



Behaviour Influences Behaviour



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1. Learning Log

Notes for keeping track of ideas, insights, actions, reminders, questions, references, reflections and things to do

Learning Legacy Document

2. What makes us take Risks?

At some point in our lives we all take risks, some of them can have more extreme consequences than others. When we consider risk-taking behaviour, there are for general categories that we can use to identify why it is that we've taken that particular risk.

KNOWLEDGE

There are times that will take the risk just because it's fun. Have you ever considered doing anything that is inherently risky just because you will get a buzz from it? Have you ever ridden a bicycle more quickly than felt comfortable? Have you ever approached a member of the opposite sex to try and get a date, risking rejection? We do consider that taking the risk is worth the consequence and as such we've already considered the consequences before undertaking the activity.



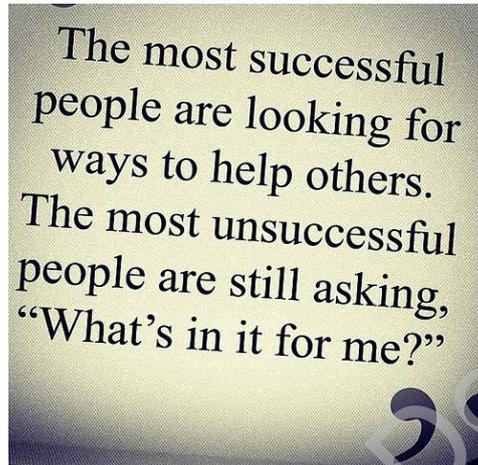
EXPERIENCE

How often have we heard the phrase I've always done it like that, it's never hurt me before? We use our experiences to assess whether or not a particular risk is something that we will undertake without any perceived consequences occurring. There have been many instances where people who had previously positive experiences have been caught out as a result of taking the risk just because nothing has ever happened before. Examples of this may include not wearing a hard hat on a construction site or not wearing hearing protection as previously the hearing hasn't been affected.



MOTIVATION

There are times when there is a huge personal payoff when we take a risk. During the workshop we may have discussed how, when we're trying to get somebody to change their behaviour, we ask them to think of what they would do if it was their family in the situation that was potentially harmful. Conversely, there are things that we may do for our family or friends that would include great risk. We may run across the road to prevent them being injured, we may lend large amounts of money and our motivation is simply to help as best we can.

