

COOPERATION – COMPETITION. PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

INTRODUCTION

For the needs of this chapter, cooperation and competition are viewed from psychological perspective. Cooperation is seen as a kind of relation which yields more positive outcomes, and which requires more complex social, cognitive, motivational and moral skills. Also competition which is “a part of everyday life” [Deutsch 2000, p. 28], as long as it is fair and “healthy,” remains a promoted social behavior. Effective, constructive competition in cooperative context also requires development of complex skills (both at the individual and group levels), and it can be a positive experience for involved parties. Only destructive form of competition seems to bring more costs than advantages resulting in most negative effects.

Literature and research on human competitive – cooperative behavior bring many interesting issues that can be formulated as several questions. For instance:

- What effects (social and work related, at the individual and organizational level) are produced by competition and cooperation?
- How competition and cooperation are related – should cooperation be viewed as the superior or “more ethical” to competition?
- What are psychological determinants of an effective cooperation?

In the first section of this chapter, psychological definition of competition and cooperation will be presented as proposed by Deutsch [2000]. Then, comparison of the main characteristics of these behaviors will be presented. Next, competition – cooperation continuum will be discussed from a perspective of Kohlberg’s concept of human moral development [1984]. In further sections, cooperation and competition will be viewed as evolutionary based mechanisms, conflict resolution styles, and stress coping strategies.

Finally, the mentioned above mechanisms will be discussed at the team and individual levels looking for psychological determinants and useful concepts explaining their nature.

1. MECHANISMS OF COMPETITION AND COOPERATION – “SINK OR SWIM TOGETHER”¹

While the one working on a computer clicks Thesaurus typing the word “cooperation,” the program will automatically list several synonyms to the term, such as: collaboration, assistance, help, support, teamwork, mutual aid, etc. As an antonym of the “cooperation” Thesaurus will show “antagonism” with such synonyms as: competition, rivalry, opposition, aggression, war, struggle, fight. From this quick overview of a popular Windows lexicon it could be concluded that “cooperation” is phrased positively and remains associated with “good,” desired or ethical behavior while “competition” is associated with negative phrases and “bad” or unethical behavior.

What is meant by cooperation and what is meant by competition in psychological sense? How are they related and induced? What effects do they bring? How do these orientations develop during the course of life? Psychological analysis of cooperation and competition in several aspects, give some answers to these questions.

1.1. DEFINITION

Cooperation and competition may be viewed at as two distinct orientations which are usually mixed in a number of everyday life situations [Deutsch 2000]. Deutsch’s theory is based on two fundamental issues: (i) goal interdependence and (ii) the type of action taken. Both can be positive or negative and both are seen by the author as “polar ends of continua” [Deutsch 2000, p. 22]. Additionally they affect three basic social psychological processes: substitutability, attitudes and inducibility, which are jointly responsible for major reactions taking forms of competition or cooperation. Deutsch explains that people can be linked either way – liking or disliking, being bound together or

¹ Morton Deutsch uses this saying in illustrating his theory of cooperation and competition (2000, p. 22)

fighting against each other, sharing and dividing work or disorganizing and discouraging one another, etc. The course of action they take is determined by an inborn tendency to respond positively toward beneficial stimuli and negatively toward harmful environment. As Deutsch puts it (p. 24), cooperation implies the positive attitude that “we are for each other” while competition is activated by the negative attitude that “we are against one another”.

1.2. COMPARISON

In order to better illustrate differences between cooperation and competition several characteristics were selected and described below (see Table 1).

