RUNNING HEAD: Teaching Emotionally Intelligent Conflict Resolution

Teaching Emotionally Intelligent Conflict Resolution:

A Training Model Based on Theory and Experience

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Table of Contents

Abstract

This project guides the reader through the development of an experiential training design model

to teach individuals how to constructively deal with emotion in conflict. Theories of conflict and

emotion are presented to set the stage for what will be taught. Experiential learning theory

describes the pedagogical method used in the training. First hand experience at four experiential

trainings offers insight into benefits, challenges, and key learning themes. Analysis and

discussion of how these results coincide with experiential learning theory provides ten guidelines

that aid in the design of an emotion and conflict training. Finally, a preliminary training design

framework is presented that reflects the overall project analysis and research. The project

concludes with a general discussion that includes challenges and next steps.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Conflict is an opportunity for change. Constructive approaches to conflict resolution seek to catalyze positive change. Current conflict resolution theories, research, and skills offer individuals, groups, and communities constructive change processes to deal with conflict. Recently, there have been theoretical models that present strategies to change destructive ways individuals deal with emotions in conflict. These models provide a set of practices for intervention that are invaluable to the evolution of conflict resolution processes.

To date, there are no training forums that offer practical experience with the various theoretical models for understanding the role of emotion in conflict resolution. For this reason, I intend to design such a conflict resolution training.

This will be a difficult task because emotion and conflict are complex phenomena that hold different meaning and interpretation for each individual. Effective conflict resolution tools are not easy to practice in trainings. In order to design an effective training the research questions set out for this project include: (1) What are the training methodologies and pedagogical theories that best support learning of emotion and conflict theories? (2) What are the most beneficial techniques from existing training approaches, and what challenges are presented by them? (3) What concepts and techniques from current trainings would be appropriate for the development of a training focused on emotion and conflict resolution?

A review of conflict resolution literature suggests that conflict resolution trainers utilize experiential learning theories to design their trainings (Lewicki, 2002). These current experiential training methods include problem-solving workshops (Abu-Nimer, 1998; Kelman & Cohen, 1976), simulation games (Ebner & Efron, 2005), and role-plays (Lantis, 1998). However, this general discussion does not delineate the specific techniques and pedagogical

methods to most effectively teach conflict resolution concepts. How does a trainer know which method will be most effective in teaching others constructive conflict resolution processes? Moreover, how do trainers know that individuals are learning most effectively? These questions are pertinent to the design of my training to teach the complexity of emotion and conflict theory.

Conflict Resolution Field and Training Design

Conflict resolution scholars corroborate that conflict resolution literature lacks scholarly studies or practitioner models that detail experiential training design pedagogical methods (Jones, 2005; Fisher, 1997; Ebner & Efron, 2005; Lederach, 1995). Only a handful of articles (Fisher, 1997; Rothman, 1997; Lewicki, 2002; Lederach; 1995; Heeden, 2005, MacFarlane & Mayer, 2005) provide an in-depth discussion of the pedagogical underpinnings of conflict resolution practice and training.

Ronald Fisher (1997) describes the discrepancy between the field's design of trainings and lack of documentation by noting, "an incredible range of training experiences are available in negotiation and mediation, the history, rationale and quality of which are not well documented" (p. 338). Tricia Jones (2005) further suggests that lack of documentation of current conflict resolution training methodology and assessment stimulates questions of legitimacy and validity of the current training experiences being offered. As such, conflict resolution trainings may be pedagogically effective; however, without documentation there is no proof of, or knowledge gained, from these methods.

To remedy this discrepancy, Jones (2005) calls on all conflict resolution scholars and practitioners to utilize existing literature and research on learning and teaching from other disciplines to better inform conflict resolution trainings. She explains,

A weakness of our field is that the vast majority of conflict resolution

practitioners who train and educate have not been introduced to learning theory

and learning models. We are not well educated about the processes of education.

The alternative dispute resolution (ADR) field could benefit from programs that

teach practitioner-trainers more pedagogical and andragogical insights. (p. 132)

This call for action by Jones (2005) is timely and underscores the importance of reflection on

pedagogical disciplines. She accurately points out that the growth of the conflict resolution field

depends on the ability of scholars and practitioners to effectively educate others in current

theories and practices.

Summary

Conflict resolution processes are complex and difficult to convey in theory. Experiential

pedagogical training methods appears to be the most widely used training model in the field and

may help to mitigate the complexity of the concepts being taught. The conflict resolution field

currently suggests the design of an effective training with knowledge of theoretical concepts and

a review of pedagogical methodology.

CHAPTER 2: METHODS

In response to the current conflict resolution training literature, the method for designing my training has multiple phases. The first involves an extensive interdisciplinary literature review of theoretical foundations of conflict; emotion in conflict; emotion and conflict models; and experiential learning theory, particularly how it applies to conflict resolution and group learning. Second, four experiential trainings are reviewed and discussed. In the third phase, nine guidelines are developed to be implemented in a new training design based on my assessments. The final phase is the use of these nine guidelines in an experiential training, which I develop from my research.

This project begins by building a foundation of theoretical concepts that will be taught in my training. I provide an overview of experiential learning theory to demonstrate my pedagogical methodology for teaching participants in the training. I have chosen this method because I am a strong proponent of experiential learning. I believe the skills and strategies of our field must be experienced and practiced to be applied constructively in real life situations. An experiential learning group provides an opportunity to explore the interpersonal emotional experience of relationships and conflict. Therefore, my review of pedagogical theory examines experiential learning methods and theory and experiential learning methodology in groups.

The four different trainings in the conflict resolution and organizational development field analyzed here are trainings I personally attended. Each training coincides with my topic and focus on teaching concepts related to conflict resolution, emotion, group dynamics, and interpersonal relationships. The analysis method is an examination of my personal journals from each training that identifies thematic benefits, challenges, and key learning themes.

From these analyses, I derive nine guidelines to follow in the design of an effective experiential training. Finally, I present just such a training, which implements my nine guidelines to produce the most effective learning experience of emotion and conflict resolution skills and theory.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

This section examines theoretical concepts of conflict, emotion in conflict, emotion and conflict models, and experiential learning theory.

Conflict

Conflict has many definitions and explanations in terms of its emergence, processes, and outcomes. Conflict is a social construct and like emotion, conflict has individual meaning and interpretation for each person. The eminent conflict resolution scholar, Morton Deutsch (1973), recognized the interdependent relationship between orientation to conflict and conflict strategy. Deutsch saw that individuals could adopt a competitive or a cooperative approach to conflict. Deutsch identified destructive conflict processes as resulting from a competitive orientation to conflict whereas more constructive conflict processes were approached with a cooperative orientation. This general framework revolutionized the conflict resolution field and its theories, and promoted benefits and best processes of cooperative approaches and strategies to conflict resolution practice and research. Kevin Avruch (2004) reiterates Deutsch's point by stating, "how we conceptualize the root causes of conflict will determine to a large degree the sorts of conflict resolution theories and practices we favor or even think possible" (p. 24).

Various conflict resolution scholars present conflict theories that demonstrate the possibility for constructive conflict resolution. Overall, conflict resolution scholars agree that conflict is comprised of some variation of cognition, emotion, and behavior (Deutsch, 1982; Coser, 1956; Fisher, 2000; Mayer, 2000). However, theorists have surfaced a variety of overlapping and differing theories as to why conflict exists. These definitions are vast, fluid, and can be contradictory leading to confusion for workshop participants. Ronald Fisher (2000) asserts that all conflict arises from elements of (1) perceived incompatibilities, (2) behaviors, and

(3) sentiments resulting over resources, values, power, and human needs. Bernie Mayer (2000) offers a similar definition: "Conflict may be viewed as a feeling, a disagreement, a real or perceived incompatibility of interest, inconsistent worldviews, or a set of behaviors" (p. 3). Like Fisher, Mayer (2000) describes conflict along three dimensions of cognition, emotion, and behavior. But Mayer adds a variety of different variables as the source of conflict – human needs, communication, emotions, history, structure, and values.

For the purposes of my training, I will offer Mayer's (2000) simple and straightforward framework because it offers a quick way for everyone to speak the same language. This framework also illustrates the dual role that emotion plays in conflict. I like that this theory defines conflict as emotional and defines emotions as a source of conflict. This construction of conflict corroborates the use of conflict resolution strategies focused on emotion.

Conflict is Dynamic and Dimensional

Cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements frame conflict (Mayer, 2000). The *cognitive* dimension is how we come to perceive conflict through an assessment of the congruence of our needs, interests, wants, or values with someone else (Mayer). This appraisal is both objective and subjective and engages the other person in conflict whether they perceive the incongruence or not. The *emotional* dimension is the physiological response that signals feelings that we are in conflict. However, this does not mean that emotions are expressed outwardly or that the other person in conflict is feeling the same way. The *behavioral* dimension is the approach we take to conflict whether through expression of our feelings, articulation of our perceptions, acting on our impulses, or in deciding to do nothing at all (Mayer). This behavioral action can be destructive or constructive and has the overall purpose of expressing the conflict

and/or addressing needs that have been unmet. Overall, our awareness and approach to each of these elements affect a cooperative or competitive orientation to conflict.

Mayer (2000) explains that each dimension affects the other dimensions. For example, if an individual cognitively appraises a situation in a certain way this will cause a certain feeling and behavior. Likewise, when an individual approaches a conflict in a certain way this will result in a certain perception and feeling toward the conflict. Most importantly, Mayer states that none of these dimensions is static; rather they are constantly and frequently changing, especially because individuals and groups behave and react differently to the dynamics of these dimensions. The dynamic interdependent nature of conflict demonstrates the difficulty of isolating or controlling one variable (Deutsch, 1982). However, the interdependent nature of conflict also illustrates how awareness of one variable, like emotion, can positively affect the other variables.

Sources of Conflict

Mayer's wheel of conflict (see figure 1 on the next page) proposes that at the root of every conflict lies human needs and that "people engage in conflict either because they have needs that are met by the conflict process itself or because they have (or believe they have) needs that are inconsistent with those of others" (Mayer, 2000, p. 8). These needs are embedded within other sources (e.g., communication, emotions, history, structure, and values) that generate and define conflict.

Communication

Communicating about complex matters is difficult. Mayer (2000) points out that conflict often escalates because individuals make assumptions about the accuracy of communication. Instead of confirming their understandings, individuals often act on their assumptions.

Figure 1. The wheel of conflict (Mayer, 2000)
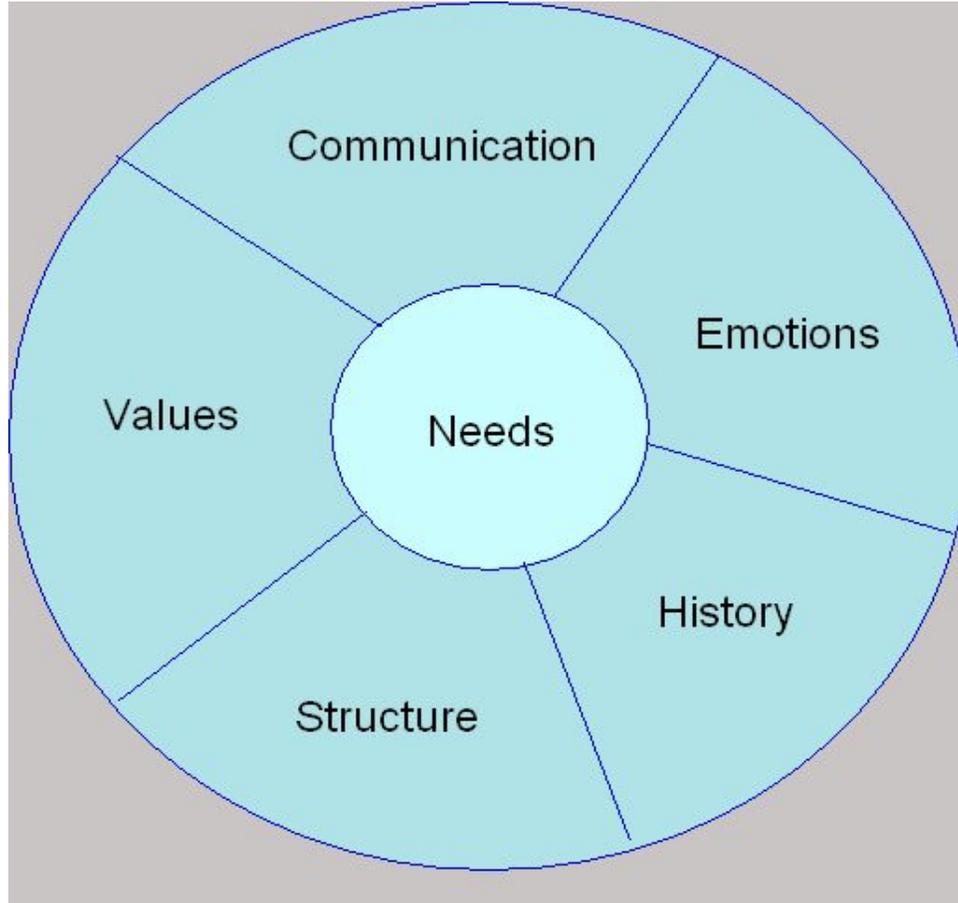
Emotions

Mayer's framework illustrates how emotions both frame and fuel conflict (Jones, 2001; Mayer, 2000). Emotions in conflict act to escalate and de-escalate a conflict. As a source, emotions can prevent, moderate, and/or control conflict. Said differently, recognizing emotion in conflict can aid in constructive emotional conflict management, which emphasizes the need for training on emotion as a source of conflict.

Values

This source of conflict has to do with individual core beliefs about what is right and wrong, good and bad, and other moral principles. Conflicts that center on values are usually

called identity-based conflicts and are usually perceived as intractable because individuals are not quick to compromise core beliefs.

History

The force of history cannot be ignored. Conflicts cannot be solved without knowledge of complex interactions that have occurred over time. The history of a conflict has potential to play a role in the identity of disputants.

Structure

This is the external framework, such as a government or institution that applies force on a conflict. Mayer (2000) explains, "The elements of a structure may include available resources, decision-making procedures, time constraints, communication procedures, and physical settings" (p. 12). A structure can exacerbate conflict even when parties are willing to cooperate. Structural elements that affect conflict are distribution of resources, access to information, organizational structure, and political pressures to name a few.

Summary

The way in which conflict is defined and perceived deeply impacts the approaches, processes, and outcomes that follow. Conflict depends on an appraisal process. This understanding of conflict offers autonomy and opportunity for individuals to deal with conflict in functional ways given the right tools and frame. Emotions are central to the appraisal process in conflict as both a frame and source.

Emotion in Conflict

What is emotion? Scholars have grappled with this question since the days of Socrates and Aristotle. Most generally, "emotion is a felt experience" (Shapiro, 2005, p. 4). An emotion should be differentiated from a feeling. A feeling can be viewed as the subjective experience of

an emotion that arises physiologically in the brain (Damasio, 1994). Emotion is something you *think* and *feel*. Currently, researchers continue to seek understanding of what emotion is through theory and experimental research involving human subjects. Empirical research questions include: what exactly constitutes emotion, where it comes from, why we have it, and how we come to deal with it. This is by no means an exhaustive list of the questions being addressed in current theory and research. Yet, this short list of questions easily illuminates the multifaceted nature of emotion and its research as well as the parallels to conflict research. Since there is no one definition of emotion, a specific focus on what emotion means in the context of conflict is necessary.

<div align="center">*Foundations of Emotion Theory*</div>

A review of emotion theory focused on application to conflict will lead to a better understanding of current theoretical models of emotion in the conflict resolution field. (For a thorough review and discussion of other topics on emotion see Lewis & Haviland; 2000; Dalgleish, 1999.)

What emotion in conflict?

To provide a standard definition of emotion in conflict is a challenge because it is a subjective experience. You can be aware of it or not, experience it as pleasure or pain, and like conflict, it can cause one to react physiologically, cognitively, and/or behaviorally. In the most recent chapter on 'Emotion and Conflict' in the *Handbook of Conflict Resolution*, an awareness of both positive and negative emotions in conflict is suggested for the constructive resolution of conflict (Lindner, 2006). So, what aspects of emotion in conflict can support constructive conflict resolution?

Focus on emotional experience. The current theoretical models in the conflict resolution field suggest focusing on the tangible aspect of emotion, which is called the emotional experience (Jones, 2001; Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). Individuals have an emotional experience when they consciously perceive and interpret emotion; basically they are fully aware that they are experiencing emotion. This awareness is a great place to begin understanding the ways in which emotion can support conflict resolution. The idea of emotional experience has evolved from many scholars who study emotion (Lewis, 2000) and scholars who study emotion in the conflict resolution field (Bodtker & Jameson; Jones).

What is emotional experience?

Emotional experience occurs when an individual perceives their emotional state internally, then cognitively interprets what this emotional state means to them through the specific context they are in, the behavior of others, and their own emotional expression (Lewis, 2000). In sum, emotional experience is caused by emotional states and emotional expressions that are then framed by cognitions, physiological responses, and behaviors (Cornelius, 1996; Lewis, 2000; Stein, Trabasso & Liwag, 1993; Lazarus, 1998). Emotional experience is comprised of the same three components as conflict: behavior, physiology, and cognition. The sources of emotional experience are emotional states and emotional expression.

Emotional states. Emotional states are the pure internal experiences of emotion (Lewis, 2000). As a source of emotional experience, emotional states are not always easy to identify because an individual can consciously or unconsciously deny or repress that an emotional state even exists. For instance, a person may have an emotional state of sadness, but choose to repress outward displays of sadness due to context and cultural norms (Lewis). Likewise, this same person may be unaware of an emotional state of anger because of psychological reasons such as

denial and repression (Lewis). In a conflict situation, a focus on emotional states alone would not be constructive because of their complexity and intra-psychic nature. Therefore, useful conflict resolution strategies focus on emotional experience because emotional states are perceived.

Emotional expression. The external nature of emotional expression presumably presents a better container in which to focus on conflict resolution strategies. This is because emotional expressions are thought to be an accurate translation of emotion through external changes on a person's body and face, through their voice, or actions (Lewis, 2000). Paul Ekman and colleague Wallace Friesen (Ekman, 1991; 1994; Ekman & Friesen, 1998) have found that when we experience emotion it is both involuntarily and voluntarily expressed on the face. Ekman has also argued that particular facial behaviors are universally associated with particular emotions. This suggests that an individual could potentially know a person's emotional state by reading their facial expressions (Ekman & Friesen). This has stimulated the cataloging of hundreds of facial expressions matched with the corresponding emotional state. Ekman is said to be able to detect emotional states from facial expressions and been referred to as a quasi-human lie detector.

However, Ekman and Friesen (1998) admit that facial expression is not always a true reflection of our internal emotional state because (1) not all facial expression is involuntary; individuals can quickly act to control or change emotional expressions and (2) cultural differences will impact the eliciting and display of emotional expressions. Strategic Emotions Theory (Morris & Keltner, 2000; Bell & Song, 2005) refers to the masking or displaying of emotions to provoke the other party in conflict. This conflict strategy is further complicated by the fact that the meanings and interpretations associated with emotional expressions may differ

culturally and in different social contexts (Ekman, 1998; Lewis, 2000). Therefore, unless an

individual has studied Ekman's catalog of facial expressions, emotional expressions alone are a

difficult container to rely on for developing constructive emotion strategies.

Three Components of Emotional Experience

Below are the three components that comprise emotional experience expressed through the

lens of conflict resolution scholars.

