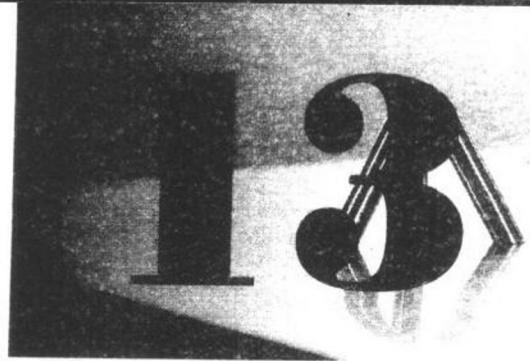MODULE

13

Managing FOR THE Future
Organizational Behavior & Processes

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▶ # Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems

世界财经与管理教材大系

—— 内容提要 ——

本书是美国一流大学——麻省理工学院斯隆管理学院管理专业"组织管理与组织行为学"课程的标准教材。它采用模块式的结构，分13个专题讲述了组织管理与组织行为学主要领域的核心内容，因其代表了麻省理工学院管理学领域的"嫡系真传"而备受推崇，成为世界许多一流名校管理专业、MBA项目的首选教材或必备读物。

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MODULE 13

Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems

Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems: Module Overview

The purposes of this module are to:

1. Discuss the key concepts and processes managers will need to know to manage negotiations and conflict resolution effectively in both informal and formal processes.

2. Describe state-of-the art systems for resolving disputes in organizations.

3. Provide opportunities to apply these concepts and systems in exercises designed around disputes that are typical of individual, intergroup, and interorganizational negotiations and conflict resolution situations.

This module builds on the material discussed in the section of Module 2 called "The Organization as a Political System." Since the basic concepts underlying negotiations theories and dispute resolution system design are introduced there, it might be helpful to review that reading before exploring the material covered here.

Employment disputes are the single most frequent area for the use of alternative dispute resolution procedures. Once these skills are developed and experience is gained with a dispute resolution system, those skills and processes can be transferred to intergroup or interorganizational negotiations and conflict resolution arenas as well. We therefore include three exercises in this module: one dealing with an individual employee-manager dispute; a second, cross-firm product and service contract negotiations; and a third that focuses on cross-cultural negotiations.

FIT WITH THE FRAMEWORK ON THE ORGANIZATION OF THE FUTURE

As illustrated in Figure 13.1, this module focuses on the negotiation skills individuals will need in the organization of the future. But it takes a stronger stand. It stakes out the view that the organization of the future will need organizational systems and capabilities to manage and resolve conflicts. The increased diversity, the global scope of organizational activity, and the more equally distributed power that comes with a flat organizational structure all increase the likelihood of conflict and the need for skills and systems in negotiations and conflict resolution.

The material in this module also relates to important issues in managing the external environment of organizations, particularly the relation of the organization to its multiple stakeholders and the formation and management of alliances with organizations within and across cultures. Each time an organizational boundary is crossed, new interests are encountered that must be accommodated. The readings in this module provide the basic concepts and tools needed to analyze

FIGURE 13.1 FRAMEWORK FOR UNDERSTANDING THE ORGANIZATION OF THE FUTURE

Organizational Characteristics / Organizational Challenges	Developing Individual Skills	Managing the Organization	Managing the Environment
• NETWORKED	Teamwork	Team Structure	Alliances Cooperation/ Competition
• FLAT	Negotiation	Incentives/ Careers	Boundaries
• FLEXIBLE	Multitasking	Workforce Management	Learning
• DIVERSE	Listening/ Empathy	Conflict Resolution	Stakeholders
• GLOBAL	Cross-Cultural Communication	Cross-Border Integration	Local Responsiveness

Note: Shaded areas are the skills emphasized in this module.

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these situations, and the exercises provide hands-on opportunities to experience them in action.

Readings

"Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems." Also, review or reread "The Organization as a Political System," from Module 2.

Jeanne M. Brett, Stephen B. Goldberg, and William L. Ury, "Managing Conflict: The Strategy of Dispute Resolution Design," *Business Week Executive Briefing Service*, 6, 1994, 1–19.

