13

Power and Politics

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

13-1 Contrast leadership and power.

13-2 Explain the three bases of formal power and the two bases of personal power.

13-3 Explain the role of dependence in power relationships.

13-4 Identify power or influence tactics and their contingencies.

13-5 Identify the causes and consequences of abuse of power.

13-6 Describe how politics work in organizations.

13-7 Identify the causes, consequences, and ethics of political behavior.

Employability Skills Matrix (ESM)

	Myth or Science?	Career OBjectives	An Ethical Choice	Point/ Counterpoint	Experiential Exercise	Ethical Dilemma	Case Incident 1	Case Incident 2
Critical Thinking	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Communication			✓		✓			✓
Collaboration		✓			✓			
Knowledge Application and Analysis	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Social Responsibility		✓					✓	✓

MyLab Management Chapter Warm Up

If your professor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/ mylab/management to complete the chapter warm up.

A TALE OF PRESIDENTIAL CORRUPTION

Answer quickly: If someone were given the ability to exert his or her will over others for his or her self-interest, would this person do it?

On Wednesday, December 19, 2012, Park Guen-hye became the first female president of South Korea. Park was considered a trailblazer in South Korean politics and the heir to a long political legacy. The 60-year-old politician was the daughter of former South Korean president Park Chung-hee. Guen-hye had begun her political career at a young age when, at the age of 22, she took on first lady duties after her mother's assassination by a North Korean gunman. When she became president of South Korea, she made many promises, making many citizens hopeful that she would revive the country's slowing economic growth. These promises included pushing for regulations of some of South Korea's largest companies, such as Samsung and Hyundai. Park ran and won based on pledges to support and build small and medium-sized businesses while encouraging more exports.

Within four years, Park Guen-hye was impeached and tried on charges of corruption. Park had always been close to Choi Soon-sil, the daughter of another public figure. Soon-sil's father was the head of the Church of Eternal Life and a close family friend of former president Park Chung-hee.

It seems Choi used her long-time friendship with the president to force Samsung and many other large companies to donate to her charities. The scandal goes much deeper than bribes, however. Choi had an unusual amount of power over the leader of South Korea. Besides using her relationship with the president to gain $70 million in donations to her nonprofit foundations, Choi also was given illegal access to confidential documents and edited presidential speeches.

Park Guen-hye won the election partly because she was seen as less corrupt than her predecessors. In the last 30 years of democracy in South Korea, two presidents have already been jailed. President Lee Myung-bak was also implicated in a bribery scandal before leaving office. Similar to Park, Lee's friend and brother Sang-deuk used his connection to the president to collect bribes from two Korean banks. Several of Lee's former aides were also charged with receiving bribes.

So what caused Park's transformation from South Korea's seemingly least corrupt politician to an impeached president charged with corruption? Some South Koreans believe that Choi's power as a religious leader and family friend is to blame. Did Choi have influence over the new president because she held the keys to her salvation? Or was Park corrupted by receiving tremendous power?

The tale of Park's downfall is not unique to South Korea. Political parties are considered the most corrupt public institutions, according to Transparency International's 2013 survey on global corruption. The organization found that a quarter of survey respondents had paid a bribe to politicians in the past year. Around the globe, from India to southern Europe to the United States, there are stories of political leaders using their power for their own self-interest. This phenomenon occurs at all levels. In Florida, former Opa-locka commissioner Luis Santiago used his position to gain $40,000 in bribes. In Maryland, state senator Nathaniel T. Oaks was caught pushing through legislation for a fake real estate project in exchange for $15,000 in bribes.

In all these stories, officials were elected to serve the interests of the public, yet they used their power to serve their own interests instead. Many of these citizens were elected because they claimed they could clean up a corrupt system. Then, when they gained power themselves, they used their influence to further their own goals. As we can see from Park Guen-hye's story, however, there are other ways of gaining power besides obtaining a leadership position in politics. Cho Soon-sil obtained power through religious institutions and personal connections. Many of the bribery scandals described above were possible because someone controlled resources such as wealth or economic power.

Sources: Based on M. Park, P. Hancocks and K. J. Kwon, "Park Guen-hye Claims South Korea Presidential Victory," *CNN*, December 19, 2012, http://www.cnn.com/2012/12/18/world/asia/south-korea-presidential-election/; K. J. Kwon and M. Park, "South Korean President Apologizes for Bribery Scandals in His Inner Circle," *CNN*, July 24, 2012, http://www.cnn.com/2012/07/24/world/asia/south-korean-president-apology/index.html; Associated Press, "Impeached South Korean President Indicted, Faces Trial," *New York Post*, April 17, 2017, http://nypost.com/2017/04/17/impeached-south-korean-president-indicted/; BBC Profiles, "Profile: South Korean President Park Guen-hye," *BBC News*, March 10, 2017, http://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-20787271; A. E. Marimow and O. Wiggins, "Code Word 'Lollipop': That Was Bribe Cue for Maryland State Senator, Investigators Charge," *The Washington Post*, April 7, 2017; J. Weaver, "Opa-locka Politician Pleads Guilty to Bribery, as FBI Continues Corruption Probe," *Miami Herald*, January 10, 2017, http://www.miamiherald.com/news/local/article125617409.html; R. Jennings, "Five Things to Know about South Korea's Presidential Scandal," *Forbes*, November 9, 2016, https://www.forbes.com/sites/ralphjennings/2016/11/09/5-sad-and-creepy-things-you-should-know-about-south-koreas-presidential-scandal/#59a510541556; and K. Rapoza, "Transparency International Spells It Out: Politicians Are the Most Corrupt," *Forbes*, July 9, 2013, https://www.forbes.com/sites/kenrapoza/2013/07/09/transparency-international-spells-it-out-politicians-are-the-most-corrupt/#7497bca21c33.

In this chapter, we will learn about power, including how a person obtains power and the tactics employees use to exert their will over others. We will also learn the role of political behavior in maintaining power within an organization. Power in organizations is a compelling force: People who have power deny it, people who want it try not to look like they're seeking it, and those who are good at getting it are secretive about how they do so.[1] We begin by exploring our natural association of power with leadership.

> ### MyLab Management Watch It
>
> If your professor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the video exercise.

Power and Leadership

13-1 Contrast leadership and power.

power The capacity that *A* has to influence the behavior of *B* so that *B* acts in accordance with *A*'s wishes.

dependence *B*'s relationship to *A* when *A* possesses something that *B* requires.

In organizational behavior (OB), **power** refers to the capacity that *A* has to influence the behavior of *B* so that *B* acts in accordance with *A*'s wishes.[2] Someone can thus have power but not use it; it is a capacity or potential. Probably the most important aspect of power is that it is a function of **dependence**. The greater *B*'s dependence on *A*, the greater *A*'s power in the relationship. Dependence, in turn, is based on alternatives that *B* perceives and the importance *B* places on the alternative(s) that *A* controls. A person can have power over you only if he or she controls something you desire. If you want a college degree and have to pass a certain course to get it, and your current instructor is the only faculty member in the college who teaches that course, she has power over you because your alternatives are highly limited and you place a high degree of importance on the outcome. Similarly, if you're attending college on funds provided by your parents, you probably recognize the power they hold over you. But once you're out of school, have a job, and are making a good income, your parents' power is reduced significantly.

Money is a powerful variable for dependence. Who among us has not heard of a rich relative who controls family members merely through the implicit or

explicit threat of "writing them out of the will"? Another example is found on Wall Street, where portfolio manager Ping Jiang allegedly was able to coerce his subordinate, analyst Andrew Tong, into taking female hormones and wearing lipstick and makeup. Why such power? Jiang controlled Tong's access to day trading and thus his livelihood.[3]

A careful comparison of our description of power with our description of leadership in Chapter 12 reveals the concepts are closely intertwined. *Leaders* use *power* as a means of attaining group goals. How are the two terms, *leadership* and *power*, different? Power does not require goal compatibility, just dependence. Leadership, on the other hand, requires some congruence between the goals of the leader and those being led. A second difference relates to the direction of influence. Leadership research focuses on the downward influence on followers. It minimizes the importance of lateral and upward influence patterns. Power research takes all factors into consideration. For a third difference, leadership research often emphasizes style. It seeks answers to questions such as: "How supportive should a leader be?" and "How much decision making should be shared with followers?" In contrast, the research on power focuses on tactics for gaining compliance. Leadership concentrates on the individual leader's influence, while the study of power acknowledges that groups as well as individuals can use power to control other individuals or groups.

You may have noted that, for a power situation to exist, one person or group needs to have control over resources that the other person or group values. This is usually the case in established leadership situations. However, power relationships are possible in all areas of life, and power can be obtained in many ways. Let's explore the various sources of power next.

Bases of Power

13-2 Explain the three bases of formal power and the two bases of personal power.

Where does power come from? What gives an individual or a group influence over others? We answer these questions by dividing the bases or sources of power into two general groupings—formal and personal—and breaking down each into more specific categories.[4]

Formal Power

Formal power is based on an individual's position in an organization. It can come from the ability to coerce or reward, or from formal authority.

coercive power   A power base that depends on fear of the negative results from failing to comply.

Coercive Power   The **coercive power** base depends on the target's fear of negative results from failing to comply. On the physical level, coercive power rests on the application, or the threat of application, of bodily distress through the infliction of pain, the restriction of movement, or the withholding of basic physiological or safety needs.

At the organizational level, *A* has coercive power over *B* if *A* can dismiss, suspend, or demote *B*, assuming *B* values her job. If *A* can assign *B* work activities *B* finds unpleasant, or treat *B* in a manner *B* finds embarrassing, *A* possesses coercive power over *B*. Coercive power comes also from withholding key information. People in an organization who have data or knowledge that others need can make others dependent on them. When subordinates are being abused by supervisors, coercive power is the main force that keeps them from retaliating.[5]

reward power   Compliance achieved based on the ability to distribute rewards that others view as valuable.

Reward Power   The opposite of coercive power is **reward power**, which people comply with because it produces positive benefits; someone who can distribute rewards that others view as valuable has power over them. These rewards can be

financial—such as controlling pay rates, raises, and bonuses—or nonfinancial, including recognition, promotions, interesting work assignments, friendly colleagues, and preferred work shifts or sales territories.[6]

legitimate power   The power a person receives as a result of his or her position in the formal hierarchy of an organization.

Legitimate Power   In formal groups and organizations, probably the most common access to one or more of the power bases is through **legitimate power**. It represents the formal authority to control and use organizational resources based on the person's structural position in the organization.

Legitimate power is broader than the power to coerce and reward. Specifically, it includes members' acceptance of the authority of a hierarchical position. We associate power so closely with the concept of hierarchy that just drawing longer lines in an organization chart leads people to infer the leaders are especially powerful.[7] In general, when school principals, bank presidents, or army captains speak, teachers, tellers, and first lieutenants usually comply.

Personal Power

Many of the most competent and productive chip designers at Intel have power, but they aren't managers and they have no formal power. What they have is *personal power*, which comes from an individual's unique characteristics.[8] There are two bases of personal power: expertise and the respect and admiration of others. Personal power is not mutually exclusive from formal power, but it can be independent.

expert power   Influence based on special skills or knowledge.

Expert Power   **Expert power** is influence wielded as a result of expertise, special skills, or knowledge.[9] As jobs become more specialized, we become dependent on experts to achieve goals. It is generally acknowledged that physicians have expertise and hence expert power: Most of us follow our doctor's advice. Computer specialists, tax accountants, economists, industrial psychologists, and other specialists wield power as a result of their expertise.

Internet entrepreneur Mark Zuckerberg, cofounder and CEO of Facebook, has expert power. Shown here talking with employees, Zuckerberg earned the title "software guy" during college because of his expertise in computer programming. Today, Facebook depends on his expertise to achieve company goals.
Source: Tony Avelar/FR155217/AP Images

referent power Influence based on identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits.

Referent Power   **Referent power** is based on identification with a person who has desirable resources or personal traits.[10] If I like, respect, and admire you, you can exercise power over me because I want to please you.

Referent power develops out of admiration of another and a desire to be like that person. It helps explain, for instance, why celebrities are paid millions of dollars to endorse products in commercials. Marketing research shows people such as LeBron James and Tom Brady have the power to influence your choice of athletic shoes and credit cards. With a little practice, you and I could probably deliver as smooth a sales pitch as these celebrities, but the buying public doesn't identify with us. Some people who are not in formal leadership positions have referent power and exert influence over others because of their charismatic dynamism, likability, and emotional appeal.[11]

Which Bases of Power Are Most Effective?

Of the three bases of formal power (coercive, reward, legitimate) and two bases of personal power (expert, referent), which are most important? Research suggests the personal sources of power are most effective. Both expert and referent power are positively related to employees' satisfaction with supervision, their organizational commitment, and their performance, whereas reward and legitimate power seem to be unrelated to these outcomes. One source of formal power—coercive power—can be damaging.

Referent power can be a powerful motivator. Consider Steve Stoute's company, Translation, which matches pop-star spokespersons with corporations that want to promote their brands. Stoute has paired Justin Timberlake with McDonald's, Beyoncé with Tommy Hilfiger, and Jay-Z with Reebok. Stoute's business seems to be all about referent power. His firm aims to use the credibility of artists and performers to reach youth culture.[12] The success of these well-known companies attests to Stoute's expectation that the buying public identifies with and emulates his spokespersons and therefore thinks highly of the represented brands.

Dependence: The Key to Power

13-3 Explain the role of dependence in power relationships.

The most important aspect of power is that it is a function of dependence. In this section, we show how understanding dependence helps us understand the degrees of power.

The General Dependence Postulate

Let's begin with a general postulate: *The greater* B*'s dependence on* A*, the more power* A *has over* B. When you possess anything others require that you alone control, you make them dependent on you and therefore you gain power over them.[13] As the old saying goes, "In the land of the blind, the one-eyed man is king!" But if something is plentiful, possessing it will not increase your power. Therefore, the more you can expand your own options, the less power you place in the hands of others. This explains why most organizations develop multiple suppliers rather than give their business to only one. It also explains why so many people aspire to financial independence. Independence reduces the power others can wield to limit our access to opportunities and resources.

What Creates Dependence?

Dependence increases when the resource you control is important, scarce, and nonsubstitutable.[14]

Scientist Maria Kovalenko is in a position of power at Gilead Sciences, a research-based biopharmaceutical firm. Scientists are in a powerful occupational group at Gilead because they discover and develop medicines that improve the lives of patients and contribute to Gilead's growth and success.
Source: David Paul Morris/Bloomberg/Getty Images

Importance   If nobody wants what you have, it's not going to create dependence. Note, however, that there are many degrees of importance, from needing the resource for survival to wanting a resource that is in fashion or adds to convenience.

Scarcity   Ferruccio Lamborghini, who created the exotic supercars that still carry his name, understood the importance of scarcity and used it to his advantage during World War II. When Lamborghini was in Rhodes with the Italian army, his superiors were impressed with his mechanical skills because he demonstrated an almost uncanny ability to repair tanks and cars no one else could fix. After the war, he admitted his ability was largely due to his having been the first person on the island to receive the repair manuals, which he memorized and then destroyed to make himself indispensable.[15]

We see the scarcity–dependence relationship in the power situation of employment. Where the supply of labor is low relative to demand, workers can negotiate compensation and benefits packages far more attractive than those in occupations with an abundance of candidates. For example, today, college administrators have no problem finding English instructors because there is a high supply and low demand. In contrast, the market for network systems analysts is comparatively tight, with demand high and supply limited. The resulting bargaining power of computer-engineering faculty members allows them to negotiate higher salaries, lighter teaching loads, and other benefits.

Nonsubstitutability   The fewer viable substitutes for a resource, the more power a person controlling that resource has. At universities that value faculty publishing, for example, the more recognition the faculty member receives through publication, the more control that person has because other universities want faculty members who are highly published and visible.

Social Network Analysis: A Tool for Assessing Resources

One tool to assess the exchange of resources and dependencies within an organization is *social network analysis.*[16] This method examines patterns of communication among organizational members to identify how information flows

Exhibit 13-1   **An Organizational Sociogram**
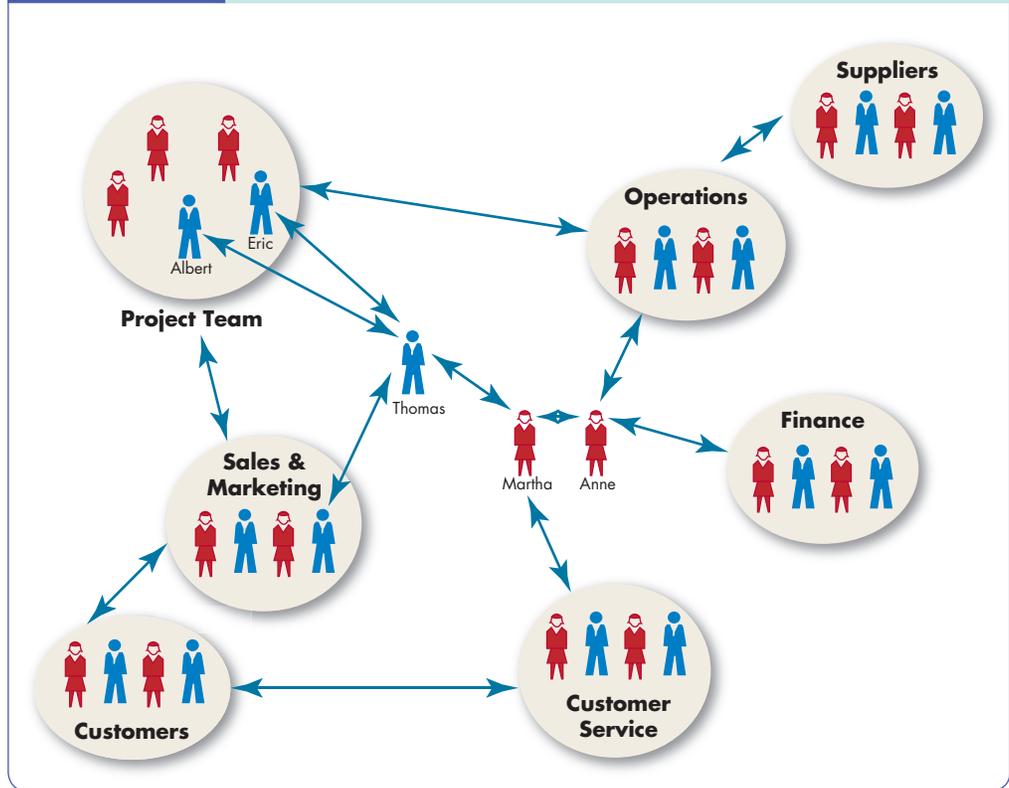
between them. Within a social network, or connections between people who share professional interests, each individual or group is called a node, and the links between nodes are called ties. When nodes communicate or exchange resources frequently, they are said to have very strong ties. Other nodes that are not engaged in direct communication with one another achieve resource flows through intermediary nodes. In other words, some nodes act as brokers between otherwise unconnected nodes. A graphical illustration of the associations among individuals in a social network is called a *sociogram* and functions like an informal version of an organization chart. The difference is that a formal organization chart shows how authority is supposed to flow, whereas a sociogram shows how resources *really* flow in an organization. An example of a sociogram is shown in Exhibit 13-1.

Networks can create substantial power dynamics, such as enforcing norms (see Chapter 9) or creating change within an organization. Thus, employees who have many connections to an organizational social network are less likely to engage in corruption.[17] Those in the position of brokers tend to have more power because they can leverage the unique resources they can acquire from different groups. In other words, many people depend on brokers, which gives the brokers more power. For example, organizational culture changes such as corporate social responsibility (CSR) awareness often begin in a single connected group of individuals, grow in strength, and then slowly move to other connected groups through brokers over time.[18] Data from the United Kingdom's National Health Service show that change agents—people entrusted with helping an organization to make a significant change—have more success if they are information brokers.[19] These functions are not without cost, however. One study found that people identified as central to advice

networks were more likely to quit their jobs, possibly because they did a great deal of extra work without reward.[20]

A social network analysis in an organization can be implemented in many ways.[21] Some organizations keep track of the flow of e-mail communications or document sharing across departments. These big-data tools are an easy way to gather objective information about how individuals exchange information. Other organizations look at data from human resources (HR) information systems, analyzing how supervisors and subordinates interact with one another. These data sources can produce sociograms showing how resources and power flow. Leaders can then identify powerful brokers who exert the strongest influence on many groups, and address these key individuals.

Power Tactics

13-4 Identify power or influence tactics and their contingencies.

power tactics Ways in which individuals translate power bases into specific actions.

What **power tactics** do people use to translate power bases into specific action? What options do they have for influencing their bosses, coworkers, or employees? Research has identified nine distinct influence tactics:[22]

- *Legitimacy.* Relying on your authority position or saying that a request is in accordance with organizational policies or rules.
- *Rational persuasion.* Presenting logical arguments and factual evidence to demonstrate that a request is reasonable.
- *Inspirational appeals.* Developing emotional commitment by appealing to a target's values, needs, hopes, and aspirations.
- *Consultation.* Increasing support by involving the target in deciding how to accomplish your plan.
- *Exchange.* Rewarding the target with benefits or favors in exchange for acceding to a request.
- *Personal appeals.* Asking for compliance based on friendship or loyalty.
- *Ingratiation.* Using flattery, praise, or friendly behavior prior to making a request.
- *Pressure.* Using warnings, repeated demands, and threats.
- *Coalitions.* Enlisting the aid or support of others to persuade the target to agree.

Using Power Tactics

Some tactics are more effective than others. Rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, and consultation tend to be the most effective, especially when the audience is highly interested in the outcomes of a decision process. The pressure tactic tends to backfire and is typically the least effective of the nine.[23] You can increase your chance of success by using two or more tactics together or sequentially, as long as your choices are compatible.[24] Using ingratiation and legitimacy together can lessen negative reactions, but only when the audience does not really care about the outcome of a decision process or the policy is routine.[25]

Let's consider the most effective way of getting a raise. You can start with a rational approach—figure out how your pay compares to that of your organizational peers, land a competing job offer, gather data that testify to your performance, or use salary calculators like Salary.com to compare your pay with others in your occupation—then share your findings with your manager. The results can be impressive. Kitty Dunning, a vice president at Don Jagoda Associates, landed a 16 percent raise when she e-mailed her boss numbers showing she had increased sales.[26]

Exhibit 13-2	Preferred Power Tactics by Influence Direction	
Upward Influence	**Downward Influence**	**Lateral Influence**
Rational persuasion	Rational persuasion	Rational persuasion
	Inspirational appeals	Consultation
	Pressure	Ingratiation
	Consultation	Exchange
	Ingratiation	Legitimacy
	Exchange	Personal appeals
	Legitimacy	Coalitions

While rational persuasion may work in this situation, the effectiveness of some influence tactics depends on the direction of influence,[27] and of course on the audience. As Exhibit 13-2 shows, rational persuasion is the only tactic effective across organizational levels. Inspirational appeals work best as a downward-influencing tactic with subordinates. When pressure works, it's generally downward only. Personal appeals and coalitions are most effective as lateral influence. Other factors relating to the effectiveness of influence include the sequencing of tactics, a person's skill in using the tactic, and the organizational culture.

In general, you're more likely to be effective if you begin with "softer" tactics that rely on personal power, such as personal and inspirational appeals, rational persuasion, and consultation. If these fail, you can move to "harder" tactics, such as exchange, coalitions, and pressure, which emphasize formal power and incur greater costs and risks.[28] A single soft tactic is more effective than a single hard tactic, and combining two soft tactics or a soft tactic and rational persuasion is more effective than any single tactic or combination of hard tactics.[29]

As we mentioned, the effectiveness of tactics depends on the audience.[30] People especially likely to comply with soft power tactics tend to be more reflective and intrinsically motivated; they have high self-esteem and a greater desire for control. Those likely to comply with hard power tactics are more action-oriented and extrinsically motivated, and more focused on getting along with others than on getting their own way.

Cultural Preferences for Power Tactics

Preference for power tactics varies across cultures.[31] Those from individualist countries tend to see power in personalized terms and as a legitimate means of advancing their personal ends, whereas those in collectivist countries see power in social terms and as a legitimate means of helping others.[32] A study comparing managers in the United States and China found U.S. managers preferred rational appeal, whereas Chinese managers preferred coalition tactics.[33] Reason-based tactics are consistent with the U.S. preference for direct confrontation and rational persuasion to influence others and resolve differences, while coalition tactics align with the Chinese preference for meeting difficult or controversial requests with indirect approaches.

Applying Power Tactics

political skill   The ability to influence others so that one's objectives are attained.

People differ in their **political skill**, or their ability to influence others to attain their own objectives. The politically skilled are more effective users of all influence tactics, leading to many positive outcomes in the workplace. People who are politically skilled have higher self-efficacy, job satisfaction,

work productivity, and career success. They are less likely to be victims of workplace aggression. Political skill is also more effective when the stakes are high, such as when the individual is accountable for important organizational outcomes. Finally, the politically skilled are able to exert their influence without others detecting it, a key element in effectiveness (it's damaging to be labeled political).[34] These individuals are able to use their political skills in environments with low levels of procedural and distributive justice. Politically skilled individuals tend to receive higher performance ratings when they ask strategically for feedback in a way that enhances their image in the organization.[35] However, when an organization has fairly applied rules, free of favoritism or biases, political skill is actually negatively related to job performance ratings.[36]

We know cultures within organizations differ markedly—some are warm, relaxed, and supportive; others are formal and conservative. Some encourage participation and consultation, some encourage reason, and still others rely on pressure. People who fit the culture of the organization tend to obtain more influence.[37] Specifically, extraverts tend to be more influential in team-oriented organizations, and highly conscientious people are more influential in organizations that value working alone on technical tasks. People who fit the culture are influential because they can perform especially well in the domains deemed most important for success. Thus, the organization itself influences which subset of power tactics is viewed as acceptable for use.

How Power Affects People

13-5 Identify the causes and consequences of abuse of power.

Until this point, we've discussed what power is and how it is acquired. But we've not yet answered one important question: "Does power corrupt?"

There is certainly evidence that there are corrupting aspects of power. Power leads people to place their own interests ahead of others' needs or goals. Why does this happen? Power not only leads people to focus on their self-interests because they can, it liberates them to focus inward and thus come to place greater weight on their own aims and interests. Power also appears to lead individuals to "objectify" others (to see them as tools to obtain their instrumental goals) and to see relationships as more peripheral.[38]

That's not all. Powerful people react—especially negatively—to any threats to their competence. People in positions of power hold on to power when they can, and individuals who face threats to their power are exceptionally willing to take actions to retain it whether their actions harm others or not. Those given power are more likely to make self-interested decisions when faced with a moral hazard, such as when hedge fund managers take more risks with other people's money because they're rewarded for gains but less often punished for losses. People in power are more willing to denigrate others. Power also leads to overconfident decision making.[39]

Frank Lloyd Wright, perhaps the greatest U.S. architect, is a good example of power's corrupting effects. Early in his career, Wright worked for and was mentored by a renowned architect, Louis Sullivan (sometimes known as the father of the skyscraper). Before Wright achieved greatness, he was generous in his praise for Sullivan. Later in his career, that praise faded, and Wright even took credit for one of Sullivan's noted designs. Wright was never a benevolent man, but as his power accumulated, so did his potential to behave in a "monstrous" way toward others.[40]

Power Variables

As we've discussed, power does appear to have some important disturbing effects on us. But that is hardly the whole story—power is more complicated than that. It doesn't affect everyone in the same way, and there are even positive effects of power. Let's consider each of these in turn.