Table 1. Cooperation and competition – selected differences

Characteristic	Cooperative orientation	Competitive orientation
Group identity	“Us” (unity)	“We – They” (antagonism)
Goals	Mutual goals	Individual goals
Orientation	“win – win” (I swim – you swim)	“win – lose” (I swim – you sink)
Attitudes towards problems	“Problems are ours,” problem as a challenge, the whole group makes an effort to solve it, most effective solution is being sought	“It’s your / somebody’s else business,” problems are left at the individual level, group members keep away from problems of others’
Power and knowledge	Mutual development, “you know more – I know more,” sharing of ideas, power and solutions, everybody learns	Individual advantage, hidden knowledge, the conflicting parties seek to enhance their own power and to reduce the power of others
Communication	Effective: exchange of ideas, mutual understanding, open discussion, acceptance of opposite point of views, constructive feedback	Impaired: conflicting parties seek to gain advantage by misleading, false promises, disinformation, destructive critique
Level of trust	High	Low
Productivity and performance	Coordination of effort, complementary roles, work and effort divided, specialization	Poor coordination, duplicating one another’s effort, increased workload and high costs of control
Work climate	Friendly, helpful climate, social support, work engagement, mutual inspiration	Coercion, threat, deception, lack of help and lack of social support, risk of stress and burnout, destructive conflicts
Time perspective	Long-term	Short-term
Conflict resolution	Effective conflict resolution with the use of flexible styles ² , constructive discussions	Inflexible styles, often external authority required in order to resolve conflicts

Source: adopted from Deutsch 2000, pp. 25–26.

² See further in this chapter – Kilman’s typology of conflict resolution strategies.

The differences described above can be observed at both individual, group (team) and organizational level. Harmful behaviors and practices can affect both, people working in small teams as well as within / between larger groups. According to the “Crude Law of Social Relations” [Deutsch 2000, p. 29] positive relation (cooperation) arises from similarities in beliefs, values and attitudes inducing positive emotions and effects³ (as trust, friendliness, common interests and alike). On the other hand negative relation (competition) induces the opposite: distrust, unfriendliness, coercion, etc. It has been evidenced elsewhere that people at work share and transmit both positive and negative emotions – on the basis of mechanism called “emotional contagion” [i.e. Barsade 2002]. Thus it can be expected that working in cooperative environment increases individual positive exchange and collaborative effort, while experience of unhealthy competition may lead to self-defence, withdrawal or open conflicts.

1.3. DEVELOPMENT

There are theoretical concepts explaining relations between those two psychological orientations also from a perspective of continuum in human (moral) development. One of the main questions to be raised here is: how do cooperative / competitive norms and behaviors develop and relate? Is each individual “capable” of showing both orientations, with a special respect to cooperation? Are people focused upon one orientation or do they develop to the stage of a more complex and “better” behavior (cooperation) throughout their life?

Such thinking leads to the life-span theories, like somewhat controversial Kohlberg’s theory of human moral development. According to the concept, competition – cooperation orientation may be determined by a particular stage of the moral reasoning a person operates at. The figure below (Figure 1) presents stages and levels of human moral development with reference to competition – cooperation framework.

Kohlberg [1984] believed that individuals progress in their moral reasoning development moving from one stage to another. The process is generally the same across different cultures, and people differ in respect of the highest stage obtained. He identified six particular stages classified into three more general levels, with the process starting in early childhood and continuing through adolescence till adulthood. In this sense Kohlberg’s theory belongs

³ Negative linkage can occur however even in the context of value similarities. This may happen in the value conflict situation, for instance when the supply of valued resources are scarce (see Dyląg et al. 2013).

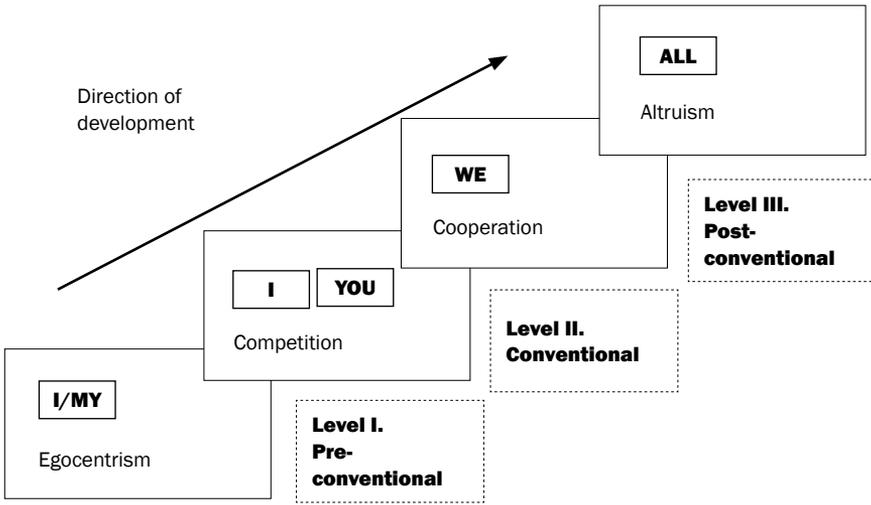


Figure 1. L. Kohlberg's concept of moral reasoning

Source: own elaboration.