Behavioral. Behavior is the way emotion gets expressed (Bodkter & Jameson, 2001). It is

the voluntary or involuntary expression of verbal and non-verbal behaviors (Bodtker & Jameson;

Jones, 2001). The behavior or actions we take are guided by cultural display rules that tell us

which emotional expressions are appropriate to the context (Bodtker & Jameson; Fisher &

Shapiro, 2005).

Physiological. This is the felt component of emotion (Jones, 2001). It is the bodily

experience of emotion that makes emotion feel so real (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). One can try

to control the expression of emotion, but your body still experiences physiological changes

(Fisher & Shapiro, 2005).

Cognitive. This is the aspect of emotion that involves reasoning, intuition, and perception.

Theories suggest that emotion is experienced in a particular way as a result of how a situation is

assessed or appraised cognitively (Lazarus, 1991; 1998; Frijda, 1998). The way we appraise a

situation therefore directly influences our emotional experience because our perceptions

including stereotypes and situational attributions affects appraisals, which then affects emotional

experience. This suggests that appraisals are a critical component in an individual's emotional

experience of conflict. Biases and various attribution tendencies influence one's emotional

orientation toward the conflict (Bodtker & Jameson). This implies that emotion and conflict are

interdependent and that cognitive appraisals are a gateway to understanding how emotion affects conflict and how conflict affects emotion.

Cognitive Appraisal Theory

Cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; 1998) suggests that each person evaluates their emotions using primary and secondary appraisals. In primary appraisal, individuals interpret concerns to personal well-being and evaluate situations based on goal relevance, goal congruence, and ego-involvement (Lazarus). In secondary appraisal, individuals assess coping options during the emotional experience and evaluate situations based on accountability, coping potential, and future expectancy (Lazarus).

Cognitive Appraisal and Conflict

In a conflict situation the way we cognitively perceive our emotional experience has serious implications for our conflict strategy (Jones, 2001; Bell & Song, 2005). Conflict occurs over perceived incompatibilities (e.g., goal congruence) and our interpretation of these incompatibilities results in positive or negative emotion (Bell & Song). Further, these positive and/or negative emotions that result from the cognitive appraisal process create a state of action readiness impulses, "to approach or avoid, desires to shout and sing or move, and the urge to retaliate; or, on occasion, [there] is an absence of desire to do anything, or a lack of interest, or feelings of loss of control" (Frijda, 1998). Therefore, the cognitive appraisal process of the emotional experience can prompt physiological and behavioral responses and can influence an individual's conflict orientation strategy.

Bell and Song (2005) differentiate two types of emotional experience in conflict; the *intrapersonal*, is the private emotional experience and the *interpersonal,* are the emotions experienced and observed by individuals in social contexts and processes. Although they are

differentiated, these emotional experiences are not mutually exclusive. Lewis (2000)

summarizes, "All emotional experience does involve an evaluative interpretive process,

including the interpretation of internal states, context, behavior of others, and meaning given by

the culture" (p. 226). It is within this evaluative interpretive process, intra and/or inter personal,

that conflict resolution strategies can be developed and applied to help individuals more

effectively deal with their emotions and conflict situations.

Emotional Experience in Conflict Resolution

Emotions are both socially constructed and biologically innate although there is debate

over which is more important (Jones, 2001). The majority of emotion scholars contend that

emotions are inherently social (Oatley, Jenkins & Stein, 1998). Because conflict is a social

phenomenon and its management and resolution require social interaction, I will emphasize the

social constructionist view that emotions are shared scripts that individuals learn through social

and cultural mechanisms (Jones). This understanding maintains that individuals have

preconceived definitions of emotion while also supporting the possibility of formulating new

perspectives and appraisals of emotion in conflict.

Emotion cannot be ignored

It is most commonly thought that emotion is separate from rational thought and can be

controlled and ignored, especially in conflict (Jaggar, 1989; Jones, 2001). This social

construction has had many negative implications for individual emotional expression (Jaggar).

For example, conflict resolution scholars have historically advised negotiators not to show any

sign of emotion (Jones; Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Thompson, 2005). The promotion of

rationality and suppression of emotion has ranged from advice such as "separate the people from

the problem" (Fisher, Patton, & Ury, 1981, p. 54) to effective negotiators maintain self-control

"especially of emotions and their visibility" (Raiffa, 1982, p. 120 as cited by Thompson, 2005).

The negative conceptualization of emotion pervasive in western culture is still prevalent today (Jaggar, 1989). However, recent research and theory on emotion, as well as the emergence of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Meyer, 1998; Goleman, 1995), have caused a perspective shift among scholars with regard to the benefits of emotion. Today, many scholars in the conflict resolution field contend that emotion should always be considered in conflict situations (Fisher & Shapiro, 2005; Jones, 2001; Jones & Bodtker, 2001; Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). The concept that emotions are always present in conflict may be hard to swallow at first. This is especially true for those who have grown up in western culture where social norms expect people to control or suppress their emotions. Jaggar (1989) explains that this lack of awareness or suppression of emotion does not mean emotions are not affecting us:

> Lack of awareness of emotions certainly does not mean that emotions are not present subconsciously or unconsciously or that subterranean emotions do not exert a continuing influence on people's articulated values and observations, thoughts and actions. (p. 154)

This assertion supports the interdependent relationship between cognition and emotion. Thus, reason and rational thought are influenced by emotion and likewise emotion is influenced by rational thought (Adler, Rosen, & Silverstein, 1998).

Overall, the current research and theory has demonstrated that ignoring emotion in conflict will actually lead to less constructive processes and outcomes (Thompson; Carnevale & Isen, 1986). In fact, when emotion is ignored or repressed in conflict the feelings tend to become stronger (Fisher & Shaprio, 2005; Jaggar, 1989). Studies have assessed negotiators' use of emotion and discovered that positive emotions will benefit specific conflict resolution strategies such as problem solving, decision-making,

cooperation, and creativity (Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Isen, Daubman & Nowicki, 1998; Seligman, 2002; Oatley, Jenkins & Stein, 1998). Furthermore, the use of anger has been found to be less effective in creating value in conflict (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Rai, 1997).

However, this does not imply one should ignore or repress negative emotion. On the contrary, negative emotion has been regarded as instrumental to effective learning and supporting change in conflict resolution processes (Lindner, 2006; Fisher & Shapiro, 2005). Adler, Rosen, and Silverstein (1998) assert that, "[Both positive and negative] emotions reflect our values and motivate us to pursue them. The emotions we display help us signal the other party [in a conflict] about our intentions and give us critical feedback about the other side's mood and willingness to agree" (p. 167). Studies have also shown that emotions are contagious; married couples in a variety of conflict scenarios were found to reciprocate both positive and negative emotion (Gottman, 1993;1994; 1998). Thus, a self-awareness of negative emotion within oneself and the other party can be used as a tool to transform conflict processes. Overall, emotion is inevitable and functional, just like conflict.

Summary

This section has demonstrated that emotion is complex and often times intangible. A focus on emotional experience presents an opportunity to deal with the tangible, cognitive aspects of emotion. Nevertheless, both negative and positive emotions affect individual cognitions and perceptions. Moreover, a focus on emotional experience, particularly cognitive appraisals, delineates the interdependence of emotion and conflict as well as the opportunity for learning new strategies for dealing with emotional experience in conflict. The question remains how best to teach others to translate these theories into practice.

Emotion and Conflict Models

This section presents a review of theoretical models offering advice on what do with emotions in conflict. These build on the most recent research mentioned, and provide new theory of how best to deal with the emotional process in conflict. These models will be the specific prescriptive, theoretical focus of my training and will be taught through didactic and experiential exercises.

5 Principles of Emotion and Conflict

Tricia Jones (2001) contends that a simplistic understanding of how positive or negative emotion impacts creativity and conflict orientation is not enough. She suggests that a deeper understanding of how we communicate our emotional experience in conflict will lead to a fuller comprehension of how to constructively use emotion in conflict. Jones has identified five basic principles (see figure 2) that link emotional communication and conflict processes. These can be used as a general guide to understanding the impact of emotions on conflict and vice versa. These five principles present a simplified way for training participants to understand the importance of emotion in conflict communication processes.

Figure 2. Principles of Emotion

Basic Principles of Emotion and Conflict	
Principle 1	Conflict is Emotionally Defined
Principle 2	Conflict is Emotionally Valenced
Principle 3	Emotional Communication Morally Frames Conflict
Principle 4	Emotional Communication Affects Identity Issues that Influence Conflict.
Principle 5	Conflict is Relational

1. Conflict is Emotionally Defined

Jones (2001) points out that emotions are elicited by the same events that cause conflict. Conflict and emotions both occur due to a perceived interruption of plans and/or discrepancies between goals. Jones contends that an individual experiences emotion from this primary appraisal process, which then frames the conflict. Bodtker and Jameson (2001) explain, "we do not realize we are in conflict until we recognize that we are emotional about something" (p. 263). As a result, the conflict frame is emotionally defined from the start and further influenced by social ideologies of emotion and cultural display rules of emotion.

2. Conflict is Emotionally Valenced

Conflict is emotionally defined, however conflict is not always an intense emotional experience. The intensity depends on one's emotional socialization based on learned appropriate and advantageous ways of expressing emotion during an emotional experience. Jones suggests that a person can control the intensity of their emotional expression. Furthermore, in conflict the intensity of emotional experience and expression may fluctuate, which will impact the conflict process itself (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). The important point is that emotional intensity can act as an indicator of important issues in the conflict, which Bodtker and Jameson suggest alludes to a party's conflict orientation. This principle also establishes that people not only differ in their emotional intensity in conflict, they also differ in how much they are affected by the emotional intensity of others.

3. Emotional Communication Morally Frames Conflict

Emotion tends to be value-based which frames issues in conflict. For example, events are appraised as good or bad, fair or unfair, compatible or not compatible. This provides a powerful lens into the other party's ideological frame of the conflict, which may surface recognition of

what a party needs in terms of possible resolutions. Bodtker and Jameson (2001) explain, "opportunities to resolve conflict or manage tensions will be different if one is morally offended by a co-worker's actions rather than merely inconvenienced. Indeed, recognition by the "offender" of the moral "offense" may be all that is needed to restore the relationship" (264). Emotional communication reveals why issues in conflict are understood in a certain way and offers insight into how they might be resolved.

4. Emotional Communication Affects Identity Issues that Influence Conflict

Emotions can only be experienced if we have a sense of self (Lewis, 2000). Jones points out that emotion results from a perception that an event is personally important. When identity issues are a priority in conflict the emotional experience tends to be more intense. The emotional responses in these conflicts can provide insight into the identity needs and face concerns of disputants (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001).

Jones emphasizes the importance of identity in interpersonal and intergroup relations. When an individual identifies with a group there is a tendency to find differences between the *in-group* and other *out* groups. Social Identity Theory states when a group identity is in conflict individuals of that group will be motivated to attribute negative definitions to an out group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This negative attribution process is linked to emotional responses that can lead to destructive escalation in conflict. However, the expression of emotional responses to identity issues can also help to move a conflict forward when effectively managed (Bodtker & Jameson).

5. Conflict is Relational

The relational definition that parties attribute to themselves in conflict can impact the emotional experience of the parties (Bodtker & Jameson). Likewise, emotional responses of

parties may convey relational definitions that impact the conflict. Bodtker and Jameson explain, "The preconceived nature (i.e., definition) of the relationship between the parties frames the meaning of the emotional communication, and subsequent emotional communication creates (i.e., challenges or reaffirms) the relational definition" (p. 265). For example, if one party has a perceived higher status, social norms and display rules may frame the emotional communication in the conflict. This emotional communication orientation then impacts the conflict orientation. Power and status can be issues that trigger emotion and more conflict. Bodtker and Jameson suggest identifying and being aware of this aspect of emotionality and impact on conflict.

Emotional Style

As mentioned, each individual has a particular way of expressing themselves in regard to their emotional experience. Leigh Thompson (2005) explains that, "If approach (interests, rights, and power) is the *packaging* of negotiators' goals, then emotions are the *delivery* of the package" (p. 113). Thompson labels the way in which we deliver our emotional experience to others emotional style. According to Thompson, Medvec, Seiden, and Kopelman (2000) there are three distinct emotional styles in conflict processes which have implications for distributive and integrative bargaining as well as the future relationship of the parties in conflict (See Figure 3, Thompson, 2005, p. 114).

Poker Face/Rational Style

The first emotional style is the unemotional and rational poker face approach. This style is consistent with the belief that emotions are not rational and are a sign of vulnerability.

Positive Style

The second style is a positive approach that involves feeling and expressing your positive emotions while simultaneously supporting positive emotion in the other person. The positive

approach reflects current research that positive emotion promotes constructive conflict resolution processes.

Negative Style

The final style to emotion utilizes negative emotion such as anger or sadness as a tactic to manipulate the other party so that they are more likely to concede. The negative style is continues to be used as a strategy due to the consistent positive reinforcement of the other party giving in to demands. This presupposes that the other party is not prepared to deal with the negative display of emotion.

Figure 3. Emotional Styles

EMOTIONAL STYLES			
	Rational Style	*Positive Style*	*Negative Style*
Focus	Conceal or repress emotion	Create positive emotion in other party/ Create rapport	Use irrational-appearing emotion to intimidate or control other party
Distributive Strategies	Citing norms of fair distributions	Compromise for the sake of the relationship	Threats Often tough bargaining
Integrative Strategies	Systematic analysis of interests	Positive emotion stimulates creative thinking	Negative emotion may inhibit integrative bargaining
Implications for future negotiations and relationship	Not likely to say or do anything regrettable, but also may come across as "distant"	Greater feelings of commitment to relationship partner	Pressure to carry out threats or loose credibility

Understanding your Emotional Style

One may use different styles in different contexts, however the important point is being aware that there are different styles and strategies to emotion. Thompson (2004) and her colleagues created an emotional style questionnaire to assess individual emotional style (see

figure 4). Thompson (2005) also refers to a study by Kopelman, Rosette, and Thompson (2004) that found the poker face/rational style and the positive emotional style as more effective than the negative emotional style in obtaining desired outcomes. Further, the study found that the positive style led to a more constructive future relationship than the other styles.

Emotional Style and Conflict Resolution

Emotional style awareness benefits conflict resolution processes because it prepares individuals for the variety of styles and causes individuals to reflect on the effectiveness of their current styles. Figure 4 on the next page provides valuable information for individuals to evaluate their emotional conflict style effectiveness. This will be a useful framework to use in my training because participants will be able to reflect on their style and experiment with using other styles and/or enhance their current style to see what might happen.

Figure 4. Emotional Style Questionnaire

Emotional Style Questionnaire

Read each statement, and indicate whether you think it is true or false for you in a negotiation situation. Force yourself to answer each one as generally true or false (i.e. do not respond with "I don't know").

1. In a negotiation situation, it is best to "keep a cool head."
2. I believe that in negotiations you can "catch more flies with honey."
3. It is important to me that I maintain control in a negotiation situation.
4. Establishing a positive sense of rapport with the other party is key to effective negotiation.
5. I am good at displaying emotions in negotiation to get what I want.
6. Emotions are the downfall of effective negotiation.
7. I definitely believe that the "squeaky wheel gets the grease" in many negotiation situations.
8. If you are nice in negotiations, you can get more than if you are cold or neutral.
9. In negotiation, you have to "fight fire with fire."
10. I honestly think better when I am in a good mood.
11. I would never want to let the other party know how I really felt in a negotiation.
12. I believe that in negotiation, you can "catch more flies with a fly-swatter."
13. I have used emotion to manipulate others in negotiations.
14. I believe that good moods are definitely contagious.
15. It is very important to make a very positive first impression when negotiating.
16. The downfall of many negotiators is that they lose personal control in a negotiation.
17. It is best to keep a "poker face" in negotiation situations.
18. It is very important to get the other person to respect you when negotiating.
19. I definitely want to leave the negotiation with the other party feeling good.
20. If the other party gets emotional, you can use it to your advantage in a negotiation.
21. I believe that it is important to "get on the same wavelength" as the other party.
22. It is important to demonstrate "resolve" in a negotiation.
23. If I sensed that I was not under control, I would call a temporary halt to the negotiation.
24. I would not hesitate to make a threat in a negotiation situation if I felt the other party would believe it.

Scoring Yourself

Computing your "R" score: Look at items #1, #3, #6, #11, #16, #17, #20, #23. Give yourself 1 point for every "true" answer and subtract 1 point for every "false" answer. Then combine your scores for you R score (rational).

Computing your "P" score: Look at items #2, #4, #8, #10, #14, #15, #19, #21. Give yourself 1 point for every "true" answer and subtract 1 point for every "false" answer. Then combine your P score (positive).

Computing your "N" score: Look at items #5, #7, #12, #13, #18, #22, #24. Give yourself 1 point for every "true" answer and subtract 1 point for every "false" answer. Then combine your scores for your N score (negative).

The Five Core Concerns

Behind every emotion there is a concern (Frijda, 1998; Fisher & Shapiro, 2005). Instead of focusing on the complexity of each emotion and its individual concern, Roger Fisher and Dan Shapiro (2005) propose a framework of five core concerns that motivate complex emotions in conflict situations. By using the five core concerns framework, individuals can stimulate a positive emotional experience in oneself and in others. This advice provides a reappraisal process to deal with emotion in conflict that supports constructive conflict resolution processes.

Shapiro (2002) describes the core concerns as resulting from "relational identity concerns" (i.e., how we perceive that others see us). According to Fisher and Shapiro (2005), the core concerns are "human wants that are important to almost everyone in virtually every negotiation. Even experienced negotiators are often unaware of the many ways in which these concerns motivate their decisions" (p.15). The core concerns illuminate the connection between relational identity concerns and emotions. The core concerns are appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role.

Appreciation

This first core concern underscores the importance of appreciating others, which the authors note as being at the root of all the core concerns. It is not just the acknowledgement of the importance of appreciation, but the actual expression of appreciation that "takes on an added value as both a core concern and a strategic action since honestly expressing appreciation is often the best way for one person to meet many of the core concerns of another" (Fisher & Shapiro, p. 27). The authors suggest three elements to expressing appreciation to your adversary. The first is to understand the other's point of view, asking yourself in what ways the other side may feel you do not understand them. Second, is to find merit in what the other thinks, feels, or does.

And lastly, expressing appreciation communicates your understanding through words and actions.

Expressing appreciation assuages the emotional experience of the other side while at the same time benefits the one expressing appreciation. This is because the other side will "tend to feel more at ease and cooperative" (Fisher & Shapiro, p. 27). The authors recommend using role reversal techniques, as well as mediation tools such as reflecting back and thinking impartially, in an attempt to honestly communicate your appreciation to the other side.

Affiliation

The second concern encourages the negotiator to build honest affiliation. The authors point out that, "If we feel affiliated with a person or group, we experience little emotional distance" (Fisher and Shapiro, p.54). This supports the conflict resolution dictum that cooperative behavior increases the likelihood of constructive conflict processes (Deutsch 1973; Sherif, 1998). In order to build affiliation one must look for "links" with the other party both structurally and personally. Fisher and Shapiro propose discussing "affiliation-enhancing subjects such as family, personal concerns, personal opinions, asking advice, and sharing uncertainty" (p. 63) while at the same time creating enough space for the other side and yourself. Techniques to build affiliation include, indebting oneself to the other party, keeping in touch, and holding informal meetings.