First, the toxic effects of power depend on the wielder's personality. Research suggests that if we have an anxious personality, power does not corrupt us because we are less likely to think that using power benefits us.[41] Second, the corrosive effect of power can be contained by organizational systems. One study found, for example, that while power made people behave in a self-serving manner, when accountability for this behavior was initiated, the self-serving behavior stopped. Third, we have the means to blunt the negative effects of power. One study showed that simply expressing gratitude toward powerful others makes them less likely to act aggressively against us. Finally, remember the saying that those with little power abuse what little they have? There seems to be some truth to this in that the people most likely to abuse power are those who start low in status and gain power. Why? It appears having low status is threatening, and the fear this creates is used in negative ways if power is later given.[42]

As you can see, some factors can moderate the negative effects of power. But there can be general positive effects. Power energizes and increases motivation to achieve goals. It can also enhance our motivation to help others. One study found, for example, that a desire to help others translated into actual work behavior when people felt a sense of power.[43]

This study points to an important insight about power. It is not so much that power corrupts as it *reveals what we value.* Supporting this line of reasoning, another study found that power led to self-interested behavior only in those with a weak moral identity (the degree to which morals are core to someone's identity). In those with a strong moral identity, power enhanced their moral awareness and willingness to act.[44]

Sexual Harassment: Unequal Power in the Workplace

sexual harassment Any unwanted activity of a sexual nature that affects an individual's employment and creates a hostile work environment.

Sexual harassment is defined as any unwanted activity of a sexual nature that affects an individual's employment or creates a hostile work environment. According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), sexual harassment happens when a person encounters "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature" on the job that disrupts work performance or that creates an "intimidating, hostile, or offensive" work environment.[45] Although the definition changes from country to country, most nations have at least some policies to protect workers. Whether the policies or laws are followed is another question, however. Equal employment opportunity legislation is established in Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Oman, for example, but studies suggest it might not be well implemented.[46]

Generally, sexual harassment is more prevalent in male-dominated societies. For example, a study in Pakistan found that up to 93 percent of female workers were sexually harassed.[47] In Singapore, up to 54 percent of workers (women and men) reported they were sexually harassed.[48] The percentages in the United States and some other countries are generally much lower but still troubling. Surveys indicate about one-quarter of U.S. women and 10 percent of men have been sexually harassed.[49] Data from the EEOC suggest that sexual harassment is decreasing: Sexual harassment claims now make up 10 percent of all discrimination claims, compared with 20 percent in the mid-1990s. Of this percentage, though, claims from men have increased from 11 percent of total claims in 1997 to 17.5 percent today.[50] Sexual harassment is disproportionately

A federal jury awarded this woman a $95 million judgment in a sexual harassment lawsuit against her employer for harassment from her supervisor that included unwanted physical contact. The jury found the supervisor guilty of assault and battery, and the company liable for negligent supervision and sexual harassment.
Source: Bill Greenblatt/UPI/Newscom

prevalent for women in certain types of jobs. In the restaurant industry, for instance, 80 percent of female wait staff reported having been sexually harassed by coworkers or customers, compared to 70 percent of male wait staff.[51]

Most studies confirm that power is central to understanding sexual harassment.[52] This seems true whether the harassment comes from a supervisor, coworker, or employee. And sexual harassment is more likely to occur when there are large power differentials. The supervisor–employee dyad best characterizes an unequal power relationship, where formal power gives the supervisor the capacity to reward and coerce. Because employees want favorable performance reviews, salary increases, and the like, supervisors control resources most employees consider important and scarce. When there aren't effective controls to detect and prevent sexual harassment, abusers are more likely to act. For example, male respondents in one study in Switzerland who were high in hostile sexism reported higher intentions to engage in sexual harassment in organizations that had low levels of justice, suggesting that failure to have consistent policies and procedures for all employees might increase levels of sexual harassment.[53]

Sexual harassment can have a detrimental impact on individuals and the organization, but it can be avoided. The manager's role is critical:

1. *Make sure an active policy defines what constitutes sexual harassment, informs employees they can be fired for inappropriate behavior, and establishes procedures for making complaints.*
2. *Reassure employees that they will not encounter retaliation if they file a complaint.*
3. *Investigate every complaint, and inform the legal and HR departments.*
4. *Make sure offenders are disciplined or terminated.*
5. *Set up in-house seminars to raise employee awareness of sexual harassment issues.*

The bottom line is that managers have a responsibility to protect their employees from a hostile work environment. They may easily be unaware that one of their employees is being sexually harassed, but being unaware does not protect them or their organization. If investigators believe a manager could have known about the harassment, both the manager and the company can be held liable.

Politics: Power in Action

13-6 Describe how politics work in organizations.

Whenever people get together in groups, power will be exerted. People in organizations want to carve out a niche to exert influence, earn rewards, and advance their careers. If they convert their power into action, we describe them as being engaged in *politics*. Those with good political skills have the ability to use their bases of power effectively.[54] Politics are not only inevitable; they might be essential, too (see OB Poll).

Definition of Organizational Politics

political behavior Activities that are not required as part of a person's formal role in the organization but that influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization.

There is no shortage of definitions of *organizational politics*. Essentially, this type of politics focuses on the use of power to affect decision making in an organization, sometimes for self-serving and organizationally unsanctioned behaviors.[55] For our purposes, **political behavior** in organizations consists of activities that are not required as part of an individual's formal role but that influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization.[56]
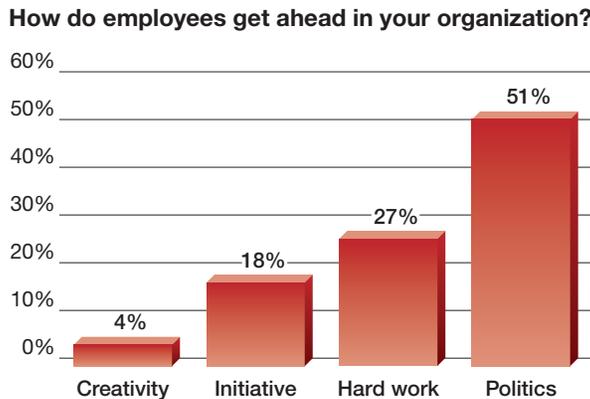
This definition encompasses what most people mean when they talk about organizational politics. Political behavior is outside specified job requirements. It requires some attempt to use power bases. It includes efforts to influence the goals, criteria, or processes used for decision making. Our definition is broad enough to include varied political behaviors such as withholding key information from decision makers, joining a coalition, whistle-blowing, spreading rumors, leaking confidential information to the media, exchanging favors with others for mutual benefit, and lobbying on behalf of or against a particular individual or decision alternative. In this way, political behavior is often negative, but not always.

The Reality of Politics

Interviews with experienced managers show that most believe political behavior is a major part of organizational life.[57] Many managers report some use of political behavior is ethical, as long as it doesn't directly harm anyone else.

OB POLL

Importance of Organizational Politics

How do employees get ahead in your organization?

- Creativity: 4%
- Initiative: 18%
- Hard work: 27%
- Politics: 51%

Source: Based on D. Crampton, "Is How Americans Feel about Their Jobs Changing?" (September 28, 2012), http://corevalues.com/employee-motivation/is-how-americans-feel-about-their-jobs-changing.

Whistle-blower Michael Woodford was fired from his position as CEO of Japanese camera-maker Olympus after informing company officials about accounting irregularities. Although not part of his job, Woodford uncovered a 13-year accounting fraud by some company executives.
Source: Luke McGregor/Reuters

They describe politics as necessary and believe someone who never uses political behavior will have a hard time getting things done. Most also indicate that they have never been trained to use political behavior effectively. But why, you may wonder, must politics exist? Isn't it possible for an organization to be politics-free? It's *possible*—but unlikely.

Organizations have individuals and groups with different values, goals, and interests.[58] This sets up the potential for conflict over the allocation of limited resources, such as budgets, work space, and salary and bonus pools. If resources were abundant, all constituencies within an organization could satisfy their goals. But because they are limited, not everyone's interests can be satisfied. Furthermore, gains by one individual or group are often *perceived* as coming at the expense of others within the organization (whether they are or not). These forces create competition among members for the organization's limited resources.

Maybe the most important factor leading to politics within organizations is the realization that most of the "facts" used to allocate limited resources are open to interpretation. When allocating pay based on performance, for instance, what is *good* performance? What's an *adequate* improvement? What constitutes an *unsatisfactory* job? The manager of any major league baseball team knows a .400 hitter is a high performer and a .125 hitter is a poor performer. You don't need to be a baseball genius to know you should play your .400 hitter and send the .125 hitter back to the minors. But what if you have to choose between players who hit .280 and .290? Then less objective factors come into play: fielding expertise, attitude, potential, ability to perform in a clutch, loyalty to the team, and so on. More managerial decisions resemble the choice between a .280 and a .290 hitter than between a .125 hitter and a .400 hitter. It is in this large and ambiguous middle ground of organizational life—where the facts don't speak for themselves—that politics flourish.

Because most decisions have to be made in a climate of ambiguity—where facts are rarely objective and thus open to interpretation—people within organizations will use whatever influence they can to support their

goals and interests. That, of course, creates the activities we call *politicking*. One person's "selfless effort to benefit the organization" is seen by another as a "blatant attempt to further his or her interest."[59]

Therefore, to answer the question of whether it is possible for an organization to be politics-free, we can say yes—if all members of that organization hold the same goals and interests, if organizational resources are not scarce, and if performance outcomes are completely clear and objective. But that doesn't describe the organizational world in which most of us live.
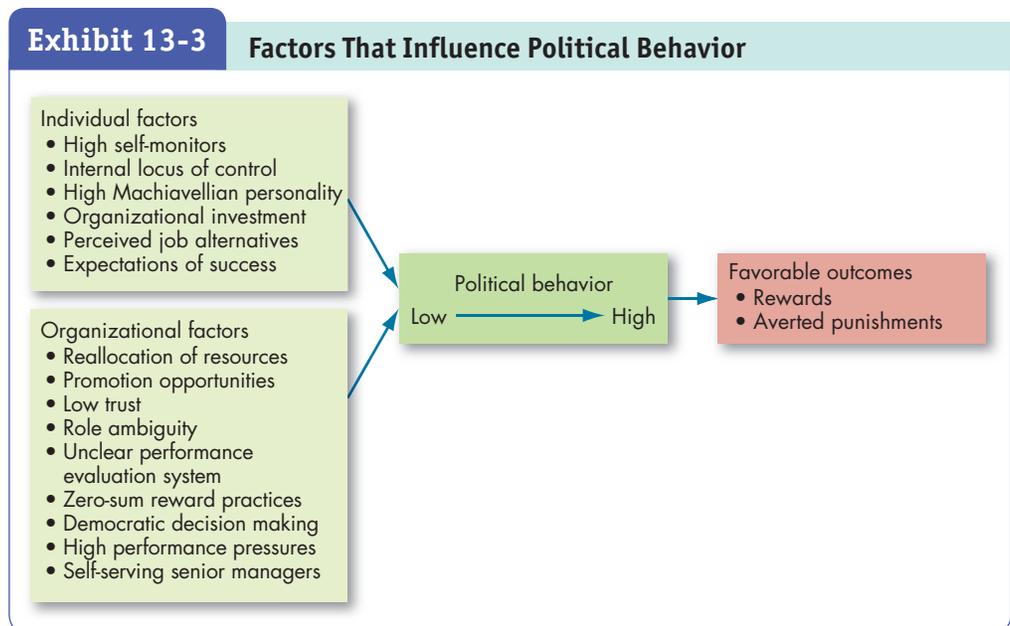
The Causes and Consequences of Political Behavior

13-7 Identify the causes, consequences, and ethics of political behavior.

Now that we've discussed the constant presence of politicking in organizations, let's discuss the causes and consequences of these behaviors.

Factors Contributing to Political Behavior

Not all groups or organizations are equally political. In some organizations, politicking is overt and rampant, while in others politics plays a small role in influencing outcomes. Why this variation? Research and observation have identified a number of factors that appear to encourage political behavior. Some are individual characteristics, derived from the qualities of the people employed by the organization; others are a result of the organization's culture or internal environment. Exhibit 13-3 illustrates how both individual and organizational factors can increase political behavior and provide favorable outcomes (increased rewards and averted punishments) for individuals and groups in the organization.

Individual Factors   At the individual level, researchers have identified certain personality traits, needs, and other factors likely to be related to political behavior. In terms of traits, we find that employees who are high self-monitors,

---

Exhibit 13-3   **Factors That Influence Political Behavior**

Individual factors
- High self-monitors
- Internal locus of control
- High Machiavellian personality
- Organizational investment
- Perceived job alternatives
- Expectations of success

Organizational factors
- Reallocation of resources
- Promotion opportunities
- Low trust
- Role ambiguity
- Unclear performance evaluation system
- Zero-sum reward practices
- Democratic decision making
- High performance pressures
- Self-serving senior managers

Political behavior
Low ———→ High

Favorable outcomes
- Rewards
- Averted punishments

possess an internal locus of control, and have a high need for power are more likely to engage in political behavior. The high self-monitor is more sensitive to social cues, exhibits higher levels of social conformity, and is more likely to be skilled in political behavior than the low self-monitor. Because they believe they can control their environment, individuals with an internal locus of control are more prone to take a proactive stance and attempt to manipulate situations in their favor. Not surprisingly, the Machiavellian personality trait—characterized by the will to manipulate and the desire for power—is consistent with using politics as a means to further personal interests.

An individual's investment in the organization and perceived alternatives influence the degree to which he or she will pursue illegitimate means of political action.[60] The more a person expects increased future benefits from the organization, and the more that person has to lose if forced out, the less likely he or she is to use illegitimate means. Conversely, the more alternate job opportunities an individual has—due to a favorable job market, possession of scarce skills or knowledge, prominent reputation, or influential contacts outside the organization—the more likely the person is to employ politics.

An individual with low expectations of success from political means is unlikely to use them. High expectations from such measures are most likely to be the province of both experienced and powerful individuals with polished political skills, and inexperienced and naïve employees who misjudge their chances.

Some individuals engage in more political behavior because they simply are better at it. Such individuals read interpersonal interactions well, fit their behavior to situational needs, and excel at networking.[61] These people are often indirectly rewarded for their political efforts. For example, a study of a construction firm in southern China found that politically skilled subordinates were more likely to receive recommendations for rewards from their supervisors and that politically oriented supervisors were especially likely to respond positively to politically skilled subordinates.[62] Other studies from countries around the world have also shown that higher levels of political skill are associated with higher levels of perceived job performance.[63]

Organizational Factors   Although we acknowledge the role that individual differences can play, the evidence more strongly suggests that certain situations and cultures promote politics. Specifically, when an organization's resources are declining, when the existing pattern of resources is changing, and when there is opportunity for promotions, politicking is more likely to surface.[64] When resources are reduced, people may engage in political actions to safeguard what they have. Also, *any* changes, especially those implying significant reallocation of resources within the organization, are likely to stimulate conflict and increase politicking.

MyLab Management Try It

If your professor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the Mini Sim.

Cultures characterized by low trust, role ambiguity, unclear performance evaluation systems, zero-sum (win–lose) reward allocation practices, democratic decision making, high pressure for performance, and self-serving senior managers will also create breeding grounds for politicking.[65] Because political

Should I become political?

My office is so political! Everyone is just looking for ways to get ahead by plotting and scheming rather than doing the job. Should I just go along with it and develop my own political strategy?

— *Julia*

Dear Julia:

There's definitely a temptation to join in when other people are behaving politically. If you want to advance your career, you need to think about social relationships and how to work with other people in a smart and diplomatic way. But that doesn't mean you have to give in to pressure to engage in organizational politics.

Of course, in many workplaces, hard work and achievement aren't recognized, which heightens politicking and lowers performance. But politics aren't just potentially bad for the company. People who are seen as political can be gradually excluded from social networks and informal communication. Coworkers can sabotage a person with a reputation for dishonesty or manipulation so they don't have to deal with him or her. It's

also likely that a political person will be the direct target of revenge from those who feel they've been wronged.

If you want to provide a positive alternative to political behavior in your workplace, there are a few steps you can take:

- *Document your work efforts, and find data to back up your accomplishments.* Political behavior thrives in an ambiguous environment where standards for success are subjective and open to manipulation. The best way to shortcut politics is to move the focus toward clear, objective markers of work performance.
- *Call out political behavior when you see it.* Political behavior is, by its very nature, secretive and underhanded. By bringing politics to light, you limit this capacity to manipulate people against one another.
- *Try to develop a network with only those individuals who are interested in performing well together.* This makes it hard for a very political person to get a lot done. On the other hand, trustworthy and cooperative

people will be able to find many allies who are genuinely supportive. These support networks will result in performance levels that a lone political person simply cannot match.

Remember, in the long run a good reputation can be your greatest asset!

Sources: Based on A. Lavoie "How to Get Rid of Toxic Office Politics," *Fast Company*, April 10, 2014, http://www.fastcompany .com/3028856/work-smart/how-to-make-office-politicking-a-lame-duck; C. Conner, "Office Politics: Must You Play?," *Forbes*, April 14, 2013, http://www.forbes.com/sites/ cherylsnappconner/2013/04/14/office-politics-must-you-play-a-handbook-for-survivalsuccess/; and J. A. Colquitt and J. B. Rodell, "Justice, Trust, and Trustworthiness: A Longitudinal Analysis Integrating Three Theoretical Perspectives," *Academy of Management Journal* 54 (2011): 1183–206.

activities are not required as part of the employee's formal role, the greater the role ambiguity, the more employees can engage in unnoticed political activity. Role ambiguity means that the prescribed employee behaviors are not clear; therefore, there are fewer limits to the scope and functions of the employee's political actions.

The more an organizational culture emphasizes the zero-sum or win–lose approach to reward allocations, the more employees will be motivated to engage in politicking. The **zero-sum approach** treats the reward "pie" as fixed, so any gain one person or group achieves comes at the expense of another person or group. For example, if $15,000 is distributed among five employees for raises, any employee who gets more than $3,000 takes money away from one or more of the others. Such a practice encourages making others look bad and increasing the visibility of what you do.

There are also political forces at work in the relationships *between* organizations, where politics work differently depending on the organizational cultures.[66] One study showed that when two organizations with very political environments interacted with one another, the political interactions between

zero-sum approach   An approach that treats the reward "pie" as fixed so that any gains by one individual are at the expense of another.

Organizations foster politicking when they reduce resources. By announcing plans to downsize its global workforce of 100,000 employees in an effort to increase its competitiveness, French pharmaceutical firm Sanofi stimulated political activity among employees who organized protests against the job cuts.

Source: Robert Pratta/Reuters

Myth or Science?

Powerful Leaders Keep Their (Fr)Enemies Close

This statement appears to be true. We all have heard the term *frenemies* to describe friends who are also rivals or people who act like friends but secretly dislike each other. Some observers have argued that frenemies are increasing at work due to the "abundance of very close, intertwined relationships that bridge people's professional and personal lives."

Keeping enemies close may be one reason Barack Obama appointed Hillary Clinton secretary of state after their bitter battle for the U.S. presidency, or in the business world, why one entrepreneur decided not to sue a former college classmate who, after working for her startup as a consultant, took that knowledge and started his own, competing company.

Is it really wise to keep your enemies close? And, if so, why?

New research suggests answers to these questions. Three experimental studies found individuals chose to work in the same room as their rival even when informed they would probably perform better apart, sit closer to rivals when working together, and express an explicit preference to be closer to the rival. The researchers further found the primary reason for the "being closer" effect was the desire to monitor the rival's behavior and performance.

The researchers also found the "keeping enemies closer" effect was strong under certain conditions—when the individual was socially dominant, when the individual felt more competition from the team member, and when rewards and the ability to serve as leader were dependent on performance.

These results suggest the concept of frenemies is very real and that we choose to keep our rivals close so we can keep an eye on the competition they bring.

_____

Sources: Based on M. Thompson, "How to Work with Your Startup Frenemies," *VentureBeat*, December 22, 2012, http://venturebeat.com/2012/12/22/frenemies/; and N. L. Mead and J. K. Maner, "On Keeping Your Enemies Close: Powerful Leaders Seek Proximity to Ingroup Power Threats," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 102 (2012): 576–91.

them hurt performance in collaborative projects. On the other hand, when companies with less internal political behavior interacted with one another, even political disputes between them did not lead to lower performance in collaborative projects. This study shows companies should be wary of forming alliances with companies that have high levels of internal political behavior.

How Do People Respond to Organizational Politics?

Trish loves her job as a writer on a weekly U.S. television comedy series but hates the internal politics. "A couple of the writers here spend more time kissing up to the executive producer than doing any work. And our head writer clearly has his favorites. While they pay me a lot and I get to really use my creativity, I'm sick of having to be on alert for backstabbers and constantly having to self-promote my contributions. I'm tired of doing most of the work and getting little of the credit." We all know friends or relatives like Trish who regularly complain about the politics at their jobs. But how do people in general react to organizational politics? Let's look at the evidence.
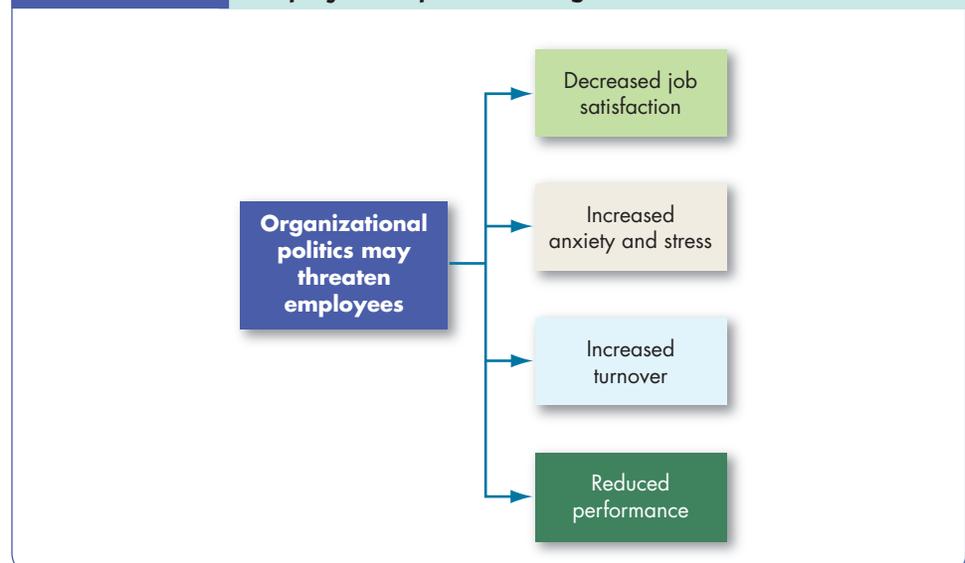
For most people who have modest political skills or are unwilling to play the politics game, outcomes tend to be predominantly negative. See Exhibit 13-4 for a diagram of this situation. However, very strong evidence indicates perceptions of organizational politics are negatively related to job satisfaction.[67] Politics may lead to self-reported declines in employee performance, perhaps because employees perceive political environments to be unfair, which demotivates them.[68] Not surprisingly, when politicking becomes too much to handle, it can lead employees to quit.[69] When employees of two agencies in a study in Nigeria viewed their work environments as political, they reported higher levels of job distress and were less likely to help their coworkers. Thus, although developing countries such as Nigeria present perhaps more ambiguous and therefore more political environments in which to work, the negative consequences of politics appear to be the same as in the United States.[70]

There are some qualifiers. First, the politics–performance relationship appears to be moderated by an individual's understanding of the hows and

Exhibit 13-4   **Employee Responses to Organizational Politics**

Organizational politics may threaten employees →
- Decreased job satisfaction
- Increased anxiety and stress
- Increased turnover
- Reduced performance

whys of organizational politics. Researchers noted, "An individual who has a clear understanding of who is responsible for making decisions and why they were selected to be the decision makers would have a better understanding of how and why things happen the way they do than someone who does not understand the decision-making process in the organization."[71] When both politics and understanding are high, performance is likely to increase because these individuals see political activity as an opportunity. This is consistent with what you might expect for individuals with well-honed political skills. But when understanding is low, individuals are more likely to see politics as a threat, which can have a negative effect on job performance.[72]

Second, political behavior at work moderates the effects of ethical leadership.[73] One study found that male employees were more responsive to ethical leadership and showed the most citizenship behavior when levels of both politics and ethical leadership were high. Women, on the other hand, appeared most likely to engage in citizenship behavior when the environment was consistently ethical and *apolitical.*

Third, when employees see politics as a threat, they often respond with **defensive behaviors**—reactive and protective behaviors to avoid action, blame, or change.[74] (Exhibit 13-5 provides some examples.) In the short run, employees may find that defensiveness protects their self-interest, but in the long run it wears them down. People who consistently rely on defensiveness find that eventually it is the only way they know how to behave. At that point, they lose the trust and support of their peers, bosses, employees, and clients.

defensive behaviors   Reactive and protective behaviors to avoid action, blame, or change.

Exhibit 13-5   Defensive Behaviors

Avoiding Action

Overconforming. Strictly interpreting your responsibility by saying things like "The rules clearly state…"or "This is the way we've always done it."

Buck passing. Transferring responsibility for the execution of a task or decision to someone else.

Playing dumb. Avoiding an unwanted task by falsely pleading ignorance or inability.

Stretching. Prolonging a task so that one person appears to be occupied—for example, turning a two-week task into a 4-month job.

Stalling. Appearing to be more or less supportive publicly while doing little or nothing privately.

Avoiding Blame

Bluffing. Rigorously documenting activity to project an image of competence and thoroughness, known as "covering your rear."

Playing safe. Evading situations that may reflect unfavorably. It includes taking on only projects with a high probability of success, having risky decisions approved by superiors, qualifying expressions of judgment, and taking neutral positions in conflicts.

Justifying. Developing explanations that lessen one's responsibility for a negative outcome and/or apologizing to demonstrate remorse, or both.

Scapegoating. Placing the blame for a negative outcome on external factors that are not entirely blameworthy.

Misrepresenting. Manipulation of information by distortion, embellishment, deception, selective presentation, or obfuscation.

Avoiding Change

Prevention. Trying to prevent a threatening change from occurring.

Self-protection. Acting in ways to protect one's self-interest during change by guarding information or other resources.

Impression Management

We know people have an ongoing interest in how others perceive and evaluate them. For example, North Americans spend billions of dollars on diets, health club memberships, cosmetics, and plastic surgery—all intended to make them more attractive to others. Being perceived positively by others has benefits in an organizational setting. It might, for instance, help us initially to get the jobs we want in an organization and, once hired, to get favorable evaluations, superior salary increases, and more rapid promotions. The process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions that others form of them is called **impression management (IM)**.[75]

Who might we predict will engage in IM? No surprise here. It's our old friend, the high self-monitor.[76] Low self-monitors tend to present images of themselves that are consistent with their personalities, regardless of the beneficial or detrimental effects for them. In contrast, high self-monitors are good at reading situations and molding their appearances and behavior to fit each situation. If you want to control the impressions others form of you, what IM techniques can you use? Exhibit 13-6 summarizes some of the most popular with examples.

Keep in mind that when people engage in IM, they are sending a false message that might be true under other circumstances.[77] Excuses, for instance, may be offered with sincerity. Referring to the example in Exhibit 13-6, you can *actually* believe that ads contribute little to sales in your region. But misrepresentation can have a high cost. If you cry wolf once too often, no one is likely to believe you when the wolf really comes. So the impression manager must be cautious not to be perceived as insincere or manipulative.[78]

One study found that when managers attributed an employee's citizenship behaviors to impression management, they actually felt angry (probably because they felt manipulated) and gave subordinates lower performance ratings. When managers attributed the same behaviors to prosocial values and concern about the organization, they felt happy and gave higher performance ratings.[79] In sum, people don't like to feel others are manipulating them through impression management, so such tactics should be employed with caution. Not all impression management consists of talking yourself up, either. Recent research suggests modesty, in the form of generously providing credit to others and understating your own contributions to success, may create a more positive impression on others.[80]

Most of the studies to test the effectiveness of IM techniques have related IM to two criteria: interview success and performance evaluations. Let's consider each of these.