to a larger group of stage theories where human development is perceived as a movement from lower to higher phases or from simple forms to more complex behaviors; additionally the initial periods are seen as fundamental for the entire process of successful development [i.e. Freud, Piaget, Erikson; also see Sandy and Cochran 2000, p. 320, for detailed comparison of social cognitive approaches to development].

In Kohlberg's concept the first level is called "pre-conventional." It encompasses two stages that can be characterized respectively by rules of: (1.1) obedience and punishment and (1.2) individualism, instrumentalism and exchange. At this phase of development (generally in elementary school age) individuals comply with social norms mainly because some authority (like a parent or a teacher), who is a source of threat to them – expects so. In the second stage of the Level 1, individuals start to develop thinking in terms of their own best interests ("my business first" which is viewed as behavior morally reasonable).

At the second, "conventional" level of moral reasoning, the rules of (2.1) approval of others (being a "good" girl / a "good" boy) and (2.2) law and order become most important. Kohlberg believed that most people in society operate at this level.

The third, "post-conventional" level of moral development is – according to Kohlberg – generally not available for majority of people. This is probably one of the most controversial points in his theory, along with believe

in universality of moral stages and the specific course of the human moral development (as a systematic move from one stage to another up the hierarchy shown above, see: Czyżowska 2008). At this level of moral development Kohlberg placed two such stages as (3.1) understanding of social mutuality and a genuine interest in the welfare of others, and (3.2) respect for universal principle and the demands of individual conscience.

Following Kohlberg's way of thinking it could be concluded that both competition and cooperation may form a continuum starting from individualistic or even egocentric forms of behavior, which is by Deutsch believed to yield rather a destructive form of competition. Then, through individualistic behaviors (not necessarily destructive) a person would be able to show a constructive competition, also guarded by rules of law and order (still "my business first" as the most important rule). Finally, the cooperation could start beginning with "healthy exchange" of interests up to a deep, mutual exchange of social support, knowledge sharing, and creative problem solving via discussion and taking into account the best interests of both sides as well as acceptance of varied values systems. Altruistic forms of behavior based on the motives of selfless "giving" rather than selfish "taking" or even a balanced "give and take" exchange – seem rare in business area and could be even perceived naïve, unless they take a form of an organized philanthropy or charity. On the other hand – as it will be shown below – emotional costs and expanses of cooperation may be higher than costs of individualistic competition, especially in the situation where stress is involved and there is a risk of losing own resources while helping the team at the same time.

2. DETERMINANTS OF COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

2.1. EVOLUTIONARY POINT OF VIEW – GENDER DIFFERENCES

From evolutionary point of view gender plays an important role in such behaviors as competition and cooperation. Physical, psychological and social conditions of men and women resulted in division of tasks: traditionally females took care of children and house keeping, while males protected families and society from external threats, as well as supplied food. Women were expected to show mildness, patience and support to each other in a group, while men were expected to be strong and brave individuals. Thus,

one could hypothesise that women are better prepared to cooperate and men are better prepared to compete. In an experiment study conducted by Van Vugt, De Cremer and Janssen [2007], the competitive and cooperative behaviors related to gender were tested (“male-warrior hypothesis”). Outcomes of the research supported the hypothesis that men’s social behavior is more strongly intergroup driven than women’s. Men showed they were more likely to “cooperate in order to compete and win,” especially under conditions of perceived external danger. It meant that men contributed more to their group when their group was competing with other groups, if there was no intergroup competition. The situation of an intergroup threat did not seem to affect women social behaviors. Cooperation of women may be less intergroup driven, however their group identity as well as collaboration within the group seems generally stronger than males. Such gender differences are probably well rooted in evolutionary origins – evolutionary psychologists argue that human cooperation is the product of a long history of competition and collaboration between rival groups [Van Vugt, De Cremer, Janssen 2007].