Autonomy

Exercising the right to make our own decisions is a very delicate balance in a conflict situation and has an enormous impact on the emotions of each disputant. Fisher and Shapiro advise individuals to be aware of their own right to autonomy while at the same time being cognizant of the autonomy of an adversary (Fisher & Shapiro, 2005). The core concern of

autonomy suggests empowering individual autonomy and the autonomy of others by making recommendations, inventing options, and conducting joint brainstorming.

Negotiators should be mindful not to impinge on the other side's autonomy as this might trigger a negative appraisal process within an adversary. Fisher and Shapiro (2005) recommend consulting the other side before making decisions, inviting input from all stakeholders, even ones who are not at the table, and to keep the stakeholders informed of any decisions that have been made (Fisher & Shapiro, 2005). Often in the heat of conflict there are negative emotions and individuals feel their autonomy has already been impinged upon. A disputant can acknowledge this by reflecting on how personal autonomy has influenced the tension and emotional experience between them.

Status

The fundamental mantra to this core concern is to give credit where credit is due. Fisher and Shapiro (2005) describe the relationship between status and emotionality as well as the impact it has on the disputants by noting, "If our status is demeaned, we may feel embarrassed, ashamed, or frustrated, and we may act unwisely" (p. 95). Conversely, the authors discuss the positive impact that recognition of status can have on our emotions: "Status elevates both our self-esteem and the esteem with which others view us" (p. 95). To maintain an environment of cooperation, individuals should reflect on individual social status expectations, which is relative in terms of experience and expertise. Other reflections on status should include delineating false assumptions or misperceptions about the other party's status.

More tools to help disputants de-escalate negative emotions concerning status include a recognition of the other party's high status and as well as their own. One can also assess the "weight" of the other party's status concerning the dispute. Lastly, disputants should also be

weary of "status spillover" (p. 108), when one party has high status in one area and uses it as the default for all areas. Disputants must reflect on how this is affecting their core concern of status.

Role

This core concern is identified in terms of fulfillment, which comes with the recognition of the other four core concerns. When roles are not fulfilled emotions can easily turn negative. According to Fisher and Shapiro (2005), "in a negotiation, playing an unfulfilling role can lead to resentment, anger, or frustration" (p. 115). The authors recommend three key qualities to build a more fulfilling role. First, the role should have a clear purpose, second the role should be personally meaningful, and finally the role should be thought of as a matter of whom you really are, not whom you pretend to be (Fisher & Shapiro, 2005). A distinction should also be made between conventional roles (e.g., your job title) and temporary roles (e.g., being an advocate for a cause).

In a conflict, Fisher and Shapiro (2005) advise that disputants clarify both their conventional roles and temporary roles. Questions of clarification include; what role expectations are present in the conflict and what perceived roles stimulate negative emotions? Knowing the answers to these questions can stimulate a reappraisal of the roles through appreciative perspective taking and re-framing which may mitigate the negative primary appraisal process. The recognition of individual autonomy in choosing a role and individual autonomy in delegating an adversary's role will create a collaborative setting for both parties. This will simultaneously stimulate more cooperative emotions while increasing the core concern of autonomy.

Mediating with Heart in Mind

Tricia Jones and Andrea Bodtker (2001) critically examine how the three key

components of emotional experience (expressive/behavioral, physiological, and cognitive) affect

the conflict resolution process and offer strategies to deal with them more constructively. Jones

and Bodtker (2001) frame this advice for mediators to use to help disputants deal with emotions

in mediation. However, for the purpose of my training I will translate this advice from being

strictly for a mediator to include all individuals in conflict whether there is a third party or not.

Therefore, in describing this model I have changed the focus from mediator to include all

individuals in conflict.

Expressive Component

According to Jones and Bodtker (2001), the expressive component represents, "how we

communicate to others what we are feeling or what we want them to think we are feeling" (p.

64). The authors caution that expression of emotion not only reflects conflict, but also creates

conflict. Therefore, disputants should re-evaluate their perceived ability to decode emotional

expressions accurately. Jones and Bodtker accentuate this point by referring to Bakeman and

Gottman (1997), "When people are in conflict, they are more likely to decode each other's

emotional expression inaccurately" (p. 67). The authors recommend the use of clarification

questions to ensure correct interpretation of emotional expression.

Disputants can aid each other in discerning the emotional expression by preparing each

side to "behaviorally express emotion in a manner that is more strategic and advantageous"

(Jones & Bodtker, 2001, p. 67). Whether an individual intentionally or unintentionally uses

emotional expression in a way that is offensive, it is important for the individuals to bring this to

light and clarify ways to more constructively present emotions. Finally, the authors warn that

venting is not always constructive, "venting without reflection only increases the negative emotional experience" (p. 67). The authors recommend that disputants either take a break or help the other party cope by reflecting on their emotional issues.

Physiological Component

This is the "felt" component of emotion. The affect it has on conflict has to do with emotional flooding and emotional contagion, which impacts both disputants and mediators/trainers alike. Emotional flooding is "being swamped by emotion to the extent that one cannot function or think effectively" (Jones & Bodtker, 2001, p. 68). Conflict resolution processes cannot be productive or constructive when a party or facilitator is emotionally flooded. The first step is to be aware of when flooding occurs. This can be done through observation and listening carefully to venting and through preparation, by writing down emotional triggers that individuals know are specific to the conflict.

Individuals should recognize and begin to cope with any negative inner scripts that contribute to the flooding by reflecting on ways that they are contributing to the conflict. Another strategy may be to recall a positive quality of the other side to help them form more soothing, self-calming inner scripts. Framing issues as complaints that are specific statements about specific events, can also help mitigate the use of criticism or contempt that may cause emotional flooding. Lastly, being aware of the triggers that cause emotional flooding can be useful in creating self-calming scripts.

Emotional contagion is defined as, "being infected by the emotions of others" (Jones & Bodtker, 2001, p. 70). Individuals can prepare and be more aware of this type of emotional escalation by reflecting on how their adversary's emotions affect them. This is an important

point for trainers and mediators because they are susceptible to emotional contagion, and as facilitators should be mindful of how this affects neutrality and trust.

Cognitive Appraisal

Jones and Bodtker (2001) suggest that a mediator is capable of guiding disputants through a "reappraisal process" with the potential of helping disputants in forming new perceptions of the situation (p. 72). There are three conditions that create a ripe context to reappraise emotional experience (Jones & Bodtker, 2001). These conditions are safe context, discussion of the right issues, and being able to discuss the "right" issues in a way that supports a party to a conflict (Jones& Bodtker). I also suggest here that individuals and disputants can be taught these skills and apply them to their own conflicts.

Individuals are encouraged to use elicitive questions to help identify their own emotional experience as well as the other party's emotional experience in the conflict. These questions will also help in the reappraisal process. Examples of some of these questions are, "Did something specific happen to make you feel this way? How did that event help or hurt you? What might make this event less important to you?" (p. 72). A facilitator or mediator outside of the dispute can be help by being in-tune with the specific emotion that is being appraised and to cater reappraisal questions accordingly.

Another aspect of the cognitive appraisal process is the notion of meta-emotions, which are our emotions about emotions. Jones and Bodtker offer the example of a person who feels ashamed about feeling sad and therefore may hold bias toward another party who is proud of expressing their sadness through crying. This is an important yet difficult tool for individuals to access because one must interpret the meta-emotions of the other person while being aware of

their own attribution biases and tendencies. Disputants should be aware of meta-emotions and be weary of the assumptions we have concerning meta-emotions.

Individuals are encouraged to look inward and become self-aware of their own meta-emotions. This process should be a reflection of an individual's own biases in terms of meta-emotions. By the same token, the disputant's self-analysis will allow them to better understand their emotional experience with the other party that will lead to more constructive resolutions.

Summary of Models

Each of these models supports the awareness of emotional experience in conflict through principles, concerns, styles, and components. These models offer simple, straightforward strategies that most people can relate to on some level. My training will use elements of each of these models. I now turn to experiential learning theory for advice on how to best translate these models to individuals.

The Pedagogy of Experiential Learning

Nothing ever becomes real till it is experienced.

-John Keats

Experiential learning provides a unique style of learning that engages students in an authentic experience and then asks them to reflect on it (Dewey, 1938; Lewin, 1947; Kolb, 1984). This is in contrast to the more conventional style of didactic learning that takes place by reading a book or in a classroom lecture setting. The link between experience and learning dates back to the famous dictum of Confucius from circa 450 B.C.: "Tell me and I will forget. Show me and I may remember. Involve me and I will understand." Experiential learning theories in more recent times have emerged from various disciplines and scholars.

Foundations of Experiential Learning

John Dewey (1938), an influential educational philosopher, was one of the first to propose that educators recognize the value of personal experience, and focus their attention on *how* students learn before deciding *what* they will learn. Dewey emphasized that everyday experience is not enough to stimulate learning. He called for meaningful experience with meaningful reflection on that experience as the basis for creating lasting growth and change in students, suggesting that educating through experience was not a simple task.

Kurt Lewin (1947), a social psychologist, complimented the work of Dewey by emphasizing the relationship between theory and practice. Lewin coined the term *action research*, a method of research that uses the application and testing of theory in real life situations (Greenwood & Levin, 1998). Lewin saw that experiential learning provided a process by which theory could be tested and observed in real life (Kolb, 1984). From this collection of data and through feedback processes, behavior and theory could be modified and changed accordingly (Kolb).

Lewin is also well known for his contributions to the human relations training laboratories (currently, National Training Labs Institute [NTL]), which utilize group experience and action research methods. Both action research and NTL group training experiences are based on the basic experiential learning premise that effective learning results from the dynamic relationship between action and reflection. (I provide a more in-depth analysis of Lewin's theoretical framework in the discussion of my experience at NTL.)

Important Contributions to Experiential Learning

Jean Piaget, a cognitive psychologist, contributed to experiential learning by positing that intelligence stems from a cycle of interaction between person and environment (Kolb, 1984).

Piaget proposed that this cycle of interaction is a tension between accommodating theoretical concepts and assimilating concrete experiences. This process moves the learner from concrete to abstract and from active to reflective (Kolb).
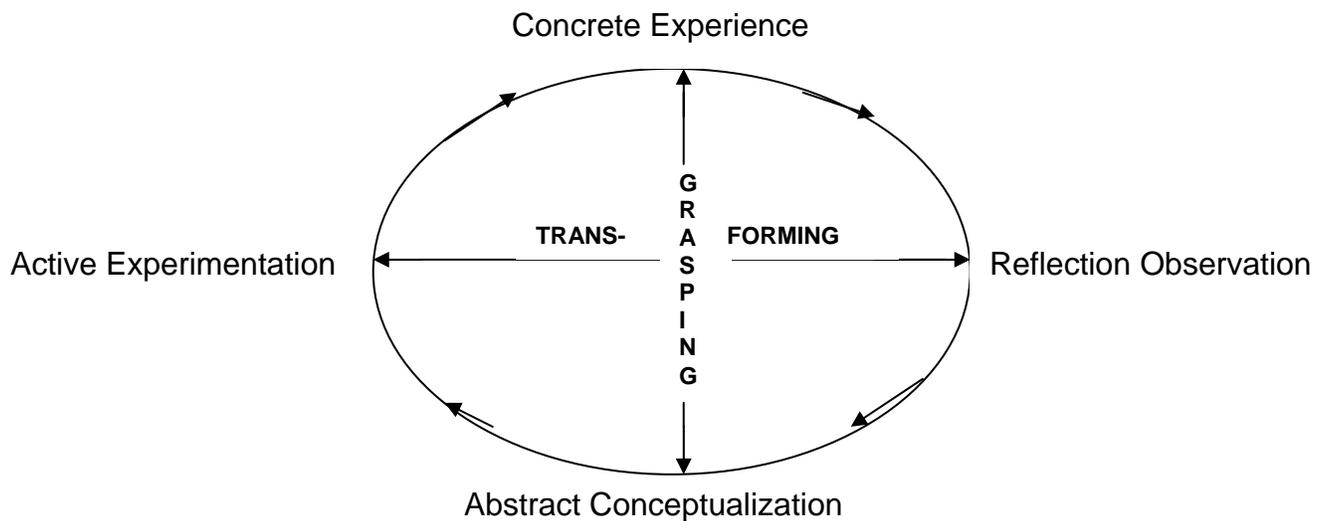
Carl Rogers, a humanistic psychologist, was also an influential and strong proponent of experiential learning. Rogers viewed experiential learning as the only teaching method resulting in true personal change and growth. Rogers is known for adapting the traditional group therapist role into a non-directive facilitator role in group therapy sessions. This client-centered therapy placed participants in the central role of cognitive and affective experience, which empowered them to reflect on their individual experience (Kolb).

In the Southern Hemisphere, Brazilian educator Paulo Freire called attention to the empowering ability of dialogue in education promoting the use of experiential learning. He saw dialogue as a means to counter and promote change within oppressive and controlling Western education models (Kolb). Freire also supported the use of small group work where participants would have more space to express themselves. He is well known for directing both students' and educators' attention to "critical consciousness," to actively explore their personal experiences of theory and abstract concepts through dialogue (Kolb).

Kolb: Experiential Learning Cycle Theory

Perhaps the most well known experiential learning model today comes from David Kolb (1984) who built on the works of Lewin, Dewey, and Piaget to create what is known as Experiential Learning Theory (ELT). ELT defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). ELT depicts learning in a four-stage cycle (See Figure 5, Kolb, 1984).

Figure 5. Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle

Concrete Experience

Active Experimentation   TRANS- G FORMING   Reflection Observation
                                                  R
                                                  A
                                                  S
                                                  P
                                                  I
                                                  N
                                                  G

Abstract Conceptualization

The theory suggests that one learns by grasping information through concrete experience (CE) and abstract concepts (AC) and one transforms information through active experimentation (AE) and reflective observation (RO) (Kolb, 1984; Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainemelis, 2001).

The four-stage cycle proposes that concrete experiences are the basis for observations and reflections. The observations and reflections lead to the formation of abstract concepts from which the learner draws new implications for action. These implications become the active experimentation that serves as a guide in creating new concrete experiences (Kolb, 1984; Kolb et al., 2001). The central idea is that experience must be *grasped* (through concrete experience and abstract concepts) and then *transformed* (through reflection and testing in new situations) for knowledge to result.

Concrete experience (CE) and abstract concepts (AC) are directly opposite modes of learning used to help a learner grasp information. Likewise, active experimentation (AE) and reflective observation (RO) are opposite modes of learning that are used to help a learner

transform experience. ELT proposes that, "learning requires abilities that are polar opposites, and the learner must continually choose which set of learning abilities he or she will use in a learning situation" (p. 228).

For example, when learning how to ride a bike some of us will use abstract concepts (AC) like systematic planning and strategizing to grasp the knowledge of how to ride the bike. Others will grasp the knowledge of bike riding by immediately mounting the bike and feeling the concrete experience (CE). Further, in transforming the experience of bike riding into learning, some people will observe and reflect (RO) on the experiences of others riding bikes, whereas other individuals will actively experiment (AE) on the bike. Kolb refers to these preferred learning choices as learning styles.

Kolb developed the Learning Style Inventory (LSI) to assess individual learning styles (1984; Kolb, Boyatzis, & Mainelmelis, 2001). After extensive research and clinical observation, Kolb and colleagues identified four basic learning styles: diverging, assimilating, converging, and accommodating. Below is a brief summary of each learning style.

Diverging

An individual with a diverging learning style tends to use concrete experience and reflective observation in the learning process. A person with this style likes to brainstorm and gather information. They also like to reflect on various points of view and receive personalized feedback.

Assimilating

An individual with an assimilating style utilizes abstract concepts and reflective observation to learn by taking in a wide range of information and organizing it in a logical form.

A person with this style is more concerned with logic than practicality and would prefer to learn through reading and lecture so that they have time to think things through.
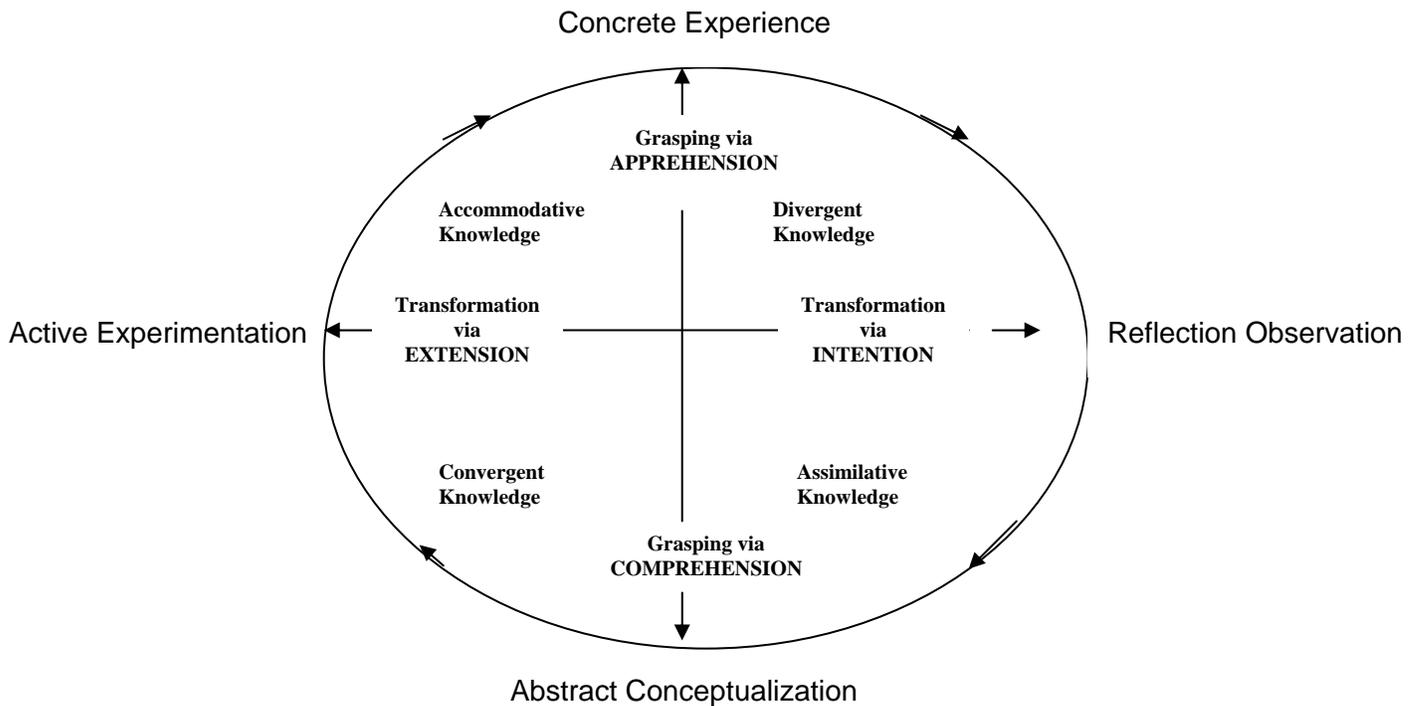
Converging

An individual with a converging style learns through abstract concepts and active experimentation. They like to put theories and ideas to practical use and are natural problem-solvers when it comes to technical issues. A person with this style is less interested in personal and social issues, and learns best when they can experiment with new ideas and practically apply them.

Accommodating

An individual with an accommodating learning style prefers to use concrete experience and active experimentation primarily through hands-on experience. A person with this style tends to act on their gut and rely on people for information rather than logical analysis. An accommodating style is action-orientated and prefers to work with others.