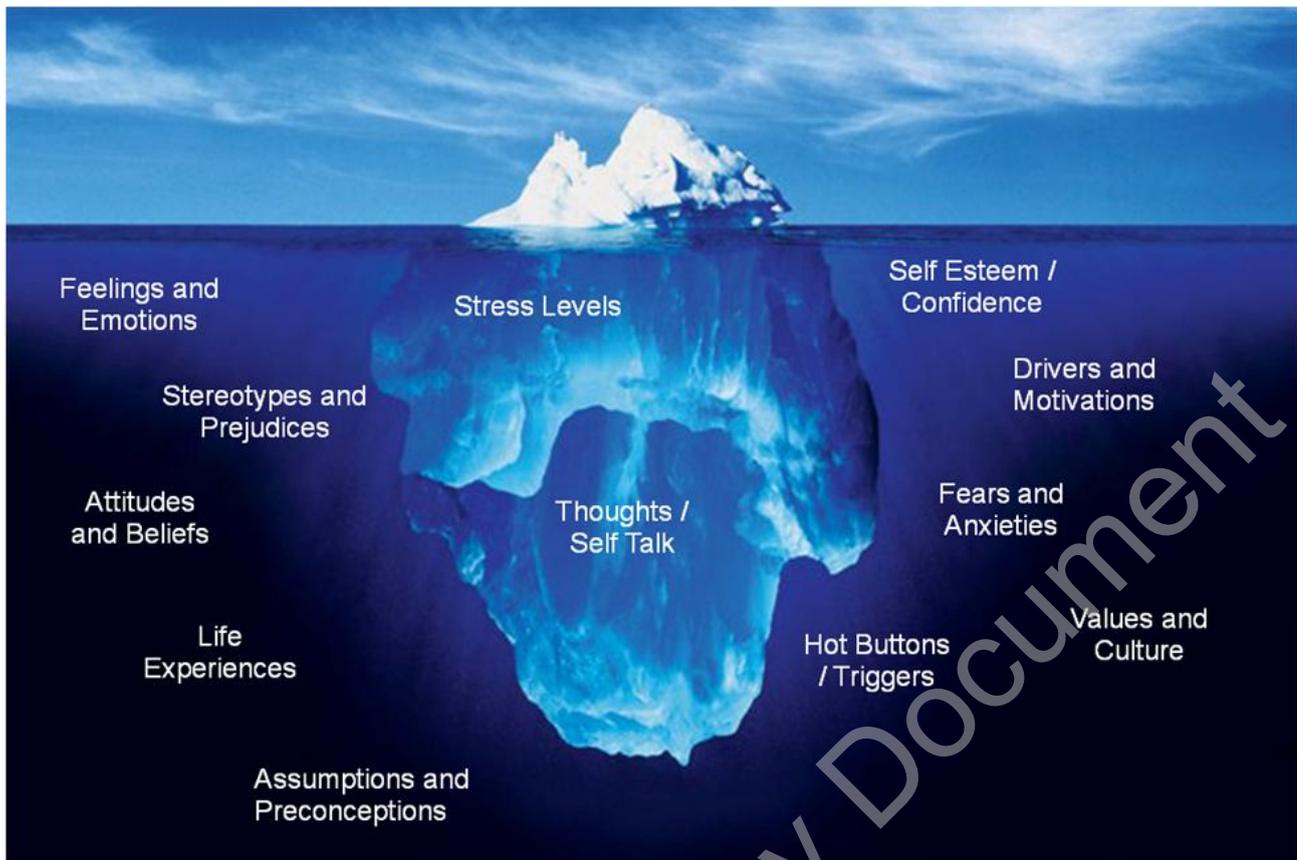


ERROR

The person who doesn't make mistakes has yet to be born, yet alone make it through the education system and into the workforce. We all make mistakes; some of them expose us to greater risks than others. We all get tired, we all get distracted and when these things happen we tend to make more errors than normal. Sometimes we have to accept that an accident or incident is just the result of an error, learn from it and move on.



3. The Behaviour Iceberg



One interesting fact about icebergs is that only 10 – 20% of them are visible above the surface – the vast majority is hidden below. People are exactly the same. What we see is what people say and do (their words, deeds and behaviours), but these are driven by what goes on underneath the surface.

So far as others are concerned, you are your behaviour – they cannot observe your underlying thoughts, motives, attitudes or feelings. However what is going on 'under the surface' will have a major impact on what you say and do 'above the surface'.

Activity

Consider the characters in the scenario. What did you see / hear above the surface?

What 'below the surface' aspects might have influenced this?

4. The Milgram Experience



From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

The Milgram experiment on obedience to authority figures was a series of social psychology experiments conducted by Yale University psychologist Stanley Milgram. They measured the willingness of study participants to obey an authority figure who instructed them to perform acts conflicting with their personal conscience. Milgram first described his research in 1963 in an article published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* and later discussed his findings in greater depth in his 1974 book, *Obedience to Authority: An Experimental View*.

The experiments began in July 1961, in the basement of Linsly-Chittenden Hall at Yale University, three months after the start of the trial of German Nazi war criminal Adolf Eichmann in Jerusalem. Milgram devised his psychological study to answer the popular question at that particular time: "Could it be that Eichmann and his million accomplices in the Holocaust were just following orders? Could we call them all accomplices?" The experiments have been repeated many times in the following years with consistent results within differing societies, although not with the same percentages around the globe.