2.2. CULTURAL CONTEXT – INDIVIDUALISTS VS COLLECTIVISTS

Individualism is often referred to as one of the main dimensions explaining cultural differences [see Wagner 1995, Triandis 1995, Hofstede and Hofstede 2007]. Individualism – collectivism continuum has formed a theoretical framework for a large number of cross-cultural studies. It may be also useful for explaining cooperation – competition dynamics with special attention to multicultural work environment [Boros et al. 2010]. Research shows that collectivists conform more to group norms than individualists, and form more cooperative groups. On the other hand, individualists seem more interested in their individual goals and their cooperation is instrumental. They do not however significantly differ from collectivists in their levels of cooperative behavior. When they can only achieve their individual goals in groups, they tend to do so [Wagner 1995]. Triandis et al. [1988] stated that collectivists were more willing to cooperate, especially with ingroups, where they would rather avoid an open conflict and competition. Individualists could easily initiate an open conflict or disagreement, either with internal or external group members.

The results of mentioned above studies conducted by Boros and colleagues [2010] show that group dynamics are different depending upon vertical or horizontal forms of individualism and collectivism. Vertical individualism (VI) is observed when people view themselves as unequal and independent, while horizontal individualism (HI) when they feel equal but independent. In vertical collectivism (VC) members perceive groups as unequal, but in-

terconnected, while in horizontal collectivism (HC) people view themselves as equal and connected (see Table 2).

Table 2. Individualism and collectivism – vertical and horizontal

High on feeling independent	VI VERTICAL INDIVIDUALISM (unequal and independent) – avoiding style of conflict management is more frequently used – weaken cooperation	HI HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM (equal and independent) – more cooperative conflict resolution strategy is used – better cooperation
Low on feeling independent (connected)	VC VERTICAL COLLECTIVISM (unequal but connected) – more cooperative conflict resolution strategy – better cooperation	HC HORIZONTAL COLLECTIVISM (equal and connected) – cooperation is better – avoiding a contending conflict management and coping styles are used less
	Low on feeling equal (unequal)	High on feeling equal

Source: own elaboration based on Boros et al. 2010.

In her studies Boros found that in situation of HC (members feel equal and connected), cooperation is better, as well as the avoiding and contending (dominating) conflict management and coping styles are used less. When people view themselves as unequal and independent (VI) there may arise more chance for hidden or open competition while cooperation may weaken. Also in such circumstances the avoiding style of conflict management is more frequently used. High group variety in views of being unequal, but interconnected (VC) also leads to more cooperative conflict resolution strategy, and probably better teamwork in general.

2.3. CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES

A substantial number of literature focuses upon conflicts and the way they are resolved [for instance Deutsch and Coleman 2000; Liberman 2004; Bala-wajder 1992, 1994; Chełpa, Witkowski 2004]. In his earlier works Deutsch distinguished three forms of relationship individuals can develop towards groups. Cooperative relationship appears when individual goals are positively correlated with the group goals, negatively correlated links result in competition, and individual goals can be separated from the group goals – which he referred to as individualism [Triandis et al. 1988]. Low concern for ingroup

needs, goals and relationship Triandis and coauthors highlight as one of the key aspect of individualism (at least in American culture), although the social skills of making new friends easily, can be also high [Triandis et al. 1988, p. 325].

Concern for people within a group versus concern for tasks to be performed is a basic framework for other models, including conflict resolution styles. For instance the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode instrument (TKI) is based on the Blake and Mouton managerial grid concept [Stoner, Freeman, Gilbert 2001]. Both dimensions were adopted, forming axes of assertiveness and cooperativeness (see: <http://www.kilmanndiagnostics.com>). The TKI identifies five different styles of managing conflict situations [Balawajder 1998]: (1) competing (highly assertive, non cooperative), (2) collaborating (highly assertive, highly cooperative), (3) compromising (intermediate assertiveness and cooperativeness), (4) avoiding (unassertive, uncooperative), and (5) accommodating (unassertive, cooperative) – see Table 3.