According to Kolb et al, these learning styles are not mutually exclusive and individuals can vacillate between them. The important point is that there is not one style or mode of learning. Please see figure 6 illustrating the Experiential Learning Theory with Basic Knowledge Forms (Kolb, 1984, p. 42).

Figure 6. Experiential Learning Cycle and Resulting Basic Knowledge Forms

Concrete Experience

Grasping via
APPREHENSION

Accommodative
Knowledge

Divergent
Knowledge

Transformation
via
EXTENSION

Transformation
via
INTENTION

Active Experimentation

Reflection Observation

Convergent
Knowledge

Assimilative
Knowledge

Grasping via
COMPREHENSION

Abstract Conceptualization

Using Group Experience

A specific focus of my training for participants will be the use of group experience.

The use of group experience is not a new concept. In the United States beginning in the late

1940s, Kurt Lewin, Carl Jung, and Kenneth Rice pioneered the use of the intensive group

experience for learning and change processes. Shaw (1976) explains that these early experiential

learning groups, "[are] best described as the emergence of a popularized technique for improving

some aspect or aspects of personal or interpersonal functioning" (p. 340). Experiential learning

groups have gone by many names, including t-groups, encounter groups, sensitivity training

groups, and human relations groups (Shaw, 1976). They continue to occur in many forms, for

different reasons, and may differ in the desired benefits emphasized by group participants and

trainers. However, all experiential groups share in common the use of the participant's group

experience itself as the crucial learning component. This will act as one type of concrete

experience (Kolb, 1984) for participants in my training. I also should note that my training

intends to offer opportunities to actively experiment, reflect, and form abstract

conceptualizations within the group experience, as well as during other training activities, to

accommodate all types of learners.

General Process of Group Experiential Learning

There are currently a variety of experiential group trainings that focus on a diverse range of

issues including leadership in groups, improving interpersonal interaction, and facilitating

dialogue between groups. As a result, there is not a general consensus on one model of

experiential group learning. However, Lakin (1972) as quoted by Shaw, (1976), points out that,

"there are certain processes common to all experiential groups" (p. 342). Although this citation

may appear dated, I believe that it still provides an accurate representation of the processes in

experiential groups. The processes according to Lakin (as quoted in Shaw, 1976, p. 342) are:

1. Facilitating emotional expressiveness

2. Generating feelings of belongingness

3. Fostering a norm of self-disclosure as a condition of group membership

4. Sampling personal behaviors

5. Making sanctioned interpersonal comparison

6. Sharing responsibility for leadership and direction with the appointed leader

Overall Group Experience as Learning

As mentioned, the group experience provides meaningful concrete experience for

individuals to grasp learning (Kolb, 1984). However, experiential learning theory states that

individuals require more than just concrete experience. This is an important consideration for a

trainer/facilitator of a group experience training. A trainer must be aware and cognizant of the different learning styles and modes of learning to stimulate active experimentation, reflective observation, and abstract conceptualization.

Obstacles to Experiential Learning

Experiential learning has been demonstrated as an effective learning model. However, there are obstacles that must be considered when using an experiential learning model. The following explains these obstacles.

Creating Meaningful Experience

Both historic and current scholars have emphasized that one of the most difficult obstacles to experiential learning is creating conditions that provide a meaningful experience while simultaneously supporting a specific theoretical teaching point (Dewey, 1938; Lewin, 1946, Kolb, 1984; Crosby, 1995). Lewin (1946) observed that there is tension between exploring the "here and now" experiential orientation and the "there and then" theoretical orientation. In other words, there is tension between staying focused on the present versus using theories and external sources to identify what is going on in the present. Kolb (1984) supports Lewin's point by further explaining, "the conflict between experience and theory is not unique to the laboratory training process but is, in fact, a central dynamic in the process of experiential learning itself (Kolb, 1984, p. 10).

Managing the Tension. As Kolb suggests, the tension between theory and practice is the essence of experiential learning. Therefore, it is not my intention to find a solution to this pedagogical issue. However, I will consider ways scholars manage this tension. Experiential educator, Laura Joplin (1995) has observed that this critical component to experiential learning programs is the responsibility of trainers to recognize. She contends that trainers must be skilled

in facilitating constructive reflection on the experience to ensure that students will translate the learning to real world applications.

Moreover, conflict resolution scholar and trainer, John Paul Lederach (1995) challenges conflict resolution trainers to reflect on how they think about theory and experience in terms of pedagogical methods. He warns that many trainers, including himself, fall easily into a prescriptive mode of teaching where the trainer is theoretical expert on conflict. He proposes a combination of prescriptive teaching with an eliciting of participants theories and knowledge of experience and concepts of conflict and resolution. Lederach suggests that this combination approach will also suit different learning styles.

Difficulty of Assessment

Experiential learning has been criticized for the lack of evaluation on processes and outcomes (Kolb et. al, 2001; Schein & Bennis, 1965). The ELT has been comprehensively reviewed both quantitatively and qualitatively (Kolb et. al, 2001). The results showed that overall studies support the use of ELT. However, it has been suggested by Iliff (1994) that the methods and criteria used to reach these results are not completely valid (Kolb et. al, 2001). Recently, the instrument for evaluation has been set on the backburner, while the ELT theory itself has been criticized for being "individualistic, cognitivist, and technological" (Kolb et. al., p. 240).

Assessment of Group Experience. More specifically, the group experience as a model for experiential learning has been criticized for a lack of valid research evaluation (Shaw, 1976; Schein & Bennis, 1965). One reason posited for this problem is the vast complexity of variables and outcomes to take into consideration (Schein & Bennis, 1965). Schein and Bennis (1965) further point to the broad uses of group experience and the many variables related to change that

all social scientists have had difficulty with in terms of defining, measuring, and evaluating to create a reliable and valid study.

A few examples of these problematic change variables are the measurement of attitude, awareness, and understanding of group processes. One common way in which group experience models attempt to elicit feedback from participants is through a reflective questionnaire and/or a post-training interview (Schein & Bennis, 1965). This allows the trainers to learn from their experience and make future recommendations to other staff as well as make changes in their own methodology.

Experiential Learning Theories and Conflict Resolution

Ronald Fisher (1997) has reflected on general guidelines that experiential conflict resolution training should have. He maintains that, overall, experiential learning trainings, "[require] a supportive climate, an awareness of the learning process, a matching of learner expectations with program goals, and a trusting relationship between the learners and the teachers" (p. 337). It is the "awareness of the learning process" that I believe lays the groundwork for the teacher to provide the other important elements. As mentioned earlier, John Paul Lederach (1997) also supports trainer awareness and assessment of participant needs to inform teaching approaches.

ELT Applied to Conflict Resolution

Roy Lewicki (2002) observed that although many trainers are not aware of it, they utilize Kolb's (1984) model of learning in their conflict resolution training models. Lewicki describes how the use of role-play exercises act as *concrete experiences* for students. The debriefing through papers, journals, and discussion provide the student with *observation and reflection*. The *formation of abstract concepts* occurs when students are asked to bridge their own

perceptions and ways of being with conflict resolution strategies. Finally, according to Lewicki (2002) students are asked to *test* their knowledge in new situations.

Overall, Lewicki's application of ELT contributes to a focus and exploration of training methodology within the conflict resolution field. Lewicki (2002) provides the conflict resolution field with an opportunity for growth by acknowledging what pedagogical theories we use in the field and how they apply to current trainings. I would like to build on these initials steps taken by Lewicki, and look at how experiential learning modes apply to specific training activities. For instance, concrete experience is not always grasped through role-play. Furthermore, I would like to delineate how a consciousness of experiential learning theories aides in the process of training design and creates opportunity for a more diverse training. I am inspired by Lewicki to use ELT in my analysis of the four trainings I attended as well as in the design of my training.

<div align="center">*Summary*</div>

Experiential learning theories support conflict resolution trainers to start asking questions such as how much theory and how much experience is needed in my training? Is there a balance or should theory prevail over experience in this situation and vice versa for another situation? How do we best support our students in the learning process? These are the questions I will consider in the design of my training. Experiential pedagogical training methods appear to be the most widely used in the conflict resolution field. However, without documentation of the rationale and methodology of experiential training pedagogy how does one begin the process of creating a training, nevertheless, indicate the effectiveness of it? I intend to uncover some of this process through the design of my own training.

CHAPTER 4: EXPERIENTIAL TRAININGS

This section provides a brief history of four experiential trainings I attended. I examine my experiences through an analysis of my personal journals. I present themes from the training that reflect the overall benefits, challenges, and key learning. I use these themes to derive guidelines to enhance my training design.

Conflict in Workgroups

The only kind of learning which significantly influences behavior is self-discovered or self-appropriated learning – truth that has been assimilated in experience.

- Carl Rogers

Conflict in Workgroups is a semester long course taught at the University of Massachusetts Boston masters program in Dispute Resolution. The course is both designed and taught by Organizational Psychologist and Professor Eben Weitzman.

Historical Roots

Dr. Eben Weitzman was a participant in a variety of experiential learning trainings focused on teaching group dynamic processes. This included courses at Columbia University on topics concerning organizational development and group dynamics as well as workshops at Sole and Associates and the A.K. Rice Institute concerning group dynamics and diversity. Weitzman observed that there was a need in these trainings for a teaching framework for dealing with conflict. From this observation, Weitzman built on the experiences he had as a participant and combined didactic and experiential learning theories to create a course that taught group dynamic processes with a specific focus on conflict resolution.

Methodology

Weitzman designed the Conflict in Workgroups course based on his experiences in courses and workshops. He also took ideas from past and current intervention work as an organizational psychologist and integrated them into the course. Weitzman compiled literature from past trainings and coursework in addition to current literature that he found useful in his own learning and current practice.

Weitzman created a course that meets once a week in the classroom to examine theories of group dynamics and conflict in groups. Along with this didactic teaching, Weitzman also has students meet outside class in a group of 5-10 students once a week for an experiential component. A consultant is present to observe and is not considered a group member. The consultant speaks when it is necessary to keep the members on task or to provide aid in the understanding of group processes. The first three weeks of the one-and-a-half-hour group meetings are focused on what is occurring in the group in the "here and now." After the first three weeks, the focus changes to how the group deals with conflict by having the group participate in various exercises. The last thirty minutes of each group session is devoted to reflection on group processes. The course is set-up so that readings coincide with students' evolving knowledge of group processes and conflict.

Training: Conflict in Workgroups

Below is a description of the semester long course, Conflict in Workgroups, as it appears on the Dispute Resolution course listing website (www.disres.umb.edu):

This course provides the participant with an opportunity to develop a deeper understanding of the dynamics of work groups, with an emphasis on processes of conflict within them, and to develop skills to deal constructively with intra- and inter-group

conflict. Class sessions will deal with conceptual issues in a combination of lecture and seminar-discussion format, drawing from various literatures on groups. Students will also participate in weekly meetings with a small workgroup, consisting of a sub-set of the class, which will offer an opportunity to study group processes in vivo with the aid of a facilitator.

<div align="center">*Conflict in Workgroups Themes*</div>

The Conflict in Workgroups course was my first exposure to using the group experience method of learning. The focus on group dynamics and conflict resolution worked well together. I describe the benefits, challenges, and key learning from this training.

Benefits

The beneficial themes found in my personal journals and experience from the course include a structured journal, theoretical application through didactic and experiential learning, a variety of experiential group exercises, and constructive feedback (K. Schroeder, personal journal, September 28-December 6, 2005).

Structured Journal. The course training required that students submit journals to Professor Weitzman every week. The journals were to be structured in three parts: (1) main events that occurred in the group, (2) emotional experience, and (3) how the readings and theories applied to the events in the group.

Focus on Theory. As noted there were readings every week that built the theoretical foundations of group processes and conflict processes in groups. This knowledge enabled theoretical analysis of experiences in the group. I recorded in my personal journal, "I was glad that I read the Schein reading before my group meeting. Schein really shed light on the

consultant's role. The reading also helped me be mindful of communication processes in the group" (K. Schroeder, personal journal, September 28-December 6, 2005)

Variety of Experiential Group Exercises. After the third group meeting, there was a shift in focus from covert group processes (i.e., hidden behaviors that influence the group) to participating in exercises. These tasks included creating a model of what intra-group conflict looked like and designing a system to give feedback to another group. There was also an inter-group event in which each group negotiated with the other two groups over a proposed grading system.

Indirect Feedback. The professor and consultant gave indirect feedback during the group sessions and through the submitted journals. There was also a group evaluation in which each individual of the group evaluated the group as a whole. My journal notes, "Our results from our process evaluation showed that we scored highest on our flexibility as a group. There were outliers in most all of the others. We discussed in general our lack of decision-making processes and acceptance of minority opinions, and how we 'plop' ideas but do not recognize it in our current process" (Ibid.). My journal also reflects my learning about feedback. I wrote "My general way of expressing [feedback] lacked clarity and specificity" (Ibid.).

Challenges

My journals and experience reflect the challenges of length as a graduate course, focus on theory, and no end application (Ibid.).

Length of Course. The fact that the group experience occurred over a semester presented two challenges for the training. First, there was an entire week between each group meeting, which created a lull in the group experience. Second, participants had to return to the classroom setting as students, not group members. The challenge of this transition becomes apparent in my

journal, "As the week progresses I am worried and unconfident about my outward display of emotions and actions" (Ibid.).

Focus on Theory. The first six weeks of the group experience, my journal uses projective identification and scapegoating as a reason for many of the group processes. We used the over application of theory to avoid unpacking uncomfortable group processes versus trying to truly understand them. This hiding behind the few theoretical tools we had (at this point) was further confused by the lack of clarification by the professor and consultant. There are question marks from Professor Weitzman on my journals where I have applied certain theories to the group experience, which led to ambiguity concerning the accuracy of my theoretical applications.

No end application. Besides the final paper and a question and answer session with the consultants, which focused on theoretical application, there was no discussion at the end of the course about how best to translate our group experience learning into real-world application.

Key Learning Themes

The key learning themes from the course include latent processes of groups, communication in groups, and conflict processes in groups.

Latent Processes in Groups. This training supported my learning of group dynamics. I learned the foundations of group processes and was able to experience and apply theory to my group experience. All of my journals reflect this knowledge. A few examples are: "Everyone in the group seems to be struggling with the paradox of identity and involvement"; "There seems to be the possibility that we are all using projective identification to get out of [the leadership role]"; and "Our group feels stuck. We have regressed due to our inability to release our "aggression" out about our own internal feeling for being in a group" (Ibid.).

Communication in Groups. A key learning found in my journals was communication processes in groups. My journals reflect new knowledge of constructive communication. Here are a few examples, "It is difficult to realize that as open and good intentioned as you might feel [in your communication processes], you might be deeply hurting someone and causing actual harm"; "My general way of expressing [feedback] lacked clarity and specificity and was naturally received with defense"; and "The group discussed our lack of decision-making processes and acceptance of minority opinions, as well as how we do *plop* ideas, but do not recognize it in our current process…" (Ibid.).

Conflict Processes in Groups. This training course illustrated that individuals in groups tend to avoid conflict and encouraged students to learn constructive ways to deal with conflict in groups. The following examples from my personal journal demonstrate this learning, "In the first group meeting we may have had conflict, but that conflict seemed to set the norm that conflict is uncomfortable and we don't want to deal with it"; "It seems that we are avoiding dealing with deviance"; and "As I reflect, the situation really shed light on how conflict can promote change and help the group evolve" (Ibid.).

Table of Themes

Below is a table of the Conflict in Workgroups Themes.

Figure 7. Table of Conflict in Workgroups Themes

CONFLICT IN WORK GROUPS THEMES		
BENEFITS	**CHALLENGES**	**KEY LEARNING**
Structured journal	Length of training	Latent group processes
Focus on theory	Focus on theory	Communication
Experiential group exercises	No end application	Conflict processes
Indirect feedback		

The Public Conversations Project:

The Power of Dialogue: Constructive Conversations on Divisive Issues

Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate integration of the younger

generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity or it becomes the

practice of freedom, the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with

reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world.

-Paulo Freire

The Public Conversations Project is a non-profit organization that provides trainings for

the general public that teach a constructive dialogue approach to help individuals work together

on divisive issues. The PCP approach draws on theories and methods of family therapy and

dialogue processes.

Historical Roots

The Public Conversations Project (PCP) was developed during the intense public

abortion debate in 1989. Family therapist and founder of PCP, Laura Chasin, saw the

opportunity to apply family therapy methods for working with conflict to the public debate on

abortion. In 1995, after a gunman open fired in two abortion clinics in Boston, Chasin and her

colleagues at the Family Institute of Cambridge convened a series of dialogues between pro-life

and pro-choice women. These divided women secretly met for five years and with the help of

PCP began restoring a relationship that trickled into the public arena.

The women finally came out to the public about their secret dialogue and demonstrated

that they did not have to change their views and beliefs on abortion to cooperate and dialogue

with one another. PCP is now revered for their approach in facilitating dialogue and constructive

conversations between extremely divided parties in conflict. The team at PCP describes their

mission as, "Our broadest goal is to enrich public conversations, that is, to improve the way that the public discusses and deliberates divisive controversy" (Chasin, Herzig, Roth, Chasin, Becker, & Stains, 1996, p. 327).

Methodology

The fundamental method of PCP is the dialogue process and the design of dialogue processes. The current PCP website (www.publicconversations.com) defines dialogue as:

Any conversation animated by a search for understanding rather than for agreement or solutions. It is not debate, and it is not mediation. A good dialogue offers those who participate a chance to:

- Listen and be listened to so that all speakers can be heard.
- Speak and be spoken to in a respectful manner.
- Develop or deepen mutual understanding and discover common concerns.
- Learn about perspectives that others hold while reflecting on one's own views.

According to PCP, dialogue is a conversation that is not seen as a means to an end, rather the process of dialogue itself is what stimulates change and cooperation. Therefore, a fundamental tenet of the PCP approach that distinguishes them from other conflict resolution processes is that their objective does not include concrete resolution (Chasin et al., 1996).

The PCP method of training others in their dialogue approach is through both didactic and experiential learning processes. The first day-and-a-half at the Power of Dialogue training involved learning the PCP approach for structuring a dialogue. There were small group exercises in which participants reflect on personal dialogue approaches in conflict. The latter half of the training was devoted to designing a dialogue process for a church divided on the issue of homosexuality. About seven volunteer participants from the training were assigned to play the role of different people from the church with different perspectives on homosexuality. The

rest of the training participants were assigned to play facilitators at different stages of the

dialogue process.

<div align="center">*Theory*</div>

PCP describes three basic elements for guiding their approach to dialogue that stem from

family therapy models and from the reflection of other work they have done through the years.

The three basic elements are: collaboration, preventing reenactment of the old, and fostering the

new (Chasin et al, 1996). Below I outline each element and its origins from family therapy as

described by the Public Conversations Project.

Collaboration. The PCP approach is collaborative by keeping a genuinely curious

attitude (i.e., "not knowing") about the difficult issues at hand. The PCP philosophy has adapted

the family therapy approach of talking separately with each family member before a therapy

session. In these sessions they discuss participants' fears, aspirations, comfortability issues, and

ground rules before meeting for dialogue. Another adaptation from family therapy to the

dialogue process is to reduce negative talk about participants who are not present or have chosen

not to attend the dialogue. Training participants had the opportunity to practice the preparatory

conversation and reduce negative talk through role-play exercises.

