and insight, there is a tendency to view conflict as a negative experience caused by abnormally difficult circumstances. Disputants tend to perceive limited options and finite resources available in seeking solutions, rather than multiple possibilities that may exist 'outside the box' in which we are problem-solving. A few points are worth reiterating before proceeding:

- A conflict is more than a mere disagreement - it is a situation in which people perceive a threat (physical, emotional, power, status, etc.) to their well-being. As such, it is a meaningful experience in people's lives, not to be shrugged off by a mere, "it will pass..."
- Participants in conflicts tend to respond on the basis of their perceptions of the situation, rather than an objective review of it. As such, people filter their perceptions (and reactions) through their values, culture, beliefs, information, experience, gender, and other variables. Conflict responses are both filled with ideas and feelings that can be very strong and powerful guides to our sense of possible solutions.
- As in any problem, conflicts contain substantive, procedural, and psychological dimensions to be negotiated. In order to best understand the threat perceived by those engaged in a conflict, we need to consider all of these dimensions.
- Conflicts are normal experiences within the work environment. They are also, to a large degree, predictable and expectable situations that naturally arise as we go about managing complex and stressful projects in which we are significantly invested. As such, if we develop procedures for identifying conflicts likely to arise, as well as systems through which we can constructively manage conflicts, we may be able to discover new opportunities to transform conflict into a productive learning experience.
- Creative problem-solving strategies are essential to positive approaches to conflict management. We need to transform the situation from one in which it is 'my way or the highway' into one in which we entertain new possibilities that have been otherwise elusive.

The role of perceptions in conflict is created by perceptual filters that influence the responses to the situation. There are included:

- Culture, race, and ethnicity: Our varying cultural backgrounds influence us to hold certain beliefs about the social structure of our world, as well as the role of conflict in that experience. We may have learned to value substantive, procedural and psychological needs

differently as a result, thus influencing our willingness to engage in various modes of negotiation and efforts to manage the conflict

- Gender and sexuality: Men and women often perceive situations somewhat differently, based on both their experiences in the world (which relates to power and privilege, as do race and ethnicity) and socialization patterns that reinforce the importance of relationships vs. task, substance vs. process, immediacy vs. long-term outcomes. As a result, men and women will often approach conflictive situations with differing mindsets about the desired outcomes from the situation, as well as the set of possible solutions that may exist.
- Knowledge (general and situational): Parties respond to given conflicts on the basis of the knowledge they may have about the issue at hand. This includes situation-specific knowledge (i.e., "Do I understand what is going on here?") and general knowledge (i.e., "Have I experienced this type of situation before?" or "Have I studied about similar situations before?"). Such information can influence the person's willingness to engage in efforts to manage the conflict, either reinforcing confidence to deal with the dilemma or undermining one's willingness to flexibly consider alternatives.
- Impressions of the Messenger: If the person sharing the message - the messenger - is perceived to be a threat (powerful, scary, unknown, etc.), this can influence our responses to the overall situation being experienced. For example, if a big scary-looking guy is approaching me rapidly, yelling "Get out of the way!" I may respond differently than if a diminutive, calm person would express the same message to me. As well, if I knew either one of them previously, I might respond differently based upon that prior sense of their credibility: I am more inclined to listen with respect to someone I view as credible than if the message comes from someone who lacks credibility and integrity in my mind.
- Previous experiences: Some of us have had profound, significant life experiences that continue to influence our perceptions of current situations. These experiences may have left us fearful, lacking trust, and reluctant to take risks. On the other hand, previous experiences may have left us confident, willing to take chances and experience the unknown. Either way, we must acknowledge the role of previous experiences as elements of our perceptual filter in the current dilemma.

These factors (along with others) conspire to form the perceptual filters through which we experience conflict. As a result, our reactions to the threat and dilemma posed by conflict should be anticipated to include varying understandings of the situation. This also means

that we can anticipate that in many conflicts there will be significant misunderstanding of each other's perceptions, needs and feelings. These challenges contribute to our emerging sense, during conflict, that the situation is overwhelming and unsolvable. As such, they become critical sources of potential understanding, insight and possibility.

Scholars further define types of conflict as Affective Conflict/Relationship Conflict, Substantive Conflict/Task Conflict, Conflict of Interest/Clash of Interests, and Conflict of Values. Affective conflict deals with interpersonal relationships or incompatibilities not directly related to achieving the group's function (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008; Amason, 1996; Guetzhaw & Gyr, 1954; Jehn, 1992; Pinkley, 1990; Priem & Price, 1991). Affective Conflict/Relationship Conflict occurs when two interacting social entities, while trying to solve a problem together, become aware that their feelings and emotions regarding some or all the issues are incompatible such as Psychological conflict, Relationship conflict, Emotional conflict, and Interpersonal conflict. Substantive conflict involves disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed or the performance itself (DeChurch & Marks, 2001; Jehn, 1995). This type of conflict occurs when two or more social entities disagree on the recognition and solution to a task problem, including differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions (Jehn, 1995; Rahim, 2002). Substantive Conflict/Task Conflict occurs when two or more organizational members disagree on their task or content issues such as task conflict, cognitive conflict, and Issue conflict. Conflict of Interest/Clash of Interests occurs "when each party, sharing the same understanding of the situation, prefers a different and somewhat incompatible solution to a problem involving either a distribution of scarce resources between them or a decision to share the work of solving it. The argument of managers A and B for the same General Manager's job exemplifies a conflict of interest. Conflict of Values occurs when two social entities differ in their values or ideologies on certain issues. The ideological disagreement of supervisors A and B on the question of "compensatory hiring" is an example of value conflict.

Levels of Conflict include Intrapersonal Conflict (Within one's personality), Interpersonal Conflict (Among persons), Intra-group Conflict (Within group) and Inter-group Conflict (Among persons). Intrapersonal Conflict is also known as intra-individual or intra-psychic conflict. It occurs when an organizational member is required to perform certain tasks and roles that do not match his or her expertise, interests, goals, and values. Interpersonal Conflict is also known as dyadic conflict. It refers to conflict between two or more organizational members of the same or different hierarchical levels or units. The studies on superior-

subordinate conflict relate to this type of conflict. Intragroup Conflict also known as intradepartmental conflict. It refers to conflict among members of a group or between two or more subgroups within a group in connection with its goals, tasks, procedures, and so on. Such a conflict may also occur as a result of incompatibilities or disagreements between some or all the members of a group and its leader(s). Inter-group Conflict is also known as interdepartmental conflict. It refers to conflict between two or more units or groups within an organization. Conflicts between line and staff, production and marketing, and headquarters and field staffs are examples of this type of conflict. On special type of intergroup conflict is between labor and management.

### **Integrated socio environment point of views**

Other scholars (Abdalla, Anton, Haffa and Mirza, 2002) argued that people are part of the human family that has been created by God. They have the same nature of other mankind in the sense of biological and psychological aspects

Conflict is a universal phenomena. It is part of the universal law and it happens among human being regardless of their religion, ethnicity, culture, etc. Thus, conflict is part of our lives, we need to recognize that fully in order to deal and cope with it in a proper manner. However, among the things that may distinguish believers in a state of conflict are their worldview, roles and duties that affect their approach, attitudes, and behaviors in a conflict, and accordingly the outcome of a conflict.



Source: <http://www.dreamstime.com/>

In this regard, it is important to clarify some standpoints that a believer considers and observes while living in this life. The role of purification at conflict resolution plays a significant role. In this regard, it is significant to mention the importance of purification as a goal in itself and as a preventive measure in case of conflict. On numerous occasions, reconciliation references commends such as the superior moral course of action to be taken by disputing parties. Reconciliation means conciliation or settlement; the active form means to make good, proper, or right, or to reconcile and settle. It refers not only to an amicable settlement involving a measure of compromise, but also to willing to submission to some

conflict resolution process involving the use of arbitrators. Apparently, such arbitrators are expected to assist the parties in a dispute to reach an amicable resolution. Some scholars also regard it as a discipline that enables a person to maintain any position however false it is, or indeed to demolish any position however true it is. This later definition implies that dialectics is not a science based on the advancing of any specific evidence, but rather a skill or a talent that enables a person to triumph over his opponent without ever having to refer to evidence from any source. Sometimes a dispute may become severe and harsh with the disputant's only concern being to get the better of his opponent.

There is no concern for finding out the truth or for clarifying what is right. This precludes any form of mutual understanding or agreement. The term dissension may be applied to such a situation. Dissension meaning of carving out a piece of ground into distinct portions, and seems to suggest that one piece of ground is not wide enough to accommodate both disputants at the same time. Sharp differences from which discord and dissension follow place either party in a dispute in a "fissure" or a "breach" as it were. Separate from that of the other. "If you fear that a breach might occur between a couple appoint an arbiter from among his family and an arbiter from among her family; if they wish for peace, God will cause their reconciliation".

Scholars believed that the contextual factors are of great significance. This is because much of what we are dealing with in our conflicts has been influenced by historical constraints related to our ability to interpret the sources of our religion, the time-long mix up of traditions or customs and religion, the influence of westernization, the ethnic multiplicity of our community, and the specific dilemmas in terms of interacting with the wider society, and with the new generations. In the heart of the research conducted during the development of this manual was a clear understanding that individuals are not made of constant values or norms. Instead, they develop a repertoire of dynamic, fluid value systems that inform attitudes and behaviors differently according to the type of setting, sphere, or situation encountered. The repertoire of value systems varies from one person to another; translating this repertoire into attitudes and behaviors is also an individual journey. However, the development of these value systems occurs within the individual's existence in groups.

While it is acceptable to think that "social systems can only exist because human behavior is not random, but to some extent predictable" (Hofstede, 1980, p.14), it is also understandable that an individual's behavior in a given situation, within a certain realm of life, will not necessarily follow the set of values and norms which are highly emphasized within that realm. The influence of cultural values and norms does not mean that

all individuals within a given society, or a group within that society, will interpret and respond to conflicts in the same manner. Cultural values and norms provide a repertoire of analysis and behavioral models that individuals relate to in varying ways. Cross-cultural analysis of models of conflict analysis and resolution thus requires an understanding of the prevalence of specific cultural values and norms in a given society.

Alternatively, the Islamic theory and culture always emphasized a strong sense of community. Unlike the western emphasis on the individual as the basic unit of the society, Islamic culture and Islamic theory regard family as the basic unit (although individual accountability is strongly emphasized in Qur'an). The entire social organization in an Islamic setting is based on what the Turkish social psychologist Cigdem Kagitcibasi called "the culture of relatedness" as opposed to "the culture of separateness."



Source: <http://goatmilkblog.com/2010/09/17/>

The culture of relatedness, she stated, "refers to the family culture and inter-personal relational patterns characterized by dependent-interdependent relations with overlapping personal boundaries. The Islamic theory, especially as presented in several "Hadith", emphasized this notion of relatedness and community.

Further, these statements, along with several Quranic verses advocated active involvement with community issues, standing up for justice (even against the interests of one's self and loved ones), and taking action in resolving disputes. Islamic theory and culture are based on interdependence and relatedness of community members. Relationship issues are in many instances as significant as issues of substance. Further, the Islamic reality demands an approach to conflict that extends beyond divergence of interests; it requires a "situational" approach which takes into consideration, in addition to parties' interests, the history of social and political injustice, abusive practices, and outdated or sometimes distorted interpretations of Islamic sources.

Islamic conflict intervention is guided by a social mission of liberating Islam and Muslims of these ills. Reliance on the North American model, with its strong emphasis on immediate individual interests, and emphasis

on individual autonomy, and its lack of emphasis on situational and contextual factors which contribute to institutional injustice, would run the risk of keeping the Muslim communities under the age-old traditions and practices of oppression and repression. In addition, the North American model could not employ the tools available for effective conflict intervention under the Islamic conditions of interdependence of community actors.

Since the 1990s, scholars and practitioners have applied Western conflict resolution theories and other intervention models like cultural diversity or coexistence to Middle Eastern countries. Some studies seek to ask some basic questions regarding conflict resolution in an eastern and Islamic context. The problem headed included to some extents. Teaching and exporting Western perceptions of conflict resolution to Middle Eastern and Islamic groups, assuming that they are more developed and effective. Exploring alternatives to learn how to control radical groups within the existing conflict management frameworks of their countries. And acquiring more knowledge of the background of Islamic movements, utilizing it to legitimize new tools of conflict management and settling political and religious differences among political, social and religious groups.

Nimer noticed that to implement Western approaches to the eastern context, one must first remember that Islamic societies have beliefs, customs and a history that are the bases of conflict resolution processes. To study and understand the Islamic societies' approach implies that the researcher will not ignore or impose his cultural basis. He will integrate social patterns to the appropriate concept and to his experience. We also must acknowledge that there are some techniques of the West that cannot be applied in the other areas. Conflict resolution is grounded in a Western context, and was stimulated by management techniques derived from the study of organizations, the introduction of problem-solving workshops, interest-based negotiation and mediation, the redirection of religious leaders to "peacemaking", the emergence of ADR (Alternative Dispute Resolution) and of interpersonal dispute practices. The main processes of conflict resolution are conciliation, facilitation, mediation, negotiation, arbitration and problem-solving.

Scholars believed that non western procedures are not defined as disciplinary approaches but those techniques are practiced as traditional processes, to settle interpersonal, community and inter-religious disputes for hundreds years Negotiation is an integral part of the individual's life but also of the social organization. There is no basis for implementing Western strategies in an eastern and Islamic context without adjusting such processes according to local experience. There are three categories



Source: <http://www.wilsoncenter.org/>.

of conflict resolution. The actual application of each of these processes is generally different: Conflict resolution levels and processes implemented in both cultures. The assumption, practices and roles of the third party are totally different; in their definition but also in the aspects of life concerned, wider in the West, in areas like labor and organizational management or environmental concerns. The West has a distinctive and professional approach that does not exist in eastern and Islamic societies where conflict resolution is used only where traditional norms legitimize such actions. It points out that practices from the West could enrich the process of professionalization and institutionalization of the conflict resolution field in Islamic societies. Basic assumptions in conflict resolution views that West and East culture approaches to conflict resolution illustrate the sometimes profound differences between the two cultures. In the Western context, conflict is normal, positive, and can bring growth and creativity, based on cooperative frameworks. Any conflict is managed through rational planning, with legal formality and procedures, leading to a written agreement that is task-oriented. In the non western context, conflict is negative and dangerous, and brings destruction.

Group affiliation is the most central identity, in a process in which social norms and hierarchical procedures prevail over legal forms, characterized by emotion and spontaneity, leading to a relationship-oriented outcome. Third party roles play as a main features in the West of a third party that are included professionalism, impartiality, a focus on the individuals' interests, needs and rights, conformity to legal procedures and the objective of achieving a fair deal for both parties. The distinctive features in the non western context are the age of the intervener, the political and military power, religious affiliation, the knowledge of the customs and

norms. The mediator can have a direct or indirect interest in the dispute. This contributes to his credibility, which is very important. The teaching of conflict resolution in the eastern context must be performed by people who know the history, social values and local norms of Islamic societies. There are various obstacles to this implementation. Western frameworks assume a different approach to power relations. Stress is placed more on common interests and implies a desire to live alongside the other party and manage interactions peacefully. The Western approach is based on acknowledging the legitimacy or differences in beliefs and interests. It is not compatible with the fundamentalist groups who see themselves as supreme in their beliefs and wishes. Such an approach to conflict resolution could be rejected as have been other exported Western ideas, especially without any adaptation. One must also examine conflict resolution considering the religious and historical texts.

Scholars (Said, Funk, and Kadayifci) proposed 5 approach to peace. Power Politics: Peace through Coercive Power. Based on pessimistic reading of human nature, Islam is used as a language for legitimation of power and authority and for the preservation or social order; threats to a given political order are often framed as a threat to Islam. The power-political approach views peace as an absence of war, and underscores political necessities created by the restlessness of political subjects and the threatening posture of external enemies. World Order: Peace through the Power of Law. Peace is a condition of order defined by the presence of such core Islamic values as justice, human dignity, cultural coexistence and ecological stability, and not merely by an absence of direct violence. A situation in which these values are not present may be characterized as disorderly, unstable and un-Islamic. Conflict Resolution: Peace through the Power of Communication. Traditional Islamic approaches are explored: reconciliation, methods of mediation and arbitration. These methods affirm a restorative conception of peace and justice, encompassing notions of compensations for losses, attentiveness to issues of "face" or social esteem, renunciation for the sake of the whole and forgiveness. Non-Violence: Peace through Will Power. Adherence to Islam requires non-violent solidarity against oppression, the promotion of renewal through broad-based social movements and training for programs of direct non-violent action. Only a linkage of just ends with just means can secure authentic justice, peace and human dignity. And transformation: Peace through the Power of Love. This approach defines peace as a condition of all embracing harmony perceived through the inward renewal and transformation of human consciousness. The cultural community is the context and the receptacle of human realization; renewal takes place within each person through inward cleansing and loving surrender to the divine.

## Managing conflict

Overall conflict management should aim to minimize affective conflicts at all levels, attain and maintain a moderate amount of substantive conflict, and use the appropriate conflict management strategy—to effectively bring about the first two goals, and also to match the status and concerns of the two parties in conflict (Rahim, 2002). Conflict management gets achieved in various ways that include the following:

1. **Competing.** This managing approach proceeds from self-centered needs over the other party. It is generally characterized by aggressive communication behavior that is threatening and seeking control. Those who manage conflict this way generally fear losing control over the other party and demonstrate a lack of interpersonal skills. Such a person experiences constant tension, anger and disapproval. As a result, the conflict management by competing fails to satisfactorily resolve or manage conflict.
2. **Accommodating.** According to Gonclaves, accommodating means smoothing. Those who manage conflict by accommodating others are mostly concerned with preserving relationship. Although such an approach promotes goodwill and peace, it often comes at the cost of low-assertiveness with high-cooperativeness.
3. **Avoiding.** The approach of avoiding comes from a negative perception of conflict. Gonclaves suggests that this method is used when the conflict involves issues of low importance, or to reduce tensions, or even to buy time. This approach is also used when a person is in a low power position with control over the situation. However, those choosing to manage conflict this way often convey negativism, critical and sarcastic comments, or that they are becoming passive aggressive. Consequently, this may lead to hostility and hurt feeling|| with ongoing unresolved issues.
4. **Compromising.** The approach of compromising consists of a series of tradeoffs. Those employing this style, according to Gonclaves, always strive to find a middle ground.|| It is thus characterized as a fairly assertive and cooperative style, with a goal to reach mutual agreements. Nevertheless, if this approach is used excessively or exclusively, it may lead to simply making everybody happy, without resolving the original conflict.
5. **Collaborating.** Finally, the collaborating method includes listening to needs and goals towards a common goal Collaboration|| means reaching a better solution|| through communication and cooperation. This results in win-win|| management. This is based on effective listening, confronting the situations in a non-threatening way

The Thomas Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument is a model for handling conflict. The model organizes five conflict management styles based on two dimensions: assertiveness and cooperativeness. By knowing your own default patterns you improve your self-awareness. Once you are aware of your own patterns, you can pay attention to whether they are working for you and you can explore alternatives. By using a scenario-based approach, you can choose more effective conflict management styles and test their effectiveness for you and your situations

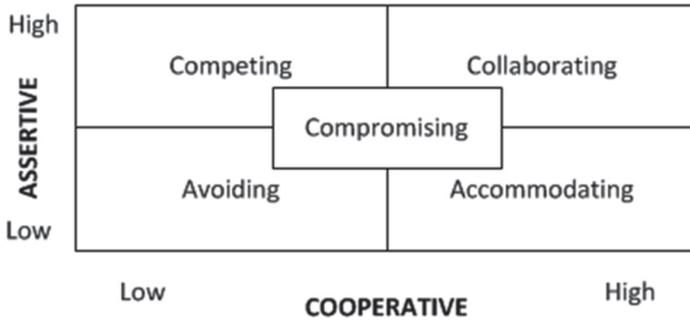


Figure: Thomas-Kilman Conflict Mode Instrument

Recent literature draws more attention to the importance of intra psychic movements and the inner experiences of a human being in the conflict management process. Meier and Boivin’s findings, for instance, show how the ten participants who resolve their intrapersonal conflicts are likely to resolve conflict interpersonally better than the other ten participants who failed their intrapersonal conflicts. This finding enhances the understanding of how intrapersonal conflict may contribute to interpersonal conflict management.