Table 3. Kilman’s styles of conflict management

HIGH ASSERTIVENESS	(1) competing		(2) collaborating
		(3) compromising	
	(4) avoiding		(5) accommodating
LOW	COOPERATIVENESS		HIGH

Source: Chelpa, Witkowski 2004, p. 163.

According to the model shown above, an individual has got a choice of five different modes of behavior that can be used during the conflict situation. When necessary it is sometimes most recommended for the one to compete, and sometimes the best strategy is to accommodate or avoid. Although cooperation seems the best option of all (it is usually correlated with high performance and high team satisfaction), it may not always be possible to obtain. It depends on the maturity of organization, team and the person. Choosing the most adequate strategy usually depends on power, resources, skills, stress coping strategy and goals to be obtained. Also, behavior of the other parties involved, and costs to be paid, as well as other obstacles should be taken under consideration. At individual level, sometimes a person does not show respective skills or the conflict is too difficult to resolve (like a value conflicts type, for instance). Some cultures or leaders may not let people have a choice in conflict resolution strategy, or sometimes the price of a certain alternative would be too high. One of the goals of the TKI is a diagnosis of preferred conflict style at the individual or group level, as well as individual and organizational development through adequate incorporating of a wide range of strategies.

2.4. STRESS AND TIME MANAGEMENT

Under conditions of increased time pressure and perceived stress in contemporary organizations, the quality of social relations is likely to suffer most. Despite the fact that mutual understanding, respect, care and social support are of the highest needs in periods of increased workload, at the same time, these aspects are most likely to be ignored or postponed. As it is almost impossible to demonstrate an equal, parallel interest in task and relations at the same moment, thus a time and stress management should be aimed at both: task effectiveness as well as towards a compensation of socio-emotional deficits. Effective co-operation should thus allow periods of lower productivity giving space and priority to socio-emotional recovery, which in fact is a good investment in long-term effectiveness within organization. Also from time tactics advisors, it can be concluded that different tasks in relation to time resources should be managed according to rational rules. Instead of running from one activity to another, speeding up in time and fighting with increasing stress, an individual is advised to plan, act, delegate or to postpone and even resign of a task if possible [Covey 2007].

As Maslach and Leiter notice, one of the main causes of burnout, decrease in work engagement and stress in contemporary organizations remain increased workload and raised quality standards, in the absence of supportive community and decreasing autonomy over ones work [Maslach and Leiter 2010, 2011]. In order to improve employees' well-being and work engagement as well as to reduce the risk of stress and burnout, the authors suggest undertaking several steps aimed at better job-person fit in six key areas. These areas include: workload, control over one's work (autonomy), rewards, community, fairness and values. Development of trust and supportive community within organization takes time and effort. Maslach and Leiter [2010] propose several steps in this process which include:

- analysis of the climate and social relations at work,
- definition of a problem if there is a perceived misfit in the area (i.e. alienation, poor communication, ineffective conflict management, etc.),
- goal setting, prioritizing (i.e. education, integration),
- action taking,
- monitoring and control.

Coping with stress and burnout – cultural determinants of individual strategies

Steven Hobfoll's way of thinking of stress and coping [2006] may give a new perspective in reflection on competition – cooperation continuum. Hobfoll views stress as culture related phenomena, where structures, roles and processes determine its perception and preferred coping style. Culture rooted

factors (like individualism) are among possible mechanisms explaining differences in burnout levels between several western European countries, Poland and the US [Maslach, Schaufeli, Leiter 2001]. Data collected at the level of national samples consistently show that the latter ones (Poland and the US) are somewhat similar in respect of the burnout level examined, and significantly different (higher) compared to the studied European countries. A possible explanation focuses upon higher levels of individualism believed to characterize Polish and American populations compared to more collectivistic European respondents with better social environment within organizations. Naturally, work related factors, as work organization, workload, work climate, health and safety issues, and alike are also under consideration. In addition, Maslach and Leiter [2010, 2011] also described a hard reality of contemporary workplaces (mainly American and global corporations), where employees are too frequently exposed to increasing workload and poor autonomy, lack of teamwork and social support.