Preventing Reenactment of the Old. The PCP approach to dialogue includes an effort to

prevent "habitual, unproductive ways of relating and communicating about disputed issues"

(Chasin et. al, 1996, p. 331). Family therapists traditionally deal with this problem through

established ground rules. PCP adapts this approach by first preparing for dialogue through

examining what the *old* ways of interacting have been over the divisive issue. PCP then

explicitly invites participants to dialogue who comply with the intention to foster *new* ways of

interacting over the issue. Then ground rules are created and agreed to by participants to

facilitate *new* ways of interacting. The early dialogue sessions are rigidly structured to follow

the ground rules so that participants are empowered to accept the new norm of interaction. This

structure also levels the playing field, which can calm anxieties about the different group

dynamics that have occurred in previous interactions on the issue.

   Fostering the New. Fostering the new stems from a family therapist's belief that, "the

capacity for dialogue can be activated or developed by the family and that in a dialogic

relationship family members can meet, see, talk with, and listen to one another in new, more

effective ways" (Chasin et. al, 1996, p. 334). The PCP approach has adapted this perspective to

dialogue processes by; (1) having participants use personal accounts rather than positions, (2)

explicitly requesting participants to discuss experiences and ideas that are usually omitted, (3)

encouraging curiosity about differences, and (4) having participants participate in de-

stereotyping exercises to correct false assumptions and humanize the conflict at hand.

Training: The Power of Dialogue: Constructive Conversations on Divisive Issues

   The Public Conversations Project utilizes a two-and-a-half day training called The Power

of Dialogue to teach their dialogue approach. Please find a description of the workshop taken

from PCP's (2006) website below:

   Through experiential exercises, an extensive dialogue simulation, presentations

   and demonstrations, participants will learn how to apply the key elements of PCP

   dialogue facilitation:

   Shifting communication and relationships – not beliefs – by:

   • Creating conversational structures that prevent destructive debate and foster
   constructive dialogue
   • Preparing a forum for new ways of speaking and listening through pre-dialogue contacts
   between facilitator and participants
   • Partnering with participants in the planning of the dialogue to insure their commitment
   to and investment in the process

• Facilitating from a collaborative stance
• Reflection between participants and facilitators on the events of a dialogue to shape what happens next.

Power of Dialogue Themes

This training experience was quite different from the other training experiences that I review in this project because there was not a focus on an experiential learning group. Instead a group role-play was used which had a completely different type of learning.

Benefits

The beneficial themes from the PCP training include clear objectives, use of role-play, and focus on theory.

Clear Objectives with Explicit Process. An important benefit at PCP was a pre-training interview conducted by the trainers, just as they would have for a dialogue, to acquaint participants with the training and training objectives. During this initial phone conversation, the trainers also discussed ground rules and laid out the structure of the training. At the training, the facilitator's introduction stated clear objectives for the training experience. PCP trainers articulated the process by which they would reach these objectives. My journal describes the effects of PCP's explicit process: "The phone interview was very welcoming" (K. Schroeder, personal journal, November 1, 2006); "One of the most helpful parts of the learning experience was sitting in a large group, and having the space to acknowledge how I was feeling nervous, but safe--especially the first two times I had to do my introduction"; (K. Schroeder, personal journal, November 9-11, 2006); and "My comfortability in the group increased as the day progressed" (Ibid.).

Use of Role Play. The role-play was beneficial in understanding the complete dialogue process approach. A quote from my journal describes the role-play experience as, "We were able to practice going through the preparation and execution of the dialogue process without

complete fear of messing up"; and "The training participants who played a [church character] role did a very authentic job, that it felt like a real dialogue" (Ibid.).

Focus on Theory. My journals revealed the benefits of focusing on learning the PCP approach and theories. "I enjoyed the facilitator's breakdown of social identity theory"; and "Learning the process today really made me think about the difference between help and support" (Ibid.).

Challenges

The challenging themes that emerged from my experience at PCP are short experiential exercises, use of role-play, and lack of feedback and reflection.

Short Experiential Exercises. Many of the experiential exercises tended to be short and quick. My journal entry illustrates how this was challenging, "The open-ended question exercise was really beneficial and very difficult to master. I wish we had more actual instruction and practice on how to do it in the large group before engaging in the small group experiential exercise"; and "The reflective conflict exercise was useful, but I don't think there was ample time to really process and debrief the exercise" (Ibid.).

Use of Role-Play. The role-play was beneficial and challenging because participants who played a facilitator role were assigned one part of the dialogue process. This meant participants observed the role-play for the majority of the time, rather than actively participating. My journal notes, "I feel like I am doing a lot of observing" (Ibid.).

Feedback and Application. Feedback was a challenge during the training as a participant and for the facilitators. My personal journal notes, "The process and debrief of the reflective exercise was not very beneficial"; "Would have been nice to debrief on the process and check in about the shared program experience"; and "I did not want to hurt anybody's feelings in my

group, so it was hard to tell them when a question was not helpful" (Ibid.). A quote at the end of my journal notes, "I wish there could have been an in-depth discussion of how to carry over the PCP approach into our lives" (Ibid.).

Key Learning Themes

The key learning themes from the training at PCP include communication and aspects of the PCP approach to conflict and dialogue.

Communication. A key theme of my learning in this training was to clarify intentions, whether you are a facilitator or a member of a group. "It was hard to tell the small group when a question was not helpful"; and "Some questions caused defensiveness" were two of my journal entries (Ibid.).

PCP Approach to Conflict and Dialogue. There were both experiential and didactic teaching models on conflict and dialogue. My personal journals reflect this central learning: "Keep conversation based on personal level as to not fall into class, gender, race, and positional argument"; "Conflict narrows and inquiry expands-support window opening questions"; and "Prepare and support structure and purpose of dialogue so that groups empower themselves" (Ibid.).

Table of Results

Below is a table of the results from PCP.

Figure 8. PCP Results

THE POWER OF DIALOGUE RESULTS		
BENEFITS	CHALLENGES	KEY LEARNING
Explicit Process & Objectives	Experiential Exercises	Communication
Role Play	Use of Role Play	Conflict & Dialogue
Focus on Theory	Feedback & End Application	

A.K. Rice Institute:

Authority, Leadership, and Participation in Groups and Organizational Systems

The self thus becomes aware of itself, at least in its practical action, and discovers itself as a

cause among other causes and as an object subject to the same laws as other objects.

-Jean Piaget

The A.K. Rice Institute is an internationally known organization for its commitment to the

study of groups, organizations, and social systems. There is no didactic teaching. The

conference is based on the experience of participants in groups and consultants who stimulate

participants to think about the role of authority and leadership in groups.

Historical Roots

The A.K. Rice Institute for the Study of Group Relations is the American transplant of

the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations of London. The Tavistock Institute was originally

founded in 1946 and is currently an extensive network of scholars and practitioners that research,

evaluate, and implement organizational change methodologies to promote the well being of

individuals and organizations (www.tavinstitute.org).

The A.K. Rice Institute was developed in June 1965, when the first two-week group

relations residential conference was held at Mount Holyoke College. This conference reflected

the educational methods of the Tavistock Institute at that time (Rioch, 1975). The primary

educational goal was to study oneself and others in a small group with a secondary emphasis on

the application of this learning to an individual's own work (Rioch, 1975).

After several years under the Directorship of A. Kenneth Rice, the primary task of the

conference shifted its focus specifically to the role of leadership and authority in groups. A

second shift in perspective went from solely studying the small group experience to studying the

institution as a whole. These shifts were a result of the belief that, "In order to understand

[humans] in society, it is necessary to shift one's view from the individual and the pair to a larger

whole" (Rioch, p. 6). In other words, creating a specific focus on leadership and authority is a

way to better understand the functioning of the groups and systems as a whole (Rioch, 1975).

Theory

In the past, to support the educational objectives and organize the conference, participants

and staff drew on various scholars in the realm of social psychology and psychiatry, particularly

the contributions of Wilfred Bion to group psychotherapy. Bion (1961) proposed that within

every group there were two levels of mental activity occurring among the individuals present in

the group, the "work group" which performed the official task of the group and a "basic

assumption group" which operates as the thinking and feeling of the group. Bion (1961) also

pointed to the use of "projective identification" (Klein, 1946) in groups, which illustrated how

individual group members could manipulate one another into taking on certain roles and

mental/emotional baggage of the group (Bion, 1961).

Methodology

The majority of participants at the A.K. Rice conference that I attended were acquainted

with the works of Bion as well as other theorists (Rioch, 1975; Horowitz, 1985; Berg, 1999).

Hence, much of the discussion within the different group events centered on applying and testing

these theories to the group processes with a particular focus on leadership and authority. An

interesting aspect of the specific conference that I attended was that out of the 100 participants,

there were thirty cadets from West Point Academy. This influenced the discussion on authority

and leadership in the various group events to center on white male privilege, military perceptions

of authority and leadership, and diversity issues in leadership.

Authority, Leadership, and Participation in Groups

Below is the A.K. Rice (2006) conference brochure description of the experiential group training conference:

This experiential conference will provide opportunities to:

- Further your understanding of the complex, often covert, dynamics that affect our work in groups and organizations
- Increase your ability to recognize, and manage, the impact of hidden agendas, stereotypes and unspoken assumptions on work groups
- Expand your awareness of the dilemmas inherent in both collaboration and competition in and among work groups
- Enhance your skills in managing yourself and others in work roles and across work boundaries
- Maximize your effectiveness within the authority structure of your workplace.

Results of the AK Rice Experience

The A.K. Rice Institute conference had a very rigid structure in terms of planned events and a focus on leadership and authority in the present group experience. However, beyond that structure there was flexibility in what could be discussed during the various group sessions. The facilitators that ran the conference did not offer literature or any didactic forms of teaching. Rather, they made indirect provocative comments that were meant to stimulate individuals in the group sessions to focus on the "here and now". For instance, my facilitator interrupted a group conversation by asking, "Why are all of you being so damn polite?"

Benefits

The beneficial experiences that I assimilated from this conference were: specific focus on authority and leadership, variety of experiential group events, and discussion and reflection on group events (K. Schroeder, personal journal, November 17-19, 2006).

Specific Focus on Authority and Leadership. The focus on authority and leadership created a lead into group discussions. This in turn provoked discussion of other issues germane

to group dynamics. My personal journal reflects on this benefit, "The [small] group members spoke of how the group is mad at the consultant because he is the authority but does not speak. People then started talking about their anger for the two silent girls in the group" (K. Schroeder, personal journal, November 17-19, 2006). Another journal reflection notes, "I asked why does only one person have to have authority, why can't we all have authority, which led to the discussion of roles and who gets to assign them" (Ibid.).

Different Experiential Group Exercises. The variation of group events provided the benefit of learning different group processes. There were three experiential group events: small study group, large study group, and an inter-group event. The small group was beneficial for learning intra-group processes, the large group for understanding top-down authority, and the inter-group event for understanding group systems.

Indirect feedback. As mentioned, the A.K. Rice consultants use indirect feedback to stimulate participants' reflection and active experimentation within group processes. This was beneficial because participants' were supported to deeply think about their own interpretation and perspective on a variety of issues rather than just accepting the trainer's perspective. My personal journal notes that, "The three consultants in the large group event kept alluding to covert gender, race, and sexual orientation issues within the group. They reflected that the group was choosing not to deal with these issues and they asked us why we were so scared to talk about these issues" (Ibid.).

Discussion, Reflection, and Application Events. The discussion and reflection events eased conference transitions. These events included the conference opening, a real-life application group, and a conference discussion. This personal journal quote indicates this benefit, "I found the post-conference discussion to be really helpful and also a display of how we

had grown as a group by discussing how we felt to be in a large group setting for three days…I

thought the consultants were very helpful in encouraging us to share our learning with the large

group" (Ibid.).

Lack of Conflict Frame. There was no framework offered for constructive conflict

resolution processes. This elicited individuals to create their own. I make this observation in my

personal journal, "I noticed and told the group how we were being very polite and avoiding

conflict which was taken pretty well by the group and expanded upon"; and "I asked the group to

speak in 'I' messages and other participants countered this suggestion by saying that they

consciously wanted to use we to represent the group" (Ibid.).

Challenges

The challenging themes at the A.K. Rice conference include a high level of anxiety,

ambiguity of feedback from consultants, and lack of conflict frame.

High Anxiety. There was no pre-preparation interview for the conference. At the

opening session the Conference Director reads verbatim from a piece of paper describing the

structure and objectives of the conference. Moreover, the different group events created anxiety.

My journal reveals these feelings, "I began feeling anxious at the beginning plenary [session]

because it dawned on me the topics that we were going to confront"; and "I was really anxious

and frustrated by the large group experience" (Ibid.).

Lack of Conflict Frame. This was both a benefit and a challenge. Because there was no

framework offered for constructive conflict resolution processes, conflict was avoided. This was

challenging because participants were subjected to difficult conversations about difficult issues

without any frame. Now read the sentence from my journal again with this in mind, "I noticed

and told the group how we were being very polite and avoiding conflict which was taken pretty

well by the group and expanded upon"; and "I asked the group to speak in 'I' messages and other participants countered this suggestion by saying that they consciously wanted to use 'we' to represent the group" (Ibid.).

Key Learning Themes

The key learning themes at A.K. Rice include authority and leadership in groups, diversity issues, conflict processes, and boundaries.

Authority and Leadership. A key learning from the conference was authority and leadership in groups. My personal journal divulges that, "Overall the theme of the conference has been this ambivalence to power, this wanting of it and knowing that I can do it but not taking it when it is given to me or taking it and then feeling bad about it" (Ibid.). My personal journal also reflects my learning about leadership and authority, "The group is letting me lead, they are authorizing it"; "Ambivalence can be a good thing in leadership because it makes you check yourself, but too much ambivalence can make you make other people nervous"; and "In the small group I feel more compelled to discuss and assert my authority because of the quiet girls and the willingness of the other women to give up their authority to me and let me assert my authority" (Ibid.).

Diversity Issues. Many of the discussions in the various group experiences centered on how gender, race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation affect authority and leadership. This was largely stimulated by the consultants. My journal reflects the stimulated thinking on the topic of diversity, "It is interesting to think that many of us have affiliations far beyond gender, race, and ethnicity-but how do you respect and value the difference by focusing on the commonalities"; "The African-American woman consultant in the large group asked if the reason someone took her seat was because she is black"; and "There was discussion in the large group as to whether

we gave more authority to the older white male consultant just because he was older and a white male" (Ibid.).

Conflict Processes. Another key learning was that conflict tended to be avoided in all the group events. My journal expresses my interest in this topic, "I noticed and told the group how we were being very polite and avoiding conflict which was taken pretty well by the group and expanded upon"; and "None of us wanted to be in the center of circle in the large group event, we left it for people that came late as a punishment for being late, the consultants asked what we were scared of" (Ibid.).

Boundaries. A key learning from the different experiential groups was flexible versus rigid systems. My journals reflect this from the inter-group event, "I learned that it is the very structure that we created that helped us continue as a group to not let anyone and everyone [from other groups] into [our] group –but I still do question how talking about diversity and leadership and not letting other groups in to listen is promoting diversity and leadership." I clearly discuss the issue of boundaries in this journal entry, "You need both a balance of external structure and boundaries with internal structure and boundaries. If it is too much about 'them' then you begin to lose focus on 'us'" (Ibid.).

Table of A.K. Rice Themes

Below is a table of A.K. Rice Themes.

Figure 9. A.K. Rice Themes

A.K. RICE CONFERENCE RESULTS		
BENEFITS	CHALLENGES	KEY LEARNING
Focus: authority & leadership	High anxiety	Authority & leadership
Indirect feedback	Lack of conflict frame	Diversity issues
Varied experiential exercises		Conflict processes
Discussion / reflection events		Boundaries
Lack of conflict frame		

The National Training Lab Institute (NTL):

The Human Interaction Laboratory: Transforming Interpersonal Relationships

There is nothing so practical as a good theory

-Kurt Lewin

The National Training Lab Institute is internationally recognized for its organizational and interpersonal development training programs. NTL trainings are designed to build awareness and effectiveness in relationships and organizations. The training approach of NTL is a facilitated experiential learning group, also known as the t-group (t for training), that I will discuss in detail below.

Historical Roots

Social psychologist, Kurt Lewin pioneered the development of the National Training Laboratories (NTL). This group experience-based method of learning, used and evolved at NTL, was formulated in Bethel, ME while Lewin was conducting a group dynamics conference. The story of its development describes Lewin and his team of researchers sitting in a room after the conference reflecting on the events of the day when a couple of graduate students asked if they could sit in and listen. Lewin agreed, and as the team discussed a specific group dynamic that had occurred during the day, one of the graduate students interjected that she did not agree with their interpretation of the events. Lewin asked her to share her perspective and a dialogue ensued. This process transformed into what is currently known as the t-group laboratory training method.

Methodology

The t-group method brings ten to twelve people together with a trainer/facilitator who has considerable knowledge of psychology and/or group dynamics theory. However, the facilitator

does not take on an authoritative teacher role. This creates a dilemma for the group members as the facilitator is present, but not in command, which forces the group members to try to make the group work in new ways (Greenwood & Levin, 1998). For example, on the first day of my t-group experience at NTL, group participants asked, "Why won't the trainer tell us what to do?" However, by the third day, t-group participants proposed ideas like beginning each t-group with five minutes of silence. Our facilitator did not interject and followed the newly established group norm by also sitting in silence.

This example illustrates that one way in which the facilitator encourages this process is by supporting the group members to share and reflect on what they perceive the present situation in the group to be. The participants in my t-group felt that silence was needed and the facilitator did not tell us how to negotiate this group process. Rather, the facilitator supported each t-group members' autonomy through open-ended questions and silent support.

This process is aided by the t-group structure in that there is no explicit agenda except to focus on the present (usually called the "here and now"). This encourages participants to reflect, analyze, and offer/receive feedback on their behavior in the group setting. Some of the group members in my t-group offered feedback about the need for silence, "I don't have time to think when there is always someone talking" and "I want to be more comfortable with silence." Feedback was also offered and received by individuals concerning perceived contributions and comfortability with silence. The t-group was eventually able to figure out a way to work with silence in one of the group sessions. This example illustrates how the NTL methodology supports an experience that leads to personal development while at the same time teaching the concepts of group dynamics and human interaction.

Theory

Lewin was deeply interested in the concept of social change and finding ways to promote it (Greenwood & Levin, 1998). The t-group method stems from Lewin's work in the realm of group dynamics. However, there are two other areas of his work that are influential in understanding the theoretical basis of NTL and the t-group method. The first is his development and contributions to action research. Action research places the researcher in the role of active problem solver (Greenwood & Levin, 1998). The purpose is to engage the researcher in an active role so that theory could be evaluated through real life application. This simultaneously creates learning for individuals while promoting social change. Action research methods are echoed in the t-group method by bringing together the immediate experience of participants with the theoretical knowledge of facilitators, whereby theory and practice can be challenged and stimulated concurrently (Kolb, 1984, p. 10).

Lewin's second influential contribution to the t-group and NTL training model was his concept of social change. Lewin posited that social change occurs in three stages, (1) unfreezing the current structures, (2) changing the structures, and (3) re-freezing the changed structures (Greenwood & Levin, 1998). The t-group process at NTL parallels this social change process used in many organizations today. Although it is a simulated environment, it attempts to unfreeze the current structures and behaviors that participants may find themselves locked in. The NTL training then supports change through the process of interaction and feedback. Finally, NTL re-freezes these new behaviors and ways of thinking through preparation for real life application.