The focus of the studies has thus moved beyond merely dealing with the behavioral styles of conflict management and entered the realm of addressing the internal dynamics of human beings who are involved in conflict management. This change in literature comes with a deeper understanding of internal dynamics which includes feelings, moods and emotions and their functions and impacts on conflict management. Leslie Greenburg’s writings predominantly derive conflict resolution from within and they are process-oriented. His approach is oriented to looking at how conflict resolution reaches integration through experiential process. In the same vein, Jones emphasizes the significance of the role of emotion in conflict management by defining feelings, moods and emotion. According to Jones, emotion is comprised of three components cognitive, physiological, and behavioral. Emotion is differentiated from affect, moods and feelings. For Jones, feelings are defined as sensations

that do not necessarily have cognitive components. Moods, continues Jones, are differentiated from emotions from the perspective of duration and intensity with moods being of longer duration and significantly less intensity. The basic position of both Greenburg and Jones is to highlight emotion as an integral component for the process of conflict management and this integrative approach is likely to bring up a win-win conflict management which is mutually beneficial and may eventually result in transformation and healing for both parties.

Conflict management is the process of limiting the negative aspects of conflict while increasing the positive aspects of conflict. The aim of conflict management is to enhance learning and group outcomes, including effectiveness or performance in organizational setting (Rahim, 2002, p. 208). Properly managed conflict can improve group outcomes (Alpert, Osvaldo, & Law, 2000; Booker & Jameson, 2001; Rahim & Boman, 1979; Kuhn & Poole, 2000; Church & Marks, 2001). Supervisors spend more than 25% of their time on conflict management, and managers spend more than 18% of their time on relational employee conflicts. This has doubled since the 1980s. Reasons for this are "the growing complexity of organizations, use of teams and group decision making, and globalization." (Lang, 2009, p. 240) Conflict management is something that companies and managers need to deal with. Conflict significantly affects employee morale, turnover, and litigation, which affects the prosperity of a company, either constructively or destructively. (Lang, 2009, p. 240) Turnover can cost a company 200% of the employee's annual salary. (Maccabeus & Shudder, p. 48)

The overarching hierarchy of conflict starts with a distinction between substantive (also called performance, task, issue, or active) conflict and affective (also called relationship) conflict. If one could make a distinction between good and bad conflict, substantive would be good and affective conflict would be bad. Substantive and affective conflict are related (De Drue and Weingart, 2003). Substantive conflict involves disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed or the performance itself (DeChurch & Marks, 2001; Jehn, 1995). This type of conflict occurs when two or more social entities disagree on the recognition and solution to a task problem, including differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions (Jehn, 1995; Rahim, 2002). Affective conflict deals with interpersonal relationships or incompatibilities not directly related to achieving the group's function (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008; Amason, 1996; Guetzhaw & Gyr, 1954; Jehn, 1992; Pinkley, 1990; Priem & Price, 1991). Both substantive and affective conflict are negatively related to team member satisfaction and team performance (De Drue and Weingart, 2003). Contradicting this, 20% (5 of

25) of the studies used showed a positive correlation between substantive conflict and task performance.

Organizational conflict, whether it be substantive or affective, can be divided into intra organizational and inter organizational. Inter organizational conflict occurs between two or more organizations (Rahim, 2002), for example, when different businesses compete against one another. Intra organizational conflict is conflict within an organization, and can be further classified based on scope (e.g. department, work team, individual). Other classifications are interpersonal, intra group and intergroup conflict. Interpersonal conflict refers to conflict between two or more individuals (not representing the group they are a part of). Interpersonal conflict is divided into intra group and intergroup conflict. Intra group personal conflict occurs between members of the same group. Intergroup personal conflict occurs between groups (Rahim, 2002).

Conflict resolution involves the reduction, elimination, or termination of all forms and types of conflict. When people talk about conflict resolution they tend to use terms like negotiation, bargaining, mediation, or arbitration. Businesses can benefit from appropriate types and levels of conflict. That is the aim of conflict management, and not the aim of conflict resolution. Conflict management does not imply conflict resolution. Conflict management minimizes the negative outcomes of conflict and promotes the positive outcomes of conflict with the goal of improving learning in an organization. (Rahim, 2002, p. 208) Organizational learning is important. Properly managed conflict increases learning by increasing the amount of questions asked and encourages people to challenge the status quo (Luthans, Rubach, & Marsnik, 1995).

There have been many styles of conflict management behavior that have been researched in the past century. One of the earliest, Mary Parker Follett (1926/1940) found that conflict was managed by individuals in three main ways: domination, compromise, and integration. She also found other ways of handling conflict that were employed by organizations, such as avoidance and suppression.

Blake and Mouton (1964) were among the first to present a conceptual scheme for classifying the modes (styles) for handling interpersonal conflicts in five types: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. In the 1970s and 1980s, researchers began using the intentions of the parties involved to classify the styles of conflict management that they would include in their models. Both Thomas (1976) and Pruitt (1983) put forth a model based on the concerns of the parties involved in the conflict. The combination of the parties concern for their own interests (i.e. assertiveness) and their concern for the interests

of those across the table (i.e. cooperativeness) would yield a particular conflict management style. Pruitt called these styles yielding (low assertiveness/high cooperativeness), problem solving (high assertiveness/high cooperativeness), inaction (low assertiveness/low cooperativeness), and contending (high assertiveness/low cooperativeness). Pruitt argues that problem-solving is the preferred method when seeking mutually beneficial options.

Khun and Poole (2000) established a similar system of group conflict management. In their system, they split Kozan's confrontational model into two sub models: distributive and integrative.

- Distributive - Here conflict is approached as a distribution of a fixed amount of positive outcomes or resources, where one side will end up winning and the other losing, even if they do win some concessions.
- Integrative - Groups utilizing the integrative model see conflict as a chance to integrate the needs and concerns of both groups and make the best outcome possible. This model has a heavier emphasis on compromise than the distributive model. Khun and Poole found that the integrative model resulted in consistently better task related outcomes than those using the distributive model.

DeChurch and Marks (2001) examined the literature available on conflict management at the time and established what they claimed was a "meta-taxonomy" that encompasses all other models. They argued that all other styles have inherent in them into two dimensions - activeness ("the extent to which conflict behaviors make a responsive and direct rather than inert and indirect impression") and agreeableness ("the extent to which conflict behaviors make a pleasant and relaxed rather than unpleasant and strainful impression"). High activeness is characterized by openly discussing differences of opinion while fully going after their own interest. High agreeableness is characterized by attempting to satisfy all parties involved

In the study they conducted to validate this division, activeness did not have a significant effect on the effectiveness of conflict resolution, but the agreeableness of the conflict management style, whatever it was, did in fact have a positive impact on how groups felt about the way the conflict was managed, regardless of the outcome. Rahim (2002) noted that there is agreement among management scholars that there is no one best approach to how to make decisions, lead or manage conflict. In a similar vein, rather than creating a very specific model of conflict management, Rahim created a meta-model (in much the same way that

DeChurch and Marks, 2001, created a meta-taxonomy) for conflict styles based on two dimensions, concern for self and concern for others.

Within this framework are five management approaches: integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. Integration involves openness, exchanging information, looking for alternatives, and examining differences so solve the problem in a manner that is acceptable to both parties. Obliging is associated with attempting to minimize the differences and highlight the commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. When using the dominating style one party goes all out to win his or her objective and, as a result, often ignores the needs and expectations of the other party. When avoiding a party fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party. Lastly, compromising involves give-and-take whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision (Rahim, 2002).

In order for conflict management strategies to be effective, they should satisfy certain criteria. The below criteria are particularly useful for not only conflict management, but also decision making in management.

1. Organization Learning and Effectiveness- In order to attain this objective, conflict management strategies should be designed to enhance critical and innovative thinking to learn the process of diagnosis and intervention in the right problems.
2. Needs of Stakeholders- Sometimes multiple parties are involved in a conflict in an organization and the challenge of conflict management would be to involve these parties in a problem solving process that will lead to collective learning and organizational effectiveness. organizations should institutionalize the positions of employee advocate, customer and supplier advocate, as well as environmental and stockholder advocates.
3. Ethics - A wise leader must behave ethically, and to do so the leader should be open to new information and be willing to change his or her mind. By the same token subordinates and other stakeholders have an ethical duty to speak out against the decisions of supervisors when consequences of these decisions are likely to be serious. "Without an understanding of ethics, conflict cannot be handled" (Batchelder, 2000).

### **Steps to Managing Conflict**

The first step is reactionary by assessing and reacting to the conflict. The second step is proactive by determining how the employee reacted to the decision. The manager tries to take (create) a new approach, and

once again tries to discern how the employee reacts. Once the manager feels that the best decision for the organization has been chosen, and the employee feels justified, then the manager decides if this is a single case conflict, or one that should be written as policy. The entire process starts as a reactive situation but then moves towards a proactive decision. It is based on obtaining an outcome that best fits the organization, but emphasizes the perception of justice for the employee. The chart below shows the interaction of the procedures.

Maccoby and Studder identify five steps to managing conflict. (Maccoby&Studder, p. 50)

1. Anticipate – Take time to obtain information that can lead to conflict.
2. Prevent – Develop strategies before the conflict occurs.
3. Identify – If it is interpersonal or procedural, move to quickly manage it.
4. Manage – Remember that conflict is emotional
5. Resolve – React, without blame, and you will learn through dialogue.

Melissa Taylor's research on Locus of Control is directly related to individual abilities of communication, especially as it pertains to interpersonal conflict. She also states that conflicts should be solution driven which are creative and integrative. They should be non-confrontational, and they should still maintain control, utilizing non-verbal messages to achieve the outcome.(Taylor, p. 449)

Rahim, Antonioni, and Psenicka's 2001 article deals with two types of leaders. Those that have concern for themselves, and those that have concern for others.(Rahim, Antonioni &Psenicka, 2001, p. 195). They also have degrees of conflict management style.

1. Integrating involves opening up, creating dialogue, and exploring differences to choose an effective solution for both groups. "This style is positively associated with individual and organizational outcomes." (Rahim et al., p. 197)
2. Obliging tries to find the same interests of the parties, while trying to minimize the true feeling of the conflict, to satisfy the other party.
3. Dominating is a coercive manager who forces their own way.
4. Avoiding is ignoring the problem in hopes that it will go away.
5. Compromising is a manager that is willing to make concessions and the employee makes concessions for a mutual agreement. (Rahim et al., p. 196)

The avoiding and dominating styles are considered ineffective in management. The following chart shows the interaction between the styles. (Rahim et al., p. 196)

## **International Conflict Management**

Special consideration should be paid to conflict management between two parties from distinct cultures. In addition to the everyday sources of conflict, "misunderstandings, and from this counterproductive, pseudo conflicts, arise when members of one culture are unable to understand culturally determined differences in communication practices, traditions, and thought processing" (Borisoff & Victor, 1989). Indeed, this has already been observed in the business research literature. Renner (2007) recounted several episodes where managers from developed countries moved to less developed countries to resolve conflicts within the company and met with little success due to their failure to adapt to the conflict management styles of the local culture.

As an example, in Kozan's study noted that Asian cultures are far more likely to use a harmony model of conflict management. If a party operating from a harmony model comes in conflict with a party using a more confrontational model, misunderstandings above and beyond those generated by the conflict itself will arise. International conflict management, and the cultural issues associated with it, is one of the primary areas of research in the field at the time, as existing research is insufficient to deal with the ever increasing contact occurring between international entities.

Bercovitch, & Regan, (1999) explained that in a recent comprehensive review on the scientific study of conflict, Bremer (1993) summarizes what is known about these phenomena and, traces the parameters of the 'mental model' of conflict. The causes, characteristics and consequences, as well as the dynamics of conflict, and the various modes of transition from conflict formation to maturation are well represented in a myriad of studies. The growing number of new forms of conflict (eg. ethnic, religious, etc.), the persistence of some armed conflicts (eg. Korea, India-Pakistan, Arab-Israeli). Responses to conflict are not pre-determined; parties may respond to conflict in a variety of ways ranging from unilateral methods to multilateral measures (Fogg, 1985).

International conflict cannot be viewed as a unitary phenomenon. They have different dimensions and show different degrees of amenability to conflict management. Common strategies or approaches that might be applicable in some conflicts, may be quite inapplicable in others. Learning how to deal with the most difficult and persistent conflicts can take us a

long way toward understanding the dynamics of conflict management in all other conflicts. There are various features of conflict such as protracted conflicts Edward Azar (1986) which was the difficulty of managing them peacefully, intractable conflicts which often sink into self-perpetuating violent antagonisms, and resist any technique of negotiation or mediation, or indeed other methods of peaceful management (Kriesberg, 1993), and some conflicts are connected over time through high intensity, repeated cycles of violence, and general resistance to conflict management by invoking the concept of enduring conflicts (e.g. Goertz and Diehl, 1993).

Some analysts (e.g. Waltz, 1979) conceive of all interstate conflict as being essentially the result of one cause only (i.e. the structure of the system), and as exhibiting similar patterns irrespective of the actors involved or the life cycle of the conflict. Enduring or intractable conflict implies a concern with the longitudinal and dynamic aspects of a relationship. Conflicts do not manifest themselves in a series of single, unrelated episodes. Conflicts have a past (which may cast a heavy shadow on the parties), a present context, and presumably a future of some sort. States involved in an intractable conflict learn to use coercive means, and are prepared to do so in a future conflict. This pattern is repeated, indeed worsened, every so often, with the actors involved unable to curb, or manage, the escalation of their relationships. There are relatively small number of states have been involved in a disproportionately large number of militarized disputes. This was a pattern that was likely to repeat itself. These conflict-prone states as 'enduring rivals', and their conflict as an 'enduring conflict'.

Bercovitch & Regan (1999) explained that conflict management is widely understood to be an attempt by actors involved in conflict to reduce the level of hostility and generate some order in their relations. Successful conflict management may lead to (a) a complete resolution of the issues in conflict (a change in behavior and attitudes), or as is more common in international relations, to (b) an acceptable settlement, ceasefire or partial agreement. Conflict management connotes a mechanism that is concerned with defining (a) a conflict as ended (at least temporarily), and (b) deciding on the distribution of values and resources. Accordingly, conflict management is a rational and conscious decisional process whereby parties to a conflict, with or without the aid of outsiders, take steps to transform, deescalate or terminate a conflict in a mutually acceptable way. This is the case with intractable or other conflicts.

The full range of methods and instruments that constitute conflict management is quite wide (see Fogg, 1985). It varies from coercive measures, through legal processes to third party intervention and

multilateral conferences. For analytical purposes it is useful to divide all these methods to (a) unilateral methods (e.g. one-party threats), (b) bilateral methods (e.g. bargaining and negotiation, deterrence), and (c) multilateral methods (e.g. third party intervention). Of particular interest would be the role of factors that affect the choice of a response, or an approach, to conflict, and how in particular certain conditions, such as being in an enduring conflict, and all that it implies, impact on the choice of conflict management method or its outcome. Factors affecting the course of a conflict or the manner of its management are numerous. They involve the manner of interdependence, type of actors, and kinds of issues. For our purposes these factors are best conceptualized as (a) contextual factors, and (b) behavioral factors. Let us examine each set in brief.

Contextual factors that affect international conflict management include i) the character of the international system, ii) the nature of a conflict, and iii) the internal characteristics of the states involved. The character of the international system affects the expectations of states, and the strategies they may use to break out of a conflict (Miller, 1995). Features such as polarity of the international system, patterns of alignments, and distribution of power capabilities are all associated with different approaches to conflict (see Gochman, 1993). A bipolar international environment, for instance, is likely to be more stable than a multipolar system (Waltz, 1979) in encouraging a balance between caution and resolve in responding to conflicts. The termination of intractable conflicts, can be explicitly linked to the nature of the international environment in which they occur (e.g. Goertz and Diehl, 1995).

The nature of a conflict or the characteristics of the issues that are its focus, are clearly crucial in determining how it is managed (Diehl, 1992). Certain issues such as beliefs, core values and territorial integrity have a high saliency, and are apt to encourage decision makers to accept higher levels of costs. This makes it much more difficult to manage such conflicts through traditional diplomatic methods (Snyder and Diesing, 1977). Conflicts over salient issues are likely to be long-lasting and to entail the use of coercive methods as a way of reaching an outcome. Other aspects such as the number of issues in conflict, the rigidity with which they are perceived, whether they relate to tangible interests (e.g. resource conflict) or intangible ones (e.g. conflict over values) may also affect both the duration as well as method of termination (Deutsch, 1994).

The third contextual dimension that affects conflict management is that of the internal characteristics of the actors involved. This refers to how certain structural properties of states affect their predisposition to engage

in coercive or other forms of conflict management. The nature of the polity has attracted the most attention recently (Maoz and Russett, 1992; Ember, Ember and Russett, 1992; Dixon, 1993). Here the argument is that democratic states are more inclined to use peaceful methods of conflict management (because of internal norms, liberal experience or electoral constraints), whereas non-democratic states are more likely to utilize coercive methods of management.

Another factor here relates to the power capabilities of states. Although there is not much empirical evidence to suggest a strong relationship, power capabilities can be linked to different conflict management behavior (e.g. a conflict between two equally strong countries may be prolonged because both have the material and human resources to carry on, and the willingness to tolerate high costs). All these contextual factors affect directly the disposition to engage in different forms of conflict management, and how a conflict will terminate.

The effects of some contextual factors on the origin, character and evolution of a conflict has been documented quite extensively (see Stoll, 1993 for a review). Some studies have examined more specifically their effect on conflict management. A number of propositions linking for instance the duration, intensity, fatalities and issue prominence to effective mediations (Bercovitch, 1989; Bercovitch & Langley, 1993) received considerable theoretical and empirical support. Other studies linked the parties' internal characteristics (Gregory, 1994) or power capabilities between them (Bercovitch, 1985) to different forms of conflict management by third parties. But what of the effect on conflict management of the second dimension, that comprising behavioral elements? What is the relevance of past interactions and how does previous behavior affect current conflict management? It is equally plausible to argue that experience conflict experience may dampen, or heighten, parties' disposition to rely on a particular method of conflict management. When heavy losses had been experienced during previous conflict behavior, lessons may be drawn by each state regarding the efficacy of coercion as a way of dealing with conflict. If, however, coercive methods were successful in achieving basic objectives in the past, there is good reason to believe that decision makers may find it an attractive option in their present conflict.

States in an enduring conflict are forced to consider whether to escalate a conflict or not, which conflict management method to use, and whether or not to reciprocate in kind? What are the consequences for conflict management of being in a "serial confrontation"? (Thompson, 1995). Does prolonged experience of conflict elicit a preference for a particular

method of conflict management, or does this experience produce so much 'distortion', stress and cognitive rigidity, that the states involved learn little from their past experience, and use the same old methods, repeated over time, unproductively? This is the pattern of relationship that we wish to examine.