Ron Wilensky and Karen M. Jones, "Quick Response: Key to Resolving Complaints," *HR Magazine*, March 1994, 42–47.

Sybil Evans, "Doing Mediation to Avoid Litigation," *HR Magazine*, March 1994, 49–51.

Stephen E. Weiss, "Negotiating with 'Romans' — Part 2," *Sloan Management Review*, Spring 1994, 85–99.

Exercises

1. Case: "Statego Aero-I," Mary Rowe, MIT Sloan School of Management, 1995.

2. Case: "Pacific Intermodal and New Type Twistlock"

3. Case: "Alpha-Beta: Alpha, Inc."

The introductory note, "Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems" (pages 5–18), presents some basic conceptual building blocks needed to analyze any setting in which parties with different interests interact. The three readings that follow the introductory note then give more specific examples of how these generic concepts are applied in organizational interactions. The Brett, Goldberg, and Ury paper outlines the generic issues to consider in designing dispute resolution systems, and the two readings from *HR Magazine* describe a system in action at the Marriott Corporation. Stephen Weiss's article takes us into the world of cross-cultural negotiations and provides a template for deciding whether to "do as the Romans do" by adapting the negotiating protocols of a local culture, to stick with one's own style, or to try out a hybrid approach.

The Statego Aero-I case describes an interpersonal dispute that, if not handled effectively, could result in the loss of a promising future leader and/or a valued and needed experienced senior executive, and could easily escalate into a costly legal battle for the individuals and organization involved. We are asked in this case to advise a corporate manager on how to work through the issues involved and how to insure that similar situations are not allowed to escalate to this point in the future.

The second case, Pacific Intermodal, is an interorganizational (also cross-cultural) dispute involving two firms that have entered into a long-term contract with potential for mutual gains. The third case, Alph-Beta, is a negotiation between two companies from different cultures over the transfer of a technology that likewise could result in joint gains for both.

The second and third cases offer opportunities to experience the negotiations process first hand through role-play exercises. In the end, this is the best way both to develop the skills managers/negotiators will need in the organization of the future and to gain an appreciation for the importance of approaching these issues

with a clear conceptual understanding of the dynamics of negotiations and conflict resolution processes.

ADDITIONAL READINGS AND SOURCES

There are numerous "how-to-negotiate your way to success" type books on the shelves of any airport bookstore. Most of these are simple applications of the concepts discussed in this module and few are worth reading. To further develop one's skills and knowledge in this area, it is much better to participate in workshops at which the skills are taught through hands-on exercises. Most business schools hold such summer courses. MIT, for example, has a summer workshop on negotiations run by two of the country's leading negotiations experts, Robert McKersie and Mary Rowe. The Harvard Program on Negotiations at the Harvard Law School runs workshops and courses that use these concepts throughout the year. The Harvard program also serves as a clearinghouse for a large number of negotiations and conflict resolution cases. An annotated bibliography of the available cases can be obtained from the program on negotiations.

For additional reading, consider Roger Fisher and William Ury, *Getting to Yes*, New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1981. This book applies the basic concepts on distributive and integrative bargaining first developed in Richard E. Walton and Robert B. McKersie, *A Behavioral Theory of Labor Negotiations*, New York: McGraw Hill, 1965.

For a recent book that links organizational change to negotiations theory and practice, see Richard E. Walton, Joel Cutcher-Gershenfeld, and Robert B. McKersie, *Strategic Negotiations*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 1995.

Negotiations and Conflict Resolution Systems

> As conflict—difference—is here in the world, as we cannot avoid it, we should, I think, use it. Instead of condemning it, we should set it to work for us.
> —Mary Parker Follett, "Constructive Conflict," 1925.

OVERVIEW[1]

Negotiations used to be thought of as a set of skills needed by labor-relations professionals, purchasing agents, and other "boundary spanners," that is, individuals who represented their organization in dealings with others (Thompson, 1967; Aldrich, 1979). More recently, managers have realized that negotiations and conflict resolution are key skills in a wide range of managerial activities. This is why courses on negotiations are in increasing demand in universities and executive training programs. The organization of the future will, however, have to go farther than simply training *individual* managers in the techniques of negotiations. It will need to design *systems* for managing negotiations and resolving conflicts and empower the *full range* of organizational participants to use them effectively.