The Human Interaction Laboratory: Transforming Interpersonal Relationships

Below is the description of the NTL training as described on the NTL website:

This five-day conference is an introduction to interpersonal relations, group

dynamics, with a focus on developing and practicing effective interpersonal skills and

giving and receiving feedback responsibly. This popular program is the gateway

program for many other NTL offerings.

The t-group (t for training)--developed and refined by NTL to provide an intensive small-

group experience, an informal atmosphere of shared learning, and an opportunity for

behavioral feedback and assessment--is the foundation of the Human Interaction

Laboratory. Working through the t-group method, experiential methods, and theoretical

and conceptual frameworks, participants will increase their awareness of the effects of

their behavior on others, enhance their communication skills and thus their ability to

understand themselves and others, develop the ability to give and receive feedback

responsibly, have a clearer understanding of group development and group dynamics, and

be more aware of diversity issues.

NTL Themes

The NTL training approach manages the tension between theory and practice by vacillating

between didactic teaching and experiential learning. During the four-and-a-half days of training

the majority of time is spent in a t-group examining and reflecting on interaction and feedback

processes followed by didactic learning sessions that support awareness of the processes in the t-

group.

Benefits

The beneficial themes that emerged from my personal journals (K. Schroeder, personal journal, January 21-26, 2007) at the NTL training are explicit process, focus on experience and practice in the group, a balance between didactic and experiential teaching methods, a constructive conflict frame, and a structured journal. Below is detailed description of these themes.

Clear Objectives with Explicit Process and End Application. NTL sent a packet to each participant before the conference describing the history of NTL and what to expect from the conference. NTL also requested that each participant complete a pre-self assessment evaluation and submit learning goals before the conference. There was also a real life application session at the end of the training where each t-group had to do a skit on how not to apply their learning. There was also discussion on creation of a support network. At the conference, the facilitators stated clear objectives each day and were very open to questions about the process. This balance of flexibility and structure is reflected in my journal, "The tone of the conference continues to feel as though I should learn what I want to learn" (Ibid.).

Focus on Practice and Experience. Many of the participants did not have a working knowledge of group dynamics. On the first day, NTL supplied a book containing readings on theory of groups and interpersonal interactions entitled *Reading Book for Human Relations Training* (Cooke, Brazzel, Craig, & Greig, 1999). The trainers assigned readings from this book every night. However, much of the group experience focused on practicing constructive ways of being in a group, rather than identifying group processes through theory. My journal reflects this learning, "I really took some more personal risks rather than theoretical comfortable risks"; and

"My goal for tomorrow is to be less theoretical and attempt to put what I know into practice" (Ibid.).

Direct and Indirect Feedback. The main focus was the t-group experience and feedback. However, participants also met in a large group setting where the facilitators discussed constructive frameworks for being in the group. A variety of other experiential exercises were used in the large group sessions such as visual imagery and inter-group exercises between t-groups that were followed by reflection and debrief. My journal reflects on the facilitators' direct feedback by noting, "The facilitator's personal examples were useful and the first two group exercises to get to know each other were really helpful"; and "The facilitators were helpful in giving the words and preparation to give feedback in terms of types of listening and framing to confront others" (Ibid.). My journals also reflect the facilitator's indirect feedback, "The facilitator asked us to think about how our discussion of relationships outside the group was reflecting the present group experience" (Ibid.).

Constructive Conflict Frame. Participants were encouraged to deal with conflict by offering constructive feedback through words and specific feedback exercises. The facilitators also modeled constructive feedback processes. Quotes from my journal include, "The facilitators and the group spoke a lot about feedback-what type of feedback works well and what doesn't"; and "The feedback session sheet was really interesting" (Ibid.).

Structured Journal. Participants were given a journal on the first day and encouraged to journal throughout the experience. The trainer directed journal entry reflection during the large group. There were supplemental readings on how to journal most effectively. My journal reflects this benefit because I have a very detailed journal of my experience as well as quotes like, "The continuous journaling is a good thought and very useful" (Ibid.).

Challenges

The challenging themes that emerged in my journals and experience at NTL are length of the conference, lack of frame for emotions, and a high level of anxiety. Below is a detailed description of these themes.

Long Days/Long Conference. The conference was four-and-a-half days from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. There was little time for solitary reflection or nightly reading assignments. My journal reflects the experience of the long days, "A lot happened today and I was not able to journal as much as I liked"; and "I am exhausted and could feel myself zoning out of the t-group" (Ibid.).

No frame for emotion. Although the t-group frequently discussed emotion, there was no frame to offer feedback. My journal describes the impact of this lack of frame for emotion, "I should have framed what my emotions were"; "In talking about emotions, I realized everybody in the group was discussing outside relationships, rather than within the group"; and "I did not take time to reflect on my emotion and therefore was not able to offer constructive feedback" (Ibid.).

High Anxiety. The trainers at NTL attempted to create a safe context for participants through explicit processes and objectives. However, there was still a high level of anxiety when entering the t-group sessions of the training because of the subject matter that was being discussed. My journal notes, "I was nervous returning to the group because of the conflict yesterday"; "I feel like when I take risks in the t-group, I make other people uncomfortable"; and "I entered the large community group nervously happy that I had been brave the day before, but also nervous not to make the same mistakes as the day before" (Ibid.).

Key Learning Themes

The key learning themes at the NTL conference are feedback, communication, and leadership.

Feedback. The overall learning theme in my journal is constructive feedback. My personal journal notes that, "I felt on the third day that I was able to articulate myself and go constructively through a feedback process"; and I began to consider questions like, "Do I put conditions on feedback, especially when giving positive feedback?" (Ibid.).

Communication. Effective communication was emphasized as a critical component to constructive feedback. My personal journal notes, "I learned how much I need to work on my articulation"; and "It is so interesting how such a good intention can be interpreted so differently and negatively" (Ibid.).

Leadership. The topic of leadership was a key learning reflected in my journals and discussed in the t-group setting. "It seems that an effective leader is able to belong to the group, participate as a full member, and also step outside the group to see how well the group is functioning"; and "The t-group talked about authority and what good authority is" (Ibid.).

Table of NTL Themes

Below is a table of NTL Themes.

Figure 10. NTL Themes

NTL: HUMAN INTERACTION LAB RESULTS		
BENEFITS	CHALLENGES	KEY LEARNING
Clear objectives & processes	Length of days & conference	Feedback
Focus on experience & practice		Communication
	Lack of frame for emotions	
Direct & indirect feedback		Leadership
Constructive conflict frame	High Anxiety	
Structured journal		

Overall Themes Summary

Figure 11. Overall Benefits to Use in Training

Benefits:
+ Explicit Processes and Objectives to Create Safe Context and Reduce Anxiety
+ Structured and Guided Journal
+ Specific Focus on Topics (e.g., Emotion and Conflict)
+ Conclusion with Real World Application and Discussion
+ Constructive Conflict Frame

Figure 12. Tensions to Manage

Tensions:
~ Group Experience vs. Role Play
~ Theory vs. Experience
~ Direct Feedback vs. Indirect Feedback
~ Long vs. Short Training

Figure 13. Summary of Benefits and Tensions by Training

BENEFITS	TRAINING			
	NTL	*AK RICE*	*PCP*	*WORKGROUPS*
Explicit Process & Objectives	X	X	X	X
Structured Journal	X			X
Specific Focus	X	X	X	X
End Application	X	X		
Conflict Frame	X		X	X
TENSIONS				
Group Experience	X	X		X
Role Play	X		X	
Focus on Theory	X	X	X	X
Focus on Experience	X	X	X	X
Direct Feedback	X			
Indirect Feedback	X	X		X
Long Training	X			X
Short Training		X	X	

Discussion of Guidelines Learned for Training Design

We shall not cease from exploration, And the end of all our exploring,

Will be to arrive where we started, And know the place for the first time.

-T.S. Eliot

Overall, there were many benefits and challenges that influenced learning from each training. Indeed, I have received quite an education during this project. The results reflect that similar themes in learning appear even when the pedagogical processes are different. There are also processes in the trainings that are considered both benefits and challenges to the learning experience, which reflects early experiential learning scholars' assertions that there is a tension between theory and practice (Lewin, 1946; Kolb; 1984). My results reflect this specific tension, as well as other tensions such as: direct versus indirect feedback, having a specific focus, length of conference, and the variation of different experiential exercises.

In this discussion, I use the applications of experiential learning theories to understand how the overall benefits and the tensions found in the results would best be incorporated into the design of my training.

Training Benefits

The results suggest the beneficial themes (see figure 11 on previous page) clearly contribute to a constructive learning experience. I describe the ways in which each contributes to learning and how I intend to use these benefits in my training. After the discussion of each benefit and tension, I conclude with a summary of training design guidelines (see figure 14 on p. 86).

Explicit Process, Objectives

Both PCP and NTL provided explicit processes and objectives of their training. The explicit process and clear objectives at PCP and NTL created a training atmosphere that calmed anxieties and provided a safe context, which supported an atmosphere where people could make mistakes, be themselves, and really learn (Fisher, 1997). This is reflected in my key learning themes at both NTL and PCP. I learned that clarifying intentions and effective communication is pertinent to facilitating a constructive training process.

Training Result Guideline #1. Communicate clear objectives and processes to participants in my training.

Structured Journal

Both the NTL and Conflict in Workgroups results reveal that the structured journal was beneficial. This contributes to the reflective observation and abstract conceptualization modes of learning in the ELT cycle. By reflecting on concrete experiences with abstract concepts at the trainings, I was able to grasp and transform my own abstract conceptualization of what was going on in the group. This also encouraged plans of action to actively experiment with these reflections and learnings.

Training Result Guideline #2. Supply a journal with several guided reflections and encourage participants to reflect autonomously.

Specific Focus

All four of the trainings had a specific focus and teaching objective (although their process in accomplishing these objectives may have not been explicit). My journal review, as well as Rioch (1975), suggests that having a specific focus is useful because participants learn about the topic at hand and are able to relate the specific focus to more general learnings. This focus offers

an abstract conceptualization on which learners can reflect and experiment.

Training Result Guideline #3. Focus on emotion and conflict in interpersonal relationships and encourage the examination of other topics, such as communication, diversity, group processes, and leadership to name a few.

End Application

The real life application sessions at NTL and A.K. Rice were useful and included suggestions of creating a support network and discussion of how individuals will apply the learning to careers and personal lives. This utilized the transformational ELT learning cycle modes of active experimentation and reflective observation (Kolb, 1984). My experiences suggest that the end application at NTL was particularly useful in which participants designed a skit on how not to apply the learning which added a humorous element and ending to the training.

Training Result Guideline #4. Have an end application similar to the NTL exercise for my training model.

Tensions to Manage

Below are themes for tensions to manage (see figure 12 on p. 78) that my results reflect are both beneficial and challenging for various reasons.

Group Experience versus Role-Play

An experiential group, such as the t-group, provides participants with a real life concrete experience. However, my results suggest that because participants are using personal concrete experience, this may create anxiety that might also inhibit their learning process. The trainings that used real experiential groups (Conflict in Workgroups, A.K. Rice, & NTL) were anxiety provoking, however these feelings were mitigated when there was a feeling of safe context.

On the other hand, role-plays offer a simulated concrete experience and abstract conceptualization of personal experience. This may cause less anxiety and frees participants to engage in the transformational mode of active experimentation with less fear. This supports participants whose learning styles thrive in less social and personal modes of learning. However, because the experience is not real, participants who do not experience role-plays as true concrete experience, or whose learning style relies on personal connection, may not be supported by this learning.

Training Result Guideline #5. Use an experiential group, like the t-group, for my training design. To mitigate the effects of anxiety on the learning process, use training result guideline #1: open communication and explicit processes and objectives. I will use short role-plays that are not focused on personal concrete experience to support the different learning styles.

Length of Training

My results suggest a training that is too long, (e.g., NTL, Conflict in Workgroups) can have good learning, but can also be challenging. However, my results also suggest that in a shorter training, (e.g., the two-and-a-half day PCP training) there was not enough time to fit everything in. A three-day training from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. (e.g., A.K. Rice) was a good length, with good learnings. My training will be for the general public and should be realistic in terms of work schedules and personal lives, yet offer enough material to be useful.

Training Result Guideline #6. A three-day training from 9 a.m. to 9 p.m. will be a sufficient length to teach the objectives of the training.

Theory versus Experience

As mentioned, scholars have historically grappled with the tension between theory and experience and continue to do so (Lewin, 1946; Kolb, 1984). My results reflect this tension.

During the Conflict in Workgroups training my journal shows the focus on theory was beneficial in learning group processes. My journal also reflects that too much focus on theory was a challenge by prohibiting here and now discussion. Similarly, at A.K. Rice most participants had knowledge of group theory, which led to many theoretical and analytical discussions to avoid discussion of what participants were actually experiencing.

In direct comparison, I found the NTL focus on practice and experience to be very useful, however I disliked that there was not enough time to reflect on the assigned readings. Ironically, at NTL, I found that even though there was not a focus on scholarly theory, participants in the groups used external experiences as "theory" to also avoid focusing on the present group processes. Likewise, PCP used role-play as what would happen "in theory" if their approach to dialogue was applied. The resulting learning experience from PCP was mostly "in theory" and not as much "real experience." Clearly, a focus solely on external experience does not mitigate the use of theory. Therefore, a joint focus on experience and theory is required, but difficult to accomplish.

These results corroborate Kolb's (1984) assertion that the tension between theory and experience will always be present. Theory supports the learning modes of abstract conceptualization and reflective observation whereas experience supports concrete experience and active experimentation. This speaks to the need for trainers and facilitators using my training to be aware of and effectively manage this tension.

Training Result Guideline #7. Support a balance in my training through the use of concrete group experience that promotes the use of theory to analyze experience, and encourage active experimentation to use in the present moment.

Direct versus Indirect Feedback

Overall, both direct and indirect feedback proved to be important to learning. A.K. Rice, Conflict in Workgroups, and NTL used indirect feedback that stimulated reflection and abstract conceptualization on active experimentation in the concrete experience, which completes the ELT learning cycle (Kolb, 1984). The consultants in these trainings did not dictate to participants what the learning should be, rather they supported the learning through frames that participants could personally identify with and learn from. This understanding supported the different learning styles of participants and the autonomy to have their personal learning experience during the training.

Likewise, the encouragement of constructive direct feedback with effective communication also completes the ELT cycle. NTL Participants were encouraged to actively experiment with an abstract conceptualization of five levels of feedback taught by trainers including language frames like, "You make me feel this, when you do this" to "I feel this when you do this" to "I feel this about you because I know this about myself". Participants then had the opportunity to reflect on their own or others experimentation with this abstract conceptualization during the concrete group experience. This reflection begins the ELT cycle again where participants can form new abstract concepts on feedback that best suit their individual style.

Overall, my results and analysis conclude that little or no feedback presents the clearest challenge to learning in the training. Although the structure of the PCP training was set-up differently than the other experiential trainings, the lack of direct or indirect feedback on how participants were managing the process or not managing the process inhibited my learning. I was unsure of how my efforts at the training were being perceived by both the trainers and participants and would have preferred some feedback.

Training Result Guideline #8. Encourage a combination of direct and indirect feedback. I will utilize the NTL "five levels of feedback" framework to guide participants. As a facilitator in the group experience, I will give more indirect feedback to support the reflection of participant's concrete experiences.

Conflict Framework

Three of the four trainings offered an abstract conceptualization of a conflict frame. A.K. Rice did not, which was challenging because participants avoided conflict. However, having no conflict frame also elicited participants to create their own based on concrete experiences, preconceived abstract conceptualizations of conflict, active experimentation, and reflection.

Training Result Guideline #9. Manage tension by prescribing an abstract conceptualization of a conflict framework and encouraging experimentation with active reflection, while at the same time, eliciting participants to reveal and experiment with their individual conceptualization of conflict.

Summary of Themes

Figure 14 on the next page presents a table outlining the results learned from my analysis and discussion, which I will use as guidelines in the creation of my training.

Figure 14. Summary of Training Design Guidelines

TRAINING DESIGN GUIDELINE DESCIPTION		
RESULT	GUIDELINE	GUIDELINE DESCRIPTION
#1	Clear objectives and Processes	Communicate clear objectives and processes to participants in my training.
#2	Structured Journal	Supply a journal with several guided reflections as well as encourage participants to reflect autonomously.
#3	Specific Focus on Emotion and Conflict	Specific focus on emotion and conflict in interpersonal relationships and encourage the examination of other topics, such as communication, diversity, group processes, and leadership to name a few.
#4	End Application	Training will have an end application session. Use exercise similar to NTL end application.
#5	Experiential t-group and variety of experiential exercises.	I intend to use an experiential group, like the t-group, for my training. To mitigate the effects of anxiety on the learning process, I will training result #1. I will also use other forms of experiential exercises, like short role-plays that are not so focused on personal concrete experience to support the different learning styles.
#6	Three-day training	A three-day training from 9:00 am to 9:00 p.m. will be a sufficient length to teach the objectives of the training.
#7	Balance of Didactic and Experiential	Support of a balance in my training through the use of concrete group experience that supports the use of theory to analyze experience as well as encourage active experimentation to use in the present moment.
#8	Indirect and Direct Feedback	My training will encourage a combination of direct and indirect feedback. I will utilize the NTL "five levels of feedback" framework to guide participants. As a facilitator in the group experience, I will give more indirect feedback to support the reflection of participant's concrete experiences.
#9	Prescribe and Elicit Conflict and Emotion Conceptualization	My training will prescribe and elicit abstract conceptualization of a conflict framework and encourage active experimentation with reflection.

CHAPTER 5: EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION TRAINING

I have examined pedagogical theory, emotion and conflict theory, emotion and conflict resolution models, and conducted an assessment of other experiential trainings. As a result of this exploratory analysis, the following is a preliminary template for my training. First, I provide a description of the objectives, methods, and processes of the training. Next, the reader will find two figures detailing my training. Figure 15 is an outline of my training accompanied by a detailed explanation of the process of each activity. Figure 16 is the outline of my training with the corresponding supporting guideline, showcasing the ELT mode of learning that is supported by the training activity.

The training reflects methods of didactic and experiential learning to teach the process and application of constructive emotional conflict resolution processes within interpersonal relationships and groups. The training is intended for all individuals, from the conflict resolution novice to the advanced practitioner. A pre-training preparation packet for participants includes a thorough description of the training goals, a description of the t-group process, and a goal-setting sheet regarding emotion and conflict. This begins the training with explicit processes so that participants are put at ease and stimulated to participate in the training. Explicit processes and objectives are present throughout the training to support a safe context and active participation.

The three-day experiential training examines the role emotions play in conflict and interpersonal relationships. Participants will learn the most current theories and approaches to dealing with emotion in conflict through practical application and experience. My training intends to offer opportunities to actively experiment, reflect, and form abstract conceptualizations to accommodate all types of learners. Participants will have the opportunity to increase their awareness of emotion and conflict through experiential learning exercises

including a small group experience (t-group), large group exercises, and role-plays. Trainers

compliment these exercises with the introduction of emotion and conflict theory and skill

through lecture and visuals. The abstract conceptual frameworks on emotion and conflict are

potential tools that participants can experiment with and reflect on during the concrete

experiential exercises. Each activity has been methodically placed to coincide with the evolving

knowledge of the participants and to accommodate the different ELT modes of learning.