The literature on the termination or management of enduring conflict is largely notable for its brevity and indirectness. Deutsch (1973; 1994) claims that states involved in a negative interdependence, as states in an enduring conflict undoubtedly are, tend to use coercion to manage their conflicts. Leng (1983) demonstrated empirically that states in repeated conflicts develop a power orientation and use increasingly more coercive methods of dealing with their conflict with each successive flare up. Neither the attitudes, nor the conflict management behavior of enduring states are presumed to change much. Enduring conflicts appear to take a life of their own. Another body of literature, however, suggests that not only do states learn, but under certain conditions they can forget their earlier hostile interactions and embrace a cooperative orientation (Mor&Maoz, 1996).

What is the impact of continued interaction as opponents on conflict management? Does intractability cause states to rely mostly on coercive strategies that reinforce existing interactions and beliefs, or is there some kind of learning that encourages even the most violent prone nations to use a variety of instruments to settle their conflicts? It is certainly worth exploring how the experience of being in an intractable conflict affects peace-making efforts at the global level.

To investigate this question a framework that incorporates the contextual and behavioral factors discussed above is presented. These factors affect the nature of conflict management - interpersonally or internationally. Conflict management activities are divided into two broad categories; violent (i.e. force, coercion) and non-violent (e.g. negotiation, mediation). Initially conflict management is treated as the dependent variable to examine how often states in intractable and non-intractable conflicts use management strategies. Then, the short-term consequences of conflict management are measured, and here the dependent variable is conflict management outcomes, and the concern is with determining whether or not there is a relationship between kinds of conflicts and outcomes. These can be of two kinds; success or failure. Success is conceptualized as conflict management that reduces the level of violence and hostility (at least in the short term), and failure is defined as conflict management activity that has had no effect on the basic level of conflict.

## Conflict at Higher education

In present days interpersonal conflict has become one of the main concerns of researchers and writers especially those who are studying organizational behavior. It was observed that interpersonal conflict is an important topic for both managers and for scientists interested in understanding the nature of organizational behavior and organizational processes. It is also contended that conflict is an important theme to study in both business organizations and non- business organizations including the higher education institutions academic. Administrators in example are indicated had varying levels of practice of each style. The integrating style is both effective and appropriate in managing conflicts and practiced as highly competent for dealing with the strategic issues pertaining to an organization's objectives and policies academic administrators managed their interpersonal conflicts mostly by practicing integrating conflict management style. They also revealed that they do practice other styles like integrating followed by compromising style, obliging, avoiding and dominating style. Accordingly, conflict is inevitable and it exists whenever there is an interaction of two or more people. Therefore, conflict neither should be eliminated nor it should be left uncontrolled, but rather, it should be managed. In this regard, in order to manage organizational conflicts, academic administrators should have conflict management skills in order to manage conflicts appropriately and effectively. These are essential to the development of interpersonal conflict management competencies(Salleh, &Safarali, 2013). However, scholars report that, only 14% of researched universities reporting mandatory courses of conflict management, and with up to 25% of the manager day being spent on dealing with conflict, education needs to reconsider the importance of this subject. It is become more important because the subject warrants emphasis on enabling students to deal with conflict management (Lang, p. 240).

Providing more conflict management training in undergraduate business programs for example, could help raise the emotional intelligence of future managers. The improvement of emotional intelligence found that employees were more likely to use problem-solving skills, instead of trying to bargain (Lang, p. 241). Students need to have a good set of social skills. Good communication skills allow the manager to accomplish interpersonal situations and conflict. Instead of focusing on conflict as a behavior issue, focus on the communication of it (Myers & Larson, 2005, p. 307). With an understanding of the communications required, the student will gain the aptitude needed to differentiate between the nature and types of conflicts. These skills also teach that relational and procedural conflict needs a high degree of immediacy to resolution. If

these two conflicts are not dealt with quickly, an employee will become dissatisfied or perform poorly. (Myers & Larson, p. 313). It is also the responsibility of companies to react. One option is to identify the skills needed in house, but if the skills for creating workplace fairness are already lacking, it may be best to have an outside organization assist. These are called "Developmental Assessment Centers".

According to Rupp, Baldwin, and Bashur, these organizations "have become a popular means for providing coaching, feedback, and experiential learning opportunities." (Rupp, Baldwin & Bashshur, 2006, p. 145) Their main focus is fairness and how it impacts employee's attitudes and performance. These organizations teach competencies and what they mean. (Rupp et al., p. 146) The students then participate in simulations. Multiple observers assess and record what skills are being used and then return this feedback to the participant. After this assessment, participants are then given another set of simulations to utilize the skills learned. Once again they receive additional feedback from observers, in hopes that the learning can be used in their workplace. The feedback the participant receives is detailed, behaviorally specific, and high quality. This is needed for the participant to learn how to change their behavior. (Rupp et al., p. 146) In this regard, it is also important that the participant take time to self-reflect so that learning may occur. Once an assessment program is utilized, action plans may be developed based on quantitative and qualitative data. (Rupp et al., p. 159)

### **Conflict at Manufacturing Organizations**

Conflicts in manufacturing organizations are not always discussed in official spheres yet they are words that go to the root and survival of many organizations in the world. The manufacturing organization can be considered as a social system consisting defined boundaries within which individuals interrelate, and interact in the performance of activities and programmes functioning for the attainment of common goals. This then suggests that a social system is an aggregate of individuals and institutional organization located in an identifiable geographical locality and functioning indifferent degrees of interdependence as a permanent organized unit of the social order. On the basis of the interaction among the workforce in the organization, conflict is inevitable.

In a manufacturing company, individual disputes is a global phenomenon. Suffice to say that some conflict situations go out of hand and bring individuals or institutions to a complete collapse not as a result of the nature of conflict but the management of the situation to reduce explosion of the matter. It is identified that ineffective communication between

employees and management, the heterogeneity of the manufacturing organization, ethnic interest and religious discrimination are conflict management challenges. The heterogeneity of manufacturing organization, conflicts, hatred, lack of trust, uncompromising attitudes and the tense and unreadable struggles for power are unquestionable.

The presence of this problem in any given organization, especially manufacturing organization, plays down the progress and development of the organization. The implication of this is that social and economic progress is undermined in an organization where conflict is sporadic. In fact, no meaningful development can take place in an atmosphere of insecurity and break down of law and order. Remember that the social, economic and political activities would be paralyzed and sustainable national development would be retarded. Conflicts could also hamper performance in the manufacturing organization. The zeal of men to exert/influence others leads to dictatorship and anarchy. This has impacted seriously on the growth and operations as the attention of management will always be on how to handle the conflicts in existence instead of focusing on the aims and objectives of the organization. One of the findings of this study is that where conflicts and power tussle exist, development and progress would be difficult. This is to say social and economic progress will be absent. Furthermore, conflict and politics reduce performance and productivity in the manufacturing organization.

Generally, conflict and development function at opposite direction in any given organization. Conflict most often degenerate into political vendettas which sometimes leads to killings and reductions of members of staff in the manufacturing organization. It is suggested to the approach to conflict management and resolution in the manufacturing organization includes negotiation, arbitration and multi-disciplinary approaches, this therefore presupposes that there are several strategies that organizations use to resolve conflicts. All manufacturing organizations have their methods of handling conflicts. These mechanisms may be formal or informal, violent or peaceful. The entire scenario borders on the fact that the industrial relations system is considered as being concerned with work relationship in establishment.

This conflict which is most especially among senior staff members led to instability and non-functionality of the establishment. The resultant effect of this also goes into tampering with the turnover of the company and wastage on the part of the federal government resources. The incessant conflicts led to the closure of the company unemployment problems. Destruction of the company's tools/properties and other infrastructural facilities enumerate from vices by the employees. It therefore, means that effective management of these conflicts among the employees in

this company will go a long way in sustaining and maintain peace which will facilitate effective productivity and turnover to the company. It is recommended that the management of the manufacturing organizations should reduce the incidence of communication gap in the management of their organization. Communication is the life-blood of any organization. Communication aids improved performance in any organization and so should be fully developed. Seminars and workshops on conflict management should be organized regularly for the management staff. Experts in conflict management should be invited to discuss the subject matter intensively.(Abdul, Ekeyi, Baba, &Dajili, 2013).



## CHAPTER 2: ANATOMY OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION AND MANAGEMENT

### Perspective on conflict

Conflict theory sees society as a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change as a result of competition over scarce resources. Conflict theory sees social life as a competition, and focuses on the distribution of resources, power, and inequality.



Source: <http://thecollaboratory.wdfiles.com/>

The Conflict Perspectives or conflict theories are generally derived from the secular point of view such as the ideas of Karl Marx, who believed society is a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change driven by class conflict. Whereas functionalism understands society as a complex system striving for equilibrium, the conflict perspective views social life as competition. According to the conflict perspective, society is made up of individuals competing for limited resources (e.g., money, leisure, sexual partners, etc.). Competition over scarce resources is at the heart of all social relationships. Competition, rather than consensus, is characteristic of human relationships. Broader social structures and organizations (e.g., religions, government, etc.) reflect the competition for resources and the inherent inequality competition entails; some people and organizations have more resources (i.e., power and influence), and use those resources to maintain their positions of power in society.

C. Wright Mills is known as the founder of modern conflict theory. In his work, he believes social structures are created because of conflict between differing interests. People are then impacted by the creation of social structures, and the usual result is a differential of power between the "elite" and the "others".



Examples of the "elite" would be government and large corporations. G. William Domhoff believes in a similar philosophy as Mills and has written about the "power elite of America". Sociologists who work from the conflict perspective study the distribution of resources, power, and inequality. When studying a social institution or phenomenon, they ask, "Who benefits from this element of society?"

While functionalism emphasizes stability, conflict theory emphasizes change. According to the conflict perspective, society is constantly in conflict over resources, and that conflict drives social change. For example, conflict theorists might explain the civil rights movements of the 1960s by studying how activists challenged the racially unequal distribution of political power and economic resources. As in this example, conflict theorists generally see social change as abrupt, even revolutionary, rather than incremental. In the conflict perspective, change comes about through conflict between competing interests, not consensus or adaptation. Conflict theory, therefore, gives sociologists a framework for explaining social change, thereby addressing one of the problems with the functionalist perspective.

Predictably, conflict theory has been criticized for its focus on change and neglect of social stability. Some critics acknowledge that societies are in a constant state of change, but point out that much of the change is minor or incremental, not revolutionary. For example, many modern capitalist states have avoided a communist revolution, and have instead instituted elaborate social service programs. Although conflict theorists often focus on social change, they have, in fact, also developed a theory to explain social stability. According to the conflict perspective, inequalities in power and reward are built into all social structures. Individuals and groups who benefit from any particular structure strives to see it maintained. For example, the wealthy may fight to maintain their privileged access to higher education by opposing measures that would broaden access, such as affirmative action or public funding.

## **Managing intractable conflict**

Conflicts are not inherently intractable or inherently co-operative. Some conflicts erupt and are settled peacefully within a short time; others simply defy any attempt at termination. Generally speaking, we can say that conflicts over deep-rooted issues (e.g. identity and human needs) tend to generate more strife and violence and become protracted. Intractable conflicts are not just longer-lasting conflicts, they are also more likely to be violent and destructive, and of course more difficult to deal with or manage. The term intractable conflict is used to describe conflicts that sink into self-perpetuating violent interactions in which each party develops a vested interest in the continuation of the conflict. Deep feelings of fear and hostility coupled with destructive behavior make these conflicts very difficult to deal with, let alone resolve. It isn't, however, meant to imply that such conflicts can never be managed. Intractable conflicts have features in common with other conflicts. As such, it must accept the possibility that intractable conflicts can be managed and resolved.

An intractable conflict is thus, first and foremost, a process (not just a single violent episode) of competitive relationships that extend over a period of time, and involves hostile perceptions and occasional military actions. The term itself acts as an integrating concept connoting processes where states become enmeshed in a web of negative interactions and hostile orientations. This pattern is repeated, indeed worsened, every so often, with the parties involved unable to curb, or manage, the escalation of their relationships. Given the characteristics of intractable conflicts, the lack of contact between the parties, the hostility and repeated violence, it seems plausible to suggest that one path out of this dilemma would be to accept some form of third-party mediation. Third parties can play a very useful role in the context of intractable conflicts.

### **Characteristics of Intractable Conflicts**

Intractable conflicts are clearly different from other conflicts. The major characteristics of intractable conflicts can be summarized as follows:

1. In terms of actors, intractable conflicts involve states or other actors with a long sense of historical grievance, and a strong desire to redress or avenge these.
2. In terms of duration, intractable conflicts take place over a long period of time.
3. In terms of issues, intractable conflicts involve intangible issues such as identity, sovereignty, or values and beliefs.

4. In terms of relationships intractable conflicts involve polarized perceptions of hostility and enmity, and behavior that is violent and destructive.
5. In terms of geopolitics, intractable conflicts usually take place where buffer states exist between major power blocks or civilizations.
6. In terms of management, intractable conflicts resist many conflict management efforts and have a history of failed peacemaking efforts.

Where these are the accepted norms of interaction, a sustained effort at resolution must come from outside, for a variety of suitable third parties. Whichever way we look at them, intractable conflicts pose the greatest danger to the international system. Some recent studies point out that much of the violence in international relations can be accounted for by the behavior of a few states locked in intractable conflicts. Therefore, finding ways to manage or transform these conflicts into something more constructive is of great importance

### **Conflict Resolution**

'Needs-based', 'cooperation-based' or 'interest-based' conflict resolution (hereafter referred to as conflict resolution) developed as a discipline following World War II. Conflict resolution as a discipline diverged from power-based conflict theory, which dominated and still dominates political science, and international relations; and converged from psychology and sociology, which was interested in group dynamics, motivation and relationships between institutional structures. Normative political theory saw conflict as a competitive struggle to be won by one side. In contrast, needs-based conflict resolution theorists developed a cooperative approach to conflict resolution, focusing on fundamental human needs, to encourage 'win-win solutions'. Nonviolence, cooperation and the belief in the essential goodness of humanity are basic principles of this approach to conflict resolution.



The foundations of this discipline have their origins in the Judeo-Christian culture that developed in Europe and North America and were particularly shaped in the twentieth century by the first and second world wars.

Principal antecedents of conflict resolution included philosopher and sociologist George Simmel

(1858-1914) and Gestalt (influential on social psychology) psychologist Kurt Lewin (1890-1947). Modern conflict resolution scholars, often quote George Simmel. Simmel, perceived conflict (kampf) as “designed to resolve divergent dualisms”, that is conflict was designed to resolve two different set of principles. Lewin saw conflict as a situation of “tension” which was caused by a number of factors including the degree to which the needs of a person were in a “state of hunger or satisfaction”. On the other side of the Atlantic in Norway, Johan Galtung, a sociologist, identified steps to peace, introduced a broader notion of violence which encompasses those “avoidable insults to basic human needs”. These basic needs included security and identity. Galtung goes on to categorize violence into two forms: direct violence and structural violence. The former includes the everyday notion of violence, whereby an individual or group suffers physical or emotional pain as the result of direct action. Structural violence is caused by the institutions and structures of society which result in inequality or “oppression” among individuals. Galtung classified peace into two forms: ‘positive peace’ and ‘negative peace.’ Negative peace, according to Galtung, fits essentially the colloquial perception of peace as an end to war. Positive peace includes not only the absence of war, but the absence of structural violence. That is positive peace is the absence of violence, in all its forms and as such has greater value in the long-term as it removes the factors which lead to direct violence. This was Galtung’s genius to merge his dual definition of violence with his dual concept of peace. However, critics of Galtung, such as Kenneth Boulding complain of his overly “taxonomical” approach and his “constant” use of “dichotomies”

John Burton synthesized the main theoretical assumptions of conflict resolution, which are known as ‘human needs theory’. This theory operates on the premise that a pre-condition for the resolution of conflict is that fundamental human needs be met. Burton adopted eight fundamental needs from the basis of the work by the American sociologist Paul Sites and introduced one further need of his own. Those adopted needs included control, security, justice, stimulation, response, meaning, rationality and esteem/recognition. Burton’s additional need was ‘role-defence,’ the need to defend one’s role. Burton called these “ontological needs” as he regarded them as a consequence of human nature, which were universal and would be pursued regardless of the consequence. Antecedents to human needs theory came from a variety of disciplines.

In the biological and sociobiological disciplines conflict is perceived to result from competition over scarce resources as a result of common needs. Burton distinguishes ontological needs from values and interests. He defines ontological needs as non-negotiable; values as offering



some limited opportunities for negotiation; and interests as negotiable issues. Burton distinguishes conflict from the related term of 'dispute'. He defined 'conflict' as an action over these non-negotiable human needs, whereas a 'dispute' was over negotiable values.

Burton distinguishes conflict resolution, from the related terms of conflict management and conflict settlement. To Burton conflict resolution solved deep seemingly intractable issues, whereas settlement only addressed the superficial factors of conflict. Burton was not without controversy. His notion of needs falls under criticism especially from those cultural anthropologists and relativists, who were (and still are) resistant to universal values, among those were fellow members of the Institute for Conflict Analysis and Resolution, Kevin Avruch and Peter Black. Despite this Burton had many supporters who applied his methods in other international conflicts. These included people like Herbert Kelman in Palestine-Israel, Edward Azar in Lebanon and VamikVolkan in Cyprus.

Roger Fisher in 1978 a law professor collaborated in the founding of the Harvard Negotiation Project (HNP), and he was a significant figure in the founding of the Programme on Negotiation (PON) at the Harvard Law School in 1983. Roger Fisher's approach to conflict resolution (or negotiation) was popularized which introduced the term 'principled-negotiation.' The principle-based approach aims to resolve conflict by deferring judgement to a moral principle.



Such an approach advocates the need for interest-based negotiations in contrast to those based on a 'position'. For example Fisher would suggest that an interest would include issues like security, esteem and pleasures, whereas positions would define how one achieved those interests.

Fisher encourages the need for empathy and asks the question – “why does one hold one position and another hold a different one”? Fisher suggests that empathy allows parties to discern the underlying interest

which by creativity may result in amicable solutions (what this author would refer to as 're-negotiated positions') to each party. Like Burton, Fisher defines the most powerful interests as human needs, which he identifies as security, economic-well-being, a sense of belonging, recognition, and control over one's life.

In the 1990s scholars began to refer to conflict resolution with terms such as 'conflict transformation' and 'peace-building'. Keeping with the spirit of Georg Simmel, such terms denote methods of encouraging constructive results from conflict for all parties. John Paul Lederach, Robert Baruch-Bush, Joseph Folger, R. Vayrynen and Peter Wallensteen may be described as adherents of the conflict transformation school. In conflict transformation, conflict is not seen as a final state, but a "dynamic process wherein as one problem is solved a new one emerges". Similarly, the symbolism of the Chinese character for 'crisis' provides cross-cultural evidence of an optimistic notion of conflict and conflict transformation, as the character "simultaneously means opportunity".

In what may be a dramatic creative input to conflict resolution scholarship are provided by lessons from critical and cosmopolitan theory. This is part of the post-modern sociological or philosophical perspective that concludes that mediators can be charged with: enlarging the boundaries of political community, overcoming sectional and factional differences, expanding the domain of moral responsibility and promoting relations which conform to some standards of international order. This alternative to realist international relations theory is heavily influenced by the philosophy of Jurgen Habermas and his interpreters in the field of international relations such as Andrew Linklater and David Held.

## **Counseling**

When personal conflict leads to frustration and loss of efficiency, counseling may prove to be a helpful antidote. Although few organizations can afford the luxury of having professional counselors on the staff, given some training, managers may be able to perform this function. Nondirective counseling, or "listening with understanding," is little more than being a good listener—something every manager should be.