This module, therefore, uses the concepts introduced in Module 2 devoted to the political perspective on organizations to take this next step—to suggest how negotiations and conflict resolution systems can contribute to the successful management of the organization of the future. The exercises included in this module then provide opportunities to apply these ideas in simulated negotiations and conflict management settings typical of today's and tomorrow's organizational interactions.

NEGOTIATIONS, CONFLICT RESOLUTION SYSTEMS, AND THE ORGANIZATION OF THE FUTURE

The political perspective on organizations sees most organizational interactions as negotiations—settings where individuals or groups with a mixture of common and conflicting interests attempt to resolve their differences and search for common ground and mutual gains. But few organizations consciously train their members or design organizational processes to *encourage and manage* negotiations and conflict resolution systems. Yet the organization of the future will encounter more and more situations for which such skills and systems will be needed.

Theories of conflict normally start, for example, with a simple proposition: The greater the diversity in goals, perceptions, cognitive frameworks, or cultural assumptions, the greater the potential for conflict. That was the main point made by Mary Parker Follett, quoted above. Follett was a management consultant, activist, and now highly renowned theorist from the early part of this century whose

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writings were largely ignored by the more established male academics who domi-
nated management research and teaching at the time (Graham, 1995). She was
among the first to suggest that diversity—in gender, race, national culture, organ-
izational role, or economic interest—all increase the potential for conflict and for
creativity and social progress in and among organizations. Managing diversity re-
quires, as a first step, acknowledging, understanding, and accepting the legitimacy
of these differences. Then, in Follett's words, the differences can be put "to work
for us."

Globalization of organizational activity, along with movement toward net-
worked organizations through use of strategic alliances, contingent employment
relationships, and so forth, increase the number of interactions among organiza-
tions and interest groups that must work together while maintaining their sepa-
rate identities and achieving their separate goals. These are classic examples of
mixed-motive situations, that is, interactions in which the participants have dis-
tinct and partially conflicting goals but also share a set of common objectives
(Walton and McKersie, 1965). Effective management of mixed-motive interac-
tions can produce mutual gains, or, as negotiations literature refers to it, "win-
win" outcomes. But failure to manage these effectively produces either win-lose or
even worse, lose-lose results.

Flatting hierarchies implies diffusing power more widely throughout the organi-
zation, "empowering" lower-level employees to make decisions and giving more
organizational members the ability to challenge the views or decisions of higher-
level managers. A second proposition in conflict theory is that the more equally
power is distributed in relationships, the more likely conflicts of interests or goals
(which in unequal power relationships tend to get suppressed) are likely to surface
as open conflicts (Schmidt and Kochan, 1972). Sharing power, therefore, requires
acknowledging the increased potential for conflict and increases the importance
of conflict management and resolution procedures and skills.

Indeed, allowing differences in interest to surface and be addressed is essential
to the health of any organization or group process. Some degree of conflict and
tension is essential to achieving change in any setting. This is especially true for
changes that question or challenge prevailing norms, cultures, and strategies. Yet
conflict that is not effectively managed and resolved can also impede change by
producing impasses, tensions, and communications breakdowns. This is why we
stress skills in conflict management and systems for resolving mixed-motive inter-
actions.

The failure of organizations to cope with legitimate differences in interest and
to resolve conflicts imposes costs not only on the individuals and organizations in-
volved but on society as well. Most laws that regulate business practices (e.g., an-
titrust, patents and copyrights, employment and labor laws, environmental pro-
tection) are designed to limit the costs, borne by the general public or by
individuals, of the failure of markets or organizations to resolve differences in in-
terest equitably on their own. Laws and government regulations are needed when
there is a difference between the social and private costs of organizational actions
or when crucial rights are endangered and there is a serious imbalance of power
between or among organizations and others affected by the organization's actions.