The training will function as a laboratory where participants can actively experiment with

new concepts and tools to help manage the emotional conflicts in their lives. The experiential t-

group will be the focal point of the training and incorporates all of the ELT modalities of

learning. Over the course of the three-day training, the expectation is that the t-group experience

will provide a learning experience that builds on itself and from the other training activities.

Likewise, the variety of other training activities (e.g., role plays, lecture) is meant to build on and

assimilate the learnings occurring in the t-group, and support the different ELT modes of

learning.

The training takes into consideration the advice of conflict resolution scholar and

practitioner, John Paul Lederach (1995) who asserts that participants will bring experiences and

definitions of emotion and conflict to the training, which is of equal value to the suggested

frameworks. My training provides a balance between eliciting each participant's knowledge and

experience with emotion and conflict (e.g., t-group and a structured journal), and prescribing

abstract conceptualizations of emotion and conflict (e.g., using the flip chart to illustrate the

conflict and emotion models) (Lederach, 1995). Overall, my training reflects the guidelines

derived from my own experiences and provides an explicit process that follows experiential

learning theory intended to accommodate all learners. (see next page, figure 15)

Figure 15. Emotionally Intelligent Conflict Resolution Training

**EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION TRAINING**		
Time	*Training Activity*	*Description*
	Pre-Training Preparation Description of Training Emotion and Conflict Goal Setting	▪ Send out email with description of training and readings/goal setting sheet to prepare participants for training (see Appendix A)
	**DAY 1**	
9:00-9:10	Training Introduction Objectives	▪ Introduction of Trainers and Participants ▪ Discuss schedule of day ▪ Ground rules: 　-Confidential 　-Respect of time 　-Respect others 　-Additional ground rules from participants. ▪ Flip chart with training objectives: 　-Learn one new approach to conflict 　-Learn one new approach to emotion in conflict
9:10-9:20	Distribute Journal Guided Reflection on emotion and conflict goal setting	▪ Discussion of journal use during training. Article on journaling as suggested reading (Appendix B) ▪ Trainer will ask participants to set individual personal goals for training in journal. "Think of 1-3 goals that you would like to accomplish at this training with regard to how you deal with conflict, emotion, or both in your interpersonal relationships. It can be a specific goal or a more general challenge to yourself. Write it down with a few notes about why this is important and how you might accomplish it."
9:20-9:30	Experiential Learning Cycle Visual & Use of Group Experience	▪ Show visual of experiential learning cycle ▪ Discuss how the different group experiences and exercises are an opportunity to actively experiment and find out what happens with behaviors and concepts. ▪ Highlight confidentiality of t-group experience
9:30-9:35	Large Group Exercise on Emotion and Conflict	▪ Trainers role play an argument with absolutely no emotion ▪ Trainers role play an argument with heated emotion
9:35-9:45	Debrief/Reflection	▪ Trainers ask participants to discuss implications of both
9:45-10:00	Discussion of t-group with ground rules	▪ Go over t-group guidelines including confidentiality, opportunity to experiment, and focus on communication of emotion and conflict
10:00-10:15	Break	

10:15-12:15	T-Group	▪ Each t-group will meet in a private, separate room from where the large group meets for two hours to focus on the "here and now" of the group, particularly focused on emotion, conflict, and interpersonal relationships ▪ Each t-group will have 6-12 participants with one trainer ▪ A flip chart is provided for use by participants ▪ Flip chart paper is also used to display ground rules
12:15-1:30	Lunch	
1:30-1:40	Guided Journal on Individual Approach to Conflict	▪ Trainer will ask participants to journal how they deal with conflict and how they would like to deal with conflict

1:40-1:55	Overview of Conflict Discussion of framing/levels of feedback	▪ On Flip Chart: Cooperation versus Competition, Discussion of sources of conflict (Wheel of Conflict) and how conflict is framed (behavior, physiological, emotion).
		▪ Discuss difference between "I" and "You" statements
		▪ Levels of Feedback: (NTL)[1]
		  1. Not saying anything
		  2. You are ….
		  3. You are because…
		  4. When you, I feel…
		  5. I experience you…
		  6. I experience me…

1:55-2:10	Small Group Exercise on Conflict and Levels of Feedback	▪ Simulated role play practicing levels of feedback
2:10-4:10	T-group with added ground rules on constructive communication processes	▪ Levels of feedback added to flip chart in t-group
4:10-4:25	Break	
4:25-4:35	Guided Journal on experience of giving, receiving, and observing feedback	▪ Trainer asks participants to journal about their experience of giving, receiving, and/or observing feedback. What worked, what didn't, and what could be done better?
4:35-4:55	Small Group Exercise on Emotion	▪ Participants pair up in small groups of two. Participants are told that one of the pair will be given a piece of paper with a specific emotion. The person with the emotion has to display this emotion using only hand

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[1] Levels of Feedback are adapted from NTL Institute Training, Appreciative Inquiry: Transforming Interpersonal Relationships

		and facial gestures to the other person who must try to decipher what emotion is being displayed.
4:55-5:00	Debrief in large group	▪ Ask participants about experience. ▪ Discuss difficulty of deciphering what another person is feeling through just their emotional expression.
5:00-6:30	Dinner	
6:30-7:00	Overview of Emotion and Emotion in Conflict 5 Principles of Emotion in Conflict	▪ Discuss emotional expression and emotional state-discuss focus on emotional experience in conflict ▪ Use flip chart to describe these different concepts and five principles of Emotion in Conflict
7:00-9:00	T-group with added ground rules reflecting principles of emotion	▪ Add Ground rules: -Don't assume people feel what you feel -Don't assume people always know what they feel -If confused, ask how someone feels
	Assigned Readings	Journaling, Communication in Groups, See Appendix B
DAY 2		
9:00-9:10	Objectives and Process for the day	▪ Debrief, warm up stretch ▪ Discuss schedule and reiterate objectives
9:10-9:20	Structured Journal on self-talk/appraisal of conflict	▪ Ask participants to think about what really gets them emotional in a conflict, or in a relationship? Is there a specific concern of theirs that tends to come up often?
9:20-9:35	Overview of 5 Core Concerns	▪ Present five core concerns on flip chart ▪ Describe each concern with an example.
9:35-10:00	Large Group Exercise on 5 Core Concerns	▪ Each T-group does a skit on how self-talk/appraisal of emotion is actually done in t-group/or real life as well as a skit on how it should be done with Shapiro and Jones
10:00-10:10	Debrief/Reflection	▪ Discuss implications of concerns and how it feels to use them ▪ Discuss challenges of using them.
10:10-10:25	Break	
10:25-12:25	T-group with ground rules reflecting 5 Core Concerns	▪ 5 Core Concerns added to Flip Chart
12:25-2:00	Lunch	
2:00-2:30	Movie on emotion and conflict	▪ Road to Abilene with discussion about communication, emotion, and conflict
2:30-3:00	Emotional Style Inventory (Thompson) with feedback from t-group members	▪ Each participant will work with 4-5 other participants from their t-group. Each participant will fill out the emotional style inventory first about themselves, then about each of the other participants in their group. They will compile scores about themselves and the

		other participants' emotional styles. Then participants will be give each other feedback on how they perceive their emotional style by using the scores and the levels of feedback. Participants will see how their emotional style affects others.
3:00-3:10	Journal with guided reflection on feedback and emotional style	▪ Trainer will ask participants to journal about the experience of receiving feedback on their emotional style, what they learned about their emotional style, and what they learned about giving and receiving feedback.
3:10-3:25	Break	
3:25-5:25	T-Group	▪ Participants meet in T-group
5:25-7:00	Dinner	
7:00-9:00	T-group	▪ Participants meet in T-group
	Assigned readings	See Appendix C
DAY 3		
9:00-9:15	Process of Day	▪ Debrief ▪ Reiterate Objectives ▪ Schedule of day ▪ Questions
9:15-9:25	Stretch Exercise	▪ A simple stretch to relax participants and ease them in to the last day.
9:25-9:35	Structured Journal on emotion and conflict learning goals	▪ Trainer will ask participants to look back on their learning goals from day one and reflect on them in terms of what they have learned in the training. The trainer will also ask participants to think about how they can meet their goals on this last day whether through feedback, active experimentation with new concepts or whatever else?
9:35-9:50	Break	
9:50-11:50	T-group	▪ Participants meet in T-group
11:50-1:20	Lunch	
1:20-1:50	Bridge Building Exercise: Large Inter-Group Exercise (NTL)[2]	▪ Participants are asked to sit with their t-groups in the large group. Participants are given materials and directed as a team to build the longest bridge possible in 15 minutes using toothpicks and plastic cups. Each

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[2] This exercise is adapted from NTL Institute Training, Appreciative Inquiry: Transforming Personal Relationships

		t-group member is given a piece of paper with the instruction to either stay silent for the first 5 minutes of the exercise or to speak freely. Participants will have to switch role direction after the first 5 minutes. The last 5 minutes everyone can speak.
1:50-2:00	Reflection/Debrief	▪ Participants reflect with their t-group on the exercise, emotions, and conflict.
2:00-2:15	Structured Journal on what you might be holding back in t-group/What is one theory you can experiment with?	▪ Trainer asks participants to journal why they might be holding back in t-group and what they might be holding back? Also, what theories and tools learned could they experiment with to help this?
2:15-2:30	Break	
2:30-4:30	Last t-group with facilitator end application	▪ Participants go to t-group ▪ Last half-hour group discusses what they have learned, last things they want to share-facilitated by trainer.
4:30-4:45	General Discussion/Questions	▪ Trainers ask large group for questions, comments on training

4:45-5:00	End Application Concepts	▪ Trainers present on flip chart ways to carry learning into the real world.
		    -Create Network of support
		    -Look back on journal and keep journal
		    -Levels of Feedback
		    -Patience
		▪ Trainers discuss difference between training and real world and difficult of assimilating back with family and friends after learning new concepts and behaviors.

5:00-5:30	End Application Skit by each t-group	▪ Trainers ask participants to get into their t-groups and create a skit of an example about what not to do when going back to real world. Participants present to large group
5:30-5:35	Evaluation via mail or email	▪ Trainers tell participants evaluation will be sent by email
5:35-5:40	Final Goodbye	▪ Trainers facilitate a final goodbye with participants.

Figure 16. Training with Supporting Guideline & Experiential Learning Mode

EMOTIONALL INTELLIGENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION TRAINING		
Training Activity	*Supporting Guideline*	*Supporting ELT Mode*
Pre-Training Preparation Description of Training Emotion and Conflict Goal Setting	#1 Clear objectives and processes #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Eliciting conflict and emotion conceptualization	Abstract Concepts
DAY 1		
Training Introduction Objectives	#1 Clear objectives and processes	Abstract Concepts
Distribute Journal Guided Reflection on emotion and conflict goal setting	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Eliciting conflict and emotion conceptualization	Reflective Observation Abstract Concepts
Experiential Learning Cycle- Discussion and Visual Use of Group Experience	#1 Clear objectives and process #7 Didactic Learning	Abstract Concepts
Large Group Exercise on Emotion and Conflict	#3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning	Concrete Experience
Debrief/Reflection	#9 Elicit conflict and emotion conceptualization	Reflective Observation
Discussion of t-group with ground rules	#1 Clear objectives and processes #7 Didactic Learning	Abstract Concepts
15 Minute Break	#6 Conference Length	
T-Group	#5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect	Concrete Experience Active Experimentation Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
Lunch		
Guided Journal on Individual Approach to Conflict	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
Overview of Conflict Discussion of levels of feedback	#3 Specific focus on conflict #7 Didactic Learning #9 Prescribe conflict conceptualization	Abstract Concepts
Small Group Exercise on	#3 Specific Focus on conflict	Concrete Experience

Conflict/Framing and Levels of Feedback	#5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active Experimentation
T-group with added ground rules on constructive communication processes	#1 Clear objectives and processes #3 Specific Focus on conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Concrete Experience Active Experimentation Reflective Observation Abstract Concepts
Break	#6 Three Day Training Length	
Guided Journal on experience of giving, receiving, and observing feedback	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on conflict #9 Elicit abstract conceptualization	Reflective Observation Abstract Concepts
Large Group Exercise on Emotion	#3 Specific Focus on emotion #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #9 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Active Experimentation Abstract Concepts
Debrief in small groups	#8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Reflective Observation Active Experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts
Dinner		
Overview of Emotion and Emotion in Conflict	#3 Specific Focus on emotion #7 Didactic Learning	Abstract Concepts
T-group with added ground rules reflecting principles of emotion	#3 Specific Focus on conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Reflective Observation Active Experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts
Assigned Readings	#7 Didactic Learning #9 Prescribe conflict and emotion conceptualization	Abstract concepts Reflective Observation
DAY 2		
Objectives and Process for the day	#1 Clear objectives and process	Active Experimentation
Structured Journal on self-talk/appraisal of conflict	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #4 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Reflective observation Abstract Concepts
Overview of Shapiro and Jones Framework	#3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict	Active Experimentation Abstract Concepts

		#7 Didactic Learning #9 Prescribe emotion conceptualization	
	Large Group Exercise	#3 Specific Focus on emotion #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect Feedback #9 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Active Experimentation Abstract Concepts Concrete Experience
	Debrief/Reflection	#3 Specific focus on emotion #4 Indirect and direct feedback	Reflective observation
	Break	#6 Three day Training Length	
	T-group with ground rules reflecting Shapiro and Jones Principles	#3 Specific Focus on conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
	Lunch		
	Movie on emotion and conflict	#3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #6 Didactic Learning	Reflective Observation Abstract Concepts

	Emotional Style Inventory
	(Thompson) with feedback from t-
	group members
		#3 Specific focus on emotion and
		   conflict
		#5 Variety of experiential exercises
		#7 Didactic and Experiential
		   Learning
		#8 Indirect and Direct Feedback
		#9 Prescribe and Elicit conflict and
		emotion conceptualization
			Active Experimentation
			Reflective Observation
			Concrete Experience
			Abstract Concepts

	Journal with guided reflection on feedback and emotional style	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Reflective observation Abstract concepts
	Break		
	T-Group with additional ground rules on emotion and conflict	#3 Specific Focus on conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
	Dinner		
	T-group with additional ground rules on emotion and conflict	#3 Specific Focus on conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises	Active experimentation Concrete Experience

	#7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
Assigned readings	#7 Didactic Learning #9 Prescribe conflict and emotion conceptualization	Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
DAY 3		
Process of Day	#1 Clear objectives and process	Reflective Observation
Stretch Exercise		
Structured Journal on emotion and conflict learning goals	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Reflective Observation Abstract concepts
Break	#6 Three Day Training Length	
T-group	#3 Specific Focus on emotion and conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
Lunch		
Tower Building Large Inter-Group Exercise	#3 Specific Focus on emotion and conflict #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts
Reflection/Debrief	#1 Clear objectives and process #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #9 Elicit conflict and emotion conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete experience Abstract concepts Reflective Observation
Structured Journal on what you might be holding back in T-group/What is one theory you can experiment with?	#2 Structured Journal #3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #4 Elicit emotion conceptualization	Reflective Observation Active Experimentation Abstract Concepts
Break	●	●
Last T-group with facilitator end application	#3 Specific Focus on conflict #4 End application #5 Variety of experiential exercises #7 Experiential Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict conceptualization	Active experimentation Concrete Experience Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
General Discussion/Questions	#1 Clear objectives and process	Reflective observation

End Application Concepts	#3 Specific Focus on emotion and conflict #4 End application #7 Didactic Learning #9 Prescribe emotion and conflict concepts	Abstract Concepts Reflective Observation
End Application Skit by each t-group	#3 Specific focus on emotion and conflict #4 End Application #5 Variety of Experiential Exercises #7 Experiential and Didactic Learning #8 Indirect and Direct Feedback #9 Elicit conflict and emotion conceptualization	Active experimentation Reflective Observation Abstract Concepts Concrete Experience
Evaluation via mail or email	#4 End application	Reflective Observation
Final Goodbye	#4 End application	Reflective Observation

CHAPTER 6: GENERAL DISCUSSION

If you truly want to understand something, try to change it.

-Kurt Lewin

This project has been an effort to design a training model that effectively teaches the current theories and models of emotion and conflict. My intuition was correct in assuming this would not be an easy task due to the complexity and subjectivity of the concepts that I sought to teach. The calls for action by current conflict resolution scholars, in terms of training design, also alerted me to the rigorous process necessary to design and deliver a training design model. In an effort to attend to all these concerns, I offered an in-depth documentation of the history, rationale, and methodology to support my intended pedagogical model.

An important aspect of my project and design considers that emotion and conflict are not easy concepts to teach. More importantly, this design considers that emotion and conflict theories and frameworks are not easy to learn. I reviewed and examined Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory for perspective on how individuals learn from experience. I also discovered, through my own personal experiences, how I learn best and what pedagogical methodologies are most effective for me. Thus, I have attempted to balance my training design model between a prescriptive and elicitive approach to teaching.

Finally, through my personal experience of the applications of experiential learning theory, I was able to generate prescriptive and elicitive training guidelines to constructively facilitate a combination of pedagogical processes and methodologies. This has contributed to a dynamic training design that attempts to assuage all styles of learners by utilizing different modes of learning. In sum, these applications convey my decision and have offered a history of how I constructed my current training design model.

Of course, my training design is not without flaws. As noted, I have focused on one particular theory of experiential learning. Although it is the most widely used, there are certainly other theories, including adult learning theories, which would be useful to my design. Furthermore, the training activity timeline lacks meticulous calculation. The timeline is an estimation and may not provide an accurate representation of the time needed to complete each activity. I have only presented a preliminary model, distilled from four trainings, for what appears to work well in terms of guidelines, experiential learning theory, and activities. As a result, I have created an ambitious training design that is comprised of more activities and ideas than can actually be accomplished in the time allotted. These activities and the timeline can be cut and revised as needed to accommodate for this discrepancy.

Another important methodological issue to my training design is that I have based my research and resulting guidelines on my own experiences. Although I tried to mitigate this by applying the experiential learning theory, the validity and generalizability of my findings on the beneficial, challenging, and key learning themes are limited. Finally, I have not conducted this training nor held focus groups to offer feedback and evaluation on what works and what does not.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

This brings me to the next steps. As mentioned, a focus group to test the activities and pedagogy of the design would offer constructive personal feedback as well as concrete experience, reflective observation, active experimentation, and abstract concepts for my analysis. This evaluation would help to work out potential unknown flaws of my design, and could lead to an eventual implementation of the whole training design after a re-assessment. After this initial implementation, I would do another evaluation and assessment to consider what works well

pedagogically and what is not working well. I would also continue to add current theory, frameworks, and activities on emotion, conflict, and pedagogy to continue the learning cycle of my training design.

I officially conclude this project and appreciate the time and consideration spent reading such a long document. I leave you with my favorite quote that has the wonderful ability to sum up my feelings on emotion, conflict, learning, and interpersonal relationships.

...but once the realization is accepted that even between the closest human beings infinite distances continue to exist, a wonderful living side by side can grow up, if they succeed in loving the distance between them which makes it possible for each to see the other whole and against a wide sky!

-Rainer Maria Rilke

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Appendix A

Pre-Training Preparation Packet

Emotionally Intelligent Conflict Resolution Training Description

This three-day experiential training examines the role emotions play in conflict and interpersonal relationships. Participants will learn the most current theories and approaches to dealing with emotion in conflict through practical application and experience. Participants will have the opportunity to increase their awareness of emotion and conflict through experiential learning exercises including a small group experience (t-group), large group simulations, and role-plays. The training will function as a laboratory where participants can actively experiment with new concepts and tools to help manage the emotional conflicts in their lives. Please see the next page to find a description of the processes of a t-group and a goal setting sheet.