Sometimes the simple process of being able to vent one's feelings—that is, to express them to a concerned and understanding listener, is enough to relieve frustration and make it possible for the frustrated individual to advance to a problem-solving frame of mind, better able to cope with a personal difficulty that is affecting his work adversely. The nondirective approach is one effective way for managers to deal with frustrated subordinates and co-workers.

There are other more direct and more diagnostic ways that might be used in appropriate circumstances. The great strength of the nondirective approach (nondirective counseling is based on the client-centered therapy of Carl Rogers), however, lies in its simplicity, its effectiveness, and the fact that it deliberately avoids the manager-counselor's diagnosing and interpreting emotional problems, which would call for special psychological training. No one has ever been harmed by being listened to sympathetically and understandingly. On the contrary, this approach has helped many people to cope with problems that were interfering with their effectiveness on the job.

### **Methods of Needs-Based Conflict Resolution**

The main methods of needs-based conflict resolution are: integrative bargaining (Roger Fisher's principled negotiation); analytic or interactive problem-solving (John Burton and Herb Kelman); and the human relations workshops (Leonard Doob). The integrative bargaining process, sometimes called principled negotiation, involves negotiation in which the focus is on "merits of the issues and the parties try to enlarge the available 'pie' rather than stake claims to certain portions of it". That is integrative bargaining involves "both concession making and searching for mutually profitable solutions". Integrative bargaining tries to move beyond position-based bargaining and determine underlying interests. Interactive or analytic problem-solving is a "form of third-party consultation or informal mediation... it is a needs-based approach to resolving conflict". It begins with an analysis of the political needs and fears. This approach was pioneered by John Burton, and extended by Herbert Kelman. It is a "nontraditional, nongovernmental approach emphasizing analytical dialogue and problem-solving". This process is known by former American diplomat Joseph Montville as the "track two," or a grass root method of conflict resolution, in contrast to governmental diplomacy which is known as "track one diplomacy".

### **Integrated Conflict Resolution Point of Views**

While Muslim writers assert that Islam contribute to Conflict Resolution rather than has been viewed as potential problem. Karl Marx and Max Weber view that to study Islam was to study the human past. However, others (Salmi, Majul, & Tanham, 1998) sought that Islam and Conflict Resolution investigates and analyzes those aspects of Islam that deal with international law and peaceful resolution of conflict in an attempt to bridge the gap between the Western and Islamic worlds. It is indicated that the nineteenth century as the separation of religious and political authority is good not only for both religion and politics but also that public dialogue about matters of spiritual or religious significance is

either dangerous or simply unacceptable. The future development of cross-cultural inquiry is of considerable importance in so far as it can help to provide both fresh contributions to theories of conflict resolution and constructive channels for the perennial religious impulse. Studies of Islamic approaches to conflict resolution provide new angles of insight into universal human dilemmas, as well as important supplementation to studies to recognize contemporary Islamic activism not as backward-looking rejection of the modern world, but as deeply felt expression of cultural identity and a critique of domestic as well as international political orders. Hence Islamic perspective is believed to be an Integrated Conflict Resolution Point of Views as well.

There are five principles of Islamic approaches to conflict resolution. At the beginning it is believed that conflict can be solve by Coercive Power. Based on pessimistic reading of human nature, Islam is used as a language for legitimation of power and authority and for the preservation or social order; threats to a given political order are often framed as a threat to Islam. The power-political approach views peace as an absence of war, and underscores political necessities created by the restlessness of political subjects and the threatening posture of external enemies. It is also believed that conflict is resolved through the Power of Law. Peace is a condition of order defined by the presence of such core Islamic values as justice, human dignity, cultural coexistence and ecological stability, and not merely by an absence of direct violence. A situation in which these values are not present may be characterized as disorderly, unstable and un-Islamic.

Further, Power of Communication able to mediate the conflict handling. Traditional Islamic approaches are explored: reconciliation, methods of mediation and arbitration. These methods affirm a restorative conception of peace and justice, encompassing notions of compensations for losses, attentiveness to issues of “face” or social esteem, renunciation for the sake of the whole and forgiveness. However Peace may be resolved through Will Power. Adherence to Islam requires non-violent solidarity against oppression, the promotion of renewal through broad-based social movements and training for programs of direct non-violent action. Only a linkage of just ends with just means can secure authentic justice, peace and human dignity. As a transformation movement, Islam is believed to able resolving conflict through the Power of Love. This approach defines peace as a condition of all embracing harmony perceived through the inward renewal and transformation of human consciousness. The cultural community is the context and the receptacle of human realization; renewal takes place within each person through inward cleansing and loving surrender to the divine.



Islamic perspective is one important progress made in the sphere of international relations. After centuries of bloody wars and conflicts, today at the threshold of the 21st century, humanity is searching for new ways of resolving conflict between its various components. In this search, men are turning to universal traditions for inspiration. One of these traditions, which have a lot to offer in this respect, is Islam. And this paper is a modest attempt to explore what this complete way of life, which not unjustifiably, has the greatest claim to peace, has to offer. (Labdo).

Based on Prof. Dr. Umar Muhammad Labdo, Islam offers dialogue as the just and sure way of resolving conflicts. To begin with, Islam is a faith of dialogue and its Holy Scripture, the Noble Quran, is also a book of dialogue. A cursory look through the pages of the Book, reveals the highest form of objective, constructive and beautiful dialogue between all manner of people and at all levels of human relationship.

There are examples of dialogue between Allah Himself and His creatures (angels, prophets, pious men and women etc); between prophets and their people (believers and non-believers alike); between upright men and women who struggle in the cause of truth and justice and their people who strive in falsehood and transgression, and so on. We even find in the Noble Qur'an lengthy dialogue between Allah, the Exalted and Satan, the accursed. Below are a few examples for verification.

In Surah Al-Baqarah, we find the following dialogue between Allah (SWT) and the Angels: And (remember) when your Lord said to the Angels: "Verily I am going to place (mankind) generations after generations on earth". They said: "Will you place therein those who will make mischief therein and shed blood while we glorify you with praises and thanks and sanctify you?" He said: "I know that which you do not know". (2:30-31). In Surah Hud, we read the following dialogue between Prophet Noah and the leaders of his people who opposed his mission: And indeed we sent Noah to his people (and he said): "I have come to you as a plain warner. That you worship none but Allah, surely, I fear for you the torment of a painful Day." The Chiefs of the disbelievers among his people said: "We see you but a man like ourselves, nor do we see that any follow you but the meanest among us and they (too) followed you without thinking. And we do not see in you any merit above us, infact we think you are a liar." He said, "O my people! Tell me if I have a clear proof from my Lord, and a

mercy (Prophethood) has come to me from Him, but that (mercy) has been obscured from your sight, shall we compel you to accept it when you have a strong hatred for it." (12:25-28).

In the same Surah, there is further dialogue between no less than five other prophets and their people, including Hud, Salih, Lut and Shu'aib (12:50-60; 61-69; 77-83; and 84-95). In an extreme instance, we find dialogue between Allah (SWT) and the lowest of his creatures, Satan! When Satan disobeyed his Lord's command to prostrate to Adam, the following dialogue ensued:(Allah) said: "What prevented you that you did not prostrate when I commanded you?" (Satan) answered: "I am better than him; you created me from fire, and him you created from clay"(7:12)

The foregoing is but a minimal example of the lively and constructive dialogue presented by the Qur'an to its readers so that they may learn the culture of listening to the other view. Labdo believe that Islam has laid down guidelines for dialogue, especially between people of different faiths and culture. It insists that all talks aimed at convincing the other must have the best of intentions and be conducted in a good manner. In calling people to the faith, Islam directs: Invite (mankind) to the way of your Lord with wisdom and fair preaching and argue with them in a way that is better. (16:125).

Concerning Christians and Jews in particular, the Qur'an instructs: And argue not with the people of the scriptures (Jews and Christians) unless it be in (a way) that is better (i.e., with good words and in a good manner). (29:46). Islam also emphasises on the points of agreement between diverse cultures and beliefs as a way of ensuring compromise and reconciliation. Consider how the Qur'an puts this idea so beautifully: Say (O Muslims): "We believe in Allah and that which has been sent down to Abraham, Ishmael, Isaac, Jacob and to al-Asbat (i.e., the 12 sons of Jacob) and that which has been given to Moses, Jesus and that which has been given to prophets from their Lord. We make no distinction between any of them, and to him we have submitted." (2:136).

And more emphatically: And say: "I believe in whatsoever Allah has sent of the book (i.e., all scriptures) and I am commanded to do justice among you, Allah is our Lord and your Lord. For us our deeds and for you your deeds. There is no dispute between us and you. Allah will assemble us (all) and to him is the final return." (42:15). This calm, fair and unbiased argument is designed to create an atmosphere of ease and trust as a prelude to convincing the other party and securing agreement on just and equitable terms. Justice is another indispensable element in any successful dialogue. Therefore, Islam urges its followers to be just and fair to all, irrespective of whether they are friends or foes. Justice is

a value to be sought for its own sake, and it must be applied and seen to be applied, in every given situation especially when it involves people of different faiths, culture or nationality. Allah, the most high, says: O you who believe! Stand out firmly for justice as witnesses to Allah even though it is against yourselves, or your parents, or your kin, be he rich or poor.(4:135)

In another verse, He says:O you who believe! Stand out firmly for Allah and be just witnesses and let not the enmity and hatred of others make you avoid justice. Be just, that is nearer to piety (5:8). Objectivity in argument has the positive effect of calming nerves and creating a relaxed atmosphere conducive for level-headed discussion. Its principal ingredients include humility, steadfastness and a readiness to give a fair deal and accept the truth from whatever source. Equally important, opposing parties must negotiate from a position of equality; not in a master-servant situation. Islam is vehemently opposed to cultural imperialism and forceful assimilation of people, a situation that leads to European type of “final solution” or to America’s “You are either with us or against us.” The object of Islamic dialogue is not to dictate terms or impose views, but to achieve understanding and reach compromise and reconciliation. Human beings will continue to differ and to hold diverse opinions, and to force men to tow a single line is but sheer arrogance. Allah says: And if your Lord has so willed, He could surely have made mankind into one nation, but they will not cease to disagree, except him on whom your Lord has bestowed His mercy. (11:118-119).

### **Anatomy of Industrial Conflict**

Industrial conflicts can be classified into four groups:

1. Interest Dispute: These are the disputes that arise out of deadlocks in negotiations.
2. Grievance Disputes: These are the disputes that arise from day to day grievances.
3. Unfair Labor Practices: These are the disputes that arise from the acts of interference with the exercise of right to organize etc.
4. Recognition Dispute: These are the disputes that arise due to the recognition of trade union as bargaining agent.

### **Definition of Dispute**

Any dispute or difference between employers and employees or between employers, and workmen or between workmen and workmen, which is connected with the employment or non-employment or the terms

of employment or with the conditions of labor of any person. Dispute must be between: employer and employer, employer and workmen, or Workmen and workmen

The term Industrial Dispute as analyzed by courts and on the basis of which the principles of Industrial Dispute are as under the dispute must affect large group of workmen, the dispute should be taken-up by Union or others on behalf of workers, Demands should be for redress and grievance, The parties to the union must be directly involved, and Individual dispute referred by government for adjudication cannot be converted into industrial dispute. Whereas features of Industrial conflicts are included Devoid of cost i.e. long drawn conflicts, Labor pressure by the management pressure of lock out, Most of the strikes are political strikes, and Lockouts more frequent in eastern region.

Causes of Industrial Conflicts included Industrial Factors, Management's attitude towards workers, Government machinery and other causes. Industrial factors are included:

1. Terms of employment and condition of employment;
2. Dismissal or non employment of any person
3. Registered agreements, settlement and awards;
4. Demarcation of the function of an employee;
5. Demand for higher wages according to rise in prices and living standard.
6. Due to influx of educated class of employees there is self consciousness of one's rights
7. The trade union often failed to safeguards the interest of the workers due to rivalry, multiplicity and non-recognition as bargaining agent.
8. Compulsory adjudication, working on the basis of caste or community divides the workers and industrial conflicts may sets in.
9. Union workers are working with ulterior motives.

However, the Management attitudes towards labor are included:

- Management refusal to talk with the union representative in case of any dispute
- Management unwillingness to recognize union
- Even after recognition of the trade union leaders, the management don't delegate authority to their representative to settle the dispute
- Sometimes, favor of management by the trade union leaders enraged the workers.

- Management's insistence that they are the only authority for recruitment promotions etc.
- Management negative attitude to offer right benefits to the employees

Government Machinery factors are:

- Irrelevancy to meet the requirement of present industrial climate;
- Inability to understand the development of industrial promotion
- Non-implementation of the rules and regulations by employers and no action on the part of government.
- Improper functioning of conciliation machinery
- Non-provision of the number of officials as required for early settlements of industrial disputes.

And other causes are affiliation of trade unions with different political parties created problems in settling the disputes, political instability, and rampant corruption etc.

### **Five Approaches to Conflict Resolution**

An appreciation of conflict resolution styles is integral to understanding the communication process. While the names may differ slightly, there are five major responsive approaches to managing conflicts. There is no right or wrong conflict resolution style, and each conflict participant is capable of choosing the approach she deems most appropriate in any given situation. In the workplace, a manager should understand each of these approaches to help parties resolve conflicts that arise on the job.

**Accommodating:** The accommodating approach emphasizes cooperation instead of assertiveness. A person places his interests last and allows the other party to further her interests. The accommodating approach often occurs when a party is not significantly invested in securing a victory, because he does not perceive the alternative option as a significant threat.

**Avoiding:** Avoiding conflict involves one of the conflicted parties avoiding communicating about or confronting the problem, hoping it will go away. By not participating in the problem-solving process, she is effectively removing herself from it. When employing this approach, the conflict might go away if the other party doesn't press for a resolution. The underlying differences between the parties are never resolved.

**Collaborating:** The collaboration style involves parties working together to resolve issues, and both sides come to the table with win-win attitudes. It is a favorable negotiation style in formal dispute resolution situations,

such as mediation, where the parties employ a mediator but must agree on the final, binding resolution.

**Compromise:** Bargaining is the hallmark of the compromise approach to conflict resolution. The conflicting parties can identify some interests they are willing to compromise on to bring about a resolution. While the emotional level might still be high, the compromise style sometimes results in interim solutions when a full resolution is not immediately possible. Parties might reach a settlement to prevent further escalation of the conflict.

**Confrontation:** The confrontation style to conflict resolution entails the party placing his desires above those of all others involved in the conflict. Assertiveness is the hallmark of this approach, and those employing this style of negotiation aim to address the conflict head-on. It might involve high levels of emotions as the parties establish positions in what can sometimes evolve into hostile communications.

## **Conflict transformation**

Conflict transformation is the process by which conflicts, such as ethnic conflict, are transformed into peaceful outcomes. It differs from conflict resolution and conflict management approaches in that it recognises "that contemporary conflicts require more than the reframing of positions and the identification of win-win outcomes. The very structure of parties and relationships may be embedded in a pattern of conflictual relationships that extend beyond the particular site of conflict. Conflict transformation is therefore a process of engaging with and transforming the relationships, interests, discourses and, if necessary, the very constitution of society that supports the continuation of violent conflict".

Conflict transformation approaches differ from those of conflict management or conflict resolution. Whereas conflict transformation involves transforming the relationships that support violence, conflict management approaches seek to merely manage and contain conflict, and conflict resolution approaches seek to move conflict parties away from zero-sum positions towards positive outcomes, often with the help of external actors. According to Search for Common Ground, one of the oldest organizations devoted to implementing conflict transformation programs, conflict transformation initiatives are often characterized by long time horizons and interventions at multiple levels, aimed at changing perceptions and improving communications skills addressing the roots of conflict, including inequality and social injustice.

According to Berghof Foundation for Conflict Studies, conflict transformation means: A generic, comprehensive term referring to actions and processes seeking to alter the various characteristics and manifestations of violent conflict by addressing the root causes of a particular conflict over the long term. It aims to transform negative destructive conflict into positive constructive conflict and deals with structural, behavioral and attitudinal aspects of conflict. The term refers to both the process and the completion of the process. As such, it incorporates the activities of processes such as conflict prevention and conflict resolution and goes farther than conflict settlement or conflict management.

The Principles of Conflict Transformation, as developed by Trans-Conflict, go further in helping define conflict transformation:

1. Conflict should not be regarded as an isolated event that can be resolved or managed, but as an integral part of society's on-going evolution and development;"
2. Conflict should not be understood solely as an inherently negative and destructive occurrence, but rather as a potentially positive and productive force for change if harnessed constructively;"
3. Conflict transformation goes beyond merely seeking to contain and manage conflict, instead seeking to transform the root causes of a particular conflict;"
4. Conflict transformation is a long-term, gradual and complex process, requiring sustained engagement and interaction;"
5. Conflict transformation is not just an approach and set of techniques, but a way of thinking about and understanding conflict itself;"
6. Conflict transformation is particularly intended for intractable conflicts, where deep-rooted issues fuel protracted violence"

Further, Labdo constituted that Islam has dialogue at all levels of human relationship. The purpose is to give everyone concerned a right to have a say in the issue at hand and for all to benefit from the wisdom, foresight and experiences of the parties involved. This will ensure peace and stability and provide the people with a sense of worth and belonging. At the intra-family level, where the man is supposed to be the leader, Islam has made consultation the norm for running of affairs of the family. Even on trivial issues such as weaning a baby, it insists that it should be based on consultation and mutual consent. In Surah al-Baqara, Allah says: If they both (husband and wife) decide on weaning by mutual consent and after due consultation, there is no sin on them. (2:233)

Similarly, Islam recommends consultation as the way of solving inter-family disputes. A rift within a family can affect other families, as it is likely to draw the respective families of husband and the wife into the disagreement. In this situation, Islam recommends: If you fear a breach between them twain (the man and his wife) appoint (two) arbitrators, one from his family and the other from hers, if they both wish for peace, Allah will cause their reconciliation (4:35).

At community and national levels, Islam is perhaps the first social system to institute consultation as an integral part of political process and to formally incorporate it into its system. The institution of al-Shura is enshrined in the noble Qur'an and it has been practised since the rise of the first Islamic state in al-Madinah. To emphasize its importance, a whole surah is named after it. In this surah, we read the following attributes of the believers: Those who avoid the greater sins and illegal sexual intercourse, and when they are angry, they forgive. And those who answer the call of their Lord and establish prayer and who (conduct) their affairs by mutual consultation, and who spend what we have bestowed on them (42:37-38).

In Islam dialogue applies to all situations of life and is found at all levels of human relation. It is not restricted to conflict resolution alone, and this is why Islam can claim to be truly a religion of dialogue. And this is not an empty slogan or a declaration on paper, but it is a principle which has been adhered to and practised throughout the history of Islam. As will be seen later, Islamic history is replete with instances where fair and constructive dialogue was preferred by Muslim leaders. In fact, this is a rule in Islam that armed conflict would not be restored to until avenues of peace are exhausted. The guiding principle in this respect is the following divine command: But if they incline to peace, you also incline to it (8:61).



# CHAPTER 3: DIMENSION OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

Scholars define conflict can come from a variety of sources included goals, personality conflict, Scarce resources, Styles, and Values. Conflict can happen as a result of conflicting goals or priorities. It can also happen when there is a lack of shared goals. Though narrators of the story of compatibility, it seldom fail to note the shared status of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam as Abrahamic monotheist traditions as well as a different goal in root (Funk & Said, 2004). Hence it is possible to make productive relationships among them through application level of work. Sometimes conflict will found in values. The challenge here is that values are core. Adapting with styles is one thing, but dealing with conflicting values is another. That's why a particular business, group, or culture may not be a good. It's also why "bird's of a feather flock together" and why "opposites attract, but similarities bind."