The problem is that governments cannot efficiently or effectively regulate or
intervene in the multitude of private organizational transactions without creating
massive bureaucracies and court systems. This is especially true in litigious socie-

ties such as the United States. In the past two decades U.S. federal courts experienced a 400 percent increase in the number of lawsuits filed by individuals claiming discrimination or some other violation of their rights as employees. This is the fastest growing area of legal action in American society. Not surprisingly, it has caught the attention of employers who are upset by their rising legal costs, as well as public policy experts worried about the rising costs of government and the lack of access to equitable and affordable resolution procedures to the parties involved. Thus, there are public policy reasons for organizations to be called upon to resolve more of their differences internally.

In summary, effective management of negotiations and conflict resolution require that skills in negotiation be widely distributed among organizational participants and that conflict resolution systems be available for all to use. In the sections below we first review some basic concepts that apply to any negotiating situation and that need to be taken into account in preparing to negotiate. Then we introduce design principles for conflict resolution systems.

NEGOTIATING IN INTERPERSONAL, GROUP, AND ORGANIZATIONAL SETTINGS

Most models of negotiations and strategies for resolving conflicts grew out of the study of conflicts involving parties with clearly defined identities and differences in goals, in which neither party holds sufficient bargaining power to simply impose a settlement on the other. This is the classic labor-management negotiating situation, but it is also true of most buyer-seller interactions, cross-functional decision-making processes within organizations, strategic alliances among firms, and negotiations between nations.

Effective management of negotiations lies in mapping the factors that will potentially affect the process and outcomes, and in developing a strategy for affecting them. This requires an understanding of one's personal negotiating style or approach to conflict and the goals, power, strategies and tactics, constituencies, and the nature of the relationships involved in a particular situation.

Personal Style
Individuals tend to develop their own "personal style" or approach to negotiations and conflict situations. It is useful to recognize these personal tendencies in oneself and in others involved before beginning a negotiation. Figure 13.2 displays one popular scheme for classifying five different personal modes for approaching conflict: competing, avoiding, compromising, accommodating, and collaborating (Thomas, 1976). Although no particular "style" is superior to others in all settings, recognizing one's personal proclivities makes it possible to think through whether this style fits well with the type of situation or problem involved in a particular interaction.

Goals
A key point for any negotiations is to know what goals one has and how they relate to those of other participants. Is the process likely to be highly *distributive* (i.e., high potential for win-lose outcomes) because the parties' goals are in conflict, or is there potential for *integrative* bargaining (i.e., the search for outcomes that achieve everyone's goals)? Related questions are: What type of *relationship* do the parties want to establish? Do they expect to interact again in the future or

FIGURE 13.2   THE FIVE CONFLICT-HANDLING MODES
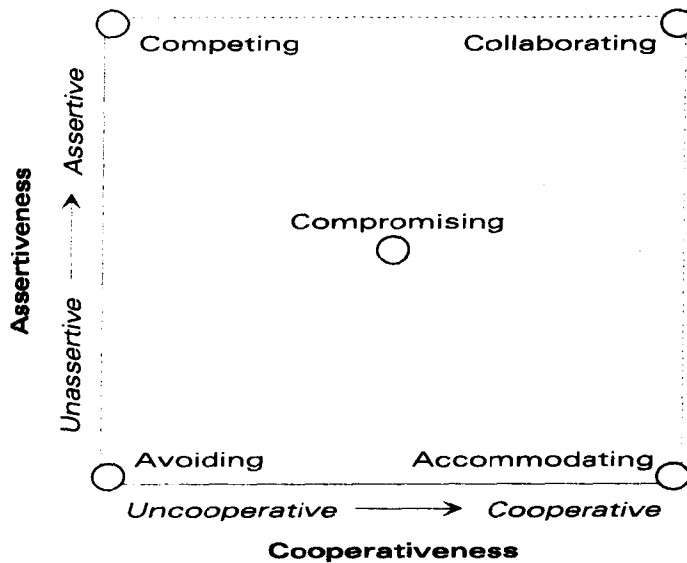
Source: This two-dimensional model of conflict handling behavior is adapted from "Conflict and Conflict Management," in Marvin Dunnette (ed.) *The Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology,* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976).

continuously over time or is this a one-time or "end game" situation? Do they want to use these negotiations to build or improve their relationship on some dimension, such as increasing the level of trust among the parties?