Interviews and IM   The evidence indicates that most job applicants use IM techniques in interviews and that it works.[81] Interviewers are rarely able to detect when an individual is engaging in impression management, especially when applicants are using deception to engage in impression management.[82] To develop a sense of how effective different IM techniques are in interviews, one study grouped data from thousands of recruiting and selection interviews into appearance-oriented efforts (like looking professional), explicit tactics (like flattering the interviewer or talking up your own accomplishments), and verbal cues (like using positive terms and showing general enthusiasm).[83] Across all the dimensions, it was quite clear that IM was a powerful predictor of how well people did. However, there was a twist. When interviews were highly structured, meaning the interviewer's questions were written out in advance and focused on applicant qualifications, the effects of IM were substantially weaker. Manipulative behaviors like IM are more likely to have an effect in ambiguous and unstructured interviews. In addition, the effectiveness of impression

impression management (IM)   The process by which individuals attempt to control the impressions that others form of them.

Exhibit 13-6	Impression Management (IM) Techniques

Conformity

Agreeing with someone else's opinion to gain his or her approval is a *form of ingratiation.*

Example: A manager tells his boss, "You're absolutely right on your reorganization plan for the western regional office. I couldn' t agree with you more."

Favors

Doing something nice for someone to gain that person' s approval is a *form of ingratiation.*

Example: A salesperson says to a prospective client, "I've got two tickets to the theater tonight that I can't use. Take them. Consider it a thank-you for taking the time to talk with me."

Excuses

Explaining a predicament-creating event aimed at minimizing the apparent severity of the predicament is a *defensive IM technique.*

Example: A sales manager says to her boss, "We failed to get the ad in the paper on time, but no one responds to those ads anyway."

Apologies

Admitting responsibility for an undesirable event and simultaneously seeking to get a pardon for the action is a *defensive IM technique.*

Example: An employee says to his boss, "I'm sorry I made a mistake on the report. Please forgive me."

Self-Promotion

Highlighting your best qualities, downplaying your deficits, and calling attention to your achievements is a *self-focused IM technique.*

Example: A salesperson tells his boss, "Matt worked unsuccessfully for three years to try to get that account. I sewed it up in six weeks. I'm the best closer this company has."

Enhancement

Claiming that something you did is more valuable than most other members of the organizations would think is a *self-focused IM technique.*

Example: A journalist tells his editor, "My work on this celebrity divorce story was really a major boost to our sales" (even though the story only made it to page 3 in the entertainment section).

Flattery

Complimenting others about their virtues in an effort to make yourself appear perceptive and likeable is an *assertive IM technique.*

Example: A new sales trainee says to her peer, "You handled that client's complaint so tactfully! I could never have handled that as well as you did."

Exemplification

Doing more than you need to in an effort to show how dedicated and hard working you are is an *assertive IM technique.*

Example: An employee sends e-mails from his work computer when he works late so that his supervisor will know how long he's been working.

Source: Based on M. C. Bolino, K. M. Kacmar, W. H. Turnley, and J. B. Gilstrap, "A Multi-Level Review of Impression Management Motives and Behaviors," *Journal of Management* 34, no. 6 (2008): 1080–109.

management depends on the applicants' ability to correctly identify what traits or skills the interviewer is looking for.[84]

Performance Evaluations and IM   In terms of performance evaluations, the picture is quite different. Ingratiation is positively related to performance ratings, meaning those who ingratiate themselves with their supervisors get higher performance evaluations. However, self-promotion appears to backfire: Those

How Much Should You Manage Interviewer Impressions?

Almost everyone agrees that dressing professionally, highlighting previous accomplishments, and expressing interest in the job are reasonable impression management tactics to improve your presentation in an interview. Strategies like flattering the interviewer and using positive nonverbal cues like smiling and nodding are also often advised.

Is there an upside to such impression management? Research generally shows there is. The more effort applicants put into highlighting their skills, motivation, and admiration for the organization, the more likely they are to be hired. A recent study in Taiwan examined this relationship, finding that interviewers saw applicants who talked confidently about their qualifications as a better fit for the job, and applicants who said positive things about the organization as a better fit for the organization. Positive nonverbal cues improved interviewer moods, which also improved the applicant's ratings.

Despite evidence that making an effort to impress an interviewer can pay off, you can go too far. Evidence that a person misrepresented qualifications in the hiring process is usually grounds for immediate termination. Even so-called white lies are a problem if they create unfounded expectations. For example, if you noted that you managed budgets in the past when all you were doing was tracking expenditures, you lack skills your boss will expect you to have. When you fail to deliver, it will look very bad for you. However, if you describe your experience more accurately but note your desire to learn, the company will know you need additional training and that you'll need a bit of extra time.

So what does an ethical, effective interview strategy entail? The key is to find a positive but truthful way to manage impressions. Don't be afraid to let an employer know about your skills and accomplishments, and be sure to show your enthusiasm for the job. At the same time, keep your statements as accurate as possible, and be careful not to overstate your abilities. In the long run, you're much more likely to be happy and successful in a job where both you and the interviewer can assess fit honestly.

Sources: Based on C. Chen and M. Lin, "The Effect of Applicant Impression Management Tactics on Hiring Recommendations: Cognitive and Affective Processes," *Applied Psychology: An International Review* 63, no. 4, (2014): 698–724; J. Levashina, C. J. Hartwell, F. P. Morgeson, and M. A. Campion "The Structured Employment Interview: Narrative and Quantitative Review of the Research Literature," *Personnel Psychology* (Spring 2014): 241–93; and M. Nemko, "The Effective, Ethical, and Less Stressful Job Interview," *Psychology Today*, March 25, 2014, https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/how-do-life/201503/the-effective-ethical-and-less-stressful-job-interview.

who self-promote actually may receive *lower* performance ratings.[85] There is an important qualifier to these general findings. It appears that individuals high in political skill are able to translate IM into higher performance appraisals, whereas those lower in political skill are more likely to be hurt by their IM attempts.[86] Another study of 760 boards of directors found that individuals who ingratiated themselves with current board members (e.g., expressed agreement with the director, pointed out shared attitudes and opinions, complimented the director) increased their chances of landing on a board.[87] Interns who attempted to use ingratiation with their supervisors in one study were usually disliked—unless they had high levels of political skill. For those who had this ability, ingratiation led to higher levels of liking from supervisors and higher performance ratings.[88]

What explains these consistent results across multiple studies and contexts? If you think about them, they make sense. Ingratiating always works because everyone—both interviewers and supervisors—likes to be treated nicely. However, self-promotion may work only in interviews and backfire on the job: The interviewer has little idea whether you're blowing smoke about your accomplishments, but the supervisor knows because it's his or her job to observe you.

Are our conclusions about responses to politics valid around the world? Should we expect employees in Israel, for instance, to respond the same way

to workplace politics that employees in the United States do? Almost all our conclusions on employee reactions to organizational politics are based on studies conducted in North America. The few studies that have included other countries suggest some minor modifications.[89] One study of managers in U.S. culture and three Chinese cultures (People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan) found U.S. managers evaluated "gentle persuasion" tactics such as consultation and inspirational appeal as more effective than did their Chinese counterparts.[90] Other research suggests effective U.S. leaders achieve influence by focusing on the personal goals of group members and the tasks at hand (an analytical approach), whereas influential East Asian leaders focus on relationships among group members and meeting the demands of people around them (a holistic approach).[91] Another study of Chinese supervisors and subordinates found that subordinates were seen as more agreeable and conscientious when they engaged in self-effacing behaviors, but only if these behaviors made them appear modest rather than supplicating.[92]

The Ethics of Behaving Politically

Although there are no clear-cut ways to differentiate ethical from unethical politicking, there are some questions you should consider. For example, what is the utility of engaging in politicking? Sometimes we do it for little good reason. Major league baseball player Al Martin claimed he played football at the University of Southern California (USC) when in fact he never did. As a baseball player, he had little to gain by pretending to have played football! Outright lies like this may be a rather rare and extreme example of impression management, but many of us have at least distorted information to make a favorable impression. One thing to keep in mind is whether it's worth the risk. Another issue to consider is whether the utility of engaging in the political behavior will balance out harm (or potential harm) to others. Complimenting a supervisor on her appearance in order to curry favor is probably much less harmful than grabbing credit for a project that others deserve.

Finally, does the political activity conform to standards of equity and justice? Sometimes it is difficult to weigh the costs and benefits of a political action, but its ethicality is clear. The department head who inflates the performance evaluation of a favored employee and deflates the evaluation of a disfavored employee—and then uses these evaluations to justify giving the former a big raise and the latter nothing—has treated the disfavored employee unfairly.

Unfortunately, powerful people can become very good at explaining self-serving behaviors in terms of the organization's best interests. They can persuasively argue that unfair actions are really fair and just. Those who are powerful, articulate, and persuasive are most vulnerable to ethical lapses because they are more likely to get away with them. When faced with an ethical dilemma regarding organizational politics, try to consider whether playing politics is worth the risk and whether others might be harmed in the process. If you have a strong power base, recognize the ability of power to corrupt. Remember it's a lot easier for the powerless to act ethically, if for no other reason than they typically have very little political discretion to exploit.

MyLab Management
Personal Inventory Assessments

Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the Personal Inventory Assessment related to this chapter.

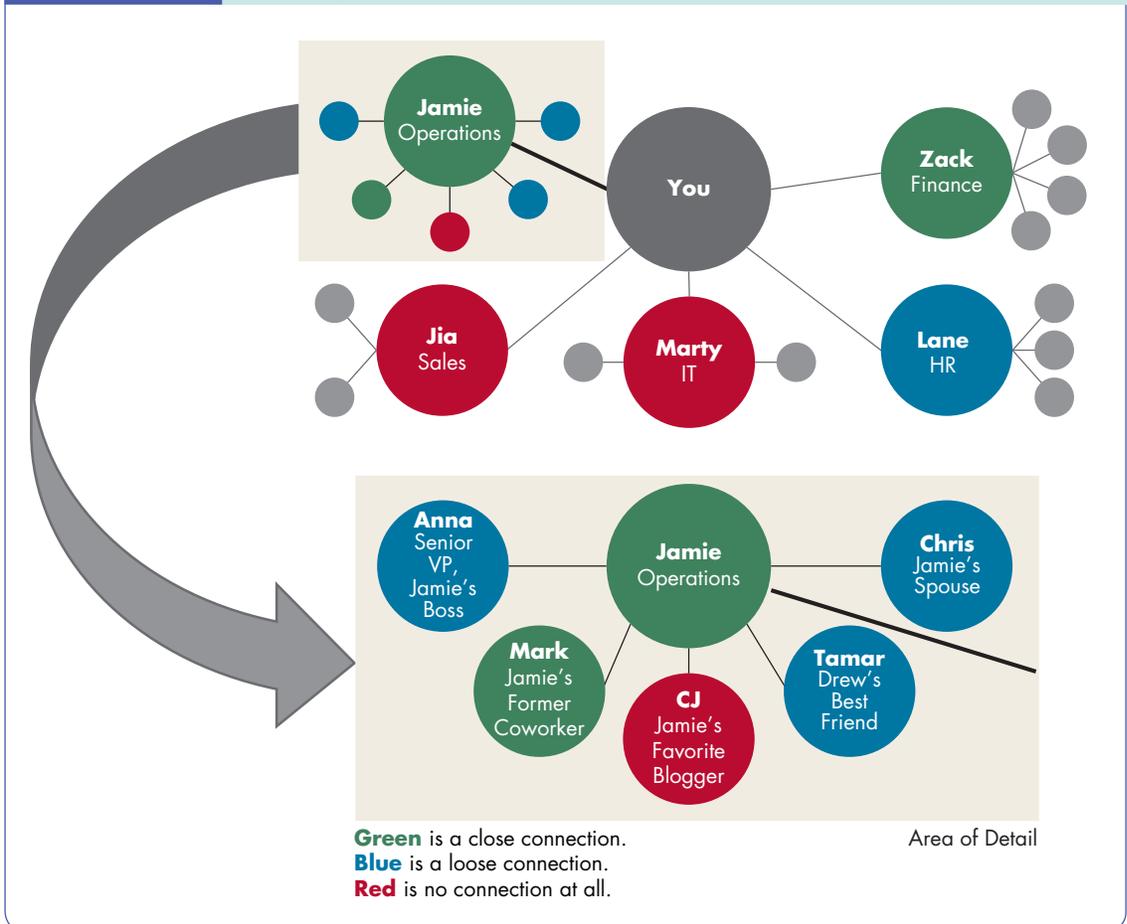## Mapping Your Political Career

As we have seen, politics is not just for politicians. You can use the concepts presented in this chapter in some very tangible ways in your organization. However, they also have another application: you.

One of the most useful ways to think about power and politics is in terms of your own career. What are your ambitions? Who has the power to help you achieve them? What is your relationship to these people? The best way to answer these questions is with a political map, which can help you sketch out your relationships with the people on whom your career depends. Exhibit 13-7 contains such a political map.[93] Let's walk through it.

Assume your future promotion depends on five people, including Jamie, your immediate supervisor. As you can see in the exhibit, you have a close relationship with Jamie (you would be in real trouble otherwise). You also have a close relationship with Zack in finance. However, with the others, you have either a loose relationship (Lane) or none at all (Jia, Marty). One obvious implication of this map is the need to formulate a plan to gain more influence over, and a closer relationship with, these people. How might you do that?

The map also provides for a useful way to think about the power network. Assume the five individuals all have their own networks. In this case, though, assume these aren't so much power networks like yours as they are influence networks of the people who influence the individuals in power positions.

Exhibit 13-7	Drawing Your Political Map

Green is a close connection.
Blue is a loose connection.
Red is no connection at all.

Area of Detail

One of the best ways to influence people is indirectly. What if you played in a tennis league with Mark, Jamie's former coworker who you know remains friends with Jamie? To influence Mark, in many cases, may also be to influence Marty. In addition, why not post an entry on CJ's blog? You can complete a similar analysis for the other four decision makers and their networks.

Of course, this map doesn't show you everything you need to know—no map does. For example, rarely would all five people have the same amount of power. Maps are also harder to construct in the era of large social networks. Try to keep such a map limited to the people who *really* matter to your career.

All of this may seem a bit Machiavellian to you. Remember, however, only one person gets the promotion, and your competition may have a map of his or her own. As we noted in the early part of the chapter, power and politics are part of organizational life. To decide not to play is deciding not to be effective. Better to be explicit with a political map than to proceed as if power and politics didn't matter.

Summary

Few employees relish being powerless in their jobs and organizations. People respond differently to the various power bases. Expert and referent power are derived from an individual's personal qualities. In contrast, coercion, reward, and legitimate power are essentially organizationally granted. Competence especially appears to offer wide appeal, and its use as a power base results in high performance by group members.

An effective manager accepts the political nature of organizations. Some people are more politically astute than others, meaning they are aware of the underlying politics and can manage impressions. Those who are good at playing politics can be expected to get higher performance evaluations and hence larger salary increases and more promotions than the politically naïve or inept. The politically astute are also likely to exhibit higher job satisfaction and be better able to neutralize job stressors.

Implications for Managers

- To maximize your power, increase others' dependence on you. For instance, increase your power in relation to your boss by developing a needed knowledge or skill for which there is no ready substitute.
- You will not be alone in attempting to build your power bases. Others, particularly employees and peers, will be seeking to increase your dependence on them while you are trying to minimize it and increase their dependence on you.
- Try to avoid putting others in a position where they feel they have no power.
- By assessing behavior in a political framework, you can better predict the actions of others and use that information to formulate political strategies that will gain advantages for you and your work unit.
- Consider that employees who have poor political skills or are unwilling to play the politics game generally relate perceived organizational politics to lower job satisfaction and self-reported performance, increased anxiety, and higher turnover. Therefore, if you are adept at organizational politics, help others understand the importance of becoming politically savvy.

Everyone Wants Power

POINT

We don't admit to everything we want. For instance, one psychologist found people would seldom admit to wanting money, but they thought everyone else wanted it. They were half right—everyone wants money. And everyone wants power.

Harvard psychologist David McClelland was justifiably famous for his study of underlying motives. McClelland measured people's motivation for power based on how they described pictures (this method is called the Thematic Apperception Test [TAT]). Why didn't he simply ask people how much they wanted power? Because he believed that many more people really wanted power than would admit it or even consciously realize. And that's exactly what he found.

Why do we want power? Because it is good for us. It gives us more control over our own lives. It gives us more freedom to do as we wish. There are few things worse in life than feeling helpless and few better than feeling in charge of your destiny. Research shows people with power and status command more respect from others, have higher self-esteem (no surprise there), and enjoy better health than those of less stature.

Take Steve Cohen, founder of SAC Capital Advisors and one of the most powerful men on Wall Street. Worth $11.1 billion, Cohen buys Picassos, lives in a mansion, has white-gloved butlers, and travels the world first class. People will do almost anything to please him—or even to get near him. One writer notes, "Inside his offices, vast fortunes are won and lost. Careers are made and unmade. Type-A egos are inflated and crushed, sometimes in the space of hours." All this is bad for Steve Cohen how?

Usually, people who tell you power doesn't matter are those who have no hope of getting it. Wanting power, like being jealous, can be one of those secrets people just won't admit to.

COUNTERPOINT

Of course it's true that some people desire power—and often behave ruthlessly to get it. For most of us, however, power is not high in priority, and for some, it's actually undesirable.

Research shows that most individuals feel uncomfortable when placed in powerful positions. One study asked individuals, before they began work in a four-person team, to "rank, from 1 [highest] to 4 [lowest], in terms of status and influence within the group, what rank you would like to achieve." Only about one-third (34 percent) of participants chose the highest rank. In a second study, researchers focused on employees participating in Amazon's Mechanical Turk online service. They found that the main reason people wanted power was to earn respect. If they could get respect without gaining power, that was preferred. In a third study, researchers found that individuals desired power only when they had high ability—in other words, when their influence helped their groups.

These studies suggest that we often confuse the desire for power with other things—like the desire to be respected and to help our groups and organizations succeed. In these cases, power is something most of us seek for more benevolent ends—and only when we think it does good.

Another study confirmed that most people want respect from their peers, not power. Cameron Anderson, the author of this research, sums it up nicely: "You don't have to be rich to be happy, but instead be a valuable contributing member to your groups. What makes a person high in status in a group is being engaged, generous with others, and making self-sacrifices for the greater good."

Oh, and about Steve Cohen … you realize he pleaded guilty and paid a $1.2 billion fine for failing to prevent insider trading and then had to shut down SAC, right?

Sources: Based on B. Burrough and B. McLean, "The Hunt for Steve Cohen," *Vanity Fair*, June 2013, http://www.vanityfair.com/news/business/2013/06/steve-cohen-insider-trading-case; C. Anderson, R. Willer, G. J. Kilduff, and C. E. Brown, "The Origins of Deference: When Do People Prefer Lower Status?," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 102 (2012): 1077–88; C. Anderson, M. W Kraus, A. D. Galinsky, and D. Keltner, "The Local-Ladder Effect: Social Status and Subjective Well-Being," *Psychological Science 23*(7) (2012): 764–71; S. Kennelly, "Happiness Is about Respect, Not Riches," *Greater Good,* July 13, 2012, http://greatergood.berkeley.edu/article/item/happiness_is_about_respect_not_riches; and P. Lattman and B. Protess, "$1.2 Billion Fine for Hedge Fund SAC Capital in Insider Case," *The New York Times Dealbook*, November 4, 2013, http://dealbook.nytimes.com/2013/11/04/sac-capital-agrees-to-plead-guilty-to-insider-trading/?_r=0.

CHAPTER REVIEW

> **MyLab Management** Discussion Questions
>
> Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the problems marked with this icon ⭐.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

13-1 How is leadership different from power?

13-2 What are the similarities and differences among the five bases of power?

13-3 What is the role of dependence in power relationships?

13-4 What power or influence tactics and their contingencies are identified most often?

13-5 What are the causes and consequences of abuse of power?

13-6 How do politics work in organizations?

13-7 What are the causes, consequences, and ethics of political behavior?

APPLICATION AND EMPLOYABILITY

Power is an important part of organizational behavior. Who has power (and who doesn't) shapes which employees make decisions and advance in their careers. There are many tactics that people can use to gain power and to influence those in power. Individuals can also influence others through political behaviors. In this chapter, you used many different skills that are important to your employability while learning about power and politics. You learned critical thinking skills while reading about the debate over whether most people want power, studying research on keeping enemies closer, and learning how to avoid politics. You also applied your knowledge to using impression management techniques in job interviews. In the next section, you will further apply your knowledge and critical thinking skills to addressing office romances, promoting gender diversity on executive boards, and learning the drawbacks to ingratiating oneself to a boss.

EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISE   Comparing Influence Tactics

Form groups of three. One person is the influencer, one will be influenced, and one is the observer. These roles can be randomly determined.

To begin, create a deck of cards for the seven *tactics* to be used in the exercise. These tactics are legitimacy, rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange, ingratiation, and pressure (all are defined in the chapter). Only the influencer draws cards from the set, and no one else may see what has been drawn.

The influencer draws a card, and quickly formulates and acts out a strategy to use this tactic on the party being influenced. The person being influenced reacts realistically in a back-and-forth exchange over a brief period and states whether or not the tactic was effective. The observer attempts to determine which tactic is being used and which power base (coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, or referent) would reinforce this tactic. The influencer confirms or denies the approach used.

Change the roles and cards throughout the rounds. Afterward, discuss the following questions.

Questions

13-8. Based on your observations, which influence situation would probably have resulted in the best outcome for the person doing the influencing?

13-9. Was there a good match between the tactics drawn and the specific role each person took? In other words, was the tactic useful for the influencer given his or her base of power relative to the person being influenced?

13-10. What lessons about power and influence does this exercise teach you?

ETHICAL DILEMMA Sexual Harassment and Office Romances

In this chapter, we talked about sexual harassment and how uneven power dynamics can contribute to sexual harassment. Sexual harassment often occurs because one employee, such as a supervisor, can use his or her control of resources to reward or coerce another employee into sexual behaviors. For example, when a manager asks a female subordinate to go on a date with him, the female subordinate is more likely to say yes because he has control over resources in the organization. If she declines his request, he could retaliate and withhold privileges from her.

Many companies try to prevent sexual harassment by forbidding coworkers from dating. Some have slightly softer rules. They forbid employees from dating their direct supervisors or coworkers in the same department, presumably so that employees cannot use their power to perpetrate sexual harassment. These less stringent policies do not account for informal power that may exist in organizations. An employee can be in a junior position and still be able withhold access to resources, or this employee can have enough political skill to harm another employee's career.

On the other hand, it may be impractical to try to enforce a policy against office romances. Modern Americans spend one-third of their lives working, so it's likely that an employee will meet a mate at the office. According to a 2015 survey by Careerbuilder.com, over one-third of employees have dated a coworker. Many of these romances involved a power difference as well: 15 percent admitted that they'd dated a supervisor.

Is it worth discouraging office romances? The same survey revealed that almost one-third of office relationships resulted in marriage. And what should you do if Cupid's arrow strikes you in the breakroom? National workplace expert Lynn Taylor has this advice, "Policy or no policy, love happens. So in the absence of written rules…there's one common barometer: your common sense."

Questions

13-11. Do you think offices should include rules about office romances in their sexual harassment policies? Why or why not?

13-12. Is it ever okay for a supervisor to date a subordinate? What if someone becomes their romantic partner's supervisor after the relationship was already initiated?

13-13. Why might 36 percent of the survey respondents say that they hid their romantic relationships from coworkers? How does this relate to what we learned about office gossip in Chapter 9?

Sources: Based on J. Smith, "Eight Questions to Ask Yourself before You Start Dating a Coworker," *Business Insider*, May 29, 2016, http://www.businessinsider.com/questions-to-ask-before-you-start-dating-a-coworker-2016-5/#-1; J. Grasz, "Workers Name Their Top Office Romance Deal Breakers in New CareerBuilder Survey," *CareerBuilder*, February 11, 2015, http://www.careerbuilder.com/share/aboutus/pressreleasesdetail.aspx?sd=2%2F11%2F2015&id=pr868&ed=12%2F31%2F2015.

CASE INCIDENT 1 Should Women Have More Power?

We mentioned in this chapter that women tend to have less power in organizations than men. To demonstrate gender differences in power, just look at the gender composition of executive boards for top-performing companies. As of 2015, only 18.8 percent of Fortune 1000 company board seats were occupied by women, and only 20.6 percent of board seats were occupied by women at Fortune 500 companies. This disparity not only highlights the discrimination and the glass ceiling that many women face, it may also be bad for business.

In Chapter 9, we learned that diverse groups may be more creative and innovative, and decision making is more accurate when a group has a variety of perspectives. This principle appears to be true when it comes to diverse executive boards. A recent review of 140 studies found that having women on an executive board boosted returns, especially in countries with stronger shareholder

protections. The same review found that having female board members helped companies' marketplace performance in countries with higher gender equality. In addition, boards with greater gender diversity are better at monitoring company performance and engage in more strategic involvement. Other research suggests that diverse executive boards are not always beneficial. In most circumstances, having women with greater power on a board led to more strategic change in the organization. However, this is only true when the company is not threatened by low performance.

Many countries are trying to improve their economies by creating quotas that promote more gender-diverse boards. As of 2008, Norway requires women to hold 36 percent of board seats. France passed legislation in 2011 to promote gender-diverse boards. As a result of the law, 48 percent of new directorships were held by women in 2013.

Questions ✪

13-14. Why do you think having women with greater power on a board changes firm performance?

13-15. Do you think using a quota system to promote gender diversity is a good idea? Why or why not?

13-16. Why do you think some countries have more gender-diverse boards than others?

Sources: Based on M. Farber, "Justin Trudeau Perfectly Sums up Why We Need More Women in Power," *Fortune,* April 7, 2017, http://fortune.com/2017/04/07/justin-trudeau-women-in-the-world-summit-2017/; S. H. Jeong and D. Harrison, "Glass Breaking, Strategy Making, and Value Creating: Meta-Analytic Outcomes of Females as CEOs and TMT members," *Academy of Management Journal,* in press; C. Post and C. J. Byron, "Women on Boards and Firm Financial Performance: A Meta-Analysis," *Academy of Management Journal* 58, no. 5 (2015): 1546–71; T. M. del Carmen, T. L. Miller, and T. M. Trzebiatowski, "The Double-Edged Nature of Board Gender Diversity: Diversity, Firm Performance, and the Power of Women Directors as Predictors of Strategic Change," *Organization Science* 25, no. 2 (2014): 609–32; and M. Liautaud, "Breaking Through: Stories and Best Practices from Companies That Help Women Succeed," *Huffington Post,* April 29, 2016, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/martine-liautaud/stories-and-best-practices-from-companies-that-help-women-succeed_b_9722518.html.

CASE INCIDENT 2 Where Flattery Will Get You

One of the various impression management techniques that people use in the workplace is flattering or complimenting a person. Many people believe that flattery has a positive impact on career prospects. Vicky Oliver, author of *301 Smart Answers to Tough Interview Questions,* suggests using flattery to ask for a raise. Oliver advises employees to use other impression management techniques, such as self-promotion (e.g., highlighting your accomplishments) and enhancement (e.g., showing how your work is superior to your peers), but she also suggests complimenting or strategically "flattering" the boss before sitting down to talk about a salary raise.

Does flattery always work? The answer is yes and no. Flattery may influence someone in power but only if they see the flattery as sincere. Seeming sincere may be especially difficult, however, because people who have the most power are often the hardest to fool. After all, they have more experience with people flattering them. Recent research suggests that there may be a way to make flattery more effective: Try to convince yourself that you actually like the person you are flattering. In the study, employees who spent more time considering what they had in common with their boss were more likely to obtain their goal through flattery.