If you would like to see the full video for the Milgram experiment 1990, it is as follows: <https://youtu.be/4b7YFtiE5EA>

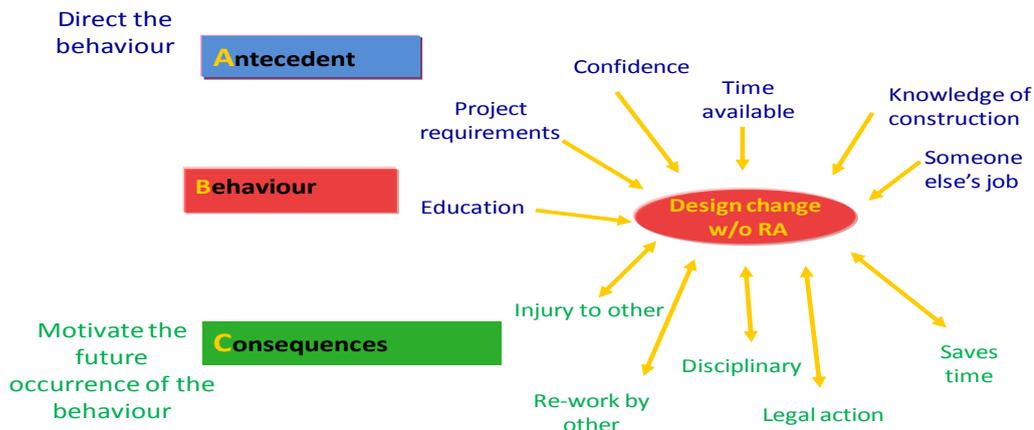
Activity

What influence do you exert over others?

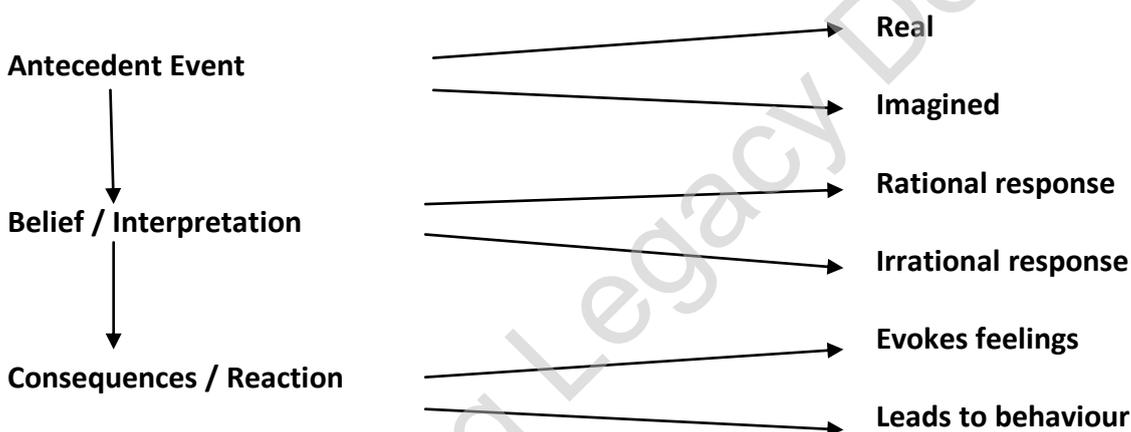
What influence do you have over what happens onsite?

5. The ABCDE Model

Technical Example



The Dynamics of Emotion



As the Greek philosopher Epictetus said. *People are disturbed not only by things, but by the views they take of them.* What this means is that you can choose how you see a situation. Remember, our beliefs, values, drivers and the rules we live by create our map of reality. If we can begin to recognise the way in which we delete, distort and discount important information, and make decisions on the basis of little real evidence (simply our own perceptions) we can begin to see how much of our emotional life is influenced by our map of the world. You can change your interpretation of what you see and you can change your responses to it. No one can make us feel anything.