Although the mentioned above authors claim that unfriendly work environment will raise the risk of burnout, there are some arguments that involving too much into supportive, cooperative, team-oriented stress coping strategies may increase the risk of burnout itself [Hobfoll 2006]. Hobfoll's model of conservation of resources (COR) gives some hints to understand this paradox. Author discussed costs and benefits of several coping strategies claiming that involving into cooperative behaviors may be more stressful and less effective than individualistic styles.

Multidimensional model is a theoretical framework for Hobfoll's consideration (see Figure 2).

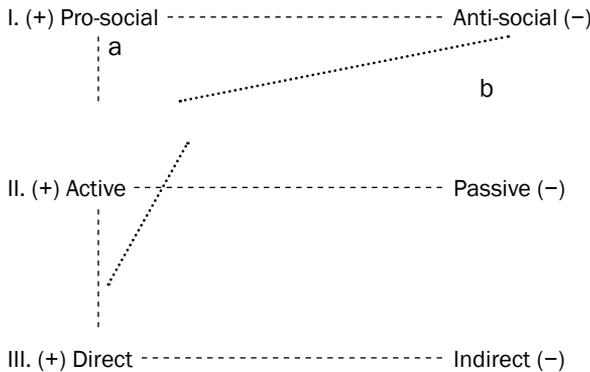


Figure 2. S. Hobfoll's strategic approach to stress coping
Source: based on Hobfoll 2006, p. 172.

The figure above shows three independent dimensions forming a theoretical framework for Hobfoll's conceptualization. Author identified 9 strategies yielded out of combinations among those dimensions (assertiveness, cooperation, seeking social support, avoidance, instinct, indirect/manipulative behaviors (behind somebody's back), cautious behaviors, anti-social behaviors, aggressiveness). For instance, a combination of all three dimensions at their positive ends (I + II + III +), which is pro-social, active and direct coping (profile "a"), describes such strategies as assertiveness and cooperation. While for instance a combination reflected in profile "b" (I - II + III +) shows aggressive coping strategies.

It is generally agreed that pro-social, active, assertive – supportive behaviors help to reduce stress, enhance cooperation and innovativeness at individual, team, organization and even regional levels (i.e. creating social capital, see Laursen, Masciarelli, Prencipe 2012). Nevertheless – as it was mentioned above – investing in teamwork, especially when individual resources are scarce – may lead to negative results like increase in stress and burnout. The study described below illustrates this relation.

In one study⁴ a research on highschool teachers' stress coping strategies was conducted. All respondents (54 teachers) were employed in the same organization – a high school in Central Poland (Stalowa Wola). With the use of SACS questionnaire developed by Hobfall [2006] it was shown that among nine stress coping strategies described above, only cooperation and avoidance were significantly related to one or two burnout scales [as defined by Maslach 1998]. Cooperation was positively related to emotional exhaustion while avoidance to both: emotional exhaustion and cynicism. In the case of cooperative coping style, it was low but significant correlation of .285. Compared to the positive correlations of avoidance coping strategy and burnout dimensions (avoiding positively correlated to emotional exhaustion [.323] and to cynicism [.297]) – it did not seem a logical pattern, unless the wording of coping scales was considered. It appeared that cooperation subscale involved many items related to self-sacrifice and giving more to others than to the self (instead of more assertive or self-oriented behavior). This kind of imbalance between satisfying the needs of individual and the needs of others as a priority, may explain the effect of linking cooperation positively with emotional exhaustion.

Team level characteristics

Effectively collaborating teams seem to poses certain characteristics and/or to obtain a certain level of maturity. Cooperation develops in time and re-

⁴ Unpublished Master thesis, Joanna Pyrkosz "Wypalenie zawodowe i style radzenia sobie ze stresem u nauczycieli liceum ogólnokształcącego w Stalowej Woli", Jagiellonian University 2009.

quires many internal resources. Teams and organizations operate in a wider context like others groups, specific culture, law restrictions, etc.; the environment nowadays is complex, demanding and unpredictable [Katzenbach and Smith 2001].