Even if an employee is successful using flattery, it has one major drawback. Another recent study found that executives who flatter their CEOs are more likely to resent their CEO later on. Though CEOs do not require their employees to compliment them, many employees feel demeaned when they go to great lengths to strategically flatter the boss. Employees who complimented their CEOs were also more likely to complain to third parties about their boss. Some even complained to journalists.

Questions ✪

13-17. What are some other consequences of using flattery at work? Why do these consequences occur?

13-18. The study described in this case also found that executives resented directing flattery toward female and minority CEOs more than white males. Why do you think this finding is true?

13-19. Are there impression management techniques that are more effective than flattery?

Sources: Based on V. Oliver, "How to Suck Up to Your Boss and Get a Raise," *Fortune,* January 9, 2017, http://fortune.com/2017/01/09/pay-raise-career-advice-leadership-self-promotion-boss/; C. Romm, "How to Suck Up Without Being Obvious About It," *NY Magazine,* July 5, 2016, http://nymag.com/scienceofus/2016/07/how-to-suck-up-without-being-obvious-about-it.html; and J. McGregor, "Bosses Be Warned: Your Biggest Kiss-Up Could Be Your Biggest Backstabber," *Daily Herald,* April 19, 2017, http://www.dailyherald.com/business/20170416/bosses-be-warned-your-biggest-kiss-up-could-be-your-biggest-backstabber; M. G. McIntyre, "Disgruntlement Won't Advance Your Career," *Pittsburgh Post-Gazette,* September 2.

MyLab Management Writing Assignments

If your instructor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management for auto-graded writing assignments as well as the following assisted-graded writing assignments:

13-20. In Case Incident 1, how would you encourage companies to appoint more female board members in the short term? In the long term?

13-21. Based on the chapter discussion and Case Incident 2, what are some ways employees can make sure that they use impression management techniques effectively?

13-22. MyLab Management only—additional assisted-graded writing assignment.

ENDNOTES

[1] D. A. Buchanan, "You Stab My Back, I'll Stab Yours: Management Experience and Perceptions of Organization Political Behavior," *British Journal of Management* 19, no. 1 (2008): 49–64.

[2] B. Oc, M. R. Bashshur, and C. Moore, "Speaking Truth to Power: The Effect of Candid Feedback on How Individuals with Power Allocate Resources," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 100, no. 2 (2015): 450–63; and R. E. Sturm and J. Antonakis, "Interpersonal Power: A Review, Critique, and Research Agenda," *Journal of Management* 41, no. 1 (2015): 136–63.

[3] M. Gongloff, "Steve Cohen, Super-Rich and Secretive Trader, Faces Possible SEC Investigation," *Huffington Post,* November 28, 2012, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2012/11/28/steven-cohen-sac-capital_n_2205544.html.

[4] E. Landells and S. L. Albrecht, "Organizational Political Climate: Shared Perceptions about the Building and Use of Power Bases," *Human Resource Management Review* 23, no. 4 (2013): 357–65; P. Rylander, "Coaches' Bases of Power: Developing Some Initial Knowledge of Athletes' Compliance with Coaches in Team Sports," *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology* 27, no. 1 (2015): 110–21; and G. Yukl, "Use Power Effectively," in E. A. Locke (ed.), *Handbook of Principles of Organizational Behavior* (Malden, MA: Blackwell, 2004): 242–47.

[5] H. Lian, D. J. Brown, D. L. Ferris, L. H. Liang, L. M. Keeping, and R. Morrison, "Abusive Supervision and Retaliation: A Self-Control Framework," *Academy of Management Journal* 57, no. 1 (2014): 116–39.

[6] E. A. Ward, "Social Power Bases of Managers: Emergence of a New Factor," *Journal of Social Psychology* (February 2001): 144–47; and J. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright (ed.), *Studies in Social Power* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1959): 150–67.

[7] French and Raven, "The Bases of Social Power"; and S. R. Giessner and T. W. Schubert, "High in the Hierarchy: How Vertical Location and Judgments of Leaders' Power Are Interrelated," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 104, no. 1 (2007): 30–44; Ward, "Social Power Bases of Managers."

[8] M. Van Djike and M. Poppe, "Striving for Personal Power as a Basis for Social Power Dynamics," *European Journal of Social Psychology* 27, no. 1 (2006): 537–56.

[9] French and Raven, "The Bases of Social Power."

[10] Ibid.

[11] J. D. Kudisch, M. L. Poteet, G. H. Dobbins, M. C. Rush, and J. A. Russell, "Expert Power, Referent Power, and Charisma: Toward the Resolution of a Theoretical Debate," *Journal of Business and Psychology* 10, no. 1 (1995): 177–95.

[12] S. Perman, "Translation Advertising: Where Shop Meets Hip Hop," *Time,* August 30, 2010, http://content.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,2011574,00.html.

[13] Sturm and Antonakis, "Interpersonal Power."

[14] M. C. J. Caniels and A. Roeleveld, "Power and Dependence Perspectives on Outsourcing Decisions," *European Management Journal* 27, no. 6 (2009): 402–17; R.-J. Bryan, D. Kim, and R. S. Sinkovics, "Drivers and Performance Outcomes of Supplier Innovation Generation in Customer-Supplier Relationships: The Role of Power-Dependence," *Decision Sciences* 43, no. 6 (2012): 1003–38; and R. M. Emerson, "Power-Dependence Relations," *American Sociological Review* 27, no. 1 (1962): 31–40.

[15] N. Foulkes, "Tractor Boy," *High Life* (October 2002): 90.

[16] R. S. Burt, M. Kilduff, and S. Tasselli, "Social Network Analysis: Foundations and Frontiers on Advantage," *Annual Review of Psychology* 64 (2013): 527–47; M. A. Carpenter, M. Li, and H. Jiang, "Social Network Research in Organizational Contexts: A Systematic Review of Methodological Issues and Choices," *Journal of Management* (July 1, 2012): 1328–61; and M. Kilduff and D. J. Brass, "Organizational Social Network Research: Core Ideas and Key Debates." *Academy of Management Annals* (January 1, 2010): 317–57.

[17] B. L. Aven, "The Paradox of Corrupt Networks: An Analysis of Organizational Crime at Enron," *Organization Science* 26, no. 4 (2015): 980–96.

[18] J. Gehman, L. K. Treviño, and R. Garud, "Values Work: A Process Study of the Emergence and Performance of Organizational Values Practices," *Academy of Management Journal* (February 1, 2013): 84–112.

[19] J. Battilana and T. Casciaro, "Change Agents, Networks, and Institutions: A Contingency Theory of Organizational Change," *Academy of Management Journal* (April 1, 2012): 381–98.

[20] S. M. Soltis, F. Agneessens, Z. Sasovova, and G. Labianca, "A Social Network Perspective on Turnover Intentions: The Role of Distributive Justice and Social Support," *Human Resource Management* (July 1, 2013): 561–84.

[21] R. Kaše, Z. King, and D. Minbaeva, "Using Social Network Research in HRM: Scratching the Surface of a Fundamental Basis of HRM," *Human Resource Management* (July 1, 2013): 473–83; and R. Cross and L. Prusak, "The People Who Make Organizations Go—or Stop," *Harvard Business Review* (June 2002): https://hbr.org/2002/06/the-people-who-make-organizations-go-or-stop.

[22] See, for example, D. M. Cable and T. A. Judge, "Managers' Upward Influence Tactic Strategies: The Roll of Manager Personality and Supervisor Leadership Style," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 24, no. 2 (2003): 197–214; M. P. M. Chong, "Influence Behaviors and Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Study," *Leadership and Organization Development Journal* 35, no. 1 (2014): 54–78; and G. Blickle, "Influence Tactics Used by Subordinates: An Empirical Analysis of the Kipnis and Schmidt Subscales," *Psychological Reports* (February 2000): 143–54.

[23] G. R. Ferris, W. A. Hochwarter, C. Douglas, F. R. Blass, R. W. Kolodinsky, and D. C. Treadway, "Social Influence Processes in Organizations and Human Resource Systems," in G. R. Ferris and J. J. Martocchio (eds.), *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management,* vol. 21 (Oxford, UK: JAI Press/Elsevier, 2003): 65–127; C. A. Higgins, T. A. Judge, and G. R. Ferris, "Influence Tactics and Work Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (March 2003): 89–106; and M. Uhl-Bien, R. E. Riggio, K. B. Lowe, and M. K. Carsten. "Followership Theory: A Review and Research Agenda," *The Leadership Quarterly* (February 2014): 83–104.

[24] Chong, "Influence Behaviors and Organizational Commitment."

[25] R. E. Petty and P. Briñol, "Persuasion: From Single to Multiple to Metacognitive Processes," *Perspectives on Psychological Science* 3, no. 2 (2008): 137–47.

[26] J. Badal, "Getting a Raise from the Boss," *The Wall Street Journal,* July 8, 2006, B1, B5.

[27] Chong, "Influence Behaviors and Organizational Commitment."

[28] Ibid.

[29] O. Epitropaki and R. Martin, "Transformational-Transactional Leadership and Upward Influence: The Role of Relative Leader-Member Exchanges (RLMX) and Perceived Organizational Support (POS), *Leadership Quarterly* 24, no. 2 (2013): 299–315.

[30] A. W. Kruglanski, A. Pierro, and E. T. Higgins, "Regulatory Mode and Preferred Leadership Styles: How Fit Increases Job Satisfaction," *Basic and Applied Social Psychology* 29, no. 2 (2007): 137–49; and A. Pierro, L. Cicero, and B. H. Raven, "Motivated Compliance with Bases of Social Power," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 38, no. 7 (2008): 1921–44.

[31] P. P. Fu and G. Yukl, "Perceived Effectiveness of Influence Tactics in the United States and China," *Leadership Quarterly* (Summer

2000): 251–66; O. Branzei, "Cultural Explanations of Individual Preferences for Influence Tactics in Cross-Cultural Encounters," *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management* (August 2002): 203–18; G. Yukl, P. P. Fu, and R. McDonald, "Cross-Cultural Differences in Perceived Effectiveness of Influence Tactics for Initiating or Resisting Change," *Applied Psychology: An International Review* (January 2003): 66–82; P. P. Fu, T. K. Peng, J. C. Kennedy, and G. Yukl, "Examining the Preferences of Influence Tactics in Chinese Societies: A Comparison of Chinese Managers in Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Mainland China," *Organizational Dynamics* 33, no. 1 (2004): 32–46; and S. Aslani, J. Ramirez-Marin, J. Brett, J. Yao, Z. Semnani-Azad, Z.-X. Zhang, … and W. Adair, "Dignity, Face, and Honor Cultures: A Study of Negotiation Strategy and Outcomes in Three Cultures," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 37, no. 8 (2016): 1178–201.

[32] C. J. Torelli and S. Shavitt, "Culture and Concepts of Power," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 99, no. 4 (2010): 703–23.

[33] Fu and Yukl, "Perceived Effectiveness of Influence Tactics in the United States and China."

[34] T. P. Munyon, J. K. Summers, K. M. Thompson, and G. R. Ferris, "Political Skill and Work Outcomes: A Theoretical Extension, Meta-Analytic Investigation, and Agenda for the Future," *Personnel Psychology* 68, no. 1 (2015): 143–84; G. R. Ferris, D. C. Treadway, P. L. Perrewé, R. L. Brouer, C. Douglas, and S. Lux, "Political Skill in Organizations," *Journal of Management* (June 2007): 290–320; K. J. Harris, K. M. Kacmar, S. Zivnuska, and J. D. Shaw, "The Impact of Political Skill on Impression Management Effectiveness," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92, no. 1 (2007): 278–85; W. A. Hochwarter, G. R. Ferris, M. B. Gavin, P. L. Perrewé, A. T. Hall, and D. D. Frink, "Political Skill as Neutralizer of Felt Accountability–Job Tension Effects on Job Performance Ratings: A Longitudinal Investigation," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 102 (2007): 226–39; D. C. Treadway, G. R. Ferris, A. B. Duke, G. L. Adams, and J. B. Tatcher, "The Moderating Role of Subordinate Political Skill on Supervisors' Impressions of Subordinate Ingratiation and Ratings of Subordinate Interpersonal Facilitation," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92, no. 3 (2007): 848–55; and Z. E. Zhou, L. Yang, and P. E. Spector, "Political Skill: A Proactive Inhibitor of Workplace Aggression Exposure and an Active Buffer of the Aggression-Strain Relationship," *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 20, no. 4 (2015): 405–19.

[35] J. J. Dahling and B. G. Whitaker, "When Can Feedback-Seeking Behavior Result in a Better Performance Rating? Investigating the Moderating Role of Political Skill," *Human Performance* 29, no. 2 (2016): 73–88.

[36] M. C. Andrews, K. M. Kacmar, and K. J. Harris, "Got Political Skill? The Impact of Justice on the Importance of Political Skills for Job Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94, no. 6 (2009): 1427–37.

[37] C. Anderson, S. E. Spataro, and F. J. Flynn, "Personality and Organizational Culture as Determinants of Influence," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 93, no. 3 (2008): 702–10.

[38] Y. Cho and N. J. Fast, "Power, Defensive Denigration, and the Assuaging Effect of Gratitude Expression," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 48 (2012): 778–82.

[39] M. Pitesa and S. Thau, "Masters of the Universe: How Power and Accountability Influence Self-Serving Decisions under Moral Hazard," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 550–58; N. J. Fast, N. Sivanathan, D. D. Mayer, and A. D. Galinsky, "Power and Overconfident Decision-Making," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 117 (2012): 249–60; and M. J. Williams, "Serving the Self from the Seat of Power: Goals and Threats Predict Leaders' Self-Interested Behavior," *Journal of Management* 40 (2014): 1365–95.

[40] A. Grant, "Yes, Power Corrupts, but Power Also Reveals," *Government Executive*, May 23, 2013, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/adam-grant/yes-power-corrupts-but-po_b_3085291.html.

[41] J. K. Maner, M. T. Gaillot, A. J. Menzel, and J. W. Kunstman, "Dispositional Anxiety Blocks the Psychological Effects of Power," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 38 (2012): 1383–95.

[42] N. J. Fast, N. Halevy, and A. D. Galinsky, "The Destructive Nature of Power without Status," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 48 (2012): 391–94.

[43] T. Seppälä, J. Lipponen, A. Bardi, and A. Pirttilä-Backman, "Change-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: An Interactive Product of Openness to Change Values, Work Unit Identification, and Sense of Power," *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 85 (2012): 136–55.

[44] K. A. DeCelles, D. S. DeRue, J. D. Margolis, and T. L. Ceranic, "Does Power Corrupt or Enable? When and Why Power Facilitates Self-Interested Behavior," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 97 (2012): 681–89.

[45] "Facts about Sexual Harassment," The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, www.eeoc.gov/facts/fs-sex.html, accessed June 19, 2015.

[46] F. Ali and R. Kramar, "An Exploratory Study of Sexual Harassment in Pakistani Organizations," *Asia Pacific Journal of Management* 32, no. 1 (2014): 229–49.

[47] Ibid.

[48] Workplace Sexual Harassment Statistics, Association of Women for Action and Research, 2015, http://www.aware.org.sg/ati/wsh-site/14-statistics/.

[49] R. Ilies, N. Hauserman, S. Schwochau, and J. Stibal, "Reported Incidence Rates of Work-Related Sexual Harassment in the United States: Using Meta-Analysis to Explain Reported Rate Disparities," *Personnel Psychology* (Fall 2003): 607–31; and G. Langer, "One in Four U.S. Women Reports Workplace Harassment," *ABC News,* November 16, 2011, http://abcnews.go.com/blogs/politics/2011/11/one-in-four-u-s-women-reports-workplace-harassment/.

[50] "Sexual Harassment Charges," Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, from www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/statistics/, accessed August 20, 2015.

[51] B. Popken, "Report: 80% of Waitresses Report Being Sexually Harassed," *USA Today*, October 7, 2014, http://www.today.com/money/report-80-waitresses-report-being-sexually-harassed-2D80199724.

[52] L. M. Cortina and S. A. Wasti, "Profiles in Coping: Responses to Sexual Harassment across Persons, Organizations, and Cultures," *Journal of Applied Psychology* (February 2005): 182–92; K. Jiang, Y. Hong, P. F. McKay, D. R. Avery, D. C. Wilson, and S. D. Volpone, "Retaining Employees through Anti-Sexual Harassment Practices: Exploring the Mediating Role of Psychological Distress and Employee Engagement," *Human Resource Management* 54, no. 1 (2015): 1–21; and J. W. Kunstman, "Sexual Overperception: Power, Mating Motives, and Biases in Social Judgment," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 100, no. 2 (2011): 282–94.

[53] F. Krings and S. Facchin, "Organizational Justice and Men's Likelihood to Sexually Harass: The Moderating Role of Sexism and Personality," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94, no. 2 (2009): 501–10.

[54] G. R. Ferris, D. C. Treadway, R. W. Kolokinsky, W. A. Hochwarter, C. J. Kacmar, and D. D. Frink, "Development and Validation of the Political Skill Inventory," *Journal of Management* (February 2005): 126–52.

[55] A. Pullen and C. Rhodes, "Corporeal Ethics and the Politics of Resistance in Organizations," *Organization* 21, no. 6 (2014): 782–96.

[56] G. R. Ferris and W. A. Hochwarter, "Organizational Politics," in S. Zedeck (ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology,* vol. 3 (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 2011): 435–59.

[57] D. A. Buchanan, "You Stab My Back, I'll Stab Yours: Management Experience and Perceptions of Organization Political Behavior," *British Journal of Management* 19, no. 1 (2008): 49–64.

[58] J. Pfeffer, *Power: Why Some People Have It—And Others Don't* (New York: Harper Collins, 2010).

[59] S. M. Rioux and L. A. Penner, "The Causes of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Motivational Analysis," *Journal of Applied Psychology* (December 2001): 1306–14; M. A. Finkelstein and L. A. Penner, "Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Integrating the Functional and Role Identity Approaches," *Social Behavior & Personality* 32,

no. 4 (2004): 383–98; and J. Schwarzwald, M. Koslowsky, and M. Allouf, "Group Membership, Status, and Social Power Preference," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 35, no. 3 (2005): 644–65.

[60] See, for example, J. Walter, F. W. Kellermans, and C. Lechner, "Decision Making within and between Organizations: Rationality, Politics, and Alliance Performance," *Journal of Management* 38, no. 5 (2012): 1582–610.

[61] G. R. Ferris, D. C. Treadway, P. L. Perrewe, R. L. Grouer, C. Douglas, and S. Lux, "Political Skill in Organizations," *Journal of Management* 33 (2007): 290–320.

[62] J. Shi, R. E. Johnson, Y. Liu, and M. Wang, "Linking Subordinate Political Skill to Supervisor Dependence and Reward Recommendations: A Moderated Mediation Model," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 374–84.

[63] W. A. Gentry, D. C. Gimore, M. L. Shuffler, and J. B. Leslie, "Political Skill as an Indicator of Promotability among Multiple Rater Sources," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 33 (2012): 89–104; I. Kapoutsis, A. Paplexandris, A. Nikolopoulous, W. A. Hochwarter, and G. R. Ferris, "Politics Perceptions as a Moderator of the Political Skill-Job Performance Relationship: A Two-Study, Cross-National, Constructive Replication," *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 78 (2011): 123–35.

[64] M. Abbas, U. Raja, W. Darr, and D. Bouckenooghe, "Combined Effects of Perceived Politics and Psychological Capital on Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intentions, and Performance," *Journal of Management* 40, no. 7 (2014): 1813–30; and C. C. Rosen, D. L. Ferris, D. J. Brown, and W.-W. Yen, "Relationships among Perceptions of Organizational Politics (POPs), Work Motivation, and Salesperson Performance," *Journal of Management and Organization* 21, no. 2 (2015): 203–16.

[65] See, for example, M. D. Laird, P. Harvey, and J. Lancaster, "Accountability, Entitlement, Tenure, and Satisfaction in Generation Y," *Journal of Managerial Psychology* 30, no. 1 (2015): 87–100; J. M. L. Poon, "Situational Antecedents and Outcomes of Organizational Politics Perceptions," *Journal of Managerial Psychology* 18, no. 2 (2003): 138–55; and K. L. Zellars, W. A. Hochwarter, S. E. Lanivich, P. L. Perrewe, and G. R. Ferris, "Accountability for Others, Perceived Resources, and Well Being: Convergent Restricted Non-Linear Results in Two Samples," *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 84, no. 1 (2011): 95–115.

[66] J. Walter, F. W. Kellermanns, and C. Lechner, "Decision Making within and between Organizations: Rationality, Politics, and Alliance Performance," *Journal of Management* 38 (2012): 1582–610.

[67] W. A. Hochwarter, C. Kiewitz, S. L. Castro, P. L. Perrewe, and G. R. Ferris, "Positive Affectivity and Collective Efficacy as Moderators of the Relationship between Perceived Politics and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Social*

Psychology (May 2003): 1009–35; C. C. Rosen, P. E. Levy, and R. J. Hall, "Placing Perceptions of Politics in the Context of Feedback Environment, Employee Attitudes, and Job Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 91, no. 1 (2006): 211–30; and Abbas, Raja, Darr, and Bouckenooghe, "Combined Effects of Perceived Politics and Psychological Capital on Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intentions, and Performance."

[68] S. Aryee, Z. Chen, and P. S. Budhwar, "Exchange Fairness and Employee Performance: An Examination of the Relationship between Organizational Politics and Procedural Justice," *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes* (May 2004): 1–14.

[69] C. Kiewitz, W. A. Hochwarter, G. R. Ferris, and S. L. Castro, "The Role of Psychological Climate in Neutralizing the Effects of Organizational Politics on Work Outcomes," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* (June 2002): 1189–207; M. C. Andrews, L. A. Witt, and K. M. Kacmar, "The Interactive Effects of Organizational Politics and Exchange Ideology on Manager Ratings of Retention," *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* April 2003, 357–69; and C. Chang, C. C. Rosen, and P. E. Levy, "The Relationship between Perceptions of Organizational Politics and Employee Attitudes, Strain, and Behavior: A Meta-Analytic Examination," *Academy of Management Journal* 52, no. 4 (2009): 779–801.

[70] O. J. Labedo, "Perceptions of Organisational Politics: Examination of the Situational Antecedent and Consequences among Nigeria's Extension Personnel," *Applied Psychology: An International Review* 55, no. 2 (2006): 255–81.

[71] K. M. Kacmar, M. C. Andrews, K. J. Harris, and B. Tepper, "Ethical Leadership and Subordinate Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Organizational Politics and the Moderating Role of Political Skill," *Journal of Business Ethics* 115, no. 1 (2013): 33–44.

[72] Ibid.

[73] K. M. Kacmar, D. G. Bachrach, K. J. Harris, and S. Zivnuska, "Fostering Good Citizenship through Ethical Leadership: Exploring the Moderating Role of Gender and Organizational Politics," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 96 (2011): 633–42.

[74] C. Homburg and A. Fuerst, "See No Evil, Hear No Evil, Speak No Evil: A Study of Defensive Organizational Behavior towards Customer Complaints," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 35, no. 4 (2007): 523–36.

[75] See, for instance, M. C. Bolino and W. H. Turnley, "More Than One Way to Make an Impression: Exploring Profiles of Impression Management," *Journal of Management* 29, no. 2 (2003): 141–60; S. Zivnuska, K. M. Kacmar, L. A. Witt, D. S. Carlson, and V. K. Bratton, "Interactive Effects of Impression Management and Organizational Politics on Job Performance," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (August 2004): 627–40; and M. C. Bolino,

K. M. Kacmar, W. H. Turnley, and J. B. Gilstrap, "A Multi-Level Review of Impression Management Motives and Behaviors," *Journal of Management* 34, no. 6 (2008): 1080–109.

[76] D. J. Howard and R. A. Kerin, "Individual Differences in the Name Similarity Effect: The Role of Self-Monitoring," *Journal of Individual Differences* 35, no. 2 (2014): 111–18.

[77] D. H. M. Chng, M. S. Rodgers, E. Shih, and X.-B. Song, "Leaders' Impression Management during Organizational Decline: The Roles of Publicity, Image Concerns, and Incentive Compensation," *The Leadership Quarterly* 26, no. 2 (2015): 270–85; and L. Uziel, "Life Seems Different with You Around: Differential Shifts in Cognitive Appraisal in the Mere Presence of Others for Neuroticism and Impression Management," *Personality and Individual Differences* 73 (2015): 39–43.

[78] J. Ham and R. Vonk, "Impressions of Impression Management: Evidence of Spontaneous Suspicion of Ulterior Motivation," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 47, no. 2 (2011): 466–71; and W. M. Bowler, J. R. B. Halbesleben, and J. R. B. Paul, "If You're Close with the Leader, You Must Be a Brownnose: The Role of Leader–Member Relationships in Follower, Leader, and Coworker Attributions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Motives," *Human Resource Management Review* 20, no. 4 (2010): 309–16.

[79] J. R. B. Halbesleben, W. M. Bowler, M. C. Bolino, and W. H Turnley, "Organizational Concern, Prosocial Values, or Impression Management? How Supervisors Attribute Motives to Organizational Citizenship Behavior," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 40, no. 6 (2010): 1450–89.

[80] G. Blickle, C. Diekmann, P. B. Schneider, Y. Kalthöfer, and J. K. Summers, "When Modesty Wins: Impression Management through Modesty, Political Skill, and Career Success—A Two-Study Investigation," *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* (December 1, 2012): 899–922.

[81] L. A. McFarland, A. M. Ryan, and S. D. Kriska, "Impression Management Use and Effectiveness across Assessment Methods," *Journal of Management* 29, no. 5 (2003): 641–61; C. A. Higgins and T. A. Judge, "The Effect of Applicant Influence Tactics on Recruiter Perceptions of Fit and Hiring Recommendations: A Field Study," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 89, no. 4 (2004): 622–32; and W. C. Tsai, C.-C. Chen, and S. F. Chiu, "Exploring Boundaries of the Effects of Applicant Impression Management Tactics in Job Interviews," *Journal of Management* (February 2005): 108–25.

[82] N. Roulin, A. Bangerter, and J. Levashina, "Honest and Deceptive Impression Management in the Employment Interview: Can It Be Detected and How Does It Impact Evaluations?," *Personnel Psychology* 68, no. 2 (2015): 395–444.

[83] M. R. Barrick, J. A. Shaffer, and S. W. DeGrassi. "What You See May Not Be

What You Get: Relationships among Self-Presentation Tactics and Ratings of Interview and Job Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94, no. 6 (2009): 1394–411.

[84] B. Griffin, "The Ability to Identify Criteria: Its Relationship with Social Understanding, Preparation, and Impression Management in Affecting Predictor Performance in a High-Stakes Selection Context," *Human Performance* 27, no. 4 (2014): 147–64.

[85] E. Molleman, B. Emans, and N. Turus-bekova, "How to Control Self-Promotion among Performance-Oriented Employees: The Roles of Task Clarity and Personalized Responsibility," *Personnel Review* 41 (2012): 88–105.

[86] K. J. Harris, K. M. Kacmar, S. Zivnuska, and J. D. Shaw, "The Impact of Political Skill on Impression Management Effectiveness," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92, no. 1 (2007): 278–85; and D. C. Treadway, G. R. Ferris, A. B. Duke, G. L. Adams, and J. B. Thatcher, "The Moderating Role of Subordinate Political Skill on Supervisors' Impressions of Subordinate Ingratiation and Ratings of Subordinate Interpersonal Facilitation," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92, no. 3 (2007): 848–55.