To change your thinking, you add D and E, so it becomes the **ABCDE model**

- A = Antecedent event
- B = Beliefs, values, interpretation
- C = Consequences
- D – Disputing beliefs
- E – Effective approach

6. Influencing Techniques

Much of what is included here looks at responses that human beings are almost programmed to make. In a busy, complicated world, we can't evaluate everything before we make a decision, so we take short cuts and use 'automatic' behaviour: we use rules of thumb, stereotypes, and previous experience to help us make decisions and responses. On the whole, these shortcuts work well for us and help us make quick, sound decisions.

People will take more time to respond when they have both the desire and ability to analyse a situation carefully. On the whole, if an issue is very important to us we don't just rely on shortcuts. But this isn't always true: there are several examples of air accidents where the First Officer has compliantly done what the Captain says even though he/she thinks this is a mistake. The shortcut says 'He's the expert and he's in authority, so I'll do what he thinks is best.'

The techniques we will look at here are ones that we need to be aware of but also treat with caution. Taken too far, they can be used to manipulate people. Used well and with respect, they can help negotiations and help us to influence our stakeholders. These techniques are based on research of many years - much of this work conducted by Professor Robert Cialdini, a social psychologist based in the USA and a recognised expert on influencing.

1. Vision, enthusiasm and emotion
2. Expertise, authority and power
3. Reciprocation
4. Commitment and consistency
5. Social proof / people like me
6. Liking and rapport
7. Scarcity and contrast



6.1 Vision, Enthusiasm and Emotion

Vision and Enthusiasm



We can't all be Martin Luther King, Gandhi or Nelson Mandela but what we do all need to persuade people is to have a clear sense of purpose and enthusiasm for that purpose.

Who are the people you can think of inside or outside work that have that clear sense of purpose – that vision of what they are trying to achieve?

Think about your work:

- Do you have a clear sense of what you are trying to do with each stakeholder?
- What outcome are you after?
- How would your stakeholders say you come across? Enthusiastic? Passionate about what you do? Committed?

Vision/Enthusiasm is a powerful influencer - people warm to enthusiasm. However, it needs to be treated with caution; too much enthusiasm can be a turn off and can alienate if the other person has a very different perspective.

Emotion

Our hearts influence us every bit as much as our heads. Emotions offer you the potential to ingratiate yourself into the positive feelings or goodwill of others. People are more likely to say yes if you are pleasant. Also, it is important to be able to identify and manage your emotions, so that they do not take over any negotiation. There are three specific points to note about the importance of emotions as an influencing technique

- it is possible to manage the emotions displayed to others
- Other people's behaviour can partly depend on the emotions we display – in other words we can manage our heart to influence others' behaviour.
- the skill to use emotions tactically can be learned or acquired

Firstly it is possible to manage the emotions displayed to others. In the book 'The Managed Heart', Arlie Hochschild provides numerous examples of organisations such as Delta Airlines which use certain expressed emotions as criteria for employee selection. Delta wants employees who can keep their smile intact throughout a 15-hour flight or during turbulence. Watch the newscaster on your TV station tonight and see how he or she matches facial expression to suit the news item – sombre for a plane crash, smiling for a royal engagement.

Secondly other people's behaviour can partly depend on the emotions which we display: in other words we can manage our heart to influence others' behaviour. For example, Tidd and Lockard studied the effect of smiling on tips earned by a cocktail waitress who served 48 male and 48 female customers. Although the number of drinks ordered was not affected by smiling, the amount of tips earned was more than doubled when using broad smiles.

Thirdly, the skill to use emotions tactfully can be learned or acquired. It obviously requires a tremendous amount of self-control and restraint, not to mention a keen awareness of what you want to achieve and with whom. Many business executives have trained themselves to become experts at concealing their true emotional feelings.

6.2 Expertise, Authority and Power

Expertise - If someone is perceived to be the expert in something, we are more likely to listen to that person's opinion. I said at the start of this session, that this content was based on research by experts. We have a shortcut: 'If an expert says so, it must be true.' Evidence and logic are also a useful part of expertise – if we have evidence to support our point, it is much stronger than just an opinion.