Personality conflicts are believed to be a common cause of conflict. Sometimes there is no chemistry, or one haven't figured out an effective way to click with somebody. People have different styles. One thinking style or communication style might conflict with somebody else's thinking style or their communication style. The good news is that conflicts in styles are easy to adapt to when one know how. Further scarce resources are indicated to be a potential in reinforcing conflict. Conflict can happen when someone is competing over scarce resources. However scholars indicated that young generation in Islamic word in the west is relatedly have a better respect to the different value within their environment (Hodge, 2002). For a broader perspective by embracing conflict as a part of life, it can make the most of each situation and use it as a learning opportunity or a leadership opportunity. It can also use it as an opportunity to transform the situation into something better.

## **Five Dimensions of Conflict (Resolution)**

Scholars proposed various dimension of conflict resolution. It is believed to be able to analyze resolution of conflict easily. The five dimensions of conflict below chart a typical conflict, whether it is interpersonal or global. It is included the question regarded parties involved, sources of conflict, the history of the conflict, and the process chosen to deal with the conflict.



Figure: Dimensions of Conflict

At the beginning conflict resolution is required to respond a question of who or how many parties are involved. It is indicated that conflict may appear in the level of individual internally, interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup, international, global, and trans-boundary conflict. Internal conflict is happened on a conflict within oneself of individual worker, when Interpersonal conflict is a conflict between two or more individuals related. Intragroup conflict is a conflict within a group (Groups can be institutions, organizations, or any groups of people who share a specific role or identity.) when Intergroup conflict may happened within a conflict between two or more groups. International conflict is a conflict between two or more nations may have different interest. Global conflict is a conflict that directly or indirectly has an effect on all people and nations in the world when Trans-boundary level of conflict is a conflict between groups that is based on their positions in relation to a geographical boundary.

The sources of conflict are important to be explored. It is needed to parties to have a deeper understanding on the antecedent of conflict. Sources of conflict may from conflicts over resources such as human resources, things and Capital, Natural Resources, and Land and Territory. For example parties head a conflict when people, groups, and nations are competing for the same resources, or when there is a dispute over who has a right to certain resources, even when people, groups, or nations want to take someone else's resources or prevent someone from getting needed resources. Conflicts over values such as Beliefs, Choices and Perspectives, and Preferences are part of source of conflict that appeared when people, groups, and nations have relations with each other, but hold different deeply held beliefs about the role of an individual, group or family within their culture, cultural practices, politics, and religion, or Conflicts over "what is most important". Whereas conflicts over psychological Needs such as Power and Control, Emotional Needs are the

sources of conflicts related to an individual's or group's need for respect, love, affirmation, approval, friendship, and power over their own fates, and to the need of individuals to belong and have the opportunity to develop and achieve, and conflicts that arise when psychological needs are not fulfilled and conflicts between an individual and other people or institutions when obstacles prevent someone from having their needs met.

Relationships between/among conflicting parties is a dimension of conflict where type of relationship exists between conflicting parties and will often determine the intensity of the conflict and its outcome. It is included the important questions to ask included climate is present between conflicting parties, power imbalance between parties, the degree of interdependence between the conflicting parties, and do the parties know one another. The of climate is present between conflicting parties and how can the climate change the outcome may come from Trusting or Suspicious, friendly or Hostile, open or Resistant, and Calm or Emotionally Tense. Conflicting parties may have different power on control the resources and decision-making process. Hence they may cause the escalating of conflict or even may freeze the conflict. The degree of interdependence between the conflicting parties is believed to be influence on the power of conflict between parties, Actions of one person or group may seriously impact the others involved in the conflict. It come up on how often do the parties see or interact with one another, when a positive relationship valued equally by both parties or not, and each party need the cooperation of the other to achieve important goals. How well do the parties know one another also have seriously takes into one's head as a conflict dimensions. It is reflected whether on the relationship matter to both or one of them and how much it happen, and it matter if conflicting parties come from different cultures and know little about the other.

Other conflict dimension is the history of the conflict. Usually the longer a conflict exists, the more intense and complex it becomes, and therefore, the more difficult to resolve. Yet, there is also a point when parties can become so "battle weary" that they finally see resolution as the best strategy. Factors that complicate a conflict are The duration of the conflict, The frequency of the conflict, The intensity of the conflict, and The perception of the conflict. The duration of the conflict will be known whether how long has the conflict continued, and Are the original parties still actively involved in the conflict. Whereas the frequency of the conflict consists of how often has the conflict reemerged, are there periods when the conflict escalated to severe levels, and did this conflict develop in stages. The intensity of the conflict is believed to

be a part of caused of conflict that based on historical perception. It emerges when life threatening is the conflict or the conflict emotionally or ideologically charged. Finally, the perception of the conflict by both those directly involved and those who witness it may have an effect on conflict. People even “see” the conflict as serious or irrelevant. Conflicts can remain unresolved when there is little or no pressure to address them – when people from ‘inside’ or ‘outside’ the conflict don’t perceive it to be compelling enough to resolve. Conflicts are not always visible, or easily identifiable. In these situations, the conflict remains, even though it is hidden from view or ignored. The historical conflict between Israel and Palestine is a good example for discussing this dimension.

The last but not the least, the Process on how do we choose to deal with the conflict is convinced as the conflict dimension. In every conflict, all parties involved make choices to take some action they think will help them get what they want and need. These choices may be spontaneous or calculated, constructive or destructive. Conflicts can develop in stages and consequently may involve many different responses as the conflict proceeds. Some of those choices are Avoidance, Diffuse the conflict, and Engage in the conflict. Avoidance of conflict are included deny, ignore, or back off the conflict. When Diffuse the conflict done by postpone, wait, gather data, or check it out. Whereas engaging in the conflict methods may include direct Force or Competition, Accommodation – to adapt or adjust, Compromise, and Use Collaborative Problem-Solving. Accordingly, practice Restorative Justice- valuing community continuity and well-being in the solution.

Claudia Seymour (2003) defines the dimension of conflict by using Social Psychological perspective. She believed that so much less tangible than the physical destruction of war, the effects of conflict on the psychology of individuals and a society are as profound as they are neglected. If the attitudes that lead to conflict are to be mitigated, and if it is taken that psychology drives attitudes and behaviors of individuals and groups, then new emphasis must be placed on understanding the social psychology of conflict and its consequences.



The suffering and trauma that are the results of war need to be addressed and prioritized in plans for peace. Effective means for dealing with these less-visible consequences of violent conflict must be developed if a true and sustained peace is to be realized. For a comprehensive understanding of conflict and conflict management, social psychology

as a frame of analysis should be used as a complement to the political and economic analyses usually used. Economic analysis explains the underlying inequities and injustices that exist in conflicted societies, while political analysis contributes to understanding the nature and inadequacies of states, ideally leading to models of responsible and legitimate governance. Both the political and economic approaches are essential for understanding the root causes of violence, and for offering necessary perspectives on effective conflict management. Yet for a comprehensive analysis of conflict, social-psychological dimensions must also be understood and addressed. Social-psychological analysis, when combined with political and economic analyses, allows for deeper insights into conflict and conflict management.



Figure: Seymour Dimension of Conflict

Seymour (2003) divided components of the Social-Psychological Dimension into several conditions. It is included History, What Can Be Done (Acknowledging History, Learning Empathy, Building Awareness, and Recognizing Fears), identity, Perceptions, Social Psychology in Negotiations, and According Legitimacy. Social psychology permeates all aspects of intractable conflict. While history, perceptions and identity are inherently present in the escalation of conflict, they are also intrinsic to managing conflict and contributing to a sustainable peace. Acknowledging history, building awareness, learning empathy, according legitimacy, and recognizing fears are among the most powerful tools for building peace.

History is believed to be a Social-Psychological Dimension. Any analysis of conflict requires learning its history, the progression of events which led to the eruption of violence. As groups or nations interact with each other, patterns of interaction develop over time. Repeated experience leads to the formation and solidification of beliefs and perceptions of self and others. While this can be a positively reinforcing process in which the relationship between the two parties is based on trust and cooperation,

in situations of conflict such processes are largely negative. If the history shared between two nations is competitive -- either over resources or over power -- then the other party is viewed as a threat. Wars fought in the past will create a collective history, the loss and suffering transferred in collective memory from one generation to the next. When there is a history of domination of one party over the other, there is little basis for trust or cooperation. Each of these past experiences lays the foundation for interactions in the present and the future. As history builds upon itself, individuals and societies mobilize against the negative other, and soon define themselves according to their opposition of that other. Continuing conflict or threats of conflict lead to the formation of vested interests, expressed in the various aspects of war, defense, and opposition. Each of these interests becomes an integral component of the conflict dynamic, as ending the conflict effectively threatens their own existence.

What Can Be Done, acknowledging history effects on social-psychological dimension of conflict. In the social-psychological analysis of conflict, emphasis is placed on the importance of acknowledging history. Previous wars fought, previous aggressions committed, or previous actions that led to the loss of trust are not easily forgotten. Denying these past realities does not remove them from history. On the contrary, denying claims rooted in history creates fear and insecurity, challenging the existence of other groups and nations, exacerbating tensions, and heightening conflict. It is important to acknowledge the negative experiences and consequences of history between parties in order to reduce tensions. Tensions can thus be limited to contemporary issues over which control and change can be affected. Acknowledging the aspects of history in the national discourse, specifically its darker aspects, allows for at least the possibility of positive transformation, where lessons can be learned and new relationships built.

Whereas perceptions is generally been studied as a antecedent of several constructs. Hence it is indicated to be a significant dimension of conflict. In relations between nations and groups, perceptions are formed by interactions over time. Values of and threats from others, power distribution, and resource control, each contribute to these perceptions. The realist school of international-relations theory describes conflict as a result of a shift in power and the display of relative strength. In social-psychological terms, it is the perception of power, rather than the actual possession of power, which is important. Power is most often perceived in military, economic or political terms. If these terms are perceived as zero-sum, it is likely that conflict will erupt or escalate. However, if the terms of conflict and their perception can be moved from zero-sum to positive sum, then options for conflict management are greatly augmented.

What Can Be Done: Learning Empathy also reflected to be a conflict dimension. Exposition of mirror image theory describes how parties develop parallel images of the other, with self-perceptions largely positive and perceptions of the other mostly negative. Violence and aggression become associated with the other party while virtue and justice are qualities possessed by oneself or one's own group. Deutsch's folk theory of war, in which one side perceives itself as only good and the other side as only evil, can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, where violence rapidly escalates. In both cases, the best tools to counter the negative effects of mirror-imaging and the good-versus-evil dialectic is empathy, a capacity rarely found in the realm of international relations. Perceptions are formed early in life, and unless otherwise challenged, continue to solidify. The danger with perceptions is that, while they are drawn from reality, over time they create reality: the self-fulfilling prophecy. Perceptions, however, are not perfect images of reality; through social experience, they can change. New perspectives can be learned, values and interests can be shared. Exchange programs and group workshops can be valuable opportunities to learn empathy, build trust, open communication, increase sensitivity, and augment perspectives and appreciation for the other.

Identity can be described as the norms, beliefs, practices, and traditions with which one engages one's environment. Self-perception underlies the notion of identity, a pivotal component of social-psychological analysis. Identity and perceptions of the self provide the lens through which one views others. Identity is not an immutable concept, rather, it forms and changes depending on the particular historical moment. Conceptions of identity influence the process of conflicts. Yet identity is still overlooked when attempting to understand the origins of conflict, or in planning its management.

What Can Be Done as well as Building Awareness represents an indication of conflict dimension. The mutability or adaptability of identity gives it vast potential as a tool for conflict management. While national identity can easily become a negative influence, it can just as easily be transformed to a positive impetus for peace. Intentional manipulation of any national identity should inspire wariness -- as exemplified with the rise of hyper-nationalist movements or of calls to genocide or "ethnic cleansing." Yet leaders and peacemakers can affect significant positive change through identity transformation. Increasing awareness of the self and supporting a more equitable perception of others can be facilitated through cross-cultural exchanges, or high-level and highly visible dialogues. Sharing of each group's unique history, traditions, and culture are all positive initiatives that mutually reinforce one's own and the other's identity.

Social Psychology in Negotiations is an importance approaches to have better resolution on conflict. In negotiations, the importance of perceptions in terms of power distribution or relative positioning is key. Social-psychological dimensions -- perception in particular -- are key in even beginning negotiations. Negotiations are usually only initiated -- and successful -- in certain "ripe" situations. These include: the occurrence of a recent or incipient national crisis, a change in the military situation, leading to the perception of a real and immediate threat of new or heightened violent conflict, the perception of a mutually hurting stalemate, a perception that continued violence is more costly than the negotiations themselves, a change in power to a more equitable distribution. If parties perceive that power is distributed more equitably, they are more likely to come to the negotiating table.

Finally, Seymour (2003) believed that recognizing Fears and According Legitimacy is closely to Social Psychological Dimensions of Conflict. Parties naturally fear the compromises involved in attaining negotiated settlements. Fears of concessions threaten the sense of security for both sides, making parties less likely to enter into negotiations in the first place. The social-psychological approach can assist in bringing contending parties to the peacemaking process. If each side is able to recognize the fears and perceptions of the other -- thus accepting mutual legitimacy -- negotiations can create positive change. Third-party peacemakers can also support the process by providing reassurance in the form of acknowledgements and confidence-building measures. Outside of negotiations, conflict-resolution workshops are useful for changing negative perceptions, acknowledging history, and addressing destructive divisions in identity. By addressing the fears and perceptions of threats, these peacemaking initiatives can support the transition from conflict to sustainable peace.

## **Identity**

Person, as I take it, is the name for this self. Wherever a man finds what he calls himself, there, I think, another may say is the same person. It is a forensic term, appropriating actions and their merit; and so belong only to intelligent agents, capable of a law, and happiness, and misery. This personality extends itself beyond present existence to what is past, only by consciousness, --whereby it becomes concerned and accountable; owns and imputes to itself past actions, just upon the same ground and for the same reason as it does the present. All which is founded in a concern for happiness, the unavoidable concomitant of consciousness; that which is conscious of pleasure and pain, desiring that that self that is conscious should be happy. And therefore whatever past actions it cannot reconcile

or Appropriate to that present self by consciousness, it can be no more concerned in it than if they had never been done: and to receive pleasure or pain, i.e. reward or punishment, on the account of any such action, is all one as to be made happy or miserable in its first being, without any demerit at all. For, supposing a man punished now for what he had done in another life, whereof he could be made to have no consciousness at all, what difference is there between that punishment and being created miserable? And therefore, conformable to this, the apostle tells us, that, at the great day, when everyone shall 'receive according to his doings, the secrets of all hearts shall be laid open.' The sentence shall be justified by the consciousness all person shall have, that They themselves, in what bodies soever they appear, or what substances soever that consciousness adheres to, are the same that committed those actions, and deserve that punishment for them.

In philosophy, the issue of personal identity concerns several loosely related issues, in particular persistence, change, sameness, and time. Personal identity is the distinct personality of an individual and is concerned with the persisting entity particular to a given individual. The personal identity structure appears to preserve itself from the previous version in time when it is modified. It is the individual characteristics arising from personality by which a person is recognized or known. Generally, it is the unique numerical identity of persons through time. That is to say, the necessary and sufficient conditions under which a person at one time and a person at another time can be said to be the same person, persisting through time. In the modern philosophy of mind, this concept of personal identity is sometimes referred to as the diachronic problem of personal identity. The synchronic problem is grounded in the question of what features or traits characterize a given person at one time. Identity is an issue for both continental philosophy and analytic philosophy. A question in continental philosophy is in what sense can the contemporary conception of identity be maintained, while many prior propositions, postulates, and presuppositions about the world are different.

In another concept of mind, the set of cognitive faculties are considered to consist of an immaterial substance, separate from and independent of the body. If a person is then identified with their mind, rather than their body—if a person is considered to be their mind—and their mind is such a non-physical substance, then personal identity over time may be grounded in the persistence of this non-physical substance, despite the continuous change in the substance of the body it is associated with. The mind-body problem concerns the explanation of the relationship, if any, that exists between minds, or mental processes, and bodily states

or processes. One of the aims of philosophers who work in this area is to explain how a non-material mind can influence a material body and vice-versa.

However, this is not uncontroversial or unproblematic, and adopting it as a solution raises questions. Perceptual experiences depend on stimuli which arrive at various sensory organs from the external world and these stimuli cause changes in mental states; ultimately causing sensation. A desire for food, for example, will tend to cause a person to move their body in a manner and in a direction to obtain food. The question, then, is how it can be possible for conscious experiences to arise out of an organ (the human brain) possessing electrochemical properties. A related problem is to explain how propositional attitudes (e.g. beliefs and desires) can cause neurons of the brain to fire and muscles to contract in the correct manner. These comprise some of the puzzles that have confronted epistemologists and philosophers of mind from at least the time of René Descartes.

## **Power**

In social science and politics, power is the ability to influence the behavior of people. The term authority is often used for power perceived as legitimate by the social structure. Power can be seen as evil or unjust, but the exercise of power is accepted as endemic to humans as social beings. In the corporate environment, power is often expressed as upward or downward. With downward power, a company's superior influences subordinates. When a company exerts upward power, it is the subordinates who influence the decisions of the leader (Greiner & Schein, 1988).

The use of power need not involve coercion (force or the threat of force). At one extreme, it more closely resembles what everyday English-speakers call influence, although some authors make a distinction between power and influence – the means by which power is used (Handy, C. 1993 *Understanding Organisations*). Much of the recent sociological debate on power revolves around the issue of the enabling nature of power. A comprehensive account of power can be found in Steven Lukes *Power: A Radical View* where he discusses the three dimensions of power. Thus, power can be seen as various forms of constraint on human action, but also as that which makes action possible, although in a limited scope. Much of this debate is related to the works of the French philosopher Michel Foucault (1926–1984), who, following the Italian political philosopher Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527), sees power as "a complex strategic situation in a given society social setting". Being deeply structural, his concept involves both constraint and enablement. For a

purely enabling (and voluntaristic) concept of power see the works of Anthony Giddens.

People use power more than rewards, threats, and information to influence people. In everyday situations people use a variety of power tactics to push or prompt people into particular action. There are plenty of examples of power tactics that are quite common and employed every day. Some of these tactics include bullying, collaboration, complaining, criticizing, demanding, disengaging, evading, humor, inspiring, manipulating, negotiating, socializing, and supplicating. These power tactics can be classified along three different dimensions: softness, rationality, and laterality (Falbo&Pepalu, 1980; Raven et al., 1998).

Soft tactics take advantage of the relationship between person and the target. They are more indirect and interpersonal (e.g. collaboration, socializing). Conversely, hard tactics are harsh, forceful, direct, and rely on concrete outcomes. However, they are not more powerful than soft tactics. In many circumstances, fear of social exclusion can be a much stronger motivator than some kind of physical punishment.

### **Five bases of power**

Social psychologists John R. P. French and Bertram Raven, in a now-classic study (1959), developed a schema of sources of power by which to analyse how power plays work (or fail to work) in a specific relationship. According to French and Raven, power must be distinguished from influence in the following way: power is that state of affairs which holds in a given relationship, A-B, such that a given influence attempt by A over B makes A's desired change in B more likely. Conceived this way, power is fundamentally relative – it depends on the specific understandings A and B each apply to their relationship, and, interestingly, requires B's recognition of a quality in A which would motivate B to change in the way A intends. A must draw on the 'base' or combination of bases of power appropriate to the relationship, to effect the desired outcome. Drawing on the wrong power base can have unintended effects, including a reduction in A's own power. French and Raven argue that there are five significant categories of such qualities, while not excluding other minor categories. Further bases have since been adduced – in particular by Morgan (1986: ch.6), who identifies 14, while others have suggested a simpler model for practical purposes – for example, Handy (1976), who recommends three.