[87] J. D. Westphal and I. Stern, "Flattery Will Get You Everywhere (Especially if You Are a Male Caucasian): How Ingratiation, Board-room Behavior, and Demographic Minority Status Affect Additional Board Appointments of U.S. Companies," *Academy of Management Journal* 50, no. 2 (2007): 267–88.

[88] Y. Liu, G. R. Ferris, J. Xu, B. A. Weitz, and P. L. Perrewé, "When Ingratiation Backfires: The Role of Political Skill in the Ingratiation-Internship Performance Relationship," *Academy of Management Learning and Education* 13 (2014): 569–86.

[89] See, for example, E. Vigoda, "Reactions to Organizational Politics: A Cross-Cultural Examination in Israel and Britain," *Human Relations* (November 2001): 1483–1518; and Y. Zhu and D. Li, "Negative Spillover Impact of Perceptions of Organizational Politics on Work-Family Conflict in China," *Social Behavior and Personality* 43, no. 5 (2015): 705–14.

[90] J. L. T. Leong, M. H. Bond, and P. P. Fu, "Perceived Effectiveness of Influence Strategies in the United States and Three Chinese Societies," *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management* (May 2006): 101–20.

[91] Y. Miyamoto and B. Wilken, "Culturally Contingent Situated Cognition: Influencing Other People Fosters Analytic Perception in the United States but Not in Japan," *Psychological Science* 21, no. 11 (2010): 1616–22.

[92] Y. Wang and S. Highhouse, "Different Consequences of Supplication and Modesty: Self-Effacing Impression Management Behaviors and Supervisory Perceptions of Subordinate Personality," *Human Performance* 29, no. 5 (2016): 394–407.

[93] D. Clark, "A Campaign Strategy for Your Career," *Harvard Business Review* (November 2012): 131–34.

14 Conflict and Negotiation

Source: Ronen Zvulun/Reuters/Alamy Stock Photo

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

14-1 Describe the three types of conflict and the three loci of conflict.

14-2 Outline the conflict process.

14-3 Contrast distributive and integrative bargaining.

14-4 Apply the five steps of the negotiation process.

14-5 Show how individual differences influence negotiations.

14-6 Assess the roles and functions of third-party negotiations.

Employability Skills Matrix (ESM)

	Myth or Science?	Career OBjectives	An Ethical Choice	Point/ Counterpoint	Experiential Exercise	Ethical Dilemma	Case Incident 1	Case Incident 2
Critical Thinking				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Communication	✓	✓			✓		✓	
Collaboration	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Knowledge Application and Analysis		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Social Responsibility			✓			✓		✓

MyLab Management Chapter Warm Up

If your professor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/ mylab/management to complete the chapter warm up.

BARGAINING CHIPS

What gives someone the ability to negotiate? Power? Money? Relationships? Can someone with seemingly no power, little access to the outside world, and almost no economic resources still have the power to bargain? Yes.

Derrick Houston seemed to have nothing to negotiate with. The Mississippi inmate was serving a sentence for armed robbery at a state prison in Leakesville, Mississippi, in April 2017. His sentence would last for over two decades. But with such a long sentence, Houston knew he could not live in the inhumane conditions offered by the prison. While state officials claimed that conditions in the prisons were meant to maintain security because of gang activity, many residents of the prison felt they were being subjected to cruel treatment. Many inmates were kept in lockdown for days at a time, despite laws that require at least five hours of recreational activity a week. At the same time, limits on visitors meant that many inmates could rarely see family and friends.

Physical conditions also needed to be improved in the facility. Many of the inmates had serious mental health issues and would throw feces and urine in their cells. This led to unsanitary conditions, including infestations of roaches, rats, spiders, and flies. On top of this, the prison did not have air conditioning, which could be dangerous for inmates when temperatures reached the triple digits in the summer.

One inmate commented, "If a citizen left their dog or pet in the outside heat of a condemned dog house where [the] temperature is 130 degrees, they would be arrested for animal cruelty and the pet would be taken away. So why should humans be treated worse than animals?" The inmates tried to negotiate by using the only bargaining chip they had: their stomachs. The inmates began refusing to eat, knowing that health problems from starvation would draw press and state officials' attention. The tactic proved successful. By the end of the month, Houston and the rest of the protesting inmates were transferred to a prison with better conditions.

Wendy, Derrick Houston's wife, was very relieved. "[We] have been trying to get my husband transferred from Southern Mississippi Correctional Institution (SMCI) for over a year. If we had known a hunger strike would get him transferred, then he should have gotten on it a year ago," she wrote in an e-mail to a reporter.

A hunger strike may seem extreme, but it is a relatively common strategy when prisoners want to negotiate better conditions. They occur frequently in American prisons. The same month that Houston and many other inmates were striking in Mississippi, hundreds of inmates were also taking part in a hunger strike in Northwest Detention Center in Tacoma, Washington. Inmates at the Washington prison were especially vulnerable because they were undocumented immigrants without the same legal rights as the prisoners in Mississippi. Like Houston, they complained about conditions as well as incredibly low prison wages that they felt violated antislavery laws.

Around the globe, the same tactic was being used by Palestinian inmates in Israeli prisons. Unlike the strikes in American prisons, the Palestinian hunger strike was especially political in nature. Led by a prominent Palestinian figure, Marwan Barghouti, the strike was meant to draw attention to persecution of Palestinian citizens in Israel. Besides leading the hunger strike, Barghouti was also punished for smuggling essays on Palestinian resistance to the *New York Times*.

Hunger strikes highlight many of the concepts we will cover in this chapter. First, they highlight a response to conflict. In the cases above, the conflicts between inmates and prison officials were dysfunctional. As you will learn from this text, however, some conflict is beneficial, and even necessary, because it enhances creativity and drives change in organizations. Second, the negotiation process tended to alleviate the conflict. By using their health as a bargaining tool, inmates in Mississippi were able to gain better conditions. Would the same tactic always be successful in every context? Not necessarily. We will also explain many factors, from emotions to personality, that influence the success of negotiation techniques across situations.

A Definition of Conflict

14-1 Describe the three types of conflict and the three loci of conflict.

conflict   A process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affect something that the first party cares about.

There has been no shortage of definitions for the word *conflict*,[1] but common to most is the idea that conflict is a perception. If no one is aware of a conflict, then it is generally agreed no conflict exists. Also needed to begin the conflict process are opposition or incompatibility, and interaction.

We define **conflict** broadly as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has affected or is about to negatively affect something the first party cares about. Conflict describes the point in ongoing activity when interaction becomes disagreement. People experience a wide range of conflicts in organizations over an incompatibility of goals, differences in interpretations of facts, disagreements over behavioral expectations, and the like. Our definition covers the full range of conflict levels, from overt and violent acts to subtle forms of disagreement.

There is no consensus over the role of conflict in groups and organizations. In the past, researchers tended to argue about whether conflict was uniformly good or bad. Such simplistic views eventually gave way to approaches recognizing that not all conflicts are the same and that different types of conflict have different effects.[2]

functional conflict   Conflict that supports the goals of the group and improves its performance.

dysfunctional conflict   Conflict that hinders group performance.

Contemporary perspectives differentiate types of conflict based on their effects. **Functional conflict** supports the goals of the group, improves its performance, and is thus a constructive form of conflict.[3] For example, a debate among members of a work team about the most efficient way to improve production can be functional if unique points of view are discussed and compared openly. Conflict that hinders group performance is destructive or **dysfunctional conflict**.[4] A highly personal struggle for control in a team that distracts from the task at hand is dysfunctional. Exhibit 14-1 provides an overview depicting the effect of levels of conflict. To understand different types of conflict, we will discuss next the *types* of conflict and the *loci* of conflict.

Types of Conflict

task conflict   Conflict over content and goals of the work.

relationship conflict   Conflict based on interpersonal relationships.

process conflict   Conflict over how work gets done.

One means of understanding conflict is to identify the *type* of disagreement, or what the conflict is about. Is it a disagreement about goals? Is it about people who just do not get along well with one another? Or is it about the best way to get things done? Although each conflict is unique, researchers have classified conflicts into three categories: task, relationship, or process. **Task conflict** relates to the content and goals of the work. **Relationship conflict** focuses on interpersonal relationships. **Process conflict** is about how the work gets done.[5]

Exhibit 14-1   Conflict and Unit Performance
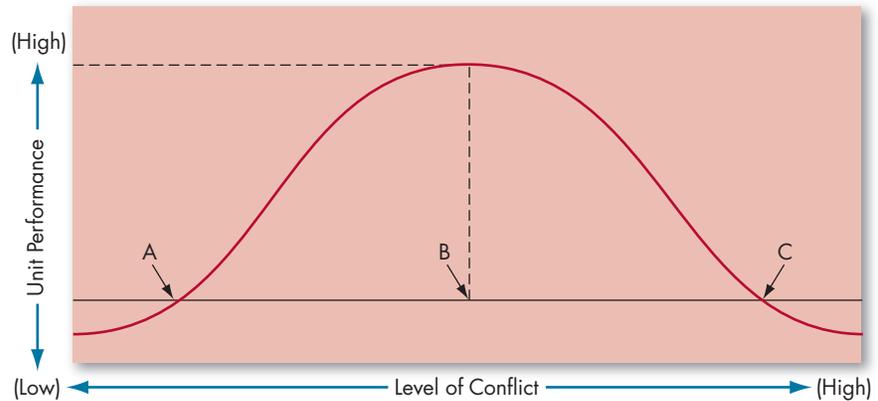
Situation	Level of Conflict	Type of Conflict	Unit's Internal Characteristics	Unit Performance Outcome
A	Low or none	Dysfunctional	Apathetic Stagnant Nonresponsive to change Lack of new ideas	Low
B	Optimal	Functional	Viable Self-critical Innovative	High
C	High	Dysfunctional	Disruptive Chaotic Uncooperative	Low

Studies demonstrate that relationship conflicts, at least in work settings, are almost always dysfunctional[6] (although they may improve creativity under some circumstances).[7] Why? It appears that the friction and interpersonal hostilities inherent in relationship conflicts increase personality clashes and decrease mutual understanding, which hinders the completion of organizational tasks. Of the three types, relationship conflicts also appear to be the most psychologically exhausting for individuals.[8] This type of conflict can also be very problematic for employees who are new to the organization because newcomers rely on coworkers to learn information about the job.[9] Because they tend to revolve around personalities, you can see how relationship conflicts can become destructive. After all, we can't expect to change our coworkers' personalities, and we would generally take offense at criticisms directed at who we *are* as opposed to how we behave.

While scholars agree that relationship conflict is dysfunctional, there is considerably less agreement about whether task and process conflicts are functional. Early research suggested that task conflict within groups correlated to higher group performance, but a review of 116 studies found that generalized task conflict was essentially unrelated to group performance. However, there

were factors of the conflict that could create a relationship between conflict and performance.[10] One such factor was whether the conflict included top management or occurred lower in the organization. Task conflict among top management teams was positively associated with performance, whereas conflict lower in the organization was negatively associated with group performance, perhaps because people in top positions may not feel as threatened in their organizational roles by conflict. This review also found that it mattered whether other types of conflict were occurring at the same time. If task and relationship conflict occurred together, task conflict was more likely negative, whereas if task conflict occurred by itself, it more likely was positive. Also, some scholars have argued that the strength of conflict is important—if task conflict is very low, people aren't really engaged or addressing the important issues. If task conflict is too high, however, infighting quickly degenerates into relationship conflict. Moderate levels of task conflict may thus be optimal. Supporting this argument, one study in China found that moderate levels of task conflict in the early development stage increased creativity in groups, but high levels decreased team performance.[11]

The personalities of the teams appear to matter. One study demonstrated that teams of individuals who are, on average, high in openness and emotional stability are better able to turn task conflict into increased group performance.[12] The reason may be that open and emotionally stable teams can put task conflict in perspective and focus on how the variance in ideas can help solve the problem rather than letting it degenerate into relationship conflicts.

What about process conflict? Researchers found that process conflicts are about delegation and roles. Conflicts over delegation often revolve around the perception of some members as shirking, and conflicts over roles can leave some group members feeling marginalized. Thus, process conflicts often become highly personalized and quickly devolve into relationship conflicts. It's also true, of course, that arguing about how to do something takes time away from actually doing it. We've all been part of groups in which the arguments and debates about roles and responsibilities seem to go nowhere.

Loci of Conflict

dyadic conflict Conflict that occurs between two people.

intragroup conflict Conflict that occurs within a group or team.

intergroup conflict Conflict between different groups or teams.

Another way to understand conflict is to consider its *locus*, or the framework within which the conflict occurs. Here, too, there are three basic types. **Dyadic conflict** is conflict between two people. **Intragroup conflict** occurs *within* a group or team. **Intergroup conflict** is conflict *between* groups or teams.[13]

Nearly all the literature on task, relationship, and process conflict considers intragroup conflict (within the group). That makes sense given that groups and teams often exist only to perform a particular task. However, it doesn't necessarily tell us all we need to know about the context and outcomes of conflict. For example, research has found that for intragroup task conflict to influence performance within the team positively, it is important that the team has a supportive climate in which mistakes aren't penalized and every team member "[has] the other's back."[14] Similarly, the personal needs of group members may determine when task conflict has a positive impact on performance. In a study of Korean work groups, task conflict was beneficial for performance when members were high on the need for achievement.[15]

But is this concept applicable to the effects of intergroup conflict? Think about, say, the teams in the National Football League (NFL). As we said, for a team to adapt and improve, perhaps a certain amount of intragroup conflict

Under the leadership of George Zimmer, the founder and CEO of Men's Warehouse (MW) and its advertising spokesperson, the retailer grew into a multimillion-dollar firm with 1,143 stores. After retiring as CEO, Zimmer served as executive chairman of MW's board until an intragroup conflict between him and other members resulted in his removal from the board.
Source: Patrick Fallon/Bloomberg/Getty Images

(but not too much) is good for team performance, especially when the team members support one another. But would we care whether members from one NFL team supported members from another team? Probably not. In fact, if groups are competing with one another so that only one team can "win," interteam conflict seems almost inevitable. Still, it must be managed. Intense intergroup conflict can be quite stressful to group members and might well affect the way they interact. One study found, for example, that high levels of conflict between teams caused individuals to focus on complying with norms within their teams.[16]

It may surprise you that individuals become most important in intergroup conflicts. One study that focused on intergroup conflict found an interplay between an individual's position within a group and the way that individual managed conflict between groups. Group members who were relatively peripheral in their own group were better at resolving conflicts between their group and another one. But this happened only when those peripheral members were still accountable to their group.[17] Thus, being at the core of your work group does not necessarily make you the best person to manage conflict with other groups.

Another intriguing question about loci is whether conflicts interact with or buffer one another. Assume, for example, that Jia and Marcus are on the same team. What happens if they don't get along interpersonally (dyadic conflict) *and* their team also has high task conflict? Progress might be halted. What happens to their team if two other team members, Shawna and Justin, do get along well? The team might still be dysfunctional, or the positive relationship might prevail.

Thus, understanding functional and dysfunctional conflict requires not only that we identify the type of conflict; we also need to know where it occurs. It's possible that while the concepts of task, relationship, and process conflict are useful in understanding intragroup or even dyadic conflict, they are less useful in explaining the effects of intergroup conflict. But how do we make conflict as productive as possible? A better understanding of the conflict process, discussed next, will provide insight about potential controllable variables.

The Conflict Process

14-2 Outline the conflict process.

conflict process   A process that has five stages: potential opposition or incompatibility, cognition and personalization, intentions, behavior, and outcomes.

The **conflict process** has five stages: potential opposition or incompatibility, cognition and personalization, intentions, behavior, and outcomes (see Exhibit 14-2).[18]
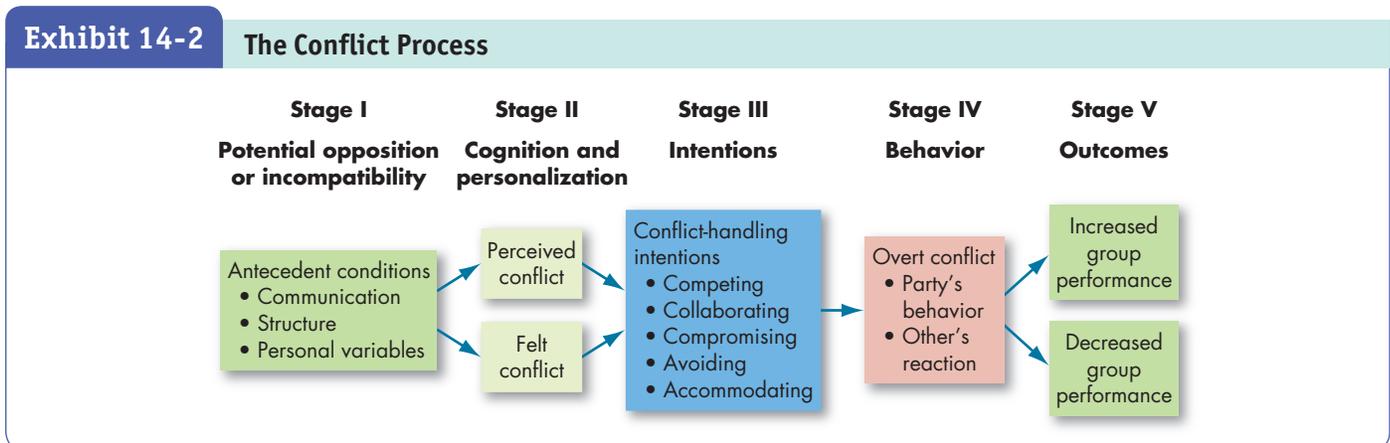
Stage I: Potential Opposition or Incompatibility

The first stage of conflict is the appearance of conditions—causes or sources—that create opportunities for it to arise. These conditions may *not* lead directly to conflict, but one of them is necessary if it is to surface. We group the conditions into three general categories: communication, structure, and personal variables.

Communication   Susan had worked in supply chain management at Bristol-Myers Squibb for three years. She enjoyed her work largely because her manager, Harry, was a great boss. Then Harry was promoted and Chuck took his place. Six months later, Susan says her job is frustrating. "Harry and I were on the same wavelength. It's not that way with Chuck. He tells me something, and I do it. Then he tells me I did it wrong. I think he means one thing but says something else. It's been like this since the day he arrived. I don't think a day goes by when he isn't yelling at me for something. You know, there are some people you just find it easy to communicate with. Well, Chuck isn't one of those!"

Susan's comments illustrate that communication can be a source of conflict.[19] Her experience represents the opposing forces that arise from semantic difficulties, misunderstandings, and "noise" in the communication channel (see Chapter 11). These factors, along with jargon and insufficient information, can be barriers to communication and may be potential antecedent conditions to conflict. The potential for conflict has also been found to increase with too little or *too much* communication. Communication is functional up to a point, after which it is possible to overcommunicate, increasing the potential for conflict.

Structure   Charlotte is a salesperson and Mercedes is the company credit manager at Portland Furniture Mart, a large discount furniture retailer. The women have known each other for years and have much in common: They live two blocks apart, and their oldest daughters attend the same middle school and

Exhibit 14-2   The Conflict Process

Stage I	Stage II	Stage III	Stage IV	Stage V
Potential opposition or incompatibility	Cognition and personalization	Intentions	Behavior	Outcomes

Antecedent conditions
• Communication
• Structure
• Personal variables

Perceived conflict

Felt conflict

Conflict-handling intentions
• Competing
• Collaborating
• Compromising
• Avoiding
• Accommodating

Overt conflict
• Party's behavior
• Other's reaction

Increased group performance

Decreased group performance

are best friends. If Charlotte and Mercedes had different jobs, they might be friends, but at work they constantly disagree. Charlotte's job is to sell furniture, and she does it well. Most of her sales are made on credit. Because Mercedes's job is to minimize credit losses, she regularly has to turn down the credit applications of Charlotte's customers. It's nothing personal between the women; the requirements of their jobs just bring them into conflict.

The conflicts between Charlotte and Mercedes are structural in nature. The term *structure* in this context includes variables such as the size of the group, degree of specialization in tasks assigned to group members, jurisdictional clarity, member–goal compatibility, leadership styles, reward systems, and degree of dependence between groups. The larger the group and the more specialized its activities, the greater the likelihood of conflict. Tenure and conflict are inversely related, meaning that the longer a person stays with an organization, the less likely conflict becomes. Therefore, the potential for conflict is greatest when group members are younger and when turnover is high.

Personal Variables   Have you ever met someone you immediately disliked? Perhaps you disagreed with most of his opinions. Even insignificant characteristics—his voice, facial expressions, or word choice—may have annoyed you. Sometimes our impressions are negative. When you have to work with people you don't like, the potential for conflict arises.

Our last category of potential sources of conflict is personal variables, which include personality, emotions, and values. People high in the personality traits of disagreeableness, neuroticism, or self-monitoring (see Chapter 5) are prone to tangle with other people more often—and to react poorly when conflicts occur.[20] Emotions can cause conflict even when they are not directed at others. An employee who shows up to work irate from her hectic morning commute may carry that anger into her workday, which can result in a tension-filled meeting.[21] Differences in preferences and values can generate higher levels of conflict. For example, a study in Korea found that when group members didn't agree about their desired achievement levels, there was more task conflict; when group members didn't agree about their desired interpersonal closeness, there was more relationship conflict; and when group members didn't have similar desires for power, there was more conflict over status.[22]

Stage II: Cognition and Personalization

If the conditions cited in Stage I negatively affect something one party cares about, then the potential for opposition or incompatibility becomes actualized in the second stage.

As we noted in our definition of conflict, one or more of the parties must be aware that antecedent conditions exist. However, just because a disagreement is a **perceived conflict** does not mean it is personalized. It is at the **felt conflict** level, when individuals become emotionally involved, that they experience anxiety, tension, frustration, or hostility.

Stage II is important because it's where conflict issues tend to be defined, where the parties decide what the conflict is about.[23] The definition of conflict is important because it delineates the set of possible settlements. Most evidence suggests that people tend to default to cooperative strategies in interpersonal interactions unless there is a clear signal that they are faced with a competitive person. However, if our salary disagreement is a zero-sum situation (the increase in pay you want means there will be that much less in the raise pool for me), I am going to be far less willing to compromise than if I can frame the conflict as a potential win–win situation (the dollars in the salary pool might be increased so both of us could get the added pay we want).

perceived conflict   Awareness by one or more parties of the existence of conditions that create opportunities for conflict to arise.

felt conflict   Emotional involvement in a conflict that creates anxiety, tenseness, frustration, or hostility.

Second, emotions play a major role in shaping perceptions.[24] Negative emotions allow us to oversimplify issues, lose trust, and put negative interpretations on the other party's behavior.[25] In contrast, positive feelings increase our tendency to see potential relationships among elements of a problem, take a broader view of the situation, and develop innovative solutions.[26]

Stage III: Intentions

intentions Decisions to act in a given way.

Intentions intervene between people's perceptions and emotions, and their overt behavior. They are decisions to act in a given way.[27]

Intentions are a distinct stage because we have to infer the other's intent to know how to respond to behavior. Many conflicts escalate simply because one party attributes the wrong intentions to the other. There is slippage between intentions and behavior, so behavior does not always reflect a person's intentions accurately.

We can also think of conflict-handling intentions as falling along two dimensions. These two dimensions—*assertiveness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns) and *cooperativeness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns)—can help us identify five conflict-handling intentions: *competing* (assertive and uncooperative), *collaborating* (assertive and cooperative), *avoiding* (unassertive and uncooperative), *accommodating* (unassertive and cooperative), and *compromising* (midrange on both assertiveness and cooperativeness).[28]

competing A desire to satisfy one's interests, regardless of the impact on the other party to the conflict.

Competing   When one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests regardless of the impact on the other parties in the conflict, that person is **competing**. We are more apt to compete when resources are scarce.

collaborating A situation in which the parties to a conflict each desire to satisfy fully the concerns of all parties.

Collaborating   When parties in conflict each desire to fully satisfy the concerns of all parties, there is cooperation and a search for a mutually beneficial outcome. In **collaborating**, parties intend to solve a problem by clarifying differences rather than by accommodating various points of view. If you attempt to find a win–win solution that allows both parties' goals to be completely achieved, that's collaborating.

avoiding The desire to withdraw from or suppress a conflict.

Avoiding   A person may recognize that a conflict exists and want to withdraw from or suppress it. Examples of **avoiding** include trying to ignore a conflict and keeping away from others with whom you disagree.

accommodating The willingness of one party in a conflict to place the opponent's interests above his or her own.

Accommodating   A party who seeks to appease an opponent may be willing to place the opponent's interests above his or her own, sacrificing to maintain the relationship. We refer to this intention as **accommodating**. Supporting someone else's opinion despite your reservations about it, for example, is accommodating.

compromising A situation in which each party to a conflict is willing to give up something to resolve the conflict.

Compromising   In **compromising**, there is no winner or loser. Rather, there is a willingness to rationalize the object of the conflict and accept a solution with incomplete satisfaction of both parties' concerns. The distinguishing characteristic of compromising therefore is that each party intends to give up something.

Stage IV: Behavior

When most people think of conflict, they tend to focus on Stage IV because this is where conflicts become visible. The behavior stage includes statements, actions, and reactions made by conflicting parties, usually as overt attempts

Exhibit 14-3   Conflict-Intensity Continuum

Annihilatory conflict — Overt efforts to destroy the other party

Aggressive physical attacks

Threats and ultimatums

Assertive verbal attacks

Overt questioning or challenging of others

Minor disagreements or misunderstandings

No conflict

Sources: Based on S. P. Robbins, *Managing Organizational Conflict: A Nontraditional Approach* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1974): 93–97; and F. Glasi, "The Process of Conflict Escalation and the Roles of Third Parties," in G. B. J. Bomers and R. Peterson (eds.), *Conflict Management and Industrial Relations* (Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff, 1982): 119–40.

to implement their own intentions. As a result of miscalculations or unskilled enactments, overt behaviors sometimes deviate from original intentions.[29]

Stage IV is a dynamic process of interaction. For example, you make a demand on me, I respond by arguing, you threaten me, I threaten you back, and so on. Exhibit 14-3 provides a way of visualizing conflict behavior. All conflicts exist somewhere along this continuum. At the lower end are conflicts characterized by subtle, indirect, and highly controlled forms of tension, such as a student challenging a point the instructor has made. Conflict intensities escalate as they move upward along the continuum until they become highly destructive. Strikes, riots, and wars clearly fall in this upper range. Conflicts that reach the upper range of the continuum are almost always dysfunctional. Functional conflicts are typically confined to the lower range of the continuum.

Intentions that are brought into a conflict are eventually translated into behaviors. *Competing* brings out active attempts to contend with team members, and more individual effort to achieve ends without working together. *Collaborating* creates investigation of multiple solutions with other members of the team and trying to find a solution that satisfies all parties as much as possible. *Avoidance* is seen in behavior like refusals to discuss issues and reductions in effort toward group goals. People who *accommodate* put their relationships ahead of the issues in the conflict, deferring to others' opinions and sometimes acting as a subgroup with them. When people *compromise*, they both expect to (and do) sacrifice parts of their interests, hoping that if everyone does the same, an agreement will emerge.

A review that examined the effects of the four sets of behaviors across multiple studies found that openness and collaborating were both associated with superior group performance, whereas avoiding and competing strategies were associated with significantly worse group performance.[30] These effects were nearly as large as the effects of relationship conflict. Collaboration may be especially effective for tasks that require innovation, but it can lead to mistrust and conflict when groups are splintered into smaller groups of two or three based on task.[31] Individuals who have been assigned power tend to have a more difficult time using collaborative strategies.[32] This further demonstrates that it is not just the existence of conflict or even the type of conflict that creates problems but rather the ways people respond to conflict and manage the process once conflicts arise.