Negotiators are often advised to be more specific about their goals by stating their "target and resistance" points and their "best alternative to a negotiated agreement" (BATNA) (Fisher and Ury, 1981). A target point is an estimate of the most favorable result one might expect to achieve in negotiations, and a resistance point is the bottom-line result beyond which no compromise would be acceptable (Walton and McKersie, 1965). Knowing one's BATNA is helpful in establishing a resistance point since it is the alternative that one has if the negotiations do not produce acceptable results. For example, when buying a car one might narrow the options down to two (but not one) vehicles that would be acceptable. Then when negotiating a final price for one of the cars, the price of the other can serve as the BATNA.

The process many people use to buy a house might illustrate the use of these terms. Normally people have some idea of their "dream" home—the neighborhood, yard, architecture, layout, interior design—that shapes their initial expectations for the house they would like to buy. This general dream is then conditioned by market realities: What would the dream house cost and how much can they afford? Balancing these desires and realities usually results in establishing a range of prices starting at what they would like to pay for a house (target point) and the absolute most they can afford to pay (resistance point).

Sometimes these figures cannot be decided in the abstract. Instead, people need to go out and look at the alternative houses available. After a preliminary search, they might narrow their options down to a small set of particular houses with known asking prices. They might even probe sellers for more information about their particular houses and price expectations, do independent research (e.g., find out what similar homes in the neighborhood have been selling for), or use a third party (a real estate agent) to estimate what a realistic purchase price for several acceptable houses might be. With this information in mind they can determine realistic target and resistance points and their BATNA for any given house on which they decide to make a purchase offer. Going through this mental process *before* starting to negotiate, and being willing to adjust these calculations based on valid information that is communicated in the actual negotiations process, can help to produce results consistent with one's goals and that are realistic, given the alternatives available.

Strategies/Tactics

Although plenty of "how to win at negotiations" books can be found at airport bookstores, there is no "magic bullet" strategy or tactic that can guarantee success. Instead, negotiating strategies and tactics are influenced by a wide variety of environmental, individual, situational, and cultural factors. Entire textbooks are devoted to the analysis of negotiations strategies and conflict management techniques (see, for example, Bazerman and Neale, 1992; Lewicki et al., 1994; Lax and Sebenius, 1986). We can only introduce some of the basic alternative approaches to resolving differences here by focusing on the differences of two ideal types of negotiations strategies: distributive and integrative. Figure 13.3 summarizes some of the key differences between these two approaches to negotiations.

A distributive strategy views the interaction from a win-lose perspective, whereas an integrative strategy views the task as searching for results that leave both parties better off and/or in win-win positions. A distributive strategy often begins in a traditional haggling method of overstating bottom-line positions (resistance points) and by introducing a larger number of proposals or demands to hide what is most important to them. Information is viewed as a source of power to be used selectively and cautiously. Communications must be controlled by choosing a single spokesperson for "across the table" discussions, channeling all formal communications to the opposing party through the spokesperson, and using private caucuses or meetings to air and resolve intraparty conflicts or differences over priorities. The personal relationships are not highly valued in distributive bargaining processes. Bargaining is tough and focused on the issues, or the other party is viewed as the opponent and, if anything, attitudes harden into an "us versus them" mentality. Developing long-term trusting relationships takes on a lower priority than achieving the best "deal." The time horizon most relevant is not the long run but what will result from this immediate negotiation or decision.