Authority and Power - There was a well-known experiment at Yale University (Milgram 1974) where people were told to operate a machine that they thought was inflicting pain on someone in the next room. They were instructed to keep turning up the dial. The results were disturbing: about two-thirds of people were willing to inflict large amounts of pain, despite hearing yelps of pain from the adjoining room. Further research showed that people did this because we tend to be obedient when instructed by authority. If someone has power over us (ability to get us a promotion, reward us financially etc), we are more likely to comply.

But one note of caution: strong threats and big rewards undermine our sense of personal responsibility. When the threat or reward has gone, we might well revert to old behaviour. Gaining compliance might help people 'win' in the short term but can be detrimental to good long-term relationships. However, power is not limited to those with position or authority over us.

There are five key 'power levers' that you can call upon:

- **Positional Power** - Authority vested in someone to do the will of a body, linked to reward and discipline
- **Expert Power** - Use of knowledge / expertise relative to others with less knowledge / expertise
- **Political Power** - Strategic relationships, connections, networks, cutting across formal authority
- **Physical Power** - This can be both direct (using your size etc) and indirect (your physical presence)
- **Personal Power** - Power generated by a person's awareness of their needs, wants and feelings

6.3 Reciprocation

The sense of obligation – that we must repay a favour - is very strong in human beings in all societies. If someone invites us to their house, we feel we must invite them to our house. If we feel indebted to them, we are more likely to say yes to them later.

Several years ago a professor tried an experiment. He sent Christmas cards to a sample of complete strangers. Christmas cards came pouring back and the great majority of people who sent him cards didn't ask how they knew one another. They had received a card and so they felt obliged to reciprocate. Think of the free pens and gifts charities send us unsolicited, calling them a 'gift'. This is appealing to our sense of reciprocation

But one thing to be aware of: the person who did the favour keeps the sense of being owed longer than the person who received the favour. So, don't wait months to get the other person to reciprocate

6.4 Commitment and Consistency

We have an overwhelming desire to act consistently with previous commitments we have made to decisions and to people. Personal and interpersonal pressures make us behave in ways which justify these earlier decisions.

We have a desire to be (and to appear to be) consistent with what we have already done. Once we make a decision, and are seen to make a decision or commitment publicly, we will feel pressure from ourselves and from the expectations of others that we will keep to that commitment.

We are more likely to keep to our commitments if we have put them in writing or if we have made those commitments in front of other people: we want to be seen to keep our promises. Commitments last when they are freely chosen – if we feel we have been forced into the commitment or bribed to make it, the commitment might well not last (this is true of adults and children).

In summary, to make commitments stick, they have to be:

1. Active
2. Public
3. Effortful (the greater the effort to eg join a club, the more we value that club)
4. Freely chosen (because we accept responsibility for our behaviour when we think we have chosen to perform it – that we didn't do it because of some outside threat or incentive. Strong threats and big rewards undermine our sense of personal responsibility. When the threat or reward has gone, we might well revert to old behaviour. This is true of children too, so there are some interesting implications for parents...

6.5 Social Proof / People Like Me

This influencing principle is about the fact that we often decide what is 'correct' behaviour based on what people other people do, particularly people who are like us. Other people's behaviour is a strong influence on our behaviour (even though when asked if we are influenced by others' behaviour, we deny it and most probably are unaware of it). As a rule, it normally works well for us and we will make fewer mistakes.

Professor Cialdini did an experiment in a hotel. He and his team created different signs: sign one was the typical sign we see, asking people to help protect the environment by re-using their towels; sign two said that most other guests who had stayed in the hotel had reused their towels. This led to 26% more people re-using their towels than sign one.

Sign three stated that the majority of people who had stayed in this room had re-used their towels, and this increased re-use by 33%. Buskers will put £1 coins into their hats to suggest £1 is OK, 20p is not. Children in Need constantly tell us how much people have donated, The National Trust proclaims '3.5m members'.