- Belbin model

Several concepts highlight different aspects of team functioning. For instance Belbin [2003] concentrated on team roles performed individually. The central issue in his model of team effectiveness is complementary role handling, meaning that successful group of people avoid duplicating each others work and effort. Instead, different team members perform according to their natural best potential, and if not possible, they perform according to the second best potential. As Belbin puts it: "...a team is not a bunch of people with job titles, but a congregation of individuals, each of whom has a role which is understood by other members. Members of a team seek out certain roles and they perform most effectively in the ones that are most natural to them..." (see <http://www.belbin.com>).

Belbin identified 9 such roles, as well as he described the strenghts and weaknesses of each. The roles relate to idea creation, team climate, realization of tasks, control over it, and criticism about group actions. In Table 4 (below) there are described roles and their main characteristics showing potential limitations of each.

Table 4. Belbin team roles

Role	Main characteristic (weaknesses)
1) Plants	– could be unorthodox or forgetful
2) Resource investigators	– might forget to follow up on a lead
3) Monitor evaluators	– could be overly critical and slow moving
4) Co-ordinators	– might over delegate leaving themselves little work to do
5) Implementers	– might be slow to relinquish their plans in favour of positive changes
6) Completer finishers	– could be accused of taking their perfectionism to the extremes
7) Teamworkers	– might become indecisive when unpopular decisions need to be made
8) Shapers	– could risk becoming aggressive and bad-humoured in their attempts to get things done
9) Specialist	– may have a tendency to focus narrowly on their own subject of choice

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

In effective cooperation at a team level, Belbin's model highlights an individual potential, as well as the structure or configuration of the entire group. If the team is designed well, it may be expected to work efficiently with a healthy balance on both, the needs of task and the needs of people [Bales 1965]. An analysis of a group effectiveness also requires combining situational internal and external context.

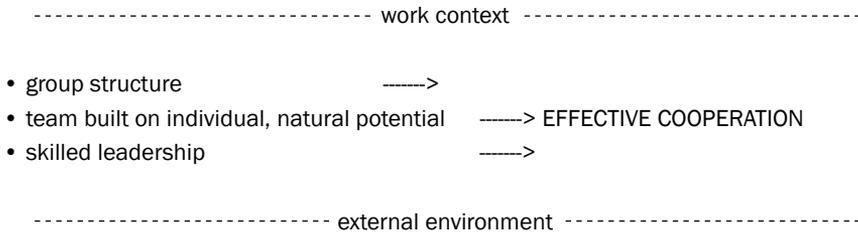


Figure 3. Effective cooperation in Belbin's model

Source: own elaboration.

• Tuckman model

In Tuckman's model [1965] it is assumed that groups go through a number of phases or stages. It means that each group, in order to become an effective team, requires a certain amount of time and experience, in order to develop. First, the group members want to know each other better, then the most dominating personalities crash and some conflicts arise. Next, the group needs to develop a degree of interdependence in order that it may achieve its tasks and be satisfying to its members; also it has to learn to deal with conflicts if it is to survive. While there are various differences concerning the number of stages and their names – most often the four or five stage model is presented (see Figure 4).

 I forming → II storming → III norming → IV performing → V adjourning

Figure 4. Tuckman team development model

Source: Tuckman and Jensen 1977.

First, there were four stages in Tuckman's model – forming, storming, norming and performing. He was later to add the fifth stage – adjourning [Tuckman and Jensen 1977]. The last stage is often described as 'mourning' given the loss that is sometimes felt by former participants. The process can be stressful, and the symptoms of depression may show (particularly where

the dissolution is sudden and unplanned) [Stoner, Freeman, Gilbert 2001]. The model itself suggests that effective cooperation and teamwork develops in time, with some difficult experience or moments, like stage II – storming. Nevertheless, the negative phase seems to strengthen the group and its members, if only they are able to go through the crisis.