Integrative processes, on the other hand, attempt to probe the issues to identify the underlying concerns or interests of each party. Rather than beginning with fixed demands or positions from which each party must move or drop, emphasis is placed on the underlying objectives or expectations (target points) each party brings to the process. To explore alternatives, information is viewed as data to be collected, facts to be gathered and agreed upon, and information to be shared openly in search of alternatives that might address each party's concerns. Com-

FIGURE 12-3 SELECTED TACTICAL ISSUES DISTRIBUTIVE VS INTEGRATIVE

	Distributive Tactics	Integrative Tactics
1. Issues/Positions	Many issues/overstate real position at outset—"demands"	Specific concerns Focus on objectives No final positions
2. Use of Information	Information is power—hold it close—use selectively	Share information openly Treat as data
3. Communication Process	Controlled: Single spokesperson Use of private caucuses to air internal differences and discuss responses	Open: Multiple voices Use of subcommittees
4. Interpersonal Style	Hard Bargaining: Focused on own goals/interest Short run—not concerned about long-term relationships Low trust	Problem Solving: Concern for mutual goals Concerned about long-term relationships High trust

munications are more open, and brainstorming and cross-team dialogues are encouraged. Subcommittees are often formed to explore options on one or more issues in-depth. Problem-solving protocols are used to make decisions, and emphasis is placed on building trust and long-term relationships. How the solutions to this particular set of issues will influence the parties' ongoing relationship is a high-priority concern.

Obviously, few organizational interactions fit either of the ideal types described above. Instead, the art of negotiations lies in finding the right mix of distributive and integrative strategies to fit the situation and the issues involved. A personal style that is too rigidly attached to either ideal type is unlikely to work well in the mix of negotiating situations encountered in different organizational roles. Thus, perhaps the best advice of all is to develop both sets of skills and to explore ways of mixing them together in different settings. For any specific interaction, the challenge then lies in learning as much about the issues, individuals, and options involved and to be as fully prepared as possible to search for alternative ways to meet one's own objectives as well as others' objectives.

Constituents and Intraorganizational Bargaining

Negotiations involving groups or organizations are often more complicated than negotiations between two (or more) individuals. When considering groups, the settlement must be acceptable to parties who often are not present in the actual process. Indeed, a great deal of what occurs in negotiations is often motivated by the need to "play to an audience" or to avoid agreeing to something that will produce an agreement but eventually be judged to be unacceptable by someone with the power to accept or reject the settlement. This is one of the functions of the distributive tactic of introducing a list of proposals that is longer than what can realistically be achieved in the negotiations. Instead of the negotiator saying to a constituent group that some proposal is unrealistic or should be given a low priority, this approach lets the opponent say no and leave the issue on the table until "forced" to drop it in the final stages of compromising to an agreement. Engaging in purely integrative bargaining in situations where there are strong intraparty conflicts or differences in priorities can lead to charges of "selling out" to the other side and result in a rejected agreement or negotiator! Managing intergroup and interorganizational negotiations either as a direct participant or as a third party seeking to facilitate the process, therefore, requires giving special attention to the role of constituents and intraparty differences.

CROSS-CULTURAL NEGOTIATIONS AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Assumptions about negotiations and conflict resolution can vary in important ways across cultures. Sometimes failure to understand these differences leads to communications failures that unintentionally break up the process. When Bridgestone, a leading Japanese tire maker, was negotiating to buy its first plant in the United States, negotiations broke down over a comment American union negotiators made to the Japanese Bridgestone managers. The Japanese took the comment as an indication that the union leaders did not respect them and were not interested in reaching an agreement. The Bridgestone representatives, much to the surprise of the American negotiators, therefore, packed up their materials and returned to Japan certain that no deal was possible. It took the interven-

tion of an American mediator to get things back on track by explaining to the Japanese that the comment "No way we'll ever agree to that bull . . ." was not meant to be a personal insult, was not meant as a final position, and was a "normal" part of the style of negotiations common to American labor relations. The "price" of bringing the Japanese back to the negotiations was an agreement by the Americans to apologize for "having said something that was misunderstood and offensive."