Social proof is particularly influential when people are unsure – if they are not sure what decision to make, they are more likely to be interested in what choice others have made. Likewise, relying on others is especially important when things are ambiguous.

When you join a new company, for example, you have no idea how to behave, what the culture is, how you are expected to do your job. A salesman might not know whether the sales culture is concerned with ruthless, non-repeat business where corners will be cut with customers, or whether the culture is all to do with long-term customer relationships built on mutual trust. In such situations, we watch what others do and say, rather than rely on the formal job description.

Advertisements will often use socially acceptable celebrities to prove that their product is similarly acceptable. Cloakroom attendants will often leave money in a tray on the counter as proof of the acceptability of tipping them.

Recent findings

Pfeffer highlights three major implications of the principle of social proof for influencing others at work.

- (1) It is absolutely crucial to manage the information environment at work. This can be achieved in a number of ways. Firstly get in early on any decision making process. Once a consensus begins to develop around a particular issue, it is very difficult to change it, not only because people become committed to that particular position as we saw earlier, but also because the act of agreement makes every individual believe that his or her position is right.
- (2) Many managers tend to think that organisational decisions are made rapidly. In actual fact, the principle of social proof suggests that decisions unfold over a period of time as consensus develops. So rather than trying to gain immediate agreement, it is probably better to pursue a strategy, which moves toward a particular view.
- (3) It is wise to have the maximum number of allies and supporters to provide you with the social proof and consensus which you need to influence a particular situation. It is essential that you get everyone to take for granted the correctness of your position and that you are able to cite many others who share your point of view.



6.6 Liking and Rapport

This is probably the most obvious one: we are more likely to say 'yes' to people we like. Building strong relationships takes time. It links closely to the previous technique (social proof / people like me), as we tend to like people who we think are like us or because they come from similar backgrounds or we have interests in common. Liking is used in a myriad ways to get us to comply with requests and Cialdini identifies certain key factors upon which liking is based, including:

Social similarity - We tend to like people who resemble us and from the same social category or group – Robert Maxwell changed his eastern European name to become more socially acceptable to the British business establishment. Even dress can be important in influencing others to agree with our requests – many organisations actively encourage their employees to project a particular image to the outside world – Coopers and Lybrand for instance, expects its consultants to wear navy or dark grey suits and white shirts or blouses to promote a safe conservative image

Physical attractiveness - Attractive people are more liked and likeable – Hillary Clinton dropped the image of the intellectual feminist lawyer to metamorphose into the glamorously successful wife and mother to influence voters in her husband's favour. Physical attractiveness combined with positive association and particularly flattery (more on these later), are very potent weapons in any attempt to influence the behaviour of others.

Compliments and flattery - We like those people who like us and who express positive sentiments toward us – Mrs Thatcher was apparently heavily influenced by those ministers such as Cecil Parkinson who lavished compliments upon her. One of the more subtle but effective forms of flattery is being responsive and attentive to others. When this attentiveness is shown by someone who is higher in rank or status, it conveys the flattering impression that your feelings are important enough to concern that person. Think how flattered you feel when somebody superior to you remembers an important detail of your life.

Contacts and cooperation - We tend to like people whom we know well, particularly if we cooperate with them on a common task or toward a common goal which allows positive feelings to develop. This was clearly identified in the experimental work of the leading social psychologist Mazafer Sherif and his associates. In a boys' summer camp, Sherif and his colleagues first created conflict by letting the boys choose different names for their two groups, by assigning the groups to different residence cabins and by introducing competitive activity. To bring the two groups back together the psychologists devised tasks that required cooperation in order to achieve some mutually desirable goal. Successful joint efforts toward common goals steadily bridged the rift between the two groups.

Contact and familiarity can also produce liking – just as we tend to like familiar surroundings, we also tend to like people who are familiar to us. Research from head hunters on senior executive recruitment projects shows that two thirds of senior appointments have an existing point of contact with the company which is recruiting – whether as consultants or via networks developed through joint ventures, conferences and so on. Various kinds of pleasure also tend to produce liking – for example the frequent experience of sharing a pleasant business lunch or a convivial round of golf can evoke feelings of liking as well as the norm of reciprocity.

