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SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE CONFLICT NEGOTIATION: EXAMINING THE CORE CONCERNS IN LIGHT OF COMMUNICATION ACCOMMODATION AND GENDER ROLES

by

Piyawan Charoensap-Kelly

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School,
the College of Arts and Sciences
and the School of Communication
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Approved by:

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ABSTRACT

This quasi-experimental study examined a supervisor-subordinate negotiation of an emotion-laden conflict from the lens of the core concerns framework, communication accommodation theory, and gender roles research. Results empirically support CCF that, by accommodating or attending to the employees' core concerns, managers can stimulate employees' positive emotion and integrative intention. However, under- and overaccommodating the core concerns can lead to distributive intention. Additionally, the employees' perception of manager goodwill can strengthen or attenuate the positive effect of core concerns accommodativeness on outcome variables especially for male managers. Thus, moderate accommodation is recommended for male managers. For female managers, the results show that they have more latitude in addressing the core concerns and can reap even greater benefits from using the framework. Theoretically, the findings show that CAT provides a fruitful lens for investigating the core concerns and demonstrates that the degree of accommodativeness affects the efficacy of the core concerns. Practically, the results show that CCF is an effective strategy for handling emotions in negotiation and is worthy of training investment. Future studies with other methodologies are necessary to determine if the findings, especially the surprising positive effects of overaccommodation on positive emotion and integrative intention, are particular to this study or a general phenomenon. Future researchers can also explore a core concerns negotiation in other relationship contexts. Also, other variables that may moderate or mediate between core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes should be further investigated.

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DEDICATION

To my intellectual conversation partner,

My cheerleader,

My personal editor,

My inspiration,

My love for eternity,

I can’t thank you enough for everything you do for me. I am deeply grateful for your love, patience, dedication, and understanding. I truly appreciate your intellectual and emotional support through the ups and downs of my PhD journey especially the last two years. Thank you for listening to my nerdy talks and getting excited about them. Thank you for inspiring and broadening my outlook on life. Thank you for always believing in me more than I believed in myself. It has been a long journey and I am so thankful to have you with me every moment of it.

My Khunmor Robert Kelly, I dedicate this dissertation to you.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAT	Communication Accommodation Theory
CCF	Core Concerns Framework
DUTCH	The Dutch Test for Conflict Handling
SPANE	Scale of Positive and Negative Experience
TMGT	Too-Much-of-a-Good-Thing Perspective

CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

Conflict presents itself as an inevitable aspect of social life and pervades all forms of relationships (Ting-Toomey, Yee-Juang, Shapiro, Garcia, Wright, & Oetzel, 2000). In organizational settings, conflicts may come in the form of role conflicts, supervisor-subordinate disagreements, interdepartmental disputes, or labor-management conflicts (Putnam & Wilson, 1982). CPP, Inc. (2008) surveyed 5,000 full-time employees in nine countries and found that 85% of employees at all levels experience conflict to some degree and U.S. employees spend 2.8 hours per week trying to resolve conflict. This amounted to approximately $359 billion in paid hours in 2008. Kisamore and colleagues (Kisamore, Jawahar, Liguori, Mharapara, & Stone, 2010) reported approximately one-third to over a half of employees in the US workforce are affected by abusive and uncivil behavior at work. More recently, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development's survey found that four in ten UK employees experienced some form of interpersonal conflict at work in 2014 (CIPD, 2015). Most of that conflict occurs between employees and their line managers. Similarly, Ayoko, Callan, and Härel (2003) reported that most respondents (660 employees) in their study perceived their managers as bullies, and higher levels of bullying predicted workplace counterproductive behaviors. Indeed, interpersonal conflicts adversely affect employees' physical health, mental health, and work performance, ultimately leading to negative and costly organizational outcomes (Kisamore, et. al, 2010; CPP Inc., 2008).

Although conflict can lead to negative consequences, it also has many constructive functions such as airing problems and solutions, clarifying individual needs and shared goals, creating new ideas, and improving decisions (Brinkert, 2010; Hocker &

Wilmot, 2014; Nair, 2008; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2006). The same international CPP research (mentioned above) revealed that 76% of all employees in the study have seen conflict lead to a positive outcome, and the figure rose to 81% for U.S. employees (CPP Inc., 2008). In another survey, 87% of HR professionals (n = 357) in Canadian organizations reported they had experienced positive outcomes of workplace conflict, particularly a better understanding of others (77%) (Psychometrics, 2009). Rahim (2017) concluded that too little or too much of conflict are both dysfunctional; a moderate amount of conflict, handled constructively, is critical for attaining and maintaining an optimum level of organizational effectiveness. From the communication perspective, whether a conflict will result in positive or negative consequences depends on how that conflict is managed (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2006). Similar to Rahim's (2017) notion, Oetzel and Ting-Toomey (2006) posited, "If we manage conflict constructively, then we have positive outcomes; if we manage conflicts poorly, we have negative outcomes" (p. xi). Yet, how one can manage conflict constructively is a complex issue involving various factors. One factor that is central to the present study is emotion.