If a conflict is dysfunctional, what can the parties do to deescalate it? Or, conversely, what options exist if conflict is too low to be functional and

Exhibit 14-4	Conflict Management Techniques

Conflict-Resolution Techniques

Problem solving	Meeting face to face for the purpose of identifying the problem and resolving it through open discussion.
Superordinate goals	Creating a shared goal that cannot be attained without the cooperation of each of the conflicting parties.
Expansion of resources	Expanding the supply of a scarce resource (for example, money, promotion, opportunities, office space).
Avoidance	Withdrawing from or suppressing the conflict.
Smoothing	Playing down differences while emphasizing common interests between the conflicting parties.
Compromise	Having each party to the conflict give up something of value.
Authoritative command	Letting management use its formal authority to resolve the conflict and then communicating its desires to the parties involved.
Altering the human variable	Using behavioral change techniques such as human relations training to alter attitudes and behaviors that cause conflict.
Altering the structural variables	Changing the formal organization structure and the interaction patterns of conflicting parties through job redesign, transfers, creation of coordinating positions, and the like.

Conflict-Stimulation Techniques

Communication	Using ambiguous or threatening messages to increase conflict levels.
Bringing in outsiders	Adding employees to a group whose backgrounds, values, attitudes, or managerial styles differ from those of present members.
Restructuring the organization	Realigning work groups, altering rules and regulations, increasing interdependence, and making similar structural changes to disrupt the status quo.
Appointing a devil's advocate	Designating a critic to purposely argue against the majority positions held by the group.

Source: Based on S. P. Robbins, *Managing Organizational Conflict: A Nontraditional Approach* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1974): 59–89.

conflict management   The use of resolution and stimulation techniques to achieve the desired level of conflict.

needs to be increased? This brings us to techniques of **conflict management**. Exhibit 14-4 lists the major resolution and stimulation techniques that allow managers to control conflict levels. We have already described several as conflict-handling intentions. Under ideal conditions, a person's intentions should translate into comparable behaviors.

Stage V: Outcomes

The action–reaction interplay between conflicting parties creates consequences. As our model demonstrates (see Exhibit 14-1), these outcomes may be functional if the conflict improves the group's performance, or dysfunctional if it hinders performance.

Functional Outcomes   How might conflict act as a force to increase group performance? It is hard to visualize a situation in which open or violent aggression could be functional. But it's possible to see how low or moderate levels of conflict could improve group effectiveness. Note that all our examples focus on task and process conflicts and exclude the relationship variety.

Conflict is constructive when it improves the quality of decisions, stimulates creativity and innovation, encourages interest and curiosity among group members, provides the medium for problems to be aired and tensions released, and fosters self-evaluation and change. Mild conflicts also may generate energizing emotions so members of groups become more active, energized, and engaged in their work.[33]

IBM encourages employees to engage in functional conflict that results in innovations, such as the Watson supercomputer designed to learn through the same process human brains use. For innovation to flourish, IBM relies on the creative tension from employees' different ideas and skills and provides a work environment that promotes risk taking and outside-the-box thinking.
Source: Jon Simon/Feature Photo Service/Newscom

Dysfunctional Outcomes   The destructive consequences of conflict on the performance of a group or an organization are generally well known: Uncontrolled opposition breeds discontent, which acts to dissolve common ties and eventually leads to the destruction of the group. And, of course, a substantial body of literature documents how dysfunctional conflicts can reduce group effectiveness.[34] Among the undesirable consequences are poor communication, reductions in group cohesiveness, and subordination of group goals to the primacy of infighting among members. All forms of conflict—even the functional varieties—appear to reduce group member satisfaction and trust.[35] When active discussions turn into open conflicts between members, information sharing between members decreases significantly.[36] At the extreme, conflict can bring group functioning to a halt and threaten the group's survival.

Managing Functional Conflict   If managers recognize that conflict can be beneficial in some situations, what can they do to manage conflict effectively in their organizations? In addition to knowing the principles of conflict motivation we just discussed, there are some practical guidelines for managers.

First, one of the keys to minimizing counterproductive conflicts is recognizing when there really is a disagreement. Many apparent conflicts are due to people using different verbiage to discuss the same general course of action. For example, someone in marketing might focus on "distribution problems," while someone from operations will talk about "supply chain management" to describe essentially the same issue. Successful conflict management recognizes these different approaches and attempts to resolve them by encouraging open, frank discussion focused on interests rather than issues.

Another approach is to have opposing groups pick parts of the solution that are most important to them and then focus on how each side can get its top needs satisfied. Neither side may get exactly what it wants, but each side will achieve the most important parts of its agenda.[37]

Third, groups that resolve conflicts successfully discuss differences of opinion openly and are prepared to manage conflict when it arises.[38] The most disruptive conflicts are those that are never addressed directly. An open discussion makes it much easier to develop a shared perception of the problems at hand; it also allows groups to work toward a mutually acceptable solution.

Fourth, managers need to emphasize shared interests in resolving conflicts so groups that disagree with one another don't become too entrenched in their points of view and start to take the conflicts personally. Groups with cooperative conflict styles and a strong underlying identification with the overall group goals are more effective than groups with a competitive style.[39]

Differences across countries in conflict resolution strategies may be based on collectivistic tendencies and motives.[40] Collectivist cultures see people as deeply embedded in social situations, whereas individualist cultures see them as autonomous. As a result, collectivists are more likely to seek to preserve relationships and promote the good of the group as a whole. They avoid the direct expression of conflict, preferring indirect methods for resolving differences of opinion. Collectivists may also be more interested in demonstrations of concern and working through third parties to resolve disputes, whereas individualists are more likely to confront differences of opinion directly and openly.

Some research supports this theory. Compared to collectivist Japanese negotiators, their more individualist U.S. counterparts are more likely to see offers as unfair and to reject them. Another study revealed that, whereas U.S. managers were more likely to use competing tactics in the face of conflicts, compromising and avoiding were the most preferred methods of conflict management in China.[41] Interview data suggest, however, that top management teams in Chinese high-technology firms prefer collaboration even more than compromising and avoiding.[42]

Cross-cultural negotiations can also create issues of trust.[43] One study of Indian and U.S. negotiators found that respondents reported having less trust in their cross-culture negotiation counterparts. The lower level of trust was associated with less discovery of common interests between parties, which occurred because cross-culture negotiators were less willing to disclose and solicit information. Another study found that both U.S. and Chinese negotiators tended to have an ingroup bias, which led them to favor negotiating partners from their own cultures. For Chinese negotiators, this was particularly true when accountability requirements were high.

Having considered conflict—its nature, causes, and consequences—we now turn to negotiation, which often resolves conflict.

MyLab Management Watch It

If your professor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the video exercise.

MyLab Management
Personal Inventory Assessments

Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the Personal Inventory Assessment related to this chapter.

Negotiation

Negotiation permeates the interactions of almost everyone in groups and organizations. There's the obvious: Labor bargains with management. There's the not-so-obvious: Managers negotiate with employees, peers, and bosses; salespeople negotiate with customers; purchasing agents negotiate with suppliers. And there's the subtle: An employee agrees to cover for a colleague for a few minutes in exchange for a future benefit. In today's loosely structured organizations, in which members work with colleagues over whom they have no direct authority and with whom they may not even share a common boss, negotiation skills are critical.

negotiation   A process in which two or more parties exchange goods or services and attempt to agree on the exchange rate for them.

We can define **negotiation** as a process that occurs when two or more parties decide how to allocate scarce resources.[44] Although we commonly think of the outcomes of negotiation in one-shot economic terms, like negotiating over the price of a car, every negotiation in organizations also affects the relationship between negotiators and the way negotiators feel about themselves.[45] Depending on how much the parties are going to interact with one another, sometimes maintaining the social relationship and behaving ethically will be just as important as achieving an immediate outcome of bargaining. Note that we use the terms *negotiation* and *bargaining* interchangeably.

Bargaining Strategies

There are two general approaches to negotiation—*distributive bargaining* and *integrative bargaining*.[46] As Exhibit 14-5 shows, they differ in their goal and motivation, focus, interests, information sharing, and duration of relationship. Let's define each and illustrate the differences.

distributive bargaining   Negotiation that seeks to divide up a fixed amount of resources; a win–lose situation.

Distributive Bargaining   You see a used car advertised for sale online that looks great. You go see the car. It's perfect, and you want it. The owner tells you the asking price. You don't want to pay that much. The two of you negotiate. The negotiating strategy you're engaging in is called **distributive bargaining**. Its identifying feature is that it operates under zero-sum conditions—that is, any gain I make is at your expense, and vice versa. Every dollar you can get the seller to cut from the car's price is a dollar you save, and every dollar the seller can get from you comes at your expense. The essence of distributive bargaining

Exhibit 14-5	Distributive versus Integrative Bargaining	
Bargaining Characteristic	**Distributive Bargaining**	**Integrative Bargaining**
Goal	Get as much of the pie as possible	Expand the pie so that both parties are satisfied
Motivation	Win–lose	Win–win
Focus	Positions ("I can't go beyond this point on this issue.")	Interests ("Can you explain why this issue is so important to you?")
Interests	Opposed	Congruent
Information sharing	Low (Sharing information will only allow other party to take advantage.)	High (Sharing information will allow each party to find ways to satisfy interests of each party.)
Duration of relationship	Short term	Long term

Exhibit 14-6   **Staking Out the Bargaining Zone**
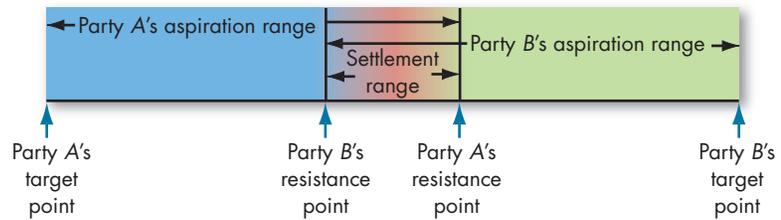
fixed pie   The belief that there is only a set amount of goods or services to be divvied up between or among the parties.

is negotiating over who gets what share of a fixed pie. By **fixed pie**, we mean a set amount of goods or services to be divvied up. When the pie is fixed, or the parties believe it is, they tend to engage in distributive bargaining.

The essence of distributive bargaining is depicted in Exhibit 14-6. Parties *A* and *B* represent two negotiators. Each has a *target point* that defines what he or she would like to achieve. Each also has a *resistance point*, which marks the lowest acceptable outcome—the point beyond which the party would break off negotiations rather than accept a less favorable settlement. The area between these two points makes up each party's *aspiration range.* As long as there is some overlap between *A*'s and *B*'s aspiration ranges, there exists a settlement range in which each one's aspirations can be met.

When you are engaged in distributive bargaining, one of the best things you can do is make the first offer, and make it an aggressive one. Making the first offer shows power; individuals in power are much more likely to make initial offers, speak first at meetings, and thereby gain the advantage. Another reason this is a good strategy is the anchoring bias, mentioned in Chapter 6. People tend to fixate on initial information. Once that anchoring point has been set, they fail to adequately adjust it based on subsequent information. A savvy negotiator sets an anchor with the initial offer, and scores of negotiation studies show that such anchors greatly favor the person who sets them.[47]

Say that you have a job offer, and your prospective employer asks you what sort of starting salary you want. You've just been given a gift—you have a chance to set the anchor, meaning you should ask for the highest salary you think the employer could reasonably offer. Asking for a million dollars is only going to make most of us look ridiculous, which is why we suggest being on the high end of what you think is *reasonable.* Too often, we err on the side of caution, afraid of scaring off the employer and thus settling for far too little. It *is* possible to scare off an employer, and it's true employers don't like candidates to be assertive in salary negotiations, but liking isn't the same as doing what it takes to hire or retain someone.[48] What happens much more often is that we ask for less than we could have obtained.

Integrative Bargaining   Jake was a Chicago luxury boutique owned by Jim Wetzel and Lance Lawson. In the early days of the business, Wetzel and Lawson moved millions of dollars of merchandise from many up-and-coming designers. They developed such a good rapport that many designers would send allotments to Jake without requiring advance payment. When the economy soured in 2008, Jake had trouble selling inventory, and designers were not being paid for what they had shipped to the store. Despite the fact that many designers were willing to work with the store on a delayed payment plan, Wetzel and Lawson stopped returning their calls. Lamented one designer, Doo-Ri Chung, "You kind of feel this familiarity with people who supported you for so long. When

Officials of General Motors and United Auto Workers participate in the ceremonial handshake that opens new contract negotiations. They are committed to integrative bargaining and work toward negotiating win–win settlements that boost GM's competitiveness. From left are GM CEO Mary Barra, UAW president Dennis Williams, GM VP Cathy Clegg, and UAW VP Cindy Estrada.
Source: Paul Sancya/AP Images

integrative bargaining Negotiation that seeks one or more settlements that can create a win–win solution.

they have cash-flow issues, you want to make sure you are there for them as well."[49] Chung's attitude shows the promise of **integrative bargaining**. In contrast to distributive bargaining, integrative bargaining assumes that one or more of the possible settlements can create a win–win solution. Of course, as the Jake example shows, both parties must be engaged for integrative bargaining to work.

Exhibit 14-7 illustrates how the two bargaining strategies can be utilized within the same negotiation episode. Early on in the episode, integrative strategies can be used, while later in the episode, distributive strategies can be used. Continuing with the previous example, if Wetzel and Lawson agreed to work with Chung to resolve their inventory dilemma, Chung could first clarify her needs to Wetzel and Lawson then articulate her interests in maintaining their relationship, all while trying to not come to a compromise right away. Once all of the needs and interests are established for both parties, she could then switch to a distributive strategy where she sets goals aligned with her needs and interests and attempts to maximize the extent to which these goals are met.

In terms of intraorganizational behavior, integrative bargaining is preferable to distributive bargaining because the former builds long-term relationships.

Exhibit 14-7 | **Integration of Two Bargaining Strategies Within a Negotiation Episode**

Integrative: Clarify Needs	Integrative: Articulate Interests	Integrative: Avoid Early Compromise	Distributive: Set High Goals	Distributive: Slice the Pie
Try to understand your needs and other party's needs	Focus on interests, not positions; articulate interest clearly	Avoid compromising too early, as that often leads to sub-optimal agreements – make sure the interests of both parties are met	Once interests are clarified, now is the time to set goals	Now that the pie has been expanded, draw down concessions so that they get progressively smaller

Integrative bargaining bonds negotiators and allows them to leave the bargaining table feeling they have achieved a victory. Distributive bargaining, however, leaves one party a loser. It tends to build animosity and deepen divisions when people have to work together on an ongoing basis. Research shows that, over repeated bargaining episodes, a losing party who feels positively about the negotiation outcome is much more likely to bargain cooperatively in subsequent negotiations.

Why, then, don't we see more integrative bargaining in organizations? The answer lies in the conditions necessary for it to succeed, including opposing parties who are open with information and candid about concerns, are sensitive to the other's needs and trust, and maintain flexibility.[50] Because these conditions seldom exist in organizations, negotiations often take a win-at-any-cost dynamic. Employees' personal characteristics and perceived accountability also play a role in whether negotiators come to an integrative solution. The use and effectiveness of negotiation strategies may depend on the regulatory focus of the parties involved (i.e., promotion or prevention focus; see Chapter 7) and accountability to a third party, such as a supervisor. Individuals are also more likely to use integrative bargaining when the other party expresses emotional ambivalence.[51]

Compromise may be your worst enemy in negotiating a win–win agreement. Compromising reduces the pressure to bargain integratively. After all, if you or your opponent caves in easily, no one needs to be creative to reach a settlement. People then settle for less than they could have obtained if they had been forced to consider the other party's interests, trade off issues, and be creative.[52] Consider a classic example in which two siblings are arguing over who gets an orange. Unknown to them, one sibling wants the orange to

---

Myth or Science?

Teams Negotiate Better Than Individuals in Collectivistic Cultures

According to a recent study, this statement appears to be false.

In general, the literature has suggested that teams negotiate more effectively than individuals negotiating alone. Some evidence indicates that team negotiations create more ambitious goals, and that teams communicate more with each other than individual negotiators do.

Common sense suggests that if this is indeed the case, it is especially true in collectivistic cultures, where individuals are more likely to think of collective goals and be more comfortable working in teams. A study of the negotiation of teams in the United States and in Taiwan, however, suggests that this common sense is wrong. The researchers conducted two studies comparing

two-person teams with individual negotiators. They defined negotiating effectiveness as the degree to which the negotiation produced an optimal outcome for both sides. U.S. teams did better than solo individuals in both studies. In Taiwan, solo individuals did better than teams.

Why did this happen? The researchers determined that, in Taiwan, norms respecting harmony already exist, and negotiating in teams only amplifies that tendency. This poses a problem because teams "satisfice" (settle for a satisfactory but less than optimal solution) to avoid conflict when norms for cooperation are exceptionally high. When Taiwanese individuals negotiate solo, at least they can clearly represent their own interests. In contrast, because

the United States is individualistic, solo negotiators may focus on their own interests, which makes reaching integrative solutions more difficult. When Americans negotiate in teams, they become less inclined to focus on individual interests and therefore can reach solutions.

Overall, these findings suggest that negotiating individually works best in collectivistic cultures, and negotiating in teams works best in individualistic cultures.

_____

Sources: Based on M. J. Gelfand, et al., "Toward a Culture-by-Context Perspective on Negotiation: Negotiating Teams in the United States and Taiwan," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 504–13; and A. Graf, S. T. Koeszegi, and E.-M. Pesendorfer, "Electronic Negotiations in Intercultural Interfirm Relationships," *Journal of Managerial Psychology* 25 (2010): 495–512.

drink the juice, whereas the other wants the orange peel to bake a cake. If one capitulates and gives the other the orange, they will not be forced to explore their reasons for wanting the orange, and thus they will never find the win–win solution: They could *each* have the orange because they want different parts.

The Negotiation Process
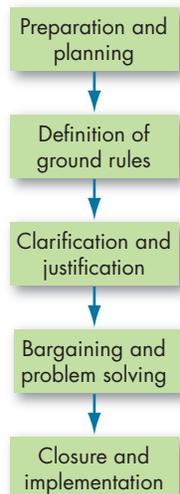
14-4 Apply the five steps of the negotiation process.

Exhibit 14-8 provides a simplified model of the negotiation process. It views negotiation as made up of five steps: (1) preparation and planning, (2) definition of ground rules, (3) clarification and justification, (4) bargaining and problem solving, and (5) closure and implementation.[53]

Preparation and Planning Before you start negotiating, do your homework. What's the nature of the conflict? What's the history leading up to this negotiation? Who's involved and what are their perceptions of the conflict? What do you want from the negotiation? What are *your* goals? If you're a supply manager at Dell Computer, for instance, and your goal is to get a significant cost reduction from your keyboard supplier, make sure this goal stays paramount in discussions and doesn't get overshadowed by other issues. It helps to put your goals in writing and develop a range of outcomes—from "most hopeful" to "minimally acceptable"—to keep your attention focused.

You should also assess what you think are the other party's goals. What is he or she likely to ask? How entrenched is his or her position likely to be? What intangible or hidden interests may be important to him or her? On what might he or she be willing to settle? When you can anticipate your opponent's position, you are better equipped to counter arguments with facts and figures that support your position.

Relationships change as a result of negotiation, so take that into consideration. If you could "win" a negotiation but push the other side into resentment or animosity, it might be wiser to pursue a more compromising style. If preserving the relationship will make you seem easily exploited, you may consider a

Exhibit 14-8   **The Negotiation**

Preparation and planning

↓

Definition of ground rules

↓

Clarification and justification

↓

Bargaining and problem solving

↓

Closure and implementation

more aggressive style. As an example of how the tone of a relationship in negotiations matters, people who feel good about the *process* of a job offer negotiation are more satisfied with their jobs and are less likely to leave the job a year later regardless of their actual *outcomes* from these negotiations.[54]

Once you've gathered your information, develop a strategy. You should determine your and the other side's best alternative to a negotiated agreement (**BATNA**). Your BATNA determines the lowest value acceptable to you for a negotiated agreement. Any offer you receive that is higher than your BATNA is better than an impasse.

BATNA   The **b**est **a**lternative **t**o a **n**egotiated **a**greement; the least a party in a negotiation should accept.

In nearly all cases, the party with superior alternatives will do better in a negotiation, so experts advise negotiators to solidify their BATNA prior to any interaction. There is an interesting exception to this general rule—negotiators with absolutely no alternative to a negotiated agreement sometimes "go for broke" because they don't even consider what would happen if the negotiation falls through.[55] Think carefully about what the other side is willing to give up. People who underestimate their opponent's willingness to give on key issues before the negotiation even starts end up with lower outcomes.[56] Conversely, you shouldn't expect success in your negotiation effort unless you're able to make the other side an offer it finds more attractive than its BATNA.

Definition of Ground Rules   Once you've done your planning and developed a strategy, you're ready to define with the other party the ground rules and procedures of the negotiation itself. Who will do the negotiating? Where will it take place? What time constraints, if any, will apply? To what issues will negotiation be limited? Will you follow a specific procedure if an impasse is reached? During this phase, the parties will exchange their initial proposals or demands.

Clarification and Justification   When you have exchanged initial positions, you and the other party will explain, amplify, clarify, bolster, and justify your original demands. This step needn't be confrontational. Rather, it's an opportunity for educating each other on the issues, why they are important, and how you arrived at your initial demands. Provide the other party with any documentation that supports your position.

Bargaining and Problem Solving   The essence of the negotiation process is the actual give-and-take in trying to hash out an agreement. This is where both parties need to make concessions.

Closure and Implementation   The final step in the negotiation process is formalizing your agreement and developing procedures necessary for implementing and monitoring it. For major negotiations—from labor–management negotiations to bargaining over lease terms—this requires hammering out the specifics in a formal contract. For other cases, closure of the negotiation process is nothing more formal than a handshake.

Individual Differences in Negotiation Effectiveness

14-5 Show how individual differences influence negotiations.

Are some people better negotiators than others? The answer is complex. Four factors influence how effectively individuals negotiate: personality, mood/emotions, culture, and gender.

Personality Traits in Negotiations   Can you predict an opponent's negotiating tactics if you know something about his or her personality? Because personality and negotiation outcomes are related but only weakly, the answer is, at best, sort of.[57] Most research has focused on the Big Five trait of agreeableness, for obvious reasons—agreeable individuals are cooperative, compliant, kind, and conflict-averse. We might think such characteristics make agreeable individuals easy prey in negotiations, especially distributive ones. The evidence suggests, however, that overall agreeableness is weakly related to negotiation outcomes. Why is this so?

It appears that the degree to which agreeableness, and personality more generally, affects negotiation outcomes depends on the situation. The importance of being extraverted in negotiations, for example, very much depends on how the other party reacts to someone who is assertive and enthusiastic. One complicating factor for agreeableness is that it has two facets: The tendency to be cooperative and compliant is one, but so is the tendency to be warm and empathetic.[58] It may be that while the former is a hindrance to negotiating favorable outcomes, the latter helps. Empathy, after all, is the ability to take the perspective of another person and gain insight into and an understanding of him or her. We know perspective taking benefits integrative negotiations, so perhaps the null effect for agreeableness is due to the two tendencies pulling against one another. If this is the case, then the best negotiator is a competitive but empathetic one, and the worst is a gentle but empathetic one. Recent research also suggests that personality traits such as agreeableness and extraversion do have an effect, but the effect depends on personality similarity between parties, not overall levels. For example, if both parties are disagreeable, they will negotiate with each other more effectively than if one party was disagreeable and the other were agreeable.[59]

The type of negotiations may matter as well. In one study, agreeable individuals reacted more positively and felt less stress (measured by their cortisol levels) in integrative negotiations than in distributive ones. Low levels of stress, in turn, made for more effective negotiation outcomes.[60] Similarly, in hard-edged distributive negotiations, where giving away information leads to a disadvantage, extraverted negotiators do less well because they tend to share more information than they should.[61]

Self-efficacy is one individual-difference variable that seems to relate consistently to negotiation outcomes.[62] This is a fairly intuitive finding—it isn't too surprising to hear that those who believe they will be more successful in negotiation situations tend to perform more effectively. Maybe individuals who are more confident stake out stronger claims, are less likely to back down from their positions, and exhibit confidence that intimidates others. Although the exact mechanism is not yet clear, it does seem that negotiators may benefit from trying to get a boost in confidence before going to the bargaining table.

Research suggests intelligence predicts negotiation effectiveness, but, as with personality, the effects aren't especially strong.[63] In a sense, these weak links mean you're not severely disadvantaged, even if you're an agreeable extravert, when it's time to negotiate. We all can learn to be better negotiators.[64]

Moods and Emotions in Negotiations   Do moods and emotions influence negotiation? They do, but the way they work depends on the emotion as well as the context. A negotiator who shows anger can induce concessions, for instance, because the other negotiator believes no further concessions from the angry party are possible. One factor that governs this outcome, however, is power—you should show anger in negotiations only if you have at least as much power as your counterpart. If you have less, showing anger actually seems to provoke hardball reactions from the other side.[65] Evoking emotions,

How can I get a better job?

I feel like my career is at a standstill, and I want to talk to my boss about getting a more developmental assignment. How can I negotiate effectively for a better job position?

— *Wei*

Dear Wei:

You're certainly starting out on the right foot. A lot of people focus on salary as a way to achieve success and negotiate for the best short-run offer. There's obviously an advantage to this strategy in the short run, but sustained career growth has better payoffs in the long run. Developing skills can help put you on track for multiple salary increases. A strong skill set from developmental assignments will also give you a better position for future negotiations because you will have more career options.

Long-term career negotiations based on developmental assignments are also often easier to bring up with a supervisor. That's because salary negotiations are often a zero-sum situation, but career development negotiations can bring positive outcomes to both sides. When negotiating for a developmental assignment, make sure

you emphasize a few points with your supervisor:

- *When it comes to salary negotiations, either you get the money, or the company keeps the money.* Given that, your interests and the interests of your managers are directly opposed. On the other hand, negotiating for developmental assignments usually means finding ways to improve not just your skills but also your contribution to the company's bottom line. You can, in complete honesty, frame the discussion around these mutual benefits.
- *Let your supervisor know that you are interested in getting better at your job and that you are motivated to improve through a developmental assignment.* Asking your supervisor for opportunities to grow is a clear sign that you are an employee worth investing in.
- *Be open to creative solutions.* It's possible that there are some idiosyncratic solutions (also called I-deals) for enhancing both your interests and those of your supervisor. One of the best things about an integrative bargaining situation like this is that

you and your negotiation partner can find novel solutions that neither would have imagined separately.

Think strategically about your career, and you'll likely find you can negotiate not just for a better paycheck tomorrow but for a paycheck that keeps increasing in the years to come.

Sources: Based on Y. Rofcanin, T. Kiefer, and K. Strauss, "How I-Deals Build Resources to Facilitate Reciprocation: Mediating Role of Positive Affective States," *Academy of Management Proceedings* (August 2014), doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2014.16096abstract; C. Liao, S. J. Wayne, and D. M. Rousseau, "Idiosyncratic Deals in Contemporary Organizations: A Qualitative and Meta-Analytical Review," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* (October 16, 2014), doi:10.1002/job.1959; and V. Brenninkmeijer and M. Hekkert-Koning, "To Craft or Not to Craft," *Career Development International* 20 (2015): 147–62.

such as sympathy, or expressing other emotions like sadness may also be used to persuade others.[66]

Another factor is how genuine your anger is—"faked" anger, or anger produced from surface acting (see Chapter 4), is not effective, but showing anger that is genuine (deep acting) is.[67] It also appears that having a history of showing anger, rather than sowing the seeds of revenge, actually induces more concessions because the other party perceives the negotiator as tough.[68] Finally, culture seems to matter. For instance, one study found that when East Asian participants showed anger, it induced more concessions than when the negotiator expressing anger was from the United States or Europe, perhaps because of the stereotype of East Asians as refusing to show anger.[69]

Another relevant emotion is disappointment. Generally, a negotiator who perceives disappointment from his or her counterpart concedes more. In one study, Dutch students were given 100 chips to bargain over. Negotiators who expressed disappointment were offered 14 more chips than those who didn't. In a second study, showing disappointment yielded an average concession of 12 chips. Unlike a show of anger, the relative power of the negotiators made no difference in either study.[70]

Using Empathy to Negotiate More Ethically

You may have noticed that much of our advice for negotiating effectively depends on understanding the perspective and goals of the person with whom you are negotiating. Preparing checklists of your negotiation partner's interests, likely tactics, and BATNA have all been shown to improve negotiation outcomes. Can these steps make you a more ethical negotiator as well? Studies suggest that they might.