1. Legitimate power. Also called "Positional power," it is the power of an individual because of the relative position and duties of the holder of the position within an organization. Legitimate power is

formal authority delegated to the holder of the position. It is usually accompanied by various attributes of power such as uniforms, offices etc. This is the most obvious and also the most important kind of power.

2. Referent power. Referent power is the power or ability of individuals to attract others and build loyalty. It's based on the charisma and interpersonal skills of the power holder. A person may be admired because of specific personal trait, and this admiration creates the opportunity for interpersonal influence. Here the person under power desires to identify with these personal qualities, and gains satisfaction from being an accepted follower. Nationalism and patriotism count towards an intangible sort of referent power. For example, soldiers fight in wars to defend the honor of the country. This is the second least obvious power, but the most effective. Advertisers have long used the referent power of sports figures for products endorsements, for example. The charismatic appeal of the sports star supposedly leads to an acceptance of the endorsement, although the individual may have little real credibility outside the sports arena. Abuse is possible when someone that is likable, yet lacks integrity and honesty, rises to power, placing them in a situation to gain personal advantage at the cost of the group's position. Referent power is unstable alone, and is not enough for a leader who wants longevity and respect. When combined with other sources of power, however, it can help you achieve great success.
3. Expert power. Expert power is an individual's power deriving from the skills or expertise of the person and the organization's needs for those skills and expertise. Unlike the others, this type of power is usually highly specific and limited to the particular area in which the expert is trained and qualified. When you have knowledge and skills that enable you to understand a situation, suggest solutions, use solid judgment, and generally outperform others, people will have reason to listen to you. When you demonstrate expertise, people tend to trust you and respect what you say. As a subject matter expert, your ideas will have more value, and others will look to you for leadership in that area.
4. Reward power. Reward power depends on the ability of the power wielder to confer valued material rewards, it refers to the degree to which the individual can give others a reward of some kind such as benefits, time off, desired gifts, promotions or increases in pay or responsibility. This power is obvious but also ineffective if abused. People who abuse reward power can become pushy or became reprimanded for being too forthcoming or 'moving things

too quickly'. If others expect that you'll reward them for doing what you want, there's a high probability that they'll do it. The problem with this basis of power is that you may not have as much control over rewards as you need. Supervisors probably don't have complete control over salary increases, and managers often can't control promotions all by themselves. And even a CEO needs permission from the board of directors for some actions. So when you use up available rewards, or the rewards don't have enough perceived value to others, your power weakens. (One of the frustrations of using rewards is that they often need to be bigger each time if they're to have the same motivational impact. Even then, if rewards are given frequently, people can become satiated by the reward, such that it loses its effectiveness.)

5. Coercive power. Coercive power is the application of negative influences. It includes the ability to demote or to withhold other rewards. The desire for valued rewards or the fear of having them withheld that ensures the obedience of those under power. Coercive power tends to be the most obvious but least effective form of power as it builds resentment and resistance from the people who experience it. Threats and punishment are common tools of coercion. Implying or threatening that someone will be fired, demoted, denied privileges, or given undesirable assignments – these are examples of using coercive power. Extensive use of coercive power is rarely appropriate in an organizational setting, and relying on these forms of power alone will result in a very cold, impoverished style of leadership

## **Counterpower**

The term 'counter-power' (sometimes written 'counterpower') is used in a range of situations to describe the countervailing force that can be utilised by the oppressed to counterbalance or erode the power of elites. In the book *Counterpower: Making Change Happen*, a definition rooted in the political science literature is offered. Reflecting the categories of power presented by Mann (ideological, economic, military), Toffler (knowledge, wealth, violence), Gramsci and others, Gee asserts that movements can use 'Idea Counterpower', 'Economic Counterpower' and 'Physical Counterpower' to challenge the power of ruling elites. A more general definition has been provided by the anthropologist David Graeber as 'a collection of social institutions set in opposition to the state and capital: from self-governing communities to radical labor unions to popular militias'. Graeber also notes that counter-power can also be referred to as 'anti-power' and 'when institutions [of counter-power] maintain themselves in the face of the state, this is usually referred to

as a 'dual power' situation'. Although the term has come to prominence through its use by participants in the global justice/anti-globalization movement of the 1990s onwards, the word has been used for at least 60 years; for instance Martin Buber's 1949 book 'Paths in Utopia' includes the line 'Power abdicates only under counter-power'

## **Structure**

Structure is a fundamental, tangible or intangible notion referring to the recognition, observation, nature, and permanence of patterns and relationships of entities. This notion may itself be an object, such as a built structure, or an attribute, such as the structure of society. From a child's verbal description of a snowflake, to the detailed scientific analysis of the properties of magnetic fields, the concept of structure is now often an essential foundation of nearly every mode of inquiry and discovery in science, philosophy, and art. In early 20th-century and earlier thought, form often plays a role comparable to that of structure in contemporary thought. The neo-Kantianism of Ernst Cassirer (cf. his *Philosophy of Symbolic Forms*, completed in 1929 and published in English translation in the 1950s) is sometimes regarded as a precursor of the later shift to structuralism and post-structuralism

The description of structure implicitly offers an account of what a system is made of: a configuration of items, a collection of inter-related components or services. A structure may be a hierarchy (a cascade of one-to-many relationships), a network featuring many-to-many links, or a lattice featuring connections between components that are neighbors in space. A social structure is a pattern of relationships. They are social organizations of individuals in various life situations. Structures are applicable to people in how a society is as a system organized by a characteristic pattern of relationships. This is known as the social organization of the group. Sociologists have studied the changing structure of these groups. Structure and agency are two confronted theories about human behavior. The debate surrounding the influence of structure and agency on human thought is one of the central issues in sociology. In this context, agency refers to the individual human capacity to act independently and make free choices. Structure here refers to factors such as social class, religion, gender, ethnicity, customs etc. that seem to limit or influence individual opportunities.

Bernard S. Mayer (2000) illustrated that conflict may be viewed as occurring along cognitive (perception), emotional (feeling), and behavioral (action) dimensions. This three-dimensional perspective can help us understand the complexities of conflict and why a conflict sometimes seems to proceed in contradictory directions.



As a set of perceptions, conflict is a belief or understanding that one's own needs, interests, wants, or values are incompatible with someone else's. There are both objective and subjective elements to this cognitive dimension. If I want to develop a tract of land into a shopping center, and you want to preserve it as open space, then there is an objective incompatibility in our wants. If I believe that the way you desire to guide our son's educational development is incompatible with my philosophy of parenting, then there is at least a significant subjective component. What if only one

of us believes an incompatibility to exist, are we still in conflict? As a practical matter, I find it useful to think of conflict as existing if at least one person believes it to exist. If I believe us to have incompatible interests, and act accordingly, then I am engaging you in a conflict process whether you share this perception or not.

Conflict also involves an emotional reaction to a situation or interaction that signals a disagreement of some kind. The emotions felt might be fear, sadness, bitterness, anger, or hopelessness, or some amalgam of these. If we experience these feelings in regard to another person or situation, we feel that we are in conflict—and therefore we are. As a mediator, I have sometimes seen people behave as if they were in great disagreement over profound issues, yet I have not been able to ascertain exactly what they disagreed about. Nonetheless, they were in conflict because they felt they were. And in conflicts, it does not take two to tango. Often a conflict exists because one person feels in conflict with another, even though those feelings are not reciprocated by or even known to the other person. The behavioral component may be minimal, but the conflict is still very real to the person experiencing the feelings.

Conflict also consists of the actions that we take to express our feelings, articulate our perceptions, and get our needs met in a way that has the potential for interfering with someone else's ability to get his or her needs met. This conflict behavior may involve a direct attempt to make something happen at someone else's expense. It may be an exercise of power. It may be violent. It may be destructive. Conversely, this behavior may be conciliatory, constructive, and friendly. But, whatever its tone, the purpose of conflict behavior is either to express the conflict or to get one's needs met. Again, the question of reciprocity exists. If you write letters to the editor, sign petitions, and consult lawyers to stop my

shopping center, and I do not even know you exist, are we in conflict? Can you be in conflict with me if I am not in conflict with you? Theory aside, I think the practical answer to both of these questions is yes. Obviously, the nature of a conflict in one dimension greatly affects its nature in the other two dimensions. If I believe you are trying to hurt me in some way, I am likely to feel as though I am in conflict with you, and I am also apt to engage in conflict behaviors. Also, none of these dimensions is static. People can go rapidly in and out of conflict, and the strength or character of conflict along each dimension can change quickly and frequently. And even though each of the three dimensions affects the others, a change in the level of conflict in one dimension does not necessarily cause a similar change in the other dimensions. Sometimes an increase in one dimension is associated with a decrease in another dimension. For example, the emotional component of conflict occasionally decreases as people increase their awareness of the existence of the dispute and their understanding of its nature. This is one reason why conflict can seem so confusing and unpredictable.

Knutsen, (2008) analyzed political party conflicts by using The "social background approach. His study found that with regard to the importance of the different dimensions, previous research has documented that the religious cleavage is the most important in the continental and Southern European countries, while the class or occupation cleavage has the greatest impact in Britain and the Scandinavian countries.

The religious cleavage has shown a greater resistance to dealignment than the class cleavages according to many empirical analyses, and it is therefore not reasonable to change the expectations which can be derived from these findings despite trends towards secularization. This is an important reason for focusing on religious-secular values and not to ignore it as we have seen in some of the contributions reviewed above.



However, the importance of economic left-right values for explaining party choice has also shown a considerable resistance to decline although the impact of social class variables in explaining party choice has declined considerably. With regard to the impact of New Politics dimension(s) are expected to be fairly large. An interesting topic is whether these orientations have approached Old Politics orientations. He concluded that Both Old Politics value orientations remain important for explaining

party choice and in most countries economic left-right values and religious secular values define separate conflict dimensions, while in some countries they do so together with other value orientations. Economic left-right orientations are most important on the first dimension in eight countries and partly also in the two-dimensional solution in Italy. Only in Ireland and Portugal is there no conflict dimension which is primarily defined by economic left-right dimension. In fact, in Ireland these value orientations are not significant to any of the dimensions at all. Few other value orientations define the dimension in addition to economic left-right values. The average correlation between these value orientations and party choice is larger than for the other orientations, indicate that economic left-right values are still most important for explaining party choice in Western Europe. In more than half of the countries these values define one of the two most important conflict dimensions. Much of the same can be stated with regard to religious-secular values, but these orientations define a dimension together with other orientations to a somewhat larger degree than economic left-right values. When they do so, it occurs most frequently together with one of the New Politics orientations.

Religious-secular values still define one of the two most significant conflict dimensions in a majority of the eighteen countries included in this study. There is no religious-secular dimension in France and these values are only secondary in defining any of the dimensions in Denmark and Britain. The overview for immigration orientations These orientations define the first and most important conflict dimension in six countries according to at least one of the spatial solutions in the countries where we have presented more than one such solution, and these orientations define the two first dimensions in ten of the countries. The rise of immigration issues has changed the political landscape in many Western countries and contributed to the rise of radical rightist parties. The impact of these changes in conflict structure is clearly seen from the data. Conflict reflecting different immigration orientations are one of the most important conflict dimensions in West European countries. Only in Portugal is there no conflict dimension that is defined by immigration orientation Environmental values define one of the two most significant dimensions in only a few countries, and in most of these they define a dimension together with another value orientation. However, in many countries environmental values define the third or fourth conflict dimension, and frequently libertarian-authoritarian values also contribute to defining this new politics dimension.

Libertarian-authoritarian values contribute significantly in defining many dimensions, in particular New Politics dimensions. In three countries

(Sweden, Germany and the Netherlands) these values contribute equally with environmental values in defining a new politics dimension, while only in Greece are these values most significant in defining a conflict dimension (both in the two- and the three-dimensional solutions). The value orientations contribute to defining conflict dimensions in a fascinating way. These values – as they are operationalized in this study – seem to have a “catch all” character in the sense that they contribute significantly to many of the conflict dimensions without being dominant. However, that these orientations contribute most frequently to New Politics dimensions together to environmental values and immigration orientations. Somewhat surprisingly, given the emphasis on immigration orientation as a component of libertarian-authoritarian values in the literature discussed on the value orientation section above, it is not along the immigration orientation that these values contribute most significantly, but along the environmental dimension. A very important finding is that the New Politics orientations, immigration orientations and environmental values do define different dimensions in most countries. There is not only one new politics conflict dimension in most West European party systems, but two: one defined by immigration orientations and one by environmental values. In only two countries, Belgium (when the party families are analyzed) and in Norway, do these New Politics values define the same dimension, and in both cases immigration orientation is the most significant contributor. The same applies to the three dimensional solutions in Sweden and Luxembourg, but when four dimensional solutions are examined these orientations define two separate dimensions. In Belgium, when all parties are included in the analyses (not the party families) there is then also two dimensions. When the structural variables are included in the analyses, they contribute to the various dimensions as expected, but they are generally secondary in defining the dimensions compared to value orientations. However, in many countries the class variables education and household income contribute to define the economic left-right dimension, age, education and gender contribute to define one or both of the New Politics dimensions and religious denomination contribute to define the religious-secular dimension.

# CHAPTER 4: SETTLEMENT AND RESOLUTION PROCEDURE

## **Negotiation & Mediation**

Negotiation is a dialogue between two or more people or parties, intended to reach an understanding, resolve point of difference, or gain advantage in outcome of dialogue, to produce an agreement upon courses of action, to bargain for individual or collective advantage, to craft outcomes to satisfy various interests of two people/parties involved in negotiation process. Negotiation is a process where each party involved in negotiating tries to gain an advantage for themselves by the end of the process. Negotiation is intended to aim at compromise. Negotiation occurs in business, non-profit organizations, government branches, legal proceedings, among nations and in personal situations such as marriage, divorce, parenting, and everyday life. The study of the subject is called negotiation theory. Professional negotiators are often specialized, such as union negotiators, leverage buyout negotiators, peace negotiators, hostage negotiators, or may work under other titles, such as diplomats, legislators or brokers.

Negotiation can take a wide variety of forms, from a trained negotiator acting on behalf of a particular organization or position in a formal setting, to an informal negotiation between friends. Negotiation can be contrasted with mediation, where a neutral third party listens to each side's arguments and attempts to help craft an agreement between the parties. It can also be compared with arbitration, which resembles a legal proceeding. In arbitration, both sides make an argument as to the merits of their case and the arbitrator decides the outcome. This negotiation is also sometimes called positional or hard-bargaining negotiation. Negotiation theorists generally distinguish between two types of negotiation. Different theorists use different labels for the two general types and distinguish them in different ways.

Distributive negotiation is also sometimes called positional or hard-bargaining negotiation. It tends to approach negotiation on the model of haggling in a market. In a distributive negotiation, each side often adopts an extreme position, knowing that it will not be accepted, and then employs a combination of guile, bluffing, and brinksmanship in order to cede as little as possible before reaching a deal. Distributive bargainers conceive of negotiation as a process of distributing a fixed amount of

value. The term distributive implies that there is a finite amount of the thing being distributed or divided among the people involved. Sometimes this type of negotiation is referred to as the distribution of a “fixed pie.” There is only so much to go around, but the proportion to be distributed is variable. Distributive negotiation is also sometimes called win-lose because of the assumption that one person's gain results in another person's loss.

A distributive negotiation often involves people who have never had a previous interactive relationship, nor are they likely to do so again in the near future. Simple everyday examples would be buying a car or a house. Integrative negotiation is also sometimes called interest-based or principled negotiation. It is a set of techniques that attempts to improve the quality and likelihood of negotiated agreement by providing an alternative to traditional distributive negotiation techniques. While distributive negotiation assumes there is a fixed amount of value (a “fixed pie”) to be divided between the parties, integrative negotiation often attempts to create value in the course of the negotiation (“expand the pie”). It focuses on the underlying interests of the parties rather than their arbitrary starting positions, approaches negotiation as a shared problem rather than a personalized battle, and insists upon adherence to objective, principled criteria as the basis for agreement. The word integrative implies some cooperation. Integrative negotiation often involves a higher degree of trust and the forming of a relationship. It can also involve creative problem-solving that aims to achieve mutual gains. It is also sometimes called win-win negotiation.

A number of different approaches to integrative negotiation are taught in a variety of different books and programs. See, for example, *Getting to YES, Mutual Gains Approach, Program on Negotiation, Gould Negotiation and Mediation Teaching Program*. Scholars who have contributed to the field of negotiation include Roger Fisher and William Ury; Holly Schroth and Timothy Dayonot at UC Berkeley; Gerard E. Watzke at Tulane University; Sara Cobb at George Mason University; Len Riskin at the University of Missouri; Howard Raiffa at Harvard, Robert McKersie and Lawrence Susskind at MIT; Adil Najamand Jeswald Salacuse at The Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy and John D. Males.

There are many different ways to categorize the essential elements of negotiation. One view of negotiation involves three basic elements: process, behavior and substance. The process refers to how the parties negotiate: the context of the negotiations, the parties to the negotiations, the tactics used by the parties, and the sequence and stages in which all of these play out. Behavior refers to the relationships among these parties, the communication between them and the styles they adopt. The substance refers to what the parties negotiate over: the agenda, the

issues (positions and - more helpfully - interests), the options, and the agreement(s) reached at the end. Another view of negotiation comprises four elements: strategy, process, tools, and tactics. Strategy comprises the top level goals - typically including relationship and the final outcome. Processes and tools include the steps that will be followed and the roles taken in both preparing for and negotiating with the other parties. Tactics include more detailed statements and actions and responses to others' statements and actions. Some add to this persuasion and influence, asserting that these have become integral to modern day negotiation success, and so should not be omitted.

Adversary or partner? The two basically different approaches to negotiating will require different tactics. In the distributive approach each negotiator is battling for the largest possible piece of the pie, so it may be quite appropriate - within certain limits - to regard the other side more as an adversary than a partner and to take a somewhat harder line. This would however be less appropriate if the idea were to hammer out an arrangement that is in the best interest of both sides. A good agreement is not one with maximum gain, but optimum gain. This does not by any means suggest that we should give up our own advantage for nothing. But a cooperative attitude will regularly pay dividends. What is gained is not at the expense of the other, but with him.

Employing an advocate. A skilled negotiator may serve as an advocate for one party to the negotiation. The advocate attempts to obtain the most favorable outcomes possible for that party. In this process the negotiator attempts to determine the minimum outcome(s) the other party is (or parties are) willing to accept, then adjusts their demands accordingly. A "successful" negotiation in the advocacy approach is when the negotiator is able to obtain all or most of the outcomes their party desires, but without driving the other party to permanently break off negotiations, unless the best alternative to a negotiated agreement (BATNA) is acceptable. Skilled negotiators may use a variety of tactics ranging from negotiation hypnosis, to a straight forward presentation of demands or setting of preconditions, to more deceptive approaches such as cherry picking. Intimidation and salami tactics may also play a part in swaying the outcome of negotiations. Another negotiation tactic is bad guy/good guy. Bad guy/good guy is when one negotiator acts as a bad guy by using anger and threats. The other negotiator acts as a good guy by being considerate and understanding. The good guy blames the bad guy for all the difficulties while trying to get concessions and agreement from the opponent. Another negotiation is leaning back and whispering. This establishes a dominant physical position thus intimidating your counterpart.

## Types of Negotiators

Three basic kinds of negotiators have been identified by researchers involved in The Harvard Negotiation Project. These types of negotiators are: Soft bargainers, hard bargainers, and principled bargainers.