Recent research has shown emotion elicits different conflict behaviors and plays an important role in conflict management and negotiation (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Nair, 2008; Zhang, Andreychik, Sapp, & Arendt, 2014). A host of negative emotions can be activated during a conflict: anger, sadness, fear, contempt, disgust, guilt, to name a few. These emotions can make it difficult for conflict partners to remain rational and resolve conflict constructively. However, positive emotions such as compassion, joy, happiness, and contentment can also lead to empathy and sympathy that facilitate conflict management (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014). As evidence, research has shown that negative

emotion (e.g., anger) increases competitive behavior and decreases integrative behavior, while positive emotion (e.g., compassion) stimulates cooperation and reduces aggressive behavior (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997; Beersma, Harinck, & Gerts, 2003). A critical question is how one can reduce negative emotions and generate positive emotions in a conflict to reach a mutually beneficial outcome. This research focuses on supervisor-subordinate negotiation of emotion-laden conflict with the specific focus on the use of Fisher and Shapiro's (2005) core concerns framework.

Pioneering the inclusion of emotion in conflict resolution, Fisher and Shapiro (2005) developed a strategy called the core concerns framework (CCF) (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014). Fisher and Shapiro posited that one cannot simply ignore one's own or another's emotion and dealing directly with emotion can be overwhelming. They suggested that negotiators focus on five *core concerns* (i.e. basic human wants within a relationship) which include the needs for *appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status,* and a fulfilling *role.* Neglecting any of these core concerns can lead to negative emotions and addressing the core concerns generate positive emotions. By focusing on these five core concerns, negotiators can understand what concerns might have triggered the emotionally-charged conflict and tailor their communication to address those concerns leading to more positive emotions and win-win solutions.

Research problem and purpose

While the core concerns framework is grounded in psychological theories and has been influential in the past decades (Riskin, 2010), little empirical work has investigated to what extent the framework increases positive emotions in negotiations and facilitates integrative behavior, and in what conditions the framework functions most effectively.

The present study seeks to fill this gap and examine factors relating to the implementation of the CCF with the specific focus on conflict negotiation messages between supervisors and subordinates. Guided by the conflict and negotiation literature, communication accommodation theory, and gender role research, this quasi-experimental study examines the interplay of core concerns accommodativeness, gender roles, perceived goodwill, emotion, and intended negotiation behavior. In this research, a *core concerns message* is defined as a message that addresses one or more of the five core concerns underlying a conflict. *Accommodativeness* refers to the extent to which one attends to the core concerns of another during a conflict negotiation. Specifically, the study explores employees' emotional change and intended negotiation behavior when their male versus female managers delivered a core concerns message to them underaccommodatingly, accommodatingly, and overaccommodatingly. The research also examines how employees' perceptions of the managers' goodwill might mediate the effects of the core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes.

Significance of the study

The present investigation is important because it can help operationalize or streamline the core concerns framework. Testing and refining an existing tool is a more cost and time efficient approach than developing a new strategy and running the risk of reinventing the wheel. This research might also provide empirical findings that suggest alternative approaches for dealing with emotion-laden conflicts. More importantly, this research can have large practical implications considering the pervasiveness of conflict in daily organizational life and the constructive outcomes of conflict when managed successfully. It can inform organizations about the workability of the core concerns

framework and the extent to which it is worthy of training investment. It can also inform professional negotiators about how they can use the CCF skillfully. Likewise, the findings can guide training professionals about what to include in a CCF training program so that trainees can apply the CCF competently. Additionally, this study can extend the communication-based conflict literature. Examining a conflict negotiation from the communication perspective can provide a nuanced understanding and "insights into where a conflict interaction goes 'wrong'" (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013, p. 11). Such examinations may help scholars and practitioners better diagnose issues in future supervisor-subordinate conflict situations and manage those conflicts more successfully (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013).

Preview

This dissertation consists of five chapters including this introduction. Chapter two reviews the relevant literature on communication-based conflict management, principled negotiation, core concerns framework, communication accommodation theory, emotion, negotiation behaviors, perceived goodwill, and gender roles. A theoretical model of six hypotheses is drawn from these theories and previous research findings. Chapter three explains in detail the methodology used in this study. Chapter four presents the study results. Chapter five discusses the research findings in terms of their theoretical and practical implications. The study limitations and suggestions for future research are also provided. An overall conclusion of the study is provided at the end.

CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relevant to the variables examined in this study. First, I provide a brief overview of conflict, communication, and emotion to explain where the current research is situated in the broader conflict communication literature. Second, I provide an overview of principled negotiation, the forerunner of the core concerns framework. Third, I explain the core concerns framework and its theoretical underpinnings. Fourth, I describe communication accommodation theory and how it serves as a fruitful lens for examining the outcomes of a core concerns negotiation. Fifth, I delineate emotion in conflict negotiation, intended integrative behavior, and intended distributive behavior as dependent variables. Finally, I explain the role of goodwill and gender as a mediator and moderator, respectively. These variables are used to formulate hypotheses for the current research. I conclude the chapter with a figure of the theoretical model.

Conflict, communication, and emotion

Conflict has been studied by scholars across many disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science, management, and communication. Robbins (1974) presented three philosophies of organizational conflict: *traditional, human relations,* and *interactional.* The traditional philosophy (late 19th century – mid 1940s) viewed conflict as detrimental to organizations, something that must be avoided or eliminated completely. Conflict was assumed to be preventable by designing mechanistic or bureaucratic organization structures (Rahim, 2017). The human relationists (late 1940s – mid 1970s), perceived conflict as natural and inevitable in organizations. The human relationists advocated acceptance of conflict and tried to

manage it by improving the social system of the organization (Rahim, 2017). In the contemporary view, the interactionists (1970s - present) consider conflict to be a positive force and necessary for organizations. Without a conflict, an organization may become stagnant, apathetic, and non-responsive to needs for change and innovation. The interactionists do not propose that all conflicts are good, but an ongoing minimum level of conflict is necessary to keep the organization viable, self-critical, and creative (Robbins, 1974; Robbins, Judge, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2009).

Communication scholars entered the field of conflict theory in the early 1970s, dissatisfied by previous scholars who viewed communication as binary (simply communicate or not communicate) and conflict as entirely destructive (Nicotera, 2009). Particularly, communication theorists challenged game theory's assumption that humans were consistently rational decision makers strategically aiming to maximize gains and minimize losses. Game theory also failed to account for negotiators' psychological make up, interdependent relationships, and interaction processes (Putnam, 2013). Communication scholars emphasize that communication is an essential part of conflict (Putnam, 2013) and treat the message as the primary focus of conflict research and practice (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2013). Communication is the means to enact, express (verbally or nonverbally), manage, and address conflict (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2013). Aligned with the interactionalist philosophy of conflict, communication scholars view conflict as inevitable and necessary for social groups. When managed well, conflict can contribute to creativity, cohesiveness, relational growth, and productivity (Nicotera, 2009). Although many definitions of conflict have emerged (Roloff & Chiles, 2011), conflict communication scholars generally concur that conflict is an *expressed struggle*

between two or more *interdependent* parties who perceive *incompatible goals, scarce resources,* and *interference* from others in achieving their goals (Barki & Harwick, 2004; Folger, Poole, & Stutman, 2009; Putnam, 2013; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014).

With the extensive focus on rationality, emotion has traditionally received little attention from both organizational researchers and conflict researchers (Morris & Keltner, 2000; Nair, 2008). To be a professional, employees have been required to refrain from emotional expression (Jameson, Bodtker, Porch, & Jordan, 2009). The paradigm shifted in the early 2000s when scholars and popular media brought attention to the importance of emotional intelligence, and there has been a surge in emotion and organizational conflict research in recent years (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Claeys, Cauberghe, & Leysen, 2013; Goleman, 1995; Jia, Jiuqing, & Hale, 2017; Kramer & Hess, 2002; Maitlis, Vogus, & Lawrence, 2013; Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007; Mishra, 2012; Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Nair, 2008). Employers now seek people with strong people skills and emotional intelligence is considered necessary for engaging in conflict effectively (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014).

Examining conflict from the communication perspective and acknowledging the critical role of emotion in conflict, this research follows Barki and Harwick's (2004) definition of conflict: "a dynamic process that occurs between interdependent parties as they experience negative emotional reactions to perceived disagreements and interference with the attainment of their goals" (p. 234). In short, this investigation is based on four assumptions: 1) conflict is inevitable in supervisor-subordinate relationships, 2) conflict can lead to negative outcomes when managed poorly and positive outcomes when managed constructively, 3) negative emotions can hinder constructive conflict

negotiation, and 4) communication is key to transforming emotions and negotiating conflict effectively. Despite a rich body of research on the link between emotion and conflict, few studies have explored how to effectively handle negative emotions and stimulate positive emotions during conflict negotiation. Fisher and Shapiro (2005) pioneered this line of research and introduced the core concerns framework in their popular book *Beyond Reason: Using Emotions as You Negotiate.* The book built upon the classic conflict negotiation book *Getting to YES: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In* which formed a foundation for principled negotiation (Fisher & Ury, 1981; Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011). To understand the development of the core concerns framework, an explanation of principled negotiation is in order.