Association with positive things - We like the bearers of good news and dislike the messengers of bad. Margaret Thatcher was considered to hold Lord Young as her favourite businessman because he always brought the solutions and not the problems.

The liking and rapport principle has multiple implications for influencing others in the flatter organisations of the 21st century where persuasion, not hierarchy, is more critical in the exercise of power. Research advises that the most significant implication is that managers who are warmer and more empathetic will have an easier time influencing others than the tough, macho manager.

This principle also highlights the importance of having a good understanding of yourself so that you can begin to work on presenting an image and on employing techniques which will successfully influence your target. In addition the principle accentuates the importance of assessing your target accurately so that you press the correct buttons to influence successfully. We will look at a number of techniques for building rapport later in this pack,

6.7 Scarcity and Contrast

Nearly all of us are susceptible to the scarcity principle: opportunities or objects feel more valuable to us the less they are available. Sales people frequently use this as a tactic. Using a 'deadline tactic' ('just two days left') is a technique that is commonly used too – shops stating that an offer will only be available for so many days, a stately home that only opens its doors to the public once or twice a year.

Another point to note here is that we tend to react more to the potential loss of something than the opportunity to gain something. So in the sales arena, exclusive offers, limited bargains and special editions are all used to entice customers to buy.

Think of the example of a phone ringing when you are midway through an interesting face to face conversation. You inevitably answer the unknown telephone caller, because the caller has a scarcity value which your face to face partner does not possess. You feel unable to ignore the telephone and risk missing for good the information which might have been brought.

The main implication of the scarcity principle for using influence at work is to apply a degree of scarcity to your proposal - whatever you propose should always appear to be scarce, not available indefinitely or to be on the point of being snapped up by somebody else. To succeed in job hunting, for example, you are well-advised always to present an image of being in demand from other organisations, which are pressing you for a quick decision.

Scarcity can also apply to pricing: as the economists have it, price is an indicator of quality. This means that the higher the price, the more precious and desirable your product will seem. Marketing theory suggests that you should always raise the price of the products you are about to kill off – sales often increase in the product's last death rattle. A further example can be seen in the field of consultancy – if a consultant's daily fee is very low, the company seeking to retain a consultant may make the shortcut judgement that the consultant's quality standard is equally low.

The second aspect here is the contrast principle and will use an example from Cialdini to explain. He was offered a \$10 ticket to a scout event by a boy, but Cialdini didn't want it. The boy asked him in that case to at least buy a \$1 chocolate bar. Cialdini firstly felt obliged to buy the cheaper chocolate bar (even though he didn't like chocolate). More importantly, he was offered the more costly item first so that the second item \$1, seems cheap. This is a useful principle to remember when putting proposals with cost implications: put the most expensive option first.

In addition, we see and experience the present in terms of the past, which provides us with a ready-made tool to evaluate the present proposal, event or person. During a selection interview, for example, the way in which we evaluate candidate B's performance will be significantly determined by the performance of the previous candidate A. If candidate A performed excellently, then a reasonable performance from candidate B would by contrast be rated far lower than it was in reality.

The contrast principle is often used to good effect in sales situations. If a person comes into a clothing shop to buy a suit and a sweater, the experienced salesman will sell the suit first. Having purchased the more expensive item, the customer will then see the sweater – even an expensive sweater – as being comparatively inexpensive. Conversely, if the less expensive item is presented first, the contrast principle suggests that the more expensive item will seem even more costly by comparison.

The implications of the contrast principle for influencing are clear. When we present a proposal, we should always carefully consider how favourably or unfavourably it will compare in the mind of the target with his or her previous experiences. Agenda setting is therefore very important.

7. Learning Review

What areas/behaviours do you want to change in yourself or others?

What are your key learning points from this programme?

What actions will you take to positively influence the behaviours of others?