Researchers asked respondents to indicate how much they tended to think about other people's feelings and emotions and to describe the types of tactics they engaged in during a negotiation exercise. More empathetic individuals consistently engaged in fewer unethical negotiation behaviors like making false promises and manipulating information and emotions.

When considering how to improve your ethical negotiation behavior, follow these guidelines:

1. **Try to understand your negotiation partner's perspective.** This isn't accomplished just by understanding cognitively what the other person wants but by empathizing with the emotional reaction he or she will likely have to the possible outcomes.
2. **Be aware of your own emotions because many moral reactions are fundamentally emotional.** One study found that engaging in unethical negotiation strategies increased feelings of guilt so, by extension, feeling guilty in a negotiation may mean you are engaging in behavior you'll regret later.
3. **Beware of empathizing so much that you work against your own interests.** Just because you try to understand the motives and emotional reactions of the other side does not mean you have to assume the other person is going to be honest and fair in return. So be on guard.

Sources: Based on T. R. Cohen, "Moral Emotions and Unethical Bargaining: The Differential Effects of Empathy and Perspective Taking in Deterring Deceitful Negotiation," *Journal of Business Ethics* 94, no. 4 (2010): 569–79; and R. Volkema, D. Fleck, and A. Hofmeister, "Predicting Competitive-Unethical Negotiating Behavior and Its Consequences," *Negotiation Journal* 26, no. 3 (2010): 263–86.

Anxiety also appears to have an impact on negotiation. For example, one study found that individuals who experienced more anxiety about a negotiation used more deceptions in dealing with others.[71] Another study found that anxious negotiators expect lower outcomes, respond to offers more quickly, and exit the bargaining process more quickly, leading them to obtain worse outcomes.[72]

People generally negotiate more effectively within cultures than between them. Politeness and positivity characterize the typical conflict-avoidant negotiations in Japan, such as with labor union leader Hidekazu Kitagawa (right), shown here presenting wage and benefits demands to Ikuo Mori, president of Fuji Heavy Industries, which makes Subaru vehicles.
*Source: */Kyodo/Newscom*

As you can see, emotions—especially negative ones—matter to negotiation. Even emotional unpredictability affects outcomes; researchers have found that negotiators who express positive and negative emotions in an unpredictable way extract more concessions because this behavior makes the other party feel less in control.[73] As one negotiator put it, "Out of the blue, you may have to react to something you have been working on in one way, and then something entirely new is introduced, and you have to veer off and refocus."[74]

Culture in Negotiations   Do people from different cultures negotiate differently? The simple answer is the obvious one: Yes, they do. However, there are many nuances in the way this works. It isn't as simple as "these negotiators are the best"; indeed, success in negotiations depends on the context.

So what can we say about culture and negotiations? First, it appears that people generally negotiate more effectively within cultures than between them. For example, a Colombian is apt to do better negotiating with a Colombian than with a Sri Lankan. Second, it appears that in cross-cultural negotiations, it is especially important that the negotiators be high in openness. This suggests a good strategy is to choose cross-cultural negotiators who are high on openness to experience, and to avoid factors such as time pressure that tend to inhibit learning about the other party.[75] Third, people are more likely to use certain negotiation strategies depending on what culture they belong to. For example, people from China and Qatar are more likely to use a competitive negotiation strategy than do people from the United States.[76]

Because emotions are culturally sensitive, negotiators need to be especially aware of the emotional dynamics in cross-cultural negotiation. One study, for example, explicitly compared how U.S. and Chinese negotiators reacted to an angry counterpart. Chinese negotiators increased their use of distributive negotiating tactics, whereas U.S. negotiators decreased their use of these tactics. That is, Chinese negotiators began to drive a harder bargain once they saw that their negotiation partner was becoming angry, whereas U.S. negotiators capitulated somewhat in the face of angry demands. Why the difference? It may be that individuals from East Asian cultures feel that using anger to get their way in a negotiation is not a legitimate tactic, so they refuse to cooperate when their opponents become upset.[77]

Gender Differences in Negotiations   There are many areas of organizational behavior (OB) in which men and women are not that different. Negotiation is not one of them. It seems fairly clear that men and women negotiate differently, men and women are treated differently by negotiation partners, and these differences affect outcomes (see OB Poll).

A popular stereotype is that women are more cooperative and pleasant in negotiations than men. Though this is controversial, there is some merit to it. Men tend to place a higher value on status, power, and recognition, whereas women tend to place a higher value on compassion and altruism. Women do tend to value relationship outcomes more than men, and men tend to value economic outcomes more than women.[78]

These differences affect both negotiation behavior and negotiation outcomes. Compared to men, women tend to behave in a less assertive, less self-interested, and more accommodating manner. As one review concluded, women "are more reluctant to initiate negotiations, and when they do initiate negotiations, they ask for less, are more willing to accept [the] offer, and make more generous offers to their negotiation partners than men do."[79] A study of MBA students at Carnegie-Mellon University found that the male students took the step of negotiating their first offer 57 percent of the time, compared to 4 percent for the female students. The net result? A $4,000 difference in starting salaries.[80]
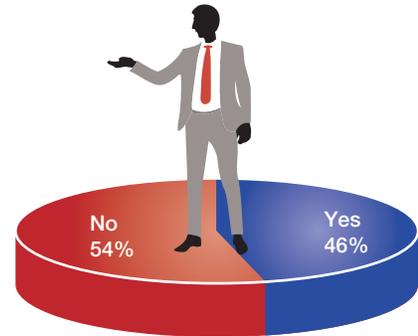
OB POLL

Men Ask More

Do you always negotiate for salary following a job offer?

Women
No 70%
Yes 30%

Men
No 54%
Yes 46%

Source: Based on A. Gouveia, "Why Americans Are Too Scared to Negotiate Salary," *San Francisco Chronicle*, April 3, 2013, downloaded May 30, 2013, from http://www.sfgate.com/jobs/.

One comprehensive literature review suggests that the tendency for men to receive better negotiation outcomes in some situations does not cover *all* situations.[81] Indeed, evidence suggested women and men bargained more equally in certain situations, women sometimes outperformed men, and men and women obtained more nearly equal outcomes when negotiating on behalf of someone else. In other words, everyone was better at advocating for others than they were at advocating for themselves. Another review of 123 studies found that gender differences are smaller when negotiators have experience with negotiating. Women also perform better in situations with low role incongruity.[82]

Factors that increased the predictability of negotiations also tended to reduce gender differences. When the range of negotiation settlements was well defined, men and women were more equal in outcomes. When more experienced negotiators were at the table, men and women were also more nearly equivalent. The study authors proposed that when situations are more ambiguous, with less well-defined terms and less experienced negotiators, stereotypes may have stronger effects, leading to larger gender differences in outcomes.

So what can be done to change this troublesome state of affairs? First, organizational culture plays a role. If an organization, even unwittingly, reinforces gender-stereotypic behaviors (men negotiating competitively, women negotiating cooperatively), it will negatively affect negotiations when anyone goes against stereotype. Men and women need to know that it is acceptable for each to show a full range of negotiating behaviors. Thus, a female negotiator who behaves competitively and a male negotiator who behaves cooperatively need to know that they are not violating expectations. Making sure negotiations are designed to focus on well-defined and work-related terms also has promise for reducing gender differences by minimizing the ambiguous space for stereotypes to operate. This focus on structure and work relevance also obviously helps focus negotiations on factors that improve the organization's performance.

Research is less clear on whether women can improve their outcomes by showing some gender-stereotypic behaviors. Researchers Laura Kray and colleagues suggested that female negotiators who were instructed to behave with "feminine charm" (be animated in body movements, make frequent eye contact with their partners, smile, laugh, be playful, and frequently compliment

their partners) did better in negotiations than women not so instructed. These behaviors didn't work for men.[83]

Other researchers disagree and argue that what can best benefit women is to break down gender stereotypes for the individuals who hold them.[84] It's possible this is a short-term/long-term situation: In the short term, women can gain an advantage in negotiation by being both assertive and charming, but in the long term, their interests are best served by eliminating these sorts of sex role stereotypes.

Evidence suggests women's own attitudes and behaviors hurt them in negotiations. Managerial women demonstrate less confidence than men in anticipation of negotiating and are less satisfied with their performance afterward, even when their performance and the outcomes they achieve are similar to those for men.[85] Women are also less likely to see an ambiguous situation as an opportunity for negotiation. Women may unduly penalize themselves by failing to engage in negotiations that would be in their best interests. Some research suggests that women are less aggressive in negotiations because they are worried about backlash from others.

Negotiating in a Social Context

14-6 Assess the roles and functions of third-party negotiations.

We have been mostly discussing negotiations that occur among parties that meet only once and in isolation from other individuals. In organizations, however, many negotiations are open-ended and public. When you are trying to figure out who in a work group should do a tedious task, negotiating with your boss to get a chance to travel internationally, or asking for more money for a project, there's a social component to the negotiation. You are probably negotiating with someone you already know and will work with again, and the negotiation and its outcome are likely to be topics people will talk about. To understand negotiations in practice, then, we must consider the social factors of reputation and relationships.

Reputation

Your reputation is the way other people think and talk about you. When it comes to negotiation, having a reputation for being trustworthy matters. In short, trust in a negotiation process opens the door to many forms of integrative negotiation strategies that benefit both parties.[86] The most effective way to build trust is to behave in an honest way across repeated interactions. Then others will feel more comfortable making open-ended offers with many different outcomes. This helps to achieve win–win outcomes because both parties can work to achieve what is most important to themselves while still benefitting the other party.

Sometimes we either trust or distrust people based on word of mouth about a person's characteristics. What type of characteristics help a person develop a trustworthy reputation? A combination of competence and integrity.[87] Negotiators higher in self-confidence and cognitive ability are seen as more competent by negotiation partners.[88] They are also considered better able to describe accurately a situation and their own resources, and they are more credible when they make suggestions for creative solutions to impasses. Individuals who have a reputation for integrity can also be more effective in negotiations.[89] They are seen as more likely to keep their promises and present information accurately, so others are more willing to accept their promises as part of a bargain. This opens many options for the negotiator that wouldn't be available to someone who is not seen as trustworthy. Finally, individuals who have more

solid reputations are better liked and have more friends and allies—in other words, they have more social resources, which may give them more implicit power in negotiations.

Relationships

There is more to repeated negotiations than just reputation. The social, interpersonal component of relationships with repeated negotiations means that individuals go beyond valuing what is simply good for themselves and instead start to think about what is best for the other party and the relationship as a whole.[90] Repeated negotiations built on a foundation of trust also broaden the range of options because a favor or concession today can be offered in return for some repayment further down the road.[91] Repeated negotiations also facilitate integrative problem solving. This occurs partly because people begin to see their negotiation partners in a more personal way over time and come to share emotional bonds.[92] Repeated negotiations also make integrative approaches more workable because a sense of trust and reliability has been built up.[93]

In sum, it's clear that an effective negotiator needs to think about more than just the outcomes of a single interaction. Negotiators who consistently act in a way that demonstrates competence, honesty, and integrity usually have better outcomes in the long run.

Third-Party Negotiations

Until this point, we've discussed bargaining in terms of direct negotiations. Occasionally, however, individuals or group representatives reach a stalemate and are unable to resolve their differences through direct negotiations. In such cases, they may turn to a third party to help them find a solution. There are three basic third-party roles: mediator, arbitrator, and conciliator.

mediator A neutral third party who facilitates a negotiated solution by using reasoning, persuasion, and suggestions for alternatives.

A **mediator** is a neutral third party who facilitates a negotiated solution by using reasoning and persuasion, suggesting alternatives, and the like. Mediators are widely used in labor–management negotiations and in civil court disputes. Their overall effectiveness is fairly impressive. For example, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) reported a settlement rate through mediation at 72.1 percent.[94] But the situation is the key to whether mediation will succeed; the conflicting parties must be motivated to bargain and resolve their conflict. In addition, conflict intensity can't be too high; mediation is most effective under moderate levels of conflict. Finally, perceptions of the mediator are important; to be effective, the mediator must be perceived as neutral and noncoercive.

arbitrator A third party to a negotiation who has the authority to dictate an agreement.

An **arbitrator** is a third party with the authority to dictate an agreement. Arbitration can be voluntary (requested by the parties) or compulsory (forced on the parties by law or contract). The big plus of arbitration over mediation is that it always results in a settlement. Whether there is a downside depends on how heavy-handed the arbitrator appears. If one party is left feeling overwhelmingly defeated, that party is certain to be dissatisfied and the conflict may resurface at a later time.

conciliator A trusted third party who provides an informal communication link between the negotiator and the opponent.

A **conciliator** is a trusted third party who provides an informal communication link between the negotiator and the opponent. This role was made famous by Robert Duval in the first *Godfather* film. As Don Corleone's adopted son and a lawyer by training, Duval acted as an intermediary between the Corleones and the other Mafioso families. Comparing conciliation to mediation in terms of effectiveness has proven difficult because the two overlap a great deal. In practice, conciliators typically act as more than mere communication conduits. They also engage in fact finding, interpret messages, and persuade disputants to develop agreements.

Summary

While many people assume conflict lowers group and organizational performance, this assumption is frequently incorrect. Conflict can be either constructive or destructive to the functioning of a group or unit. Levels of conflict can be either too high or too low to be constructive. Either extreme hinders performance. An optimal level is one that prevents stagnation, stimulates creativity, allows tensions to be released, and initiates the seeds of change without being disruptive or preventing the coordination of activities.

Implications for Managers

- Choose an authoritarian management style in emergencies, when unpopular actions need to be implemented (such as cost cutting, enforcement of unpopular rules, discipline), and when the issue is vital to the organization's welfare. Be certain to communicate your logic when possible to make certain others remain engaged and productive.
- Seek integrative solutions when your objective is to learn, when you want to merge insights from people with different perspectives, when you need to gain commitment by incorporating concerns into a consensus, and when you need to work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship.
- You can build trust by accommodating others when you find you're wrong, when you need to demonstrate reasonableness, when other positions need to be heard, when issues are more important to others than to yourself, when you want to satisfy others and maintain cooperation, when you can build social credits for later issues, to minimize loss when you are outmatched and losing, and when others should learn from their own mistakes.
- Consider compromising when goals are important but not worth potential disruption, when opponents with equal power are committed to mutually exclusive goals, and when you need temporary settlements to complex issues.
- Distributive bargaining can resolve disputes, but it often reduces the satisfaction of one or more negotiators because it is confrontational and focused on the short term. Integrative bargaining, in contrast, tends to provide outcomes that satisfy all parties and build lasting relationships.

Nonunion Positions and the Gig Economy Are Bad for Workers

POINT

What do Uber, Etsy, and Amazon Turk all have in common? All of these platforms are fuel for short-term freelance work, and a reflection of what economists have dubbed the gig economy. Fifty years ago, employers expected workers to stay with a company for 30 years. In exchange for their loyalty, employees were given more opportunities and a pension. Unlike the labor market of today, companies promoted from within. As this practice fell by the wayside, employers hired employees for shorter and shorter periods. Now, many new jobs are not long-term or even short-term positions: They're gigs. Employees work as independent contractors, using third-party platforms to connect to clients. Because these employees do not have a traditional employment contract, they have complete flexibility: They can work as much or as little as they want.

Unfortunately, many of these platforms have a dirty secret. Unlike regular employment, people who are employed primarily through gigs do not have the benefits of a traditional job. Because they're considered self-employed, they do not get paid for overtime, do not receive benefits, and have no collective bargaining power. There's also evidence that they're replacing rather than supplementing more stable employment. For example, Uber and Lyft drivers tripled in Silicon Valley from 2012 to 2014, while payrolled cab and limo jobs decreased by 31 percent in the same time period.

Without the ability to collectively bargain, the labor market is akin to the Wild West. That's why many freelancers on these platforms are trying to unionize. In New York and Seattle, labor unions are trying to allow gig employees that work as rideshare drivers, house cleaners, and delivery persons the ability to create collective bargaining units. Doing so will allow employees to demand health benefits and overtime. It will also ensure that these employees make a living hourly wage, which is rare for gig employees based on recent research. Many employees, despite working 60 hours a week, still do not make as much as a traditional employee.

Yes, it's great for employers to sell younger generations on the flexibility of these positions. But in exchange for flexibility, they are also losing the power to negotiate for fair working conditions. Let's stop pretending that freelance work platforms like Uber are good for the economy, and leave the gig economy trend at the curb.

COUNTERPOINT

While the gig economy has its drawbacks, these platforms exist for a reason. Employers and employees alike are fed up with traditional employment. Yes, some people who work through freelance apps use it as a primary source of income. But there are just as many, if not more, who just want a flexible second job to get a little extra cash. If these positions were like the services they are replacing (e.g., cab companies), then gig employees would have to agree to specific policies regarding sick days and work a set schedule.

I'm also skeptical of this idea that freelancers are replacing traditional employment. Yes, some city-level data shows that gig-based jobs increased while payroll jobs decreased. But there are also more data from 2010 to 2014 that suggest that contractor and payroll jobs have increased in most sectors that support freelance platforms. For example, while use of freelance platforms like Airbnb increased over four years, payroll jobs in hospitality also increased. The same is true for the transportation industry over the same time period. If anything, the reason these freelance platforms have been so successful is because these industries are growing. It's not that they're replacing traditional services—they're meeting the demand that traditional services cannot fulfill.

The benefits of having a collective bargaining agreement may also be exaggerated. Whenever a group tries to create a collective bargaining agreement, it causes conflict. A 2016 poll indicates that most employees (80 percent) believe leaders will not protect the interests of the group as a whole. Instead, leaders usually use their power in numbers to protect their own self-interests in negotiations.

Collective bargaining doesn't just hurt businesses—it also hurts the public. For example, the International Civil Aviation Organization has been trying to put cameras in commercial airline cockpits. These cameras would allow authorities and employers to monitor pilots on the job. These videos can help piece together why plane crashes occur. Yet pilots have been using collective bargaining techniques to fight the initiative on grounds that it violates airline pilots' privacy. They also insist that it could be used to "lead investigators away from accurate conclusions" regarding employees' performance.

Yes, traditional employment allows employees to bargain for rights as a group. But this also leads to concessions and conflict that do not benefit employees or their employers.

Sources: Based on A. Nunes, "Unions Are Hurting Public Safety," *Forbes*, April 10, 2017, https://www.forbes.com/sites/ashleynunes/2017/04/10/unions-are-hurting-public-safety/2/#396682da516e; Rasmussen Polling, "Most Say Union Leaders Out of Touch with Members," *Rasmussen Reports*, August 10, 2016, http://www.rasmussenreports.com/public_content/politics/general_politics/august_2016/most_say_union_leaders_out_of_touch_with_members; D. DeMay, "Driver Union, for Lyft, Uber, Forces Seattle to Ask Tough Questions about 'Gig' Economy," *Seattle Post-Intelligencer*, December 19, 2016, http://www.seattlepi.com/local/transportation/article/Driver-union-for-Lyft-Uber-forces-Seattle-to-10797019.php; M. Murro, "The Gig Economy: Complement or Cannibal?," *Brookings*, November 17, 2016, https://www.brookings.edu/blog/the-avenue/2016/11/17/the-gig-economy-complement-or-cannibal/; Reuters, "Unions and the Gig Economy Are Gearing Up for Battle in This State," *Fortune*, November 28, 2016, http://fortune.com/2016/11/28/unions-gig-economy-new-york/; and K. Kokalitcheva, "Uber Lost Hundreds of Millions in the Most Recent Quarter," *Fortune*, December 19, 2016, http://fortune.com/2016/12/19/uber-financials-2016/.

CHAPTER REVIEW

> ## MyLab Management Discussion Questions
> Go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management to complete the problems marked with this icon ⭐.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

14-1 What are the three types of conflict and the three loci of conflict?

14-2 What are the steps in the conflict process?

14-3 What are the differences between distributive and integrative bargaining?

14-4 What are the five steps in the negotiation process?

14-5 How do individual differences influence negotiations?

14-6 What are the roles and functions of third-party negotiations?

APPLICATION AND EMPLOYABILITY

Conflict is an inevitable part of every workplace. As you learned in this chapter, conflict is also beneficial in certain contexts. You also learned about negotiation, and how and when certain negotiation and conflict resolution strategies may be used. While exploring these topics, you used many skills that can help you be more employable. You learned collaboration while exploring why collectivist teams are not better negotiators, learned how to use concepts from the chapter to move forward in your career, and assessed how to be a more empathetic negotiator. You also applied your knowledge of bargaining to America's growing gig economy. In the next section, you will develop these skills further while also using your critical thinking skills to evaluate the pros and cons of unions, resolve a conflict between coworkers, assess how to deal with an overly assertive employee, and take part in a negotiation role play.

EXPERIENTIAL EXERCISE A Negotiation Role Play

You will consider two scenarios for this case: One is more distributive, the other more integrative. Form pairs, with one of you taking the role of the engineering director, and the other taking the role of the marketing director. Read only your own side's specific information for the two negotiation processes. The overall situation is the same for both scenarios, but the priorities and outlook for the parties change depending on whether you are negotiating the "contested resources" scenario or the "combined future" scenario.

The Case
Cytrix develops integrated bicycle and running performance systems. Runners and bikers wear the Cytrix watch, which uses GPS signals to identify their location and the distance they've covered. This information can then be uploaded to the Cytrix Challenge website, where users record their performance over time. Social media tools also allow them to compare their performance relative to that of friends. The majority of users are either amateur student athletes or committed adult hobbyists like marathon runners.

The organization needs to determine how to allocate a fixed pool of resources for future development between the marketing and engineering groups. Rather than making an executive decision about resource allocation, the top management team has asked the respective teams to allocate $30 million for planned future development and decide who will run different parts of the project.

Specific Information for the Marketing Group

Only the marketing manager should read this section.

The marketing group has been tracking the major areas of sales and has come to the conclusion that Cytrix has saturated the market. New sources of customers, especially general consumers who are interested in health but are not committed athletes, will need to be considered for future growth. Research into sales of competitive products and areas where competitors are failing to meet consumer demands is needed. The marketing group's primary goal is to allocate sufficient resources to finance the research. The group also wants to retain control over which new products will be developed. Marketing would prefer to see engineering act in a consulting role, determining how best to manufacture the devices that fit the needs identified above.

Specific Information for the Engineering Group

Only the engineering manager should read this section.

The engineering group has recently been tracking the development of new hardware that will improve the accuracy of distance and speed estimates in remote areas. Several other companies are already experimenting with similar designs. To realize this improvement fully, engineering believes it will be necessary to develop the technology further so it is both lightweight and inexpensive to produce. The engineering group's primary goal is to allocate sufficient resources to develop these new technologies. The engineers would prefer to see marketing act in a consulting role, determining how best to advertise and deliver the new devices.

Contested Resources Scenario

The marketing and engineering departments are locked in a struggle for power. Your side (either marketing or engineering) should try to direct the largest possible proportion of both money and authority toward your proposed program. You still need to think of a solution in which the other side ultimately agrees to assist you in implementing the program. If you can't reach an agreement for shared resources, the CEO will appoint new directors for both groups.

Combined Future Scenario

The marketing and engineering departments are eager to find a positive solution. Both sides should try to see that the company's future needs are met. You know that to achieve success everyone needs to work together, so you'd like to find a way to divide the money and resources that benefits both marketing and engineering. Plans can incorporate multiple techniques for sharing and collaborating with resources.

The Negotiation

At the start of the negotiation, the instructor randomly assigns half the groups to the contested resources scenario and the other half to the combined future scenario. Begin the process by outlining the goals and resources for your side of the negotiation. Then negotiate over the terms described in your scenario, attempting to advocate for a solution that matches your perspective.

Debriefing

Afterward, you will get together with the other students to discuss the processes used. Especially consider the differences in outcomes between the contested resources and combined future scenarios. Either scenario could arise in a real work environment, so think about how different negotiation situations give rise to different strategies, tactics, and outcomes.

ETHICAL DILEMMA The Case of the Overly Assertive Employee

In this chapter, we learned about several conflict-handling intentions. Each of these intentions involved two dimension—assertiveness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns) and cooperativeness (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns). Consider these dimensions, and then put yourself in the shoes of the manager described below.

Tom is a manager at a small copy supply firm. Their marketing team consists mainly of two employees: Janna and Kim. Kim is incredibly assertive, while Janna is incredibly cooperative. Though you are their manager, they sometimes have the discretion to negotiate with each other over who is responsible for which task in a project. You notice that Janna seems always to do the most tedious, unpleasant tasks. When you've asked Janna in the past if she is happy with what she contributes to projects, she meekly replies, "I don't mind. I don't want to make any waves."

You sense that Janna is unhappy but also scared of a confrontation with Kim. Kim is getting more recognition and compliments from the CEO because she does high-profile work. You know this puts Janna at a disadvantage in her career. On the other hand, Kim is overly assertive. You know that if you ask her to be more cooperative, it could cause more conflict in the office.

As we learned about relationship conflict, it's almost never beneficial. Yes, it may be unfair to Janna, but you don't want to disrupt the team by bringing conflict into the office. You also know that conflict tends to spread in the office—if Kim and Janna are at odds with each other, it may distract people on other teams.

Questions

14-7. If Tom does nothing, is that ethical? Does he have a responsibility to Janna to make sure her concerns are addressed?

14-8. In this chapter, you learned about mediators, arbitrators, and conciliators. Is it possible for Tom to act in one of these roles? Why or why not?

14-9. If Tom does nothing in this situation, how do you think the situation between Janna and Kim will play out? Do you think there will be problems with conflict?

CASE INCIDENT 1 Disorderly Conduct

The sound of Matt and Peter's arguing is familiar to everyone in the office by now. In an effort to make the best use of space and ensure a free flow of discussion and ideas, the founder of Markay Design had decided to convert the one-floor office of the company to an open plan with no walls between workers. The goal of such a layout is to eliminate boundaries and enhance creativity. But for Matt and Peter, the new arrangement creates a growing sense of tension.

The argument boils down to the question of workspace order and organization. Peter prefers to keep his desk completely clean and clear, and he keeps a stack of cleaning wipes in a drawer to eliminate any dust or dirt. Matt, on the other hand, likes to keep all his work visible on his desk, so sketches, plans, magazines, and photos are scattered everywhere, alongside boxes of crackers and coffee cups. Peter finds it hard to concentrate when he sees Matt's piles of materials everywhere, while Matt feels he can be more creative and free flowing when he's not forced to clean and organize constantly. Many of Matt and Peter's coworkers wish they'd just let the issue drop. The men enjoyed a good working relationship in the past, with Peter's attention to detail and thorough planning serving to rein in some of Matt's wild inspirations. But of late, their collaborations have been derailed in disputes.

Everyone knows it's not productive to engage in conflicts over every small irritant in the workplace. However, completely avoiding conflict can be equally negative. An emerging body of research has examined so-called conflict cultures in organizations. The findings suggest having a culture that actively avoids and suppresses conflicts is associated with lower levels of creativity. Cultures that push conflict underground but do not succeed in reducing the underlying tensions can become passive-aggressive, marked by underhanded behavior against other coworkers.