This is a typical example of a breakdown in cross-cultural negotiations because of lack of knowledge of negotiating customs and styles of interaction. Given the increased importance of cross-border alliances and other international experiences, managers need to be sensitive to these cultural differences. Consider the differences, summarized in Figure 13.4, between Arab and Western assumptions regarding conflict and its resolution. According to the author, Paul Salam, Arabs place a higher value on struggle, are more willing to endure physical pain, are suspicious of efforts to focus on common interests because of their history of oppression and powerlessness, and doubt the enforceability of agreements. Failure to understand these cultural features could lead to a failed negotiation or dispute resolution system design. Recognition of the effects of cultural differences on negotiation styles is only the first step in managing cross-cultural negotiations effectively. Choosing and implementing a strategy for such negotiations requires not only assessment of the generic features of negotiations, but also deciding which "cultural" protocol to use in the negotiations. As Stephen Weiss suggests in the reading that follows, the choices range from "When in Rome, do as the Romans do," to insisting on staying within one's own culture, to improvising a protocol that takes into account salient features of all the cultures involved. Choice among these options, in turn, depends on the context of the negotiations—degree of overlap in interests, relative balance of power, expected length of the relationship—and the choices of the other parties to the negotiations. Not surprisingly, the more complex the context and the more power distributed, the more valuable a third party expert can be in helping to structure and manage or mediate the negotiations.

RESOLVING INTRAORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICTS

Most negotiations that managers and employees encounter occur not as part of a formal process but in the context of their everyday work. That is why all organizational members need both individual skills and organizational systems for resolving conflicts with each other, among peers, between supervisors and subordinates, and between individuals and their employers. As a result a growing number of organizations are developing "alternative dispute resolution" (ADR) systems (Westin and Feliu, 1988; Edwards, 1993) and training organizational participants in their use. These systems have the potential to internalize responsibility for resolving problems that involve legal rights and obligations before they turn into court suits or government enforcement actions. They also seek to recognize the diversity of interests found in modern organizations and the need to provide *flexible, multioption* avenues for resolving differences before they escalate into costly win-lose or lose-lose battles (Rowe, 1993).

Figure 13.5 summarizes the key principles that dispute resolution experts advocate building into these systems. Among other things, they stress the need for

FIGURE 13.4 ARAB AND WESTERN ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Virtues of Battle/Peace

Western: Battle is costly; peaceful resolution preferred.

Arab: War is not shameful; peace can be costly; struggle can be a progressive, invigorating, and purifying process.

Utilitarianism Versus Pain

Western: Conflict brings discomfort that can be avoided or eliminated.

Arab: Discomfort and physical suffering are preferable to a loss of honor, loss of face, or perpetuation of an injustice.

Change: Optimistic or Pessimistic Outlook

Western: Change can be managed in ways that make people better off. Success comes through adaptation to or capturing of new technologies, market developments, and so forth. Joint gains are possible.

Arab: The forces of change lie outside one's control. Most changes have made Arabs worse off over time. Conflicts may be inherently unresolvable.

Scientific Versus Moralistic Worldviews

Western: Conflicts can be reduced to objective problems that have objective solutions.

Arab: Conflict may reflect struggles between good and evil. Compromise may imply compromising on deeply held moral principles.

Interpersonal Styles

Western: Informality, personal self-revelation, openness to one's feelings, development of positive interpersonal relationships among parties are to be encouraged. Mediators must be trusted and need to develop informal relationships with the parties.

Arab: Formality and clarity of social roles are important for self-identity and maintaining relationships with negotiating partners and opponents. Authority figures make better mediators than peers or others lacking a formal role.

Agreements

Western: Agreements are to be enforced by law, convention, or specified procedures.

Arabs: Agreements tend to be broken; agreeing to an enforcement procedure implies giving up control over the future.

Source: Paul E. Salam, "A Critique of Western Conflict Resolution from a Non-Western Perspective, *Negotiations Journal, 9,* 1993, pp. 361–369.

(1) managerial practices that eliminate the root causes of problems, such as a hostile workplace environment or adversarial employee-employer relations; (2) informal participatory processes that encourage organizational members to raise and resolve problems close to their source without the need for formal intervention by third parties; and (3) the availability of trained mentors, peers, facilitators, ombudspersons, and, as a last resort, neutral professional mediators or arbitrators from outside the organization.