1. **Soft.** These people see negotiation as too close to competition, so they choose a gentle style of bargaining. The offers they make are not in their best interests, they yield to others' demands, avoid confrontation, and they maintain good relations with fellow negotiators. Their perception of others is one of friendship, and their goal is agreement. They do not separate the people from the problem, but are soft on both. They avoid contests of wills and will insist on agreement, offering solutions and easily trusting others and changing their opinions.
2. **Hard.** These people use contentious strategies to influence, utilizing phrases such as "this is my final offer" and "take it or leave it." They make threats, are distrustful of others, insist on their position, and apply pressure to negotiate. They see others as adversaries and their ultimate goal is victory. Additionally, they will search for one single answer, and insist you agree on it. They do not separate the people from the problem (as with soft bargainers), but they are hard on both the people involved and the problem.
3. **Principled.** Individuals who bargain this way seek integrative solutions, and do so by sidestepping commitment to specific positions. They focus on the problem rather than the intentions, motives, and needs of the people involved. They separate the people from the problem, explore interests, avoid bottom lines, and reach results based on standards (which are independent of personal will). They base their choices on objective criteria rather than power, pressure, self-interest, or an arbitrary decisional procedure. These criteria may be drawn from moral standards, principles of fairness, professional standards, tradition, and so on.

Researchers from The Harvard Negotiation Project recommend that negotiators explore a number of alternatives to the problems they are facing in order to come to the best overall conclusion/solution, but this is often not the case (as when you may be dealing with an individual utilizing soft or hard bargaining tactics) (Forsyth, 2010).

Bad faith negotiation is occurred when a party pretends to negotiate, but secretly has no intention of compromising, the party is considered to be negotiating in bad faith. Bad faith is a concept in negotiation theory whereby parties pretend to reason to reach settlement, but have

no intention to do so, for example, one political party may pretend to negotiate, with no intention to compromise, for political effect. Bad faith in political science and political psychology refers to negotiating strategies in which there is no real intention to reach compromise, or a model of information processing. The "inherent bad faith model" of information processing is a theory in political psychology that was first put forth by Ole Holsti to explain the relationship between John Foster Dulles' beliefs and his model of information processing. It is the most widely studied model of one's opponent. A state is presumed to be implacably hostile, and contra-indicators of this are ignored. They are dismissed as propaganda ploys or signs of weakness. Examples are John Foster Dulles' position regarding the Soviet Union, or Hamas's position on the state of Israel.

### **Emotion in negotiation**

Emotions play an important part in the negotiation process, although it is only in recent years that their effect is being studied. Emotions have the potential to play either a positive or negative role in negotiation. During negotiations, the decision as to whether or not to settle rests in part on emotional factors. Negative emotions can cause intense and even irrational behavior, and can cause conflicts to escalate and negotiations to break down, but may be instrumental in attaining concessions. On the other hand, positive emotions often facilitate reaching an agreement and help to maximize joint gains, but can also be instrumental in attaining concessions. Positive and negative discrete emotions can be strategically displayed to influence task and relational outcomes and may play out differently across cultural boundaries.

### **Affect effect**

Dispositional affects affect the various stages of the negotiation process: which strategies are planned to be used, which strategies are actually chosen, the way the other party and his or her intentions are perceived, their willingness to reach an agreement and the final negotiated outcomes. Positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) of one or more of the negotiating sides can lead to very different outcomes.

1. Positive affect in negotiation. Even before the negotiation process starts, people in a positive mood have more confidence, and higher tendencies to plan to use a cooperative strategy. During the negotiation, negotiators who are in a positive mood tend to enjoy the interaction more, show less contentious behavior, use less aggressive tactics and more cooperative strategies. This in turn increases the likelihood that parties will reach their instrumental goals, and

enhance the ability to find integrative gains. Indeed, compared with negotiators with negative or natural affectivity, negotiators with positive affectivity reached more agreements and tended to honor those agreements more. Those favorable outcomes are due to better decision making processes, such as flexible thinking, creative problem solving, respect for others' perspectives, willingness to take risks and higher confidence. Post negotiation positive affect has beneficial consequences as well. It increases satisfaction with achieved outcome and influences one's desire for future interactions. The PA aroused by reaching an agreement facilitates the dyadic relationship, which result in affective commitment that sets the stage for subsequent interactions. PA also has its drawbacks: it distorts perception of self performance, such that performance is judged to be relatively better than it actually is. Thus, studies involving self reports on achieved outcomes might be biased.

2. Negative affect in negotiation. Negative affect has detrimental effects on various stages in the negotiation process. Although various negative emotions affect negotiation outcomes, by far the most researched is anger. Angry negotiators plan to use more competitive strategies and to cooperate less, even before the negotiation starts. These competitive strategies are related to reduced joint outcomes. During negotiations, anger disrupts the process by reducing the level of trust, clouding parties' judgment, narrowing parties' focus of attention and changing their central goal from reaching agreement to retaliating against the other side. Angry negotiators pay less attention to opponent's interests and are less accurate in judging their interests, thus achieve lower joint gains. Moreover, because anger makes negotiators more self-centered in their preferences, it increases the likelihood that they will reject profitable offers. Opponents who really get angry (or cry, or otherwise lose control) are more likely to make errors: make sure they are in your favor. Anger does not help in achieving negotiation goals either: it reduces joint gains and does not help to boost personal gains, as angry negotiators do not succeed in claiming more for themselves. Moreover, negative emotions lead to acceptance of settlements that are not in the positive utility function but rather have a negative utility. However, expression of negative emotions during negotiation can sometimes be beneficial: legitimately expressed anger can be an effective way to show one's commitment, sincerity, and needs. Moreover, although NA reduces gains in integrative tasks, it is a better strategy than PA in distributive tasks (such as zero-sum). In his work on negative affect arousal and white noise, Seidner found support for the existence of a negative affect arousal mechanism

through observations regarding the devaluation of speakers from other ethnic origins." Negotiation may be negatively affected, in turn, by submerged hostility toward an ethnic or gender group

Research indicates that negotiator's emotions do not necessarily affect the negotiation process. Albarracín et al. (2003) suggested that there are two conditions for emotional affect, both related to the ability (presence of environmental or cognitive disturbances) and the motivation:

1. Identification of the affect: requires high motivation, high ability or both.
2. Determination that the affect is relevant and important for the judgment: requires that either the motivation, the ability or both are low.

According to this model, emotions are expected to affect negotiations only when one is high and the other is low. When both ability and motivation are low the affect will not be identified, and when both are high the affect will be identified but discounted as irrelevant for judgment. A possible implication of this model is, for example, that the positive effects PA has on negotiations (as described above) will be seen only when either motivation or ability are low. Most studies on emotion in negotiations focus on the effect of the negotiator's own emotions on the process. However, what the other party feels might be just as important, as group emotions are known to affect processes both at the group and the personal levels. When it comes to negotiations, trust in the other party is a necessary condition for its emotion to affect, and visibility enhances the effect. Emotions contribute to negotiation processes by signaling what one feels and thinks and can thus prevent the other party from engaging in destructive behaviors and to indicate what steps should be taken next: PA signals to keep in the same way, while NA points that mental or behavioral adjustments are needed.

Partner's emotions can have two basic effects on negotiator's emotions and behavior: mimetic/reciprocal or complementary. For example, disappointment or sadness might lead to compassion and more cooperation. In a study by Butt et al. (2005) which simulated real multi-phase negotiation, most people reacted to the partner's emotions in reciprocal, rather than complementary, manner. Specific emotions were found to have different effects on the opponent's feelings and strategies chosen:

- Anger caused the opponents to place lower demands and to concede more in a zero-sum negotiation, but also to evaluate the negotiation less favorably. It provoked both dominating and yielding behaviors of the opponent

- Pride led to more integrative and compromise strategies by the partner.
- Guilt or regret expressed by the negotiator led to better impression of him by the opponent, however it also led the opponent to place higher demands. On the other hand, personal guilt was related to more satisfaction with what one achieved.
- Worry or disappointment left bad impression on the opponent, but led to relatively lower demands by the opponent.

Negotiation is a rather complex interaction. Capturing all its complexity is a very difficult task, let alone isolating and controlling only certain aspects of it. For this reason most negotiation studies are done under laboratory conditions, and focus only on some aspects. Although lab studies have their advantages, they do have major drawbacks when studying emotions:

- Emotions in lab studies are usually manipulated and are therefore relatively 'cold' (not intense). Although those 'cold' emotions might be enough to show effects, they are qualitatively different from the 'hot' emotions often experienced during negotiations.
- In real life there is self-selection to which negotiation one gets into, which affects the emotional commitment, motivation and interests. However this is not the case in lab studies.
- Lab studies tend to focus on relatively few well defined emotions. Real life scenarios provoke a much wider scale of emotions.
- Coding the emotions has a double catch: if done by a third side, some emotions might not be detected as the negotiator sublimates them for strategic reasons. Self-report measures might overcome this, but they are usually filled only before or after the process, and if filled during the process might interfere with it.

### **Team negotiations**

Due to globalization and growing business trends, negotiation in the form of teams is becoming widely adopted. Teams can effectively collaborate to break down a complex negotiation. There is more knowledge and wisdom dispersed in a team than in a single mind. Writing, listening, and talking, are specific roles team members must satisfy. The capacity base of a team reduces the amount of blunder, and increases familiarity in a negotiation.

### **Negotiation tactics**

Tactics are always an important part of the negotiating process. But tactics don't often jump up and down shouting "Here I am, look at me."

If they did, the other side would see right through them and they would not be effective. More often than not they are subtle, difficult to identify and used for multiple purposes. Tactics are more frequently used in distributive negotiations and when the focus is on taking as much value off the table as possible. Many negotiation tactics exist. Below are a few commonly used tactics.

1. **Auction:** The bidding process is designed to create competition. When multiple parties want the same thing, pit them against one another. When people know that they may lose out on something, they will want it even more. Not only do they want the thing that is being bid on, they also want to win, just to win. Taking advantage of someone's competitive nature can drive up the price.
2. **Brinkmanship:** One party aggressively pursues a set of terms to the point at which the other negotiating party must either agree or walk away. Brinkmanship is a type of "hard nut" approach to bargaining in which one party pushes the other party to the "brink" or edge of what that party is willing to accommodate. Successful brinkmanship convinces the other party they have no choice but to accept the offer and there is no acceptable alternative to the proposed agreement.
3. **Bogey:** Negotiators use the bogey tactic to pretend that an issue of little or no importance to him or her is very important. Then, later in the negotiation, the issue can be traded for a major concession of actual importance.
4. **Chicken:** Negotiators propose extreme measures, often bluffs, to force the other party to chicken out and give them what they want. This tactic can be dangerous when parties are unwilling to back down and go through with the extreme measure.
5. **Defence in Depth:** Several layers of decision-making authority is used to allow further concessions each time the agreement goes through a different level of authority. In other words, each time the offer goes to a decision maker, that decision maker asks to add another concession in order to close the deal.
6. **Deadlines:** Give the other party a deadline forcing them to make a decision. This method uses time to apply pressure to the other party. Deadlines given can be actual or artificial.
7. **Flinch:** Flinching is showing a strong negative physical reaction to a proposal. Common examples of flinching are gasping for air, or a visible expression of surprise or shock. The flinch can be done consciously or unconsciously. The flinch signals to the opposite party that you think the offer or proposal is absurd in hopes the other

party will lower their aspirations. Seeing a physical reaction is more believable than hearing someone saying, "I'm shocked."

8. **Good Guy/Bad Guy:** The good guy/bad guy approach is typically used in team negotiations where one member of the team makes extreme or unreasonable demands, and the other offers a more rational approach. This tactic is named after a police interrogation technique often portrayed in the media. The "good guy" will appear more reasonable and understanding, and therefore, easier to work with. In essence, it is using the law of relativity to attract cooperation. The good guy will appear more agreeable relative to the "bad guy." This tactic is easy to spot because of its frequent use.
9. **Highball/Lowball:** Depending on whether selling or buying, sellers or buyers use a ridiculously high, or ridiculously low opening offer that will never be achieved. The theory is that the extreme offer will cause the other party to reevaluate his or her own opening offer and move close to the resistance point (as far as you are willing to go to reach an agreement). Another advantage is that the person giving the extreme demand appears more flexible he or she makes concessions toward a more reasonable outcome. A danger of this tactic is that the opposite party may think negotiating is a waste of time.
10. **The Nibble:** Nibbling is asking for proportionally small concessions that haven't been discussed previously just before closing the deal. This method takes advantage of the other party's desire to close by adding "just one more thing."
11. **Snow Job:** Negotiators overwhelm the other party with so much information that he or she has difficulty determining which facts are important, and which facts are diversions. Negotiators may also use technical language or jargon to mask a simple answer to a question asked by a non-expert.

Scholars indicate Nonverbal communication in negotiation. Communication is a key element of negotiation. Effective negotiation requires that participants effectively convey and interpret information. Participants in a negotiation will communicate information not only verbally but non-verbally through body language and gestures. By understanding how nonverbal communication works, a negotiator is better equipped to interpret the information other participants are leaking non-verbally while keeping secret those things that would inhibit his/her ability to negotiate. Examples of non-verbal communication in negotiation:

1. **Non-verbal "anchoring"** In a negotiation, a person can gain the advantage by verbally expressing his/or her position first. By

“anchoring” your position, you establish the position from which the negotiation will proceed. In a like manner, one can “anchor” and gain advantage with non verbal (body language) cues.

- a. **Personal Space:** The person at the head of the table is the apparent symbol of power. Negotiators can repel this strategic advantage by positioning allies in the room to surround that individual.
  - b. **First Impression:** Begin the negotiation with positive gestures and enthusiasm. Look the person in the eye with sincerity. If you cannot maintain eye contact, the other person might think you are hiding something or that you are insincere. Give a solid handshake.
2. **Reading non-verbal communication** Being able to read the non-verbal communication of another person can significantly aid in the communication process. By being aware of inconsistencies between a person’s verbal and non-verbal communication and reconciling them, negotiators will be able to come to better resolutions. Examples of incongruity in body language include:
- a. **Nervous Laugh:** A laugh not matching the situation. This could be a sign of nervousness or discomfort. When this happens, it may be good to probe with questions to discover the person’s true feelings.
  - b. **Positive words but negative body language:** If someone asks their negotiation partner if they are annoyed and the person pounds their fist and responds sharply, “what makes you think anything is bothering me?”
  - c. **Hands raised in a clenched position:** The person raising his/her hands in this position reveals frustration even when he/she is smiling. This is a signal that the person doing it may be holding back a negative attitude.
  - d. If possible, it may be helpful for negotiation partners to spend time together in a comfortable setting outside of the negotiation room. Knowing how each partner non-verbally communicates outside of the negotiation setting will help negotiation partners to sense incongruity between verbal and non-verbal communication within the negotiation setting.
3. **Conveying receptivity** The way negotiation partners position their bodies relative to each other may influence how receptive each is to the other person’s message and ideas.
- a. **Face and eyes:** Receptive negotiators smile, make plenty of eye contact. This conveys the idea that there is more interest in the person than in what is being said. On the other hand, non-

receptive negotiators make little to no eye contact. Their eyes may be squinted, jaw muscles clenched and head turned slightly away from the speaker

- b. **Arms and hands:** To show receptivity, negotiators should spread arms and open hands on table or relaxed on their lap. Negotiators show poor receptivity when their hands are clenched, crossed, positioned in front of their mouth, or rubbing the back of their neck.
- c. **Legs and Feet:** Receptive negotiators sit with legs together or one leg slightly in front of the other. When standing, they distribute weight evenly and place hands on their hips with their body tilted toward the speaker. Non-receptive negotiators stand with legs crossed, pointing away from the speaker.
- d. **Torso:** Receptive negotiators sit on the edge of their chair, unbutton their suit coat with their body tilted toward the speaker. Non-receptive negotiators may lean back in their chair and keep their suit coat buttoned.

Receptive negotiators tend to appear relaxed with their hands open and palms visibly displayed.

## **Mediation**

Mediation, as used in law, is a form of alternative dispute resolution (ADR), a way of resolving disputes between two or more parties with concrete effects. Typically, a third party, the mediator, assists the parties to negotiate a settlement. Disputants may mediate disputes in a variety of domains, such as commercial, legal, diplomatic, workplace, community and family matters. The term "mediation" broadly refers to any instance in which a third party helps others reach agreement. More specifically, mediation has a structure, timetable and dynamics that "ordinary" negotiation lacks. The process is private and confidential, possibly enforced by law. Participation is typically voluntary. The mediator acts as a neutral third party and facilitates rather than directs the process.

Mediators use various techniques to open, or improve, dialogue between disputants, aiming to help the parties reach an agreement. Much depends on the mediator's skill and training. As the practice gained popularity, training programs, certifications and licensing followed, producing trained, professional mediators committed to the discipline. The benefits of mediation include:

1. **Cost**—While a mediator may charge a fee comparable to that of an attorney, the mediation process generally takes much less time than

moving a case through standard legal channels. While a case in the hands of a lawyer or a court may take months or years to resolve, mediation usually achieves a resolution in a matter of hours. Taking less time means expending less money on hourly fees and costs.

2. **Confidentiality**—While court hearings are public, mediation remains strictly confidential. No one but the parties to the dispute and the mediator(s) know what happened. Confidentiality in mediation has such importance that in most cases the legal system cannot force a mediator to testify in court as to the content or progress of mediation. Many mediators destroy their notes taken during a mediation once that mediation has finished. The only exceptions to such strict confidentiality usually involve child abuse or actual or threatened criminal acts.
3. **Control**—Mediation increases the control the parties have over the resolution. In a court case, the parties obtain a resolution, but control resides with the judge or jury. Often, a judge or jury cannot legally provide solutions that emerge in mediation. Thus, mediation is more likely to produce a result that is mutually agreeable for the parties.
4. **Compliance**—Because the result is attained by the parties working together and is mutually agreeable, compliance with the mediated agreement is usually high. This further reduces costs, because the parties do not have to employ an attorney to force compliance with the agreement. The mediated agreement is, however, fully enforceable in a court of law.
5. **Mutuality**—Parties to a mediation are typically ready to work mutually toward a resolution. In most circumstances the mere fact that parties are willing to mediate means that they are ready to "move" their position. The parties thus are more amenable to understanding the other party's side and work on underlying issues to the dispute. This has the added benefit of often preserving the relationship the parties had before the dispute.
6. **Support**—Mediators are trained in working with difficult situations. The mediator acts as a neutral facilitator and guides the parties through the process. The mediator helps the parties think "outside of the box" for possible solutions to the dispute, broadening the range of possible solutions

## **Principles**

Principles of mediation include non-adversarialism, responsiveness, self-determination and party autonomy. Non-adversarialism is based on the actual process of mediation. It treats the parties as collaborating

in the construction of an agreement. By contrast, litigation is explicitly adversarial in that each party attempts to subject the other to its views. Mediation is designed to conclude with an agreement rather than a winner and loser. Responsiveness reflects the intent to allow the parties to craft a resolution outside of the strict rules of the legal system. A responsive mediation process also is informal, flexible and collaborative. Self-determination and party autonomy allow and require parties to choose the area of agreement, rather than ceding the decision to an outside decision-maker such as a judge. This turns the responsibility for the outcome onto the parties themselves.

## **Mediation Process**

The mediator's primary role is to act as a neutral third party who facilitates discussions between the parties. In addition, the mediator can contribute to the process ensuring that all necessary preparations are complete. Finally, the mediator should restrict pressure, aggression and intimidation, demonstrate how to communicate through employing good speaking and listening skills, and paying attention to non-verbal messages and other signals emanating from the context of the mediation and possibly contributing expertise and experience. The mediator should direct the parties to focus on issues and stay away from personal attacks.