- Blanchard PERFORM model

In Blanchard model of best performing team, seven key characteristics are mentioned [Carew, Parisi-Carew, Blanchard 2007]. They may be described as follows (see Table 5):

Table 5. Blanchard PERFORM model

Characteristic	Description
P – purpose and values	Values and norms are combined and harmonized at each level, organization and individuals have got a clear vision, mission, and precise instructions.
E – empowerment	Creativity, engagement, risk taking and participation are the key elements; employee engage in realization of organizational goals using effective procedures based on continuous development.
R – relationships and communication	Open communication, constructive critique, feedback and support are visible; people openly share ideas and brainstorm; actively discuss the best possible solutions.
F – flexibility	Leadership may be shared if needed, organization highlights the need for creativity, thinking different and drawing conclusions from failures.
O – optimal productivity	High standards and reasonable effort, optimal use of resources, monitoring of processes, focus upon goals and verification with organizational mission, vision and values.
R – recognition and appreciation	Reward, recognition and appreciation form a sound basis for an effective motivation. Employees feel motivated, satisfied and engage in the future goals.
M – morale	High morale, trust and enthusiasm make work easier, better and nicer. Stress and risk of burnout is reduced, employees believe in organizational values and mission; they feel a part of the organization.

Source: Carew, Parisi-Carew, Blanchard 2007.

The model itself describes both, the determinants and consequences that characterize the most effective organizations. This usually happens on many levels: each employee, a leader, team and organization as a whole. For instance “purpose and values” characteristic, at the organizational level is verbalized as its mission, and on the team level it takes a form of clear goals to be obtained. Leader formulates precise instructions and directs team toward common purpose, while each individual engages in team and organizational mission – harmonizing individual values with organizational ones. It was

shown in the research on value fit/misfit that congruence of individual and organizational values is related to employees' work engagement, while conflict between a person and organizations in terms of values was correlated with negative consequences, as burnout [Dylağ et al. 2013]. Also, one can see that both aspect of effective teams are present in the model: concern for tasks and productivity (i.e. O) and concern for people (i.e. R), [Robbins 2004].

2.7. SELECTED INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

In order to effectively cooperate with others, especially under conditions of increased work pace and standards, the one needs to be well prepared in terms of developed skills or competencies. Also to be able to keep so called "work-life" balance, as well as to experience high (subjective) quality of life, it is important to find a healthy way to live a "wise life."

Czapiński defines wisdom as an ability to comfort and equalize both, individual needs with the needs of the others (2004). It is also close to the concept of assertiveness which can be nicely quoted as "I'm OK – You're OK," meaning ability to build equal, partner relations with people [Alberti and Emmons 2007]. As shown above, team or organizational effectiveness require a number of individual assets at the level of leaders and group members. Collaboration is often linked to a wide range of specific characteristics or competencies. They also are referred as "individual effectiveness skills" or "socio-emotional competencies." They form a long list of concepts, qualities, features and behaviours as: emotional intelligence [Mayer and Salovey 1993; Cooper and Sawaf 2000], self-management and time management (for instance Covey 2007), change management [Clarke 2009], effective stress coping, coherence [Hobfoll 2006; Antonovsky 2005], conflict management [Deutsch and Coleman 2000; Haman and Gut 2008], communication and negotiation skills [Nęcki 2000], etc. The detailed description of the mentioned above topics is far beyond the scope of this chapter.

CONCLUSION

Cooperation and competition are related psychological processes or orientations, which develop in different directions and time periods. Cooperation seem to require longer time to grow, as well as more skills, both at the individual, team or organizational level. Competition may also require

the highest standards, unique skills and much effort, although it seems more one-sided: the goal and effect is the main – and often the only – focus. Less concern is placed upon people, with the main concern placed upon results and performance. It is always recommended to think of these mechanisms as possible alternatives – either as the stages of individual/group development (cooperation following competition), or as two distinct forms of many possible behaviors (meaning variety of parallel coping styles). The choice of a certain strategy should depend on the context, skills and goals to be obtained, as contemporary times require outstanding flexibility and creativeness. Nevertheless it is always worth to consider the “win-win” or assertive – collaborative (active, pro-social) approach, which appears the most recommended option from the literature review.

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