WHAT IS A T-GROUP?

Charles Seashore

A T-Group or Training-Group is a type of experience-based learning style. Participants work together in a small group of 10-14 people, over an extended period of time. Learning comes through analysis of their own experiences, including feelings, reactions, perceptions, and behavior. The duration varies according to the specific needs of the participants, but most groups meet for a total of 30 to 40 hours.

The T-Group is a part of a larger laboratory design which may include role playing, case studies, theory presentations, and inter-group exercises.

A TYPICAL T-GROUP STARTER

The staff member in a typical T-Group, usually referred to as the trainer, might open the group in a variety of ways. The following statement is an example:

> This group will meet for many hours and will serve as a kind of laboratory where each individual can increase his understanding of the forces which influence individual behavior and the performance of groups and organizations. The data for learning will be our own behavior, feelings, and reactions. We begin with no definite structure and organization, no agreed-upon procedures, and no specific agenda. It will be up to us to fill the vacuum created by the lack of these familiar elements and to study our group as we evolve. My role will be to help the group to learn from its own experience, but not to act as a traditional chairperson nor to suggest how we should organize, what our procedure should be, or exactly what our agenda will include. With these few comments, I think we are ready to begin in whatever way you feel will be most helpful.

Into this ambiguous situation members then proceed to inject themselves. Some may try to organize the group by promoting an election of a chairperson or the selection of a topic for discussion. Others may withdraw and wait in silence until they get a clearer sense of the direction the group may take. It is not unusual for an individual to try to get the trainer to play a more directive role, like that of the typical chairperson.

Whatever role a person chooses to play, he also is observing and reacting to the behavior of other members and in turn is having an impact on them. It is these perceptions and reactions that are the data for learning.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

Underlying the T-Group are the following assumptions about the nature of the process which distinguishes T-Groups from other more traditional models of learning:

1. **LEARNING RESPONSIBILITY**. Each participant is responsible for their own learning. What a person learns depends upon their own style, readiness, and the relationship they develop with other members of the group.

2. **STAFF ROLE**. The staff person's role is to facilitate the examination and understanding of the experience in the group. They help participants to focus on the way the group is working, the style of an individual's participation, or the issues that are facing the group.

3. **EXPERIENCE** and **CONCEPTUALIZATION**. Most learning is a combination of experience and conceptualization. A major T-Group aim is to provide a setting in which individuals are encouraged to examine their experiences together in enough detail so that valid generalizations can be drawn.

4. **AUTHENTIC RELATIONSHIPS** and **LEARNING**. A person is most free to learn when they establish authentic relationships with other people and thereby increases their sense of self-esteem and decreases their defensiveness. In authentic relationships people can be open, honest, and direct with one another so that they are communicating what they are actually feeling rather than masking their feelings.

5. **SKILL ACQUISITION** and **VALUES**. The development of new skills in working with people is maximized as a person examines the basic values underlying the behavior, as they acquire appropriate concepts and theory, and as they are able to practice new behavior and obtain feedback on the degree to which the behavior produces the intended impact.

GOALS and OUTCOMES

Goals and outcomes of a T-Group can be classified in terms of potential learning concerning individuals, groups, and organizations.

1. **THE INDIVIDUAL POINT OF VIEW**. Most T-Group participants gain a picture of the impact that they make on other group members. A participant can assess the degree to which that impact corresponds with or deviates from their conscious intentions. They can also get a picture of the range of perceptions of any given act. It is important to understand that different people may see the same piece of behavior differently - for example, as supportive or antagonistic, relevant or irrelevant, clear or ambiguous - as it is to understand the impact on any given individual or a specific event.

Some people report that they try out behavior in the T-Group that they have never tried before. This experimentation can enlarge their view of their own potential and competence and provide the basis for continuing experimentation.

2. **THE GROUP POINT OF VIEW**. The T-Group can focus on forces which affect the characteristics of the group such as the level of commitment and follow-through resulting from different methods of making decisions, the norms controlling the amount of conflict and disagreement that is permitted, and the kinds of data that are gathered. Concepts such as cohesion, power, group maturity, climate, and structure can be examined using the experiences in the group to better understand how much these same forces operate in the back-home situation.

3. **THE ORGANIZATION POINT OF VIEW**. Status, influence, division of labor, and styles of managing conflict are among organizational concepts that may be highlighted by analyzing the events in the small group. Subgroups that form can be viewed as analogous to units within an organization. It is then possible to look at the relationships between groups, examining such factors as competitiveness, communications, stereotyping, and understanding.

One of the more important possibilities for a participant is that of examining the kinds of assumptions and values which underlie the behavior of people as they attempt to manage the work of the group. The opportunity to link up a philosophy of management with specific behaviors that are congruent with or antithetical to that philosophy makes the T-Group particularly relevant to understanding the large organization.

RESEARCH and IMPACT

Research evidence on the effectiveness of T-Group is rather scarce and often subject to serious methodological problems. The following generalizations do seem to be supported by the available data:

People who attend T-Group programs are more likely to improve their skills than those who do not (as reported by peers, superiors, and subordinates).

Everyone does not benefit equally. Roughly two-thirds of the participants are seen as increasing their skills after attendance at laboratories. This figure represents an average across a number of studies.

Many individuals reported extremely significant changes and impact on their lives as workers, family members, and citizens. This kind of anecdotal report should be viewed cautiously in terms of direct applications to job settings, but it is consistent enough that it is clear that T-Group experiences can have a powerful and positive impact on individuals.

The incidence of serious stress and mental disturbance during training is difficult to measure, but it is estimated to be less than 1% of participants and in almost all cases occur in persons with a history of prior disturbances.

Reading Book for Human Relations Training, NTL Institute, 1982.

COMMUNICATION IN SENSITIVITY- TRAINING GROUPS (T-GROUPS)

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by Elliot Aronson

The first T-group was an accident. But, like most productive accidents, it occurred in the presence of a brilliant and creative person who was quick to appreciate the importance and potential utility of what he had stumbled upon. In 1946, Kurt Lewin, perhaps the greatest innovator and theorist in the brief history of social psychology, was asked to conduct a workshop to explore the use of small group discussions as a way of addressing some of the social problems of the day. The participants were educators, public officials, and social scientists. They met during the day in small groups. The small groups were observed by several of Lewin's graduate students, who met in the evenings to discuss their interpretation of the dynamics of the group discussions they had observed during the day.

One evening, a few of the participants asked if they could sit in and listen while the graduate students discussed their observations. Lewin was a little embarrassed by the request, but, much to the surprise of his graduate students, he allowed the visitors to sit in. As it happened, one of the educators joined the group just as the observers were discussing her behavior and interpreting an episode that she had participated in the preceding morning. She became very agitated and said that the observer's interpretation was all wrong. She then proceeded to give her version of the episode. The discussion proved very exciting. The next night, all 50 of the participants showed up and gleefully joined the discussion, frequently disagreeing with the observations and interpretations of the trained observers. The session was both lively and illuminating.

Lewin and his students were quick to grasp the significance of that event: A group engaged in a problem-solving discussion can benefit enormously by taking time out to discuss its own dynamics or "group process" without special training as observers. Indeed, the participants themselves are much better observers of their own process because each is privy to his or her own intentions - something that is not easily available to outside observers, no matter how astute and well trained they are. After a time, what evolved was the agendaless group: The group could meet with maximum benefit if it had no formal agenda and no problems to discuss other than its own dynamics.

Interest in T-groups has grown rapidly since 1946. They are conducted in all sections of the country, and their members include individuals from all walks of life. There have been specialized groups consisting solely of college students, high-school teachers, corporation presidents, police officers, members of the State Department, and delinquents; there have been groups for married couples, unmarried couples, and families; there have been confrontation groups of street people and police, blacks and

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whites, and managers and their employees. But most groups have been heterogeneous -- the same group might contain a lawyer, a laborer, a nun, a housewife, a bank teller, a college student, and a smattering of male and female business executives, teachers, and dropouts. T-groups have become a phenomenon of the 1960's and 1970's -- they have received wide (and often sensational) publicity; they have been treated with an uncritical, cultish, almost religious zeal by some of their proponents; and they have been castigated by the right-wing as an instrument of the devil, as a subversive form of brainwashing that is eating away at the fabric and soul of the nation. In my judgment, sensitivity-training groups are neither the panacea nor the menace that they frequently are made out to be. When properly used, they can be enormously useful as a means of learning communication skills, increasing self-awareness, and enriching human relations. With this in mind, the distinguished psychotherapist Carl Rogers characterized the T-group as "the most significant social invention of the century," and the social historian William Thompson considered the T-group "a rehearsal for the complete transformation of human nature and civilization." When abused, they can be a waste of time -- or, in extreme cases, they might even provide people with some very painful experiences, whose effects can persist long beyond the termination of the group.

The primary focus in this chapter will be on the sensitivity-training group as an instrument of communication. Although there are all kinds of groups, I will discuss only the traditional T-groups. I will attempt to describe them from within and from without and discuss what happens in a group, what gets learned, and what the inherent problems and dangers are.

THE CONTENT OF PROCESS OF A T-GROUP

A T-group experience is educational, but educational in a different way from what most of us have grown accustomed to. It is different both in the *content* of the material that is learned and in the *process* by which the learning takes place.

The Content: What Gets Learned. Generally, individuals in a T-group learn things about themselves and their relations with other people. It can be said that, in a college psychology course, I learn how people behave; in a T-group, I learn how I behave. But I learn much more than that: I also learn how others see me, how my behavior affects them, and how I am affected by other people.

The primary purpose of T-groups is to learn how to communicate effectively, to listen carefully, and to understand one's own feelings and those of other people. In addition, many people are motivated to participate in a T-group not only to learn to communicate but because they believe that there may be something missing in their lives. A person may feel alienated from other people; he may feel that life is going by too quickly; he may feel that he wants something more out of life than waking up in the morning, eating breakfast, going to work, coming home, watching television, and going to sleep. In short,
many people are searching for greater self-awareness and greater enrichment of their lives through these groups. This does not mean that a person has to be in the middle of an existential crisis in order to join a group; many people join because they have specific confusions and are searching for specific answers: "Why do I have trouble getting along with my children (or my employees, or the opposite sex)?" "Why do other people make friends easily, while I tend to be alone?" "Why do I have difficulty opening up to people?" "What is there about people that makes them so untrustworthy?" "How can I handle my anger?" "What do I do that turns people off? " "Why is it that, when I meet a guy, all he wants to do is take me to bed?"

Interacting with other people in a competently led T-group can, and frequently does, provide individuals with answers to specific questions like these. But, more generally, the T-group provides the first step toward the achievement of a number of goals and forms the basis for the clarification of a wide range of confusions. Among the major goals of a T-group are:

1. To develop ways of communicating that are clear, straight, and nonattributional.
2. To develop a spirit of inquiry and a willingness to examine one's own behavior and to experiment with one's role in the world.
3. To develop the awareness of more things about more people.
4. To develop greater authenticity in interpersonal relations; to feel freer to be oneself and not feel compelled to play a role.
5. To develop the ability to act in a collaborative and mutually dependent manner with peers, superiors, and subordinates rather than in an authoritarian or submissive manner.

6. To develop the ability to resolve conflicts and disputes through problem solving rather than through coercion or manipulation.

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The Process: How Things Are Learned. The single most important distinguishing characteristic of a T-group is the method by which people learn. Again, a T-group is not a seminar or a lecture course. Although a great deal of learning *does* occur, it's not the kind of learning that can be easily transmitted verbally in a traditional teacher-student relationship. It is learning through doing, learning through experience. In a T-group, people learn by trying things out, by getting in touch with their feelings, and by expressing those feelings to other people, either verbally or non-verbally. "Trying things out" not only helps individuals understand their own feelings, it also allows them the opportunity of benefiting from learning about how their behavior affects other people. If I want to know whether or not people find me to be a cold, aloof, unemotional person, I simply *behave* -- and then others in the group will tell me how my behavior makes them feel.

An implicit assumption underlying these groups is that very little can be gained if someone tells us how we are *supposed* to feel, how we are *supposed* to behave, or what we are *supposed* to do with our lives. A parallel assumption is that a great deal can be gained if we understand *what* we're feeling, if we understand the kinds of interpersonal events that trigger various kinds of feelings, if we understand how our behavior is read and understood by other people, and if we understand the wide variety of options available to us. The role of the T-group leader is not to present us with answers but simply to help establish an atmosphere of trust and intensive inquiry in which we are willing to look closely at our own behavior and the behavior of others.

It is in this sense that a T-group is not a therapy group. The leader does not attempt to interpret our motives or probe into our experiences outside the group; in addition, s/he tends to discourage other group members from doing this. Instead, s/he simply encourages us to behave and to react to the behavior of others.

The Cultural Island. As we race through life, we are frequently distracted. Thoughts about the work we must do compete for our attention with the person we are supposedly listening to now; thoughts about the person we must see during the next hour distract us from the work we are trying to do now, as we stand at the cocktail party, balancing a drink in one hand and holding a cigarette in the other, "listening" to the pompous fellow in the flashy suit, we glance over his shoulder to see who else is at the party, and we begin to wonder why we didn't go to that other party instead. This kind of distraction is minimized in a T-group, because there is literally no alternative to paying attention. Here, we are in a room -- on a "cultural island" -- with several other people for two weeks (or IO days, or a weekend) with nothing to do and no agenda and no one directing us toward any specific action. We are meeting for 12 to 16 hours a day -- there is nothing else happening. Initially, this can be somewhat frightening, as we realize how difficult it is to interact with people in the absence of conversational crutches (the weather, have you seen any good films lately, and so on). Then, as we learn to pay attention to others, to listen, to look, we begin to pick up nuances of speech and behavior that we didn't think we were capable of noticing. We also begin to listen to ourselves more -- to pay attention to those rumbling in our

gut and to try to make sense out of them in the context of what is going on in the room, *outside* our gut.

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OK, but what happens? How do people get started? What is there to talk about? Typically the group begins with the leader (trainer) outlining the "housekeeping" schedule -- when meals will be served, how long each session will last before it breaks, and so on. S/he may or may not proceed to outline his/her philosophy of groups and the limits of his/her participation. S/he may or may not discuss the "contract" -- what the participants do not have to do. In any case, s/he soon falls into silence. Minutes pass. They seem like hours. The group members may look at each other or out the window. We are not accustomed to being left to our own devices by people in leader-teacher roles. Typically, the participants will look to the trainer for guidance or direction. None is forthcoming. After several minutes, someone might express his/her discomfort. This may or may not be responded to. Eventually, in a typical group, someone might express some annoyance at the leader: "I'm getting sick of this. This is a waste of time. How come you're not doing your job? What the hell are we paying you for? Why don't you tell us what we're supposed to do?" There may be a ripple of applause in the background. But someone else might jump in and ask the first person why he's so bothered by a lack of direction -- does he need someone to tell him what to do? And the T-group is off and running.

This article was excerpted from Elliot Aronson, <u>The Social Animal</u>. 9th ed., New York: Worth Publishers, 1999.

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<div align="right">**Conditions For Laboratory Learning**</div>

A laboratory experience can help you develop clearer ideas of the consequences of your behavior. You can discover alternatives to that behavior, decide whether you want to change it, and (if you do) choose and practice alternatives. You are more likely to feel free to do these things when the following conditions exist:

      PRESENTATION OF SELF. Until individuals have had (and used) opportunities to reveal how they see and do things, they are not likely to receive information that will help them decide whether they want to make behavioral changes.

      FEEDBACK. Individuals do not learn from presentation of self alone. They learn by presenting themselves as openly as possible in a situation where they can receive from others clear and accurate information about their behavior - a feedback system that informs them of how others experience their behavior and what the consequences of that behavior are.

      ATMOSPHERE. An atmosphere of trust and nondefensiveness is necessary if people are to feel free to present themselves, to accept and utilize feedback, and to offer it to others.

EXPERIMENTATION. Unless there is opportunity to try out new behaviors, without having to be certain in advance of what the outcomes will be, the individuals are inhibited in utilizing the feedback they receive.

PRACTICE. If their experiments are successful, individuals then need to be able to practice new behaviors so that they become more comfortable with changes they have decided to make.

APPLICATION. Unless learning and change can be applied to back-home situations, they are not likely to be effective or lasting. Attention needs to be given to helping individuals plan for using their learnings after they have left the laboratory.

RELEARNING HOW TO LEARN. Because so much of our traditional academic experience has led us to believe that we learn by listening to (or reading) experts, there is often need to learn how to learn from this experiential model: presentation ... feedback... experimentation ... presentation ... feedback ... etc.

COGNITIVE MAP. Knowledge from research, theory, and experience is needed to enable the participant to understand his or her experiences and generalize from them. Generally this information is most useful when it follows or is very close in time to the experiences.

The T Group creates a situation in which these conditions may come into being, allowing each member to play a part in his or her own learning experience and in the learning experience of others in the group. ڡ

Reading Book for Human Relations Training, NTL Institute, 1982.

Emotionally Intelligent Conflict Resolution Training

GOAL SETTING SHEET

In preparation for the training please think of three goals that you would like to accomplish with regard to how you deal with your emotions in conflict and/or interpersonal relationships and submit them to the training coordinator. These will be kept completely confidential and are meant to help create the best training experience possible. Thank you and we look forward to seeing you soon.

Goal #1.

Goal #2.

Goal #3.

Appendix B

Readings for Day 1

1. Neill, M.J. (1999). The Learning Journal. In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) pp. 209-211. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition*. NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

2. Templeton, A. (1999). An Introduction to T-group Dynamics. In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) p.275-277. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition*. NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

3. Francisco, R. (1999). Five levels of interpersonal communication: A model that works across cultures. In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) pp. 31-39. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition*. NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

4. Mayer, B. (2000). *The Dynamics of Conflict Resolution: A Practitioners Guide (Chp. 1)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Appendix C

Readings for Day 2

1. Schein, E. (1988) *Process Consultation(Chp.3)*. Addison-Wesley Publishing.

2. Sole, K. (2000) Eight suggestions from the small group conflict trenches. In M. Deutsch and P. Coleman (Eds.), *The Handbook of Conflict Resolution: Theory and Practice,* (pp. 805-821). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

3. Segal, M & Greig, B. (1999). T-Groups: Some Guidelines for Success. In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) p.273. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition*. NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

4. McCormick, D.W. (1999). Listening with Empathy: Taking the Other Person's Perspective. In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) pp. 57-60.. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition*. NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

Appendix D

Readings to take away

1. Segal, M. (1999). Is this Experience Real? In Cooke, A., Brazzel, M., Craig, A.S., & Greig, B. (Eds.) pp. 305-306. *Reading Book for Human Relations Training, 8th Edition.* NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science.

2. Jones, T. & Bodtker, A. (2001). Mediating with heart in mind. *Negotiation Journal, 17(3), pp. 217-244.*

3. Thompson, L. (2005). *The Mind and Heart of the Negotiator.* Upper Saddle River, N.J.:Pearson Prentice Hall. (excerpt on Emotional Style)

4. Shapiro, D. (2006). Teaching students how to use their emotions as they negotiate. *Negotiation Journal, 22, pp. 105-109.*

5. Jones, T.S. (2001). Emotional communication in conflict: Essence and impact. IN W. Eadie & P. Nelson (Eds.), *The Language of Conflict and Resolution* (pp.81-104). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.