Ultimately, finding a way through the clutter dispute is probably going to be an ongoing process to find a balance between perspectives. Both Matt and Peter worry that if they can't find a solution, their usually positive work relationship will be too contentious to bear. And that would be a real mess.

Questions ⭐
14-10. Describe some of the factors that led this situation to become an open conflict.
14-11. Do you think this is an issue worth generating conflict over? What are the potential costs and benefits of Matt and Peter having an open discussion of the issues?
14-12. How can Matt and Peter develop an active problem-solving discussion to resolve this conflict? What could effectively be changed, and what is probably going to remain a problem?

Sources: Based on S. Shellenbarger, "Clashing over Office Clutter," *Wall Street Journal,* March 19, 2014, http://www.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424052702304747404579447331212245004; S. Shellenbarger, "To Fight or Not to Fight? When to Pick Workplace Battles," *Wall Street Journal,* December 17, 2014, http://www.wsj.com/articles/picking-your-workplace-battles-1418772621; and M. J. Gelfand, J. R. Harrington, and L. M. Leslie, "Conflict Cultures: A New Frontier for Conflict Management Research and Practice," in N. M. Ashkanasy, O. B. Ayoko, and K. A. Jehn (eds.), *Handbook of Conflict Management Research* (Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar, 2014): 109–35.

CASE INCIDENT 2 Rubber Rooms and Collective Bargaining

U.S. labor unions have seen a dramatic decline in membership in the private sector, where only 6.5 percent of the employees are unionized. The situation is very different in the public sector, however, where 40 percent of government employees are unionized. These numbers are the result of very different trends—in the 1950s, the situation

was approximately reversed, with roughly 35 percent of private-sector workers and 12 percent of public-sector employees belonging to unions.

Research suggests two core reasons public-sector unions have grown. First, changes in state and national labor laws have made it easier for public-sector unions

to organize. Some also argue that enforcement agencies have tolerated antiunion actions in the private sector. Second, the location of private-sector jobs has changed; high-paying union jobs in the manufacturing sector, the steel industry, and other former bastions of private-sector unionization have mostly gone overseas or to the South, where it's harder to organize workers. On the other hand, it's difficult to move government jobs away from the communities they serve. A Philadelphia school, for example, couldn't just decide it was going to relocate its teachers to Atlanta. Also, public-sector labor forces tend to be more static than in the private sector. More plants than post offices have closed.

Are these trends problems? Though this is partly a political question, let's look at it objectively in terms of pluses and minuses.

On the positive side, by negotiating as a collective, unionized workers are able to earn, on average, roughly 15 percent more than their nonunion counterparts. Unions can also protect the rights of workers against capricious actions by employers. Consider the following example:

> Lydia criticized the work of five of her coworkers. They were not amused and posted angry messages on a Facebook page. Lydia complained to her supervisor that the postings violated the employer's zero tolerance policy against bullying and harassment. The employer investigated and, agreeing that its policy had been violated, fired the five. However, the National Labor Relations Board ruled this an unfair labor practice and ordered them reinstated.

Most of us would probably prefer not to be fired for Facebook posts. This is a protection unions can provide.

On the negative side, public-sector unions at times have been able to negotiate employment arrangements that are hard to sustain. For more than 25 years, the union that represents California's prison guards—the California Correctional Peace Officers Association (CCPOA)—has lobbied to increase the number of prisons and to increase sentences (through primarily the three-strikes initiatives). The lobbying has worked; additional prisons have been built, the prison population has exploded, and thousands of new prison personnel have been hired. With its membership at almost 30,000 and with millions of dollars for skillful lobbying, the power of the CCPOA would now be difficult to overestimate. As a result, an entry-level corrections officer can earn up to $65,000 in base salary with generous benefits, plus over $100,000 in overtime and bonuses, after just 4 months of free training. All this is at the expense of taxpayers in a state where the budget is "precariously balanced and faces the prospect of deficits in succeeding years."

It is often extremely difficult to fire a member of a public-sector union, even if performance is exceptionally poor. Aryeh Eller, a former music teacher at Hillcrest High School in Queens, New York, was pulled from the classroom for repeated sexual harassment of female students, a charge to which he admitted. While in the so-called rubber room, where union members unfit to work are paid their full wage just to sit, Eller's salary increased to $85,000 due to automatic seniority increases under the teachers' union contract. Such protections exist for teachers in nearly every state, sheltering even those arrested for having sex with minors and giving minors drugs. Teachers are not alone. There are rubber rooms for many types of union jobs.

Reasonable people can disagree about the pros and cons of unions and whether they help or hinder an organization's ability to be successful. There isn't any dispute, however, that they often figure prominently in the study of workplace conflict and negotiation strategies.

Questions ⭐

14-13. Labor–management negotiations might be characterized as more distributive than integrative. Do you agree? Why do you think this is the case? What, if anything, would you do about it?

14-14. If unions have negotiated unreasonable agreements, what responsibility does management or the administration bear for agreeing to these terms? Why do you think they do agree to such terms?

14-15. Assume that you are advising union and management representatives about how to negotiate an agreement. Drawing on the concepts in this chapter, what would you tell them?

Sources: Based on L. Apple, "Spoiled California Prison Guards Have It Easy," *Gawker Media*, April 30, 2011, http://gawker.com/5797381/spoiled-california-prison-guards-have-it-easy; "Aryeh Eller, New York Teacher Removed from Classroom for Sexual Harassment, Paid Nearly $1 Million to Do Nothing," *Huffington Post*, January 28, 2013, downloaded May 20, 2013, from www.huffingtonpost.com; "Hispanics United of Buffalo, Inc. and Carlos Ortiz," Case 03–CA–027872, *National Labor Relations Board*, December 14, 2012, www.nlrb.gov/cases-decisions/board-decisions; E. G. Brown, "2015–16 May Revision to the California State Budget," http://www.ebudget.ca.gov/2015-16/pdf/Revised/Budget Summary/Introduction.pdf; S. Soriano, "CCPOA's Clout High, but Profile Low," *Capitol Weekly*, November 19, 2014, http://capitolweekly.net/ccpoa-transition-powerful-low-profile-campaign-spending/; and J. Weissmann, "Who's to Blame for the Hostess Bankruptcy: Wall Street, Unions, or Carbs? *The Atlantic*, November 16, 2012, downloaded May 29, 2013, from www.theatlantic.com/.

MyLab Management Writing Assignments

If your instructor has assigned this activity, go to www.pearson.com/mylab/management for auto-graded writing assignments as well as the following assisted-graded writing assignments:

14-16. Refer again to Case Incident 1. How do you think modern, open workspaces contribute to or inhibit employee conflicts?

14-17. From your reading of Case Incident 2 and the text, how do you think unions have changed organizational negotiation practices?

14-18. MyLab Management only—additional assisted-graded writing assignment.

ENDNOTES

[1] See, for instance, D. Tjosvold, A. S. H. Wong, and N. Y. F. Chen, "Constructively Managing Conflicts in Organizations," *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior* 1 (March 2014): 545–68; and M. A. Korsgaard, S. S. Jeong, D. M. Mahony, and A. H. Pitariu, "A Multilevel View of Intragroup Conflict," *Journal of Management* 34, no. 6 (2008): 1222–52.

[2] C. K. W. De Dreu, "Conflict at Work: Basic Principles and Applied Issues," in S. Zedeck (ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Washington, DC: APA Press, 2012): 461–493.

[3] B. Brehmer, "Social Judgment Theory and the Analysis of Interpersonal Conflict," *Psychological Bulletin* 83, no. 1 (1976): 985–1003.

[4] Ibid.

[5] K. A. Jehn, "A Qualitative Analysis of Conflict Types and Dimensions in Organizational Groups," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 42, no. 1 (1997): 530–557.

[6] F. R. C. de Wit, L. L. Greer, and K. A. Jehn, "The Paradox of Intragroup Conflict: A Meta-Analysis," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 97, no. 2 (2012): 360–90; and N. Gamero, V. González-Romá, and J. M. Peiró, "The Influence of Intra-Team Conflict on Work Teams' Affective Climate: A Longitudinal Study," *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 81, no. 1 (2008): 47–69.

[7] E. J. Jung and S. Lee, "The Combined Effects of Relationship Conflict and the Relational Self on Creativity," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 130, no. 1 (2016): 44–57.

[8] N. Halevy, E. Y. Chou, and A. D. Galinsky, "Exhausting or Exhilarating? Conflict as Threat to Interests, Relationships and Identities," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 48 (2012): 530–37.

[9] S. S. Nifadkar and T. N. Bauer, "Breach of Belongingness: Newcomer Relationship Conflict, Information, and Task-Related Outcomes during Organizational Socialization," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 101, no. 1 (2016): 1–13.

[10] F. R. C. de Wit, L. L. Greer, and K. A. Jehn, "The Paradox of Intragroup Conflict: A Meta-Analysis," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 97 (2012): 360–90.

[11] J. Farh, C. Lee, and C. I. C. Farh, "Task Conflict and Team Creativity: A Question of How Much and When," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 95, no. 6 (2010): 1173–80.

[12] B. H. Bradley, A. C. Klotz, B. F. Postlethwaite, and K. G. Brown, "Ready to Rumble: How Team Personality Composition and Task Conflict Interact to Improve Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 385–92.

[13] K. A. Jehn and C. Bendersky, "Intragroup Conflict in Organizations: A Contingency Perspective on the Conflict-Outcome Relationship," *Research in Organizational Behavior* 25, no. 1 (2003): 187–242.

[14] B. H. Bradley, B. F. Postlethwaite, A. C. Klotz, M. R. Hamdani, and K. G. Brown, "Reaping the Benefits of Task Conflict in Teams: The Critical Role of Team Psychological Safety Climate," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 97 (2012): 151–58.

[15] J. S. Chun, S. Jinseok, and J. N. Choi, "Members' Needs, Intragroup Conflict, and Group Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 99, no. 3 (2014): 437–50.

[16] S. Benard, "Cohesion from Conflict: Does Intergroup Conflict Motivate Intragroup Norm Enforcement and Support for Centralized Leadership?," *Social Psychology Quarterly* 75 (2012): 107–30.

[17] G. A. Van Kleef, W. Steinel, and A. C. Homan, "On Being Peripheral and Paying Attention: Prototypicality and Information Processing in Intergroup Conflict," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 63–79.

[18] K. W. Thomas, "Conflict and Negotiation Processes in Organizations," in M. D. Dunnette and L. M. Hough (eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist's Press, 1992): 651–717.

[19] R. S. Peterson and K. J. Behfar, "The Dynamic Relationship between Performance Feedback, Trust, and Conflict in Groups: A Longitudinal Study," *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes* (September–November 2003): 102–12.

[20] T. M. Glomb and H. Liao, "Interpersonal Aggression in Work Groups: Social Influence, Reciprocal, and Individual Effects," *Academy of Management Journal* 46, no. 4 (2003): 486–96; and V. Venkataramani and R. S. Dalal, "Who Helps and Harms Whom? Relational Aspects of Interpersonal Helping and Harming in Organizations," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92, no. 4 (2007): 952–66.

[21] R. Friedman, C. Anderson, J. Brett, M. Olekalns, N. Goates, and C. C. Lisco, "The Positive and Negative Effects of Anger on Dispute Resolution: Evidence from Electronically Mediated Disputes," *Journal of Applied Psychology* (April 2004): 369–76.

[22] J. S. Chun and J. N. Choi, "Members' Needs, Intragroup Conflict, and Group Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 99 (2014): 437–50.

[23] See, for instance, J. R. Curhan, "What Do People Value When They Negotiate? Mapping the Domain of Subjective Value in Negotiation," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (September 2006): 117–26; and N. Halevy, E. Chou, and J. K. Murnighan, "Mind Games: The Mental Representation of Conflict," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 102 (2012): 132–48.

[24] A. M. Isen, A. A. Labroo, and P. Durlach, "An Influence of Product and Brand Name on Positive Affect: Implicit and Explicit Measures," *Motivation & Emotion* (March 2004): 43–63.

[25] Ibid.

[26] C. Montes, D. Rodriguez, and G. Serrano, "Affective Choice of Conflict Management Styles," *International Journal of Conflict Management* 23 (2012): 6–18.

[27] M. A. Rahim, *Managing Conflict in Organizations*, 4th ed. (New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers, 2011).

[28] Ibid.

[29] Ibid.

[30] L. A. DeChurch, J. R. Mesmer-Magnus, and D. Doty, "Moving beyond Relationship and Task Conflict: Toward a Process-State Perspective," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 559–78.

[31] J. P. Davis, "The Group Dynamics of Interorganizational Relationships: Collaborating with Multiple Partners in Innovation Ecosystems," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 61, no. 4 (2016): 621–61.

[32] J. D. Hildreth and C. Anderson, "Failure at the Top: How Power Undermines Collaborative Performance," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 110, no. 2 (2016): 261–86.

[33] G. Todorova, J. B. Bear, and L. R. Weingart, "Can Conflict Be Energizing? A Study of Task Conflict, Positive Emotions, and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 99 (2014): 451–67.

[34] P. J. Hinds and D. E. Bailey, "Out of Sight, Out of Sync: Understanding Conflict in Distributed Teams," *Organization Science* (November–December 2003): 615–32.

[35] K. A. Jehn, L. Greer, S. Levine, and G. Szulanski, "The Effects of Conflict Types, Dimensions, and Emergent States on Group Outcomes," *Group Decision and Negotiation* 17, no. 6 (2005): 777–96.

[36] M. E. Zellmer-Bruhn, M. M. Maloney, A. D. Bhappu, and R. B. Salvador, "When and How Do Differences Matter? An Exploration of Perceived Similarity in Teams," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 107, no. 1 (2008): 41–59.

[37] J. Fried, "I Know You Are, but What Am I?," *Inc.* (July/August 2010): 39–40.

[38] K. J. Behfar, R. S. Peterson, E. A. Mannix, and W. M. K. Trochim, "The Critical Role of Conflict Resolution in Teams: A Close Look at the Links between Conflict Type, Conflict Management Strategies, and Team Outcomes," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 93, no. 1 (2008): 170–88; and A. G. Tekleab, N. R. Quigley, and P. E. Tesluk, "A Longitudinal Study of Team Conflict, Conflict Management, Cohesion, and Team Effectiveness," *Group and Organization Management* 34, no. 2 (2009): 170–205.

[39] A. Somech, H. S. Desivilya, and H. Lidogoster, "Team Conflict Management and Team Effectiveness: The Effects of Task Interdependence and Team Identification," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 30, no. 3 (2009): 359–78.

[40] H. Ren and B. Gray, "Repairing Relationship Conflict: How Violation Types and Culture Influence the Effectiveness of Restoration Rituals," *Academy of Management Review* 34, no. 1 (2009): 105–26.

[41] M. J. Gelfand, M. Higgins, L. H. Nishii, J. L. Raver, A. Dominguez, F. Murakami, S. Yamaguchi, and M. Toyama, "Culture and Egocentric Perceptions of Fairness in Conflict and Negotiation," *Journal of Applied Psychology* (October 2002): 833–45; and Z. Ma, "Chinese Conflict Management Styles and Negotiation Behaviours: An Empirical Test," *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management* (April 2007): 101–19.

[42] P. P. Fu, X. H. Yan, Y. Li, E. Wang, and S. Peng, "Examining Conflict-Handling Approaches by Chinese Top Management Teams in IT Firms," *International Journal of Conflict Management* 19, no. 3 (2008): 188–209.

[43] W. Liu, R. Friedman, and Y. Hong, "Culture and Accountability in Negotiation: Recognizing the Importance of In-Group Relations," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 117 (2012): 221–34; and B. C. Gunia, J. M. Brett, A. K. Nandkeolyar, and D. Kamdar, "Paying a Price: Culture, Trust, and Negotiation Consequences," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 96, no. 4 (2010): 774–89.

[44] M. H. Bazerman, J. R. Curhan, D. A. Moore, and K. L. Valley, "Negotiation," *Annual Review of Psychology* 51 (2000): 279–314.

[45] See, for example, D. R. Ames, "Assertiveness Expectancies: How Hard People Push Depends on the Consequences They Predict," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 95, no. 6 (2008): 1541–57; and J. R. Curhan, H. A. Elfenbein, and H. Xu, "What Do People Value When They Negotiate? Mapping the Domain of Subjective Value in Negotiation," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 91, no. 3 (2006): 493–512.

[46] R. Lewicki, D. Saunders, and B. Barry, *Negotiation,* 6th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin, 2009).

[47] J. C. Magee, A. D. Galinsky, and D. H. Gruenfeld, "Power, Propensity to Negotiate, and Moving First in Competitive Interactions," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* (February 2007): 200–12.

[48] H. R. Bowles, L. Babcock, and L. Lei, "Social Incentives for Gender Differences in the Propensity to Initiative Negotiations: Sometimes It Does Hurt to Ask," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 103 (2007): 84–103.

[49] E. Wilson, "The Trouble with Jake," *The New York Times,* July 15, 2009, www.nytimes.com.

[50] Rahim, *Managing Conflict in Organizations.*

[51] A. C. Peng, J. Dunn, and D. E. Conlon, "When Vigilance Prevails: The Effect of Regulatory Focus and Accountability on Integrative Negotiation Outcomes," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 126, no. 1 (2016): 77–87; N. B. Rothman and G. B. Northcraft, "Unlocking Integrative Potential: Expressed Emotional Ambivalence and Negotiation Outcomes," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 126, no. 1 (2015): 65–76; and C. K. W. De Dreu, L. R. Weingart, and S. Kwon, "Influence of Social Motives on Integrative Negotiation: A Meta-Analytic Review and Test of Two Theories," *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology* (May 2000): 889–905.

[52] This model is based on R. J. Lewicki, D. Saunders, and B. Barry, *Negotiation,* 7th ed. (New York: McGraw Hill, 2014).

[53] J. R. Curhan, H. A. Elfenbein, and G. J. Kilduff, "Getting off on the Right Foot: Subjective Value versus Economic Value in Predicting Longitudinal Job Outcomes from Job Offer Negotiations," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94, no. 2 (2009): 524–34.

[54] L. L. Thompson, J. Wang, and B. C. Gunia. "Negotiation," *Annual Review of Psychology* 61, (2010): 491–515.

[55] Michael Schaerer, Roderick I. Swaab, and Adam D. Galinsky, "Anchors Weigh More Than Power: Why Absolute Powerlessness Liberates Negotiators to Achieve Better Outcomes," *Psychological Science* (December 2014), doi:10.1177/0956797614558718.

[56] R. P. Larrick and G. Wu, "Claiming a Large Slice of a Small Pie: Asymmetric Disconfirmation in Negotiation," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 93, no. 2 (2007): 212–33.

[57] H. A. Elfenbein, "Individual Difference in Negotiation: A Nearly Abandoned Pursuit Revived," *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 24 (2015): 131–36.

[58] T. A. Judge, B. A. Livingston, and C. Hurst, "Do Nice Guys—and Gals—Really Finish Last? The Joint Effects of Sex and Agreeableness on Income," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 102 (2012): 390–407.

[59] K. S. Wilson, D. S. DeRue, F. K. Matta, M. Howe, and D. E. Conlon, "Personality Similarity in Negotiations: Testing the Dyadic Effects of Similarity in Interpersonal Traits and the Use of Emotional Displays on Negotiation Outcomes," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 101, no. 10 (2016): 1405–21.

[60] N. Dimotakis, D. E. Conlon, and R. Ilies, "The Mind and Heart (Literally) of the Negotiator: Personality and Contextual Determinants of Experiential Reactions and Economic Outcomes in Negotiation," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 97 (2012): 183–93.

[61] E. T. Amanatullah, M. W. Morris, and J. R. Curhan, "Negotiators Who Give Too Much: Unmitigated Communion, Relational Anxieties, and Economic Costs in Distributive and Integrative Bargaining," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 95, no. 3 (2008): 723–38; and D. S. DeRue, D. E. Conlon, H. Moon, and H. W. Willaby, "When Is Straightforwardness a Liability in Negotiations? The Role of Integrative Potential and Structural Power," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 94, no. 4 (2009): 1032–47.

[62] S. Sharma, W. Bottom, and H. A. Elfenbein, "On the Role of Personality, Cognitive Ability, and Emotional Intelligence in Predicting Negotiation Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis," *Organizational Psychology Review* 3 (2013): 293–336.

[63] H. A. Elfenbein, J. R. Curhan, N. Eisenkraft, A. Shirako, and L. Baccaro, "Are Some Negotiators Better Than Others? Individual Differences in Bargaining Outcomes," *Journal of Research in Personality* (December 2008): 1463–75.

[64] A. Zerres, J. Hüffmeier, P. A. Freund, K. Backhaus, and G. Hertel, "Does It Take Two to Tango? Longitudinal Effects of Unilaterial and Bilateral Integrative Negotiation Training," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98 (2013): 478–91.

[65] G. Lelieveld, E. Van Dijk, I. Van Beest, and G. A. Van Kleef, "Why Anger and Disappointment Affect Other's Bargaining Behavior Differently: The Moderating Role of Power and the Mediating Role of Reciprocal Complementary Emotions," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 38 (2012): 1209–21.

[66] A. Shirako, G. J. Kilduff, and L. J. Kray, "Is There a Place for Sympathy in Negotiation? Finding Strength in Weakness," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 131, no. 1 (2015): 95–109; and M. Sinaceur, S. Kopelman, D. Vasiljevic, and C. Haag, "Weep and Get More: When and Why Sadness Expression Is Effective in Negotiations," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 100, no. 6 (2016): 1847–71.

[67] S. Côté, I. Hideg, and G. A. van Kleef, "The Consequences of Faking Anger in Negotiations," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 49 (2013): 453–63.

[68] G. A. Van Kleef and C. K. W. De Dreu, "Longer-Term Consequences of Anger Expression in Negotiation: Retaliation or Spillover?," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 46, no. 5 (2010): 753–60.

[69] H. Adam and A. Shirako, "Not All Anger Is Created Equal: The Impact of the Expresser's Culture on the Social Effects of Anger in Negotiations," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98, no. 5 (2013): 785–98.

[70] Lelieveld, Van Dijk, Van Beest, and Van Kleef, "Why Anger and Disappointment Affect Other's Bargaining Behavior Differently."

[71] M. Olekalns and P. L Smith, "Mutually Dependent: Power, Trust, Affect, and the Use of Deception in Negotiation," *Journal of Business Ethics* 85, no. 3 (2009): 347–65.

[72] A. W. Brooks and M. E. Schweitzer, "Can Nervous Nellie Negotiate? How Anxiety Causes Negotiators to Make Low First Offers, Exit Early, and Earn Less Profit," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 115, no. 1 (2011): 43–54.

[73] M. Sinaceur, H. Adam, G. A. Van Kleef, and A. D. Galinsky, "The Advantages of Being Unpredictable: How Emotional Inconsistency Extracts Concessions in Negotiation," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 49 (2013): 498–508.

[74] K. Leary, J. Pillemer, and M. Wheeler, "Negotiating with Emotion," *Harvard Business Review* (January–February 2013): 96–103.

[75] L. A. Liu, R. Friedman, B. Barry, M. J. Gelfand, and Z. Zhang, "The Dynamics of Consensus Building in Intracultural and Intercultural Negotiations," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 57 (2012): 269–304.

[76] S. Aslani, J. Ramirez-Marin, J. Brett, J. Yao, Z. Semnani-Azad, Z. Zhang, … and W. Adair, "Dignity, Face, and Honor Cultures: A Study of Negotiation Strategy and Outcomes in Three Cultures," *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 37, no. 8 (2016): 1178–201.

[77] M. Liu, "The Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Effects of Anger on Negotiation Strategies: A Cross-Cultural Investigation," *Human Communication Research* 35, no. 1 (2009): 148–69; and H. Adam, A. Shirako, and W. W. Maddux, "Cultural Variance in the Interpersonal Effects of Anger in Negotiations," *Psychological Science* 21, no. 6 (2010): 882–89.

[78] P. D. Trapnell and D. L. Paulhus, "Agentic and Communal Values: Their Scope and Measurement," *Journal of Personality Assessment* 94 (2012): 39–52.

[79] C. T. Kulik and M. Olekalns, "Negotiating the Gender Divide: Lessons from the Negotiation and Organizational Behavior Literatures," *Journal of Management* 38 (2012): 1387–415.

[80] C. Suddath, "The Art of Haggling," *Bloomberg Businessweek* (November 26, 2012): 98.

[81] J. Mazei, J. Hüffmeier, P. A. Freund, A. F. Stuhlmacher, L. Bilke, and G. Hertel, "A Meta-Analysis on Gender Differences in Negotiation Outcomes and Their Moderators," *Psychological Bulletin* 141, no. 1 (2015): 85–104.

[82] Ibid.

[83] L. J. Kray, C. C. Locke, and A B. Van Zant, "Feminine Charm: An Experimental Analysis of Its Costs and Benefits in Negotiations," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 38 (2012): 1343–57.

[84] S. de Lemus, R. Spears, M. Bukowski, M. Moya, and J. Lupiáñez, "Reversing Implicit Gender Stereotype Activation as a Function of Exposure to Traditional Gender Roles," *Social Psychology* 44 (2013): 109–16.

[85] D. A. Small, M. Gelfand, L. Babcock, and H. Gettman, "Who Goes to the Bargaining Table? The Influence of Gender and Framing on the Initiation of Negotiation," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 93, no. 4 (2007): 600–13.

[86] D. T. Kong, K. T. Dirks, and D. L. Ferrin, "Interpersonal Trust within Negotiations: Meta-Analytic Evidence, Critical Contingencies, and Directions for Future Research," *Academy of Management Journal* 57 (2014): 1235–55.

[87] G. R. Ferris, J. N. Harris, Z. A. Russell, B. P. Ellen, A. D. Martinez, and F. R. Blass, "The Role of Reputation in the Organizational Sciences: A Multilevel Review, Construct Assessment, and Research Directions," *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management* 32 (2014): 241–303.

[88] R. Zinko, G. R. Ferris, S. E. Humphrey, C. J. Meyer, and F. Aime, "Personal Reputation in Organizations: Two-Study Constructive Replication and Extension of Antecedents and Consequences," *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 85 (2012): 156–80.

[89] A. Hinshaw, P. Reilly, and A. Kupfer Schneider, "Attorneys and Negotiation Ethics: A Material Misunderstanding?," *Negotiation Journal* 29 (2013): 265–87; and N. A. Welsh, "The Reputational Advantages of Demonstrating Trustworthiness: Using the Reputation Index with Law Students," *Negotiation Journal* 28 (2012): 117–45.

[90] J. R. Curhan, H. A. Elfenbein, and X. Heng, "What Do People Value When They Negotiate? Mapping the Domain of Subjective Value in Negotiation," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 91 (2006): 493–512.

[91] W. E. Baker and N. Bulkley, "Paying It Forward vs. Rewarding Reputation: Mechanisms of Generalized Reciprocity," *Organization Science* 25 (June 17, 2014): 1493–510.

[92] G. A. Van Kleef, C. K. W. De Dreu, and A. S. R. Manstead, "An Interpersonal Approach to Emotion in Social Decision Making: The Emotions as Social Information Model," *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 42 (2010): 45–96.

[93] F. Lumineau and J. E. Henderson, "The Influence of Relational Experience and Contractual Governance on the Negotiation Strategy in Buyer–Supplier Disputes," *Journal of Operations Management* 30 (2012): 382–95.

[94] U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, http://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/mediation/qanda.cfm, accessed June 9, 2015.