1. Parties. The role of the parties varies according to their motivations and skills, the role of legal advisers, the model of mediation, the style of mediator and the culture in which the mediation takes place. Legal requirements may also affect their roles.
2. Preparation. The parties' first role is to consent to mediation, possibly before preparatory activities commence. Parties then prepare in much the same way they would for other varieties of negotiations. Parties may provide position statements, valuation reports and risk assessment analysis. The mediator may supervise/facilitate their preparation and may require certain preparations.
3. Disclosure. Agreements to mediate, mediation rules, and court-based referral orders may have disclosure requirements. Mediators may have express or implied powers to direct parties to produce documents, reports and other material. In court-referred mediations parties usually exchange with each other all material which would be available through discovery or disclosure rules were the matter to proceed to hearing, including witness statements, valuations and statement accounts.
4. Participation. Mediation requires direct input from the parties. Parties must attend and participate in the mediation meeting. Some

mediation rules require parties to attend in person. Participation at one stage may compensate for absence at another stage.

5. **Preparation.** Choose an appropriate mediator, considering experience, skills, credibility, cost, etc. The criteria for mediator competence is under dispute. Competence certainly includes the ability to remain neutral and to move parties through various impasse-points in a dispute. The dispute is over whether expertise in the subject matter of the dispute should be considered or is actually detrimental to the mediator's objectivity. Preparatory steps for mediation can vary according to legal and other requirements, not least gaining the willingness of the parties to participate. In some court-connected mediation programs, courts require disputants to prepare for mediation by making a statement or summary of the subject of the dispute and then bringing the summary to the mediation. In other cases, determining the matter(s) at issue can become part of the mediation itself. Consider having the mediator meet the disputants prior to the mediation meeting. This can reduce anxiety, improve settlement odds and increase satisfaction with the mediation process. Ensure that all participants are ready to discuss the dispute in a reasonably objective fashion. Readiness is improved when disputants consider the viability of various outcomes. Provide reasonable estimates of loss and/or damage. Identify other participants. In addition to the disputants and the mediator, the process may benefit from the presence of counsel, subject-matter experts, interpreters, family, etc. Secure a venue for each mediation session. The venue must foster the discussion, address any special needs, protect privacy and allow ample discussion time. Ensure that supporting information such as pictures, documents, corporate records, pay-stubs, rent-rolls, receipts, medical reports, bank-statements, etc., are available. Have parties sign a contract that addresses procedural decisions, including confidentiality, mediator payment, communication technique, etc.
6. **Meeting.** The typical mediation has no formal compulsory elements, although some elements usually occur: establishment of ground rules framing the boundaries of mediation, parties detail their stories, identification of issues, clarify and detail respective interests and objectives, search for objective criteria, identify options, discuss and analyze solutions, adjust and refine proposed solutions, record agreement in writing

Individual mediators vary these steps to match specific circumstances, given that the law does not ordinarily govern mediators' methods.

## Alternatives

Mediation is one of several approaches to resolving disputes. It differs from adversarial resolution processes by virtue of its simplicity, informality, flexibility, and economy. Not all disputes lend themselves well to mediation. Success is unlikely unless: All parties' are ready and willing to participate, All (or no) parties have legal representation. Mediation includes no right to legal counsel, All parties are of legal age (although see peer mediation) and are legally competent to make decisions.

1. Conciliation. Conciliation sometimes serves as an umbrella-term that covers mediation and facilitative and advisory dispute-resolution processes. Neither process determines an outcome, and both share many similarities. For example, both processes involve a neutral third-party who has no enforcing powers. One significant difference between conciliation and mediation lies in the fact that conciliators possess expert knowledge of the domain in which they conciliate. The conciliator can make suggestions for settlement terms and can give advice on the subject-matter. Conciliators may also use their role to actively encourage the parties to come to a resolution. In certain types of dispute the conciliator has a duty to provide legal information. This helps ensure that agreements comply with relevant statutory frameworks. Therefore conciliation may include an advisory aspect. Mediation is purely facilitative: the mediator has no advisory role. Instead, a mediator seeks to help parties to develop a shared understanding of the conflict and to work toward building a practical and lasting resolution. Both mediation and conciliation work to identify the disputed issues and to generate options that help disputants reach a mutually satisfactory resolution. They both offer relatively flexible processes. Any settlement reached generally must have the agreement of all parties. This contrasts with litigation, which normally settles the dispute in favour of the party with the strongest legal argument. In-between the two operates collaborative law, which uses a facilitative process where each party has counsel.
2. Counselling. A counsellor generally uses therapeutic techniques. Some—such as a particular line of questioning—may be useful in mediation. But the role of the counsellor differs from the role of the mediator. The list below is not exhaustive but it gives an indication of important distinctions:
  - A mediator aims for clear agreement between the participants as to how they will deal with specific issues. A counselor is more concerned with the parties gaining a better self-understanding of their individual behavior.

- A mediator, while acknowledging a person's feelings, does not explore them in any depth. A counselor is fundamentally concerned about how people feel about a range of relevant experiences.
  - A mediator focuses upon participants' future goals rather than a detailed analysis of past events. A counselor may find it necessary to explore the past in detail to expose the origins and patterns of beliefs and behavior.
  - A mediator controls the process but does not overtly try to influence the participants or the actual outcome. A counselor often takes an intentional role in the process, seeking to influence the parties to move in a particular direction or consider specific issues.
  - A mediator relies on all parties being present to negotiate, usually face-to-face. A counselor does not necessarily see all parties at the same time.
  - A mediator is required to be neutral. A counselor may play a more supportive role, where appropriate.
  - Mediation requires both parties to be willing to negotiate. Counseling may work with one party even if the other is not ready or willing to participate.
  - Mediation is a structured process that typically completes in one or a few sessions. Counseling tends to be ongoing, depending upon participants' needs and progress.
3. The technique of early neutral evaluation (ENE) provides early focus in complex commercial disputes, and—based on that focus—offers a basis for sensible case-management or a suggested resolution of the entire case in its very early stages. In early neutral evaluation, an evaluator acts as a neutral person to assess the strengths and weaknesses of each of the parties and to discuss the same with parties jointly or in caucuses, so that parties gain awareness (via independent evaluation) of the merits of their case. Parties generally call on a senior counsel or on a panel with expertise and experience in the subject-matter under dispute in order to conduct ENE.
  4. Arbitration. Binding Arbitration is a more direct substitute for the formal process of a court. Binding Arbitration is typically conducted in front of one or three arbitrators. The process is much like a mini trial with rules of evidence, etc. Arbitration typically proceeds faster than court and typically at a lower cost. The Arbiter makes the ultimate decision rather than the parties. Arbiters' decisions are

typically final and appeals are rarely successful even if the decision appears to one party to be completely unreasonable.

5. Litigation. In litigation, courts typically impose binding decisions on the disputing parties. Courts in some cases refer litigants to mediation. Mediation is typically less costly, less formal and less complex. Unlike courts, mediation does not ensure binding agreements and the mediator does not decide the outcome.
6. Shuttle diplomacy. While mediation implies bringing disputing parties face-to-face with each other, the strategy of "shuttle diplomacy", where the mediator serves as a liaison between disputing parties, also sometimes occurs as an alternative

## **Facilitation**

Facilitation is any activity that makes tasks for others easy, or tasks that are assisted. For example:

- Facilitation (business) is used in business and organizational settings to ensure the designing and running of successful meetings and workshops.
- Neural facilitation in neuroscience, is the increase in postsynaptic potential evoked by a 2nd impulse.
- Ecological facilitation describes how an organism profits from the presence of another. Examples are nurse plants, which provide shade for new seedlings or saplings (e.g. using an orange tree to provide shade for a newly planted coffee plant), or plants providing shelter from wind chill in arctic environments.

A person who takes on such a role is called a facilitator. Specifically:

1. A facilitator is used in a variety of group settings, including business and other organizations to describe someone whose role it is to work with group processes to ensure meetings run well and achieve a high degree of consensus
2. The term facilitator is used in psychotherapy where the role is more to help group members become aware of the feelings they hold for one another (see Group psychotherapy)
3. The term facilitator is used in education to refer to a specifically trained adult who sits in class with a disabled, or otherwise needy, student to help them follow the lesson that the teacher is giving (see Disability)

4. The term facilitator is used to describe people engaged in the illegal trafficking of human beings across international borders (see Human trafficking)
5. The term facilitator is used to describe those individuals who arrange adoptions by attempting to match available children with prospective adopters
6. The term facilitator is used to describe someone who assists people with communication disorders to use communication aids with their hands

Scholars define the Life Cycle of Conflict are included four stages. Stage One – Potential Opposition that include Communications, Structure, and Personal Variables. Stage Two – Cognition are Perceived Conflict, and Felt Conflict. Stage Three – Behavior (overt conflict; manifest) includes Accommodation, Avoidance, Compromise, Competition, and Collaboration. Stage four- outcomes are Increased Performance, Decreased Performance. Diagnosing Conflict, and Conflict Focus are argued to have positive impact to make a solution of conflict. It is focus on People-focused: “In-your-face” confrontations – high emotions fueled by moral indignation, and Issue-focused: Rational resource allocation negotiations

Table of Diagnosing Conflict

<b>Conflict Source</b>	<b>Conflict Focus</b>
Personal differences	Perceptions and expectations
Informational deficiency	Misinformation and misrepresentation
Role incompatibility	Goals and responsibilities
Environmental stress	Resource scarcity and uncertainty

Kenneth Thomas draw a conflict modes included determining Your Conflict Style, Conflict Grid, Options/Styles, and When Each Style is Most Appropriate. When to Use Conflict Management Techniques one may do any approaches such as avoiding: small issue, limited time/resources, accommodating: keeping harmony, using small favor to get larger one, Competition: emergencies, when only one right way exists, prevent others from taking advantage. However when to Use Conflict Management Techniques one may do an appropriate approach such as compromising: late in conflict, when partial win is better than none for both parties, or Collaborating: for important issues when time is not a problem, where organizational support exists, when win-win solution is possible. They can use a framework for Collaborative Problem Solving with:

- Establish super-ordinate goals
- Separate the people from the problem
- Focus on interests, not positions
- Invent options for mutual gains
- Use objective criteria for evaluating alternatives
- Define success in terms of real gains, not imaginary losses

One of a concept to effective Negotiations proposed by Harvard Negotiation Project are included 3 steps: Getting to Yes Principles, barriers to Cooperation, and From Confrontation to Cooperation.

Getting to Yes Principles are consisted of Separate the people from the problem, Focus on interest; not positions, Invent options for mutual gain, and Insist on using objective criteria.

Separate the People from the Process are included Negotiations involve substantive AND relational issues and Methods to handle relational issues (See the conflict from their perspective, Active listening, Make emotional issues explicit and legitimate, Acknowledge anger and feelings). Whereas Separate the People from the Process are The KEY to resolution is to focus on substantive issue, You do not have to like someone to reach an agreement, and Dwelling on interpersonal issues clouds the negotiations.

Focus on Interests, Not Positions means Positions are how the other party has learned to express their interest, A position is a one-dimensional point from a much wider range of options, If you focus on their position, the potential answer is quite limited, The KEY is to probe and explore underlying interests, Focusing on the substantive issue helps both parties discuss the underlying factors, and Dealing with actual concerns (versus the “position”) expands the potential options for resolution. Whereas Invent Options for Mutual Gain includes The KEY is to find common ground or “points of agreement”, Good options involve some level of mutual gain or satisfaction, Use a form of brainstorming (Separate inventing from deciding, Focus on the future (not reparations), Listen actively, See the issue from their perspective)

Insist on Using Objective Criteria are the Key is to get the parties to focus on independent standards, fulfilling self-interest rarely works, and Parties need to ask: “How will we know this agreement is fair?” However one may have attention to the barriers and Breakthrough Strategies that included your reaction (We are under stress, become defensive, Strike back, Break-off the discussion).

Go to the balcony (The Key is to control your reaction, Find ways to “rise above” the emotions in the conflict, Approaches: Recognize your feelings,

Know your “hot buttons”, Buy time (get mental distance), and Remember the goal: not to get mad or get even; but to get a good resolution), Their emotion (They have negative feelings, Anger, Hostility, Fear, Distrust). Step to their side (They expect you to respond in kind, The Key is to reduce the emotional content of the conflict, Approaches: Focus on listening (not reacting), Acknowledge their feelings, Focus on “yes”, not “no”), Their position (They have developed a way to describe the issue, Often they are unaware of the underlying needs and interests, Their tendency is to defend this particular view of the issue). Reframe (The Key is to create a problem-solving climate, Important not to encourage a “defend your initial position” situation, Approaches: Restate in more general terms, eventually begin to restate in ways that are more easy for you to accommodate), Their dissatisfaction (Even though you may be pursuing reasonable resolutions. They may have difficulties. They may: Still see as a “win-lose” Be afraid of resolution (the view of their constituents), Stall, Want to retreat to their initial position).

Build them a bridge (Your instinct may be to push them, The Key is to assist them in moving to a mutually acceptable resolution, Approaches: Speak to the joint benefit of certain resolutions, Help them see how a mutually beneficial option is a victory for them), and Their power (They resort to a display of power; They see meeting their self-interest as appropriate and feasible, They retreat to: Win-lose, Power language, Original position).

Educate on consequences (The danger is to escalate your rhetoric in the face of their power move, The Key is to convince them of the need for a mutually acceptable resolution, Approaches: Help them understand the consequences of not getting a mutually acceptable resolution, Make sure they understand your BATNA, Make sure they understand the limitations of their BATNA).

Elements of Negotiations (Preparing for Negotiations) are included: Interests, Options, Alternatives, Legitimacy, Communications, Relationships, and Commitment. Interest's means who are the relevant parties? Clarify the interests, and Underlying interests. Options are what options meet my interests and theirs? and Possible joint gain strategies. Alternatives mean what can I do if we cannot reach an agreement? My BATNA, Their BATNA. And Legitimacy includes External standards, Fairness of the process, and how they can explain their decision. Communications means Testing my assumptions, and Value of reframing. Relationship is Separate people issues from substantive issues, and creating a stronger relationship. Commitment is Elements of the agreement, and Concluding/ implementing the agreement.

Hence the key Lessons are included Conflict is a constant in our life and work, We each have pre-dispositions for handling conflict, It is important to learn to manage our use of the various styles for handling conflict, There are key principles to adopt in negotiations, There are common ways to overcome or combat those barriers, There are standard elements in preparing for negotiations, and We can learn to analyze the elements in any conflict situation and better prepare ourselves to negotiate an effective resolution.

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# CURRICULUM VITAE



**Setyabudi Indartono** was born in Purwokerto Central Java on July 20th, 1972. He finished his elementary school to senior high school in Banjarnegara. SD Krandegan I Banjarnegara of as elementary school, SMPN 1 & SMAN 1 Banjarnegara are his high schools. He continued to study for undergraduate school at Civil Engineering Gadjahmada University from 1991 to 1998, and study for master degree at Magister Management in the same University from 1999 to 2001, whereas his doctoral degree has been finished from National Central University Taiwan.

He has some work experiences included as senior facilitator/trainer at PT Freeport Indonesia Tembapapura, and as director of department general and finance PKU Hospital Bantul. He was a Branch Director of LMT TRUSCTO since 1998. His career as a lecturer is begun from 2003 at Yogyakarta State University.

Some Books and Courses Modules are:

1. Steel Structure Design of PT FI apartments with Staad III Software (1995),
2. Construction Management of PT FI (1997),
3. Justice Party direct Selling (2000),
4. Management Behavior: Mentoring as Solution (2000), Business Research Method: Memory Research (2000),
5. Yogyakarta Islamic Hospital: Managing Performance (2000),
6. Yayasan Bina Sehat: Organization Change and Developmet as a priority need (2000),
7. Human Resource Management: Sociaty central health Bantul Yogyakarta (2000),
8. Organization Design of Region Directorate of Justice Party of Yogyakarta (2000),
9. PT KPI Tembapapura Compensation applications (2000),
10. SWOT (2003),
11. Advance SWOT (2003),

12. Modul TFT Trustco (2004),
13. Leadership (2005),
14. Training For Beginer (2005),
15. Smart Trainer (2005),
16. Strategic trainer (2005),
17. Marketing Advance (UNY, 2005),
18. Lembaga Keuangan (UNY, 2005),
19. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Manajemen Konflik (2013)
20. Panduan praktikum Perkuliahan Operation Research(UNY, 2013),
21. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Pengantar Manajemen (2012)
22. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Strategic Human Resources Management (2012)
23. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Metodologi Riset SDM (2011)
24. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Manajemen Perubahan (2011)
25. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Perilaku Organisasi (2010)
26. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Teknik Proyeksi Bisnis (2010)
27. praktikum Perkuliahan Operation Research(UNY, 2009),
28. Bahan Ajar Perkuliahan Metode Penelitian Bisnis (2009)
29. BukuTeks Conflict management (2014)

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1. Indartono & chen, 2008, Perception of direct and indirect compensations fulfillment on hazardous work environment The relationship with age, tenure, employee's rank and work status, Jurnal Siasat Bisnis, Vol. 12 No.1, pg. 13
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8. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2013, reconsidering organizational commitment construct: empirical test of acceptance band, *Journal of Business, Economics and Political Science*, Vol.2, No.4, Pg. 57-74

## **Conference Proceeding**

1. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2009, Measuring the behavior of individual and group performance: Hierarchical linier modeling approach”, proceeding “Doctoral Program National Qolloquium” Gadjahmada University Indonesia
2. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2012, Desain Kerja untuk Staf pengajar untuk mencapai Kesesuaian dan Kepuasan Kerja, proceeding “ Konvensi Nasional Pendidikan Indonesia VII 2012, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Indonesia

## **International Conference Proceeding**

1. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2010, from static to dynamic perspective of behavior: case of organizational commitment”, proceeding “the First Annual Indonesia Scholars Conference in Taiwan: improving nation competitiveness by strengthening and accelerating independent reseearch”, Vol. 1 no. 1, Tainan Taiwan
2. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2011, “Effect of Servant Leadership on Knowledge characteristics”, proceeding “the Second Annual Indonesia Scholars Conference in Taiwan: Becoming “Asian Tiger” through modern agriculture-based Industry: revitalization and modernization of education, technology, economy, and investment climate in agricultural sector, Vol. 2. no. 1, Taichung Taiwan
3. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2011, Acceptance and Tolerance Limit Phenomena: an Empirical Approach, proceeding “International Sustainability Forum on Islamic Economic and Business, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Indonesia
4. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2012, Reformatting Knowledge and Science Theory Building: Transcendental Point of View, proceeding “the Third Annual Indonesia Scholars Conference in Taiwan: Acceleration and Development of Information and Communication Technology Research basd on Demand: Improving Sustainable Synergy of Academycs, Industry, and Government, Vol. 1. No. 1, Hsinchu Taiwan
5. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2013, Empirical test of acceptance band and tolerance limit of commitment, Proceeding “International Turgut Ozal Congress on Business, Economics and Political Science”, Turgut Ozal University, Ankara Turkey
6. Indartono, Setyabudi, 2014, Study of Commitment Antecedent, “ Seminar Internasional: the Indonesia Labor Ecoomic Development toward the implementaion of AFTA and AEC 2015” Yogyakarta State University

## **Membership and Activities**

1. Member of Forum Dosen Ekonomi dan Bisnis Islam (FORDEBI) 2011-now
2. Head of Management Department Yogyakarta State University, 2013-now

## **International Membership and Activities**

1. Secretary of board, Indonesia Committee for Science and Technology Transfer in Taiwan (IC3T), 2010-now
2. Member of Editorial Board of International Journal of Commerce & Accounting Research (IJCAR), 2011-now
3. Member of Editorial Board of Journal of Arts Science & Commerce Research (RW-JASCR), 2011-now
4. Member of Editorial Board of Asian Journal of Business Ethics (AJBE), 2012-now
5. Member of Editorial Board of International Journal of Organizational Analysis (IJOA), 2012-now

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