Principled negotiation

In principled negotiation, the needs of both parties are considered in order to reach a win-win solution. It is an alternative to the predominant positional negotiation or the fixed-pie approach, in which each party seeks to win at the expense of the other party. Principled negotiation can be used on almost any type of conflict and consists of four aspects: 1) separating people from the problem; 2) focusing on interests rather than positions; 3) generating a variety of options before settling on an agreement, and 4) insisting that the agreement be based on objective criteria.

Separate the people from the problem

The first principle is to separate the people from the issues. People tend to get so emotionally involved with the problem and their positions that they see disagreements with their positions as personal attacks. This leads to adversarial rather than cooperative negotiations. Separating the people from the issues allows the parties to understand each

other's position more clearly and address the issues without damaging their relationship. People problems stem from three basic sources including *perception, emotion,* and *communication*. Because parties often interpret the facts or perceive the problems differently, it is critical for both parties to put themselves in the other's shoes. Rather than blaming each other for the problem and stressing the legitimacy of their own perceptions, each side should put effort into understanding each other's viewpoint and finding a mutual agreement. Additionally, the parties should recognize that emotions such as anger or frustration are common in a conflict. They should allow the other side to express emotions (even when they do not see those feelings as reasonable) and seek to understand the source of those emotions. Invalidating another's feelings or reacting emotionally to emotional outbursts will lead to an even more intense emotional response. Moreover, the parties should employ active listening when communicating with one another. They may occasionally paraphrase each other's statements to make sure they understand each other correctly and use "I" messages (speaking about one's feelings and perspectives) rather than judgmental "you" messages. It is also important to remember that understanding the other's case does not mean agreeing with it.

Focus on interests

The second principle is to focus on interests as opposed to positions. Fisher and Ury explained that every position each party decides upon is motivated by an interest or a reason behind it. While a position involves the question "*what do you want?"*, an interest reveals "*why do you want it?"* Conflicts are difficult to solve when the parties are fixated on the positions. Mutually beneficial solutions are more possible when the real interests of both parties are made known. The authors argued that people share basic human needs

or interests such as the need for security, economic well-being, a sense of belonging, recognition, and a control over one's life. Both parties can gain a better understanding and acknowledgement of each other's interests by 1) asking each other why they hold the position they do and 2) explaining their own interests clearly. The other party will be more likely to consider the interests of the other, when the first party pays a genuine attention to the other side's interests.

Generate options for mutual gain

Although the needs or actual causes of the problems are successfully identified, people might still fail to reach a mutually satisfying solution. The third principle is, therefore, to generate creative options for solving problems. Fisher and Ury suggested the parties must overcome four obstacles including deciding prematurely on an option; seeking the single answer; assuming a win-lose mentality; and thinking the other side must come up with a solution to the problem. There are four strategies for overcoming these obstacles. First, the parties should "invent" options by brainstorming for all possible solutions to the problems. More creative and productive options can be reached by defining the problem, analyzing the causes, considering general approaches, and considering specific actions. Second, the parties can then proceed to evaluate the variety of emergent ideas, starting with the most promising ones and refining them. Third, the parties should focus on mutual gain by establishing shared interests. Finally, each side should make proposals that "are of low cost to you and high benefit to them, and vice versa" (p. 79). The key to convincing the other side to agree is to make their decision an easy one to make.

Using objective criteria

The final principle is to use objective criteria or reasonable standards to resolve differences. Objective criteria could be, for example, market value, industry standards, legal precedent, reciprocity, or efficiency. There are three points to remember when using objective criteria. First, before deciding on a solution, the parties should agree on which particular criteria will be best for their situation. Explore the reasoning behind the other party's suggestions. One party can persuade the other more effectively when using the reasoning the second party proposed. Second, each party must be reasonable and willing to reconsider their positions when warranted by reason. Third, negotiators should give in to principles but never give in to pressure or threats. When the other party refuses to be reasonable, the first party may shift from discussing the shared substantive criteria (for evaluating proposals) to the procedural criteria (for conducting the negotiation).

Although negotiators might implement the four principles above effectively, they are likely to encounter three common obstacles to negotiation. In the circumstances that the other party is more powerful (i.e., having the ability to walk away from the negotiation), the weaker party should establish their best alternative to a negotiated agreement (BATNA) prior to the negotiation. Rather than using a *bottom line* (i.e., the worst acceptable outcome), negotiators should focus on their best walk-away alternative and reject agreements that would leave them worse off than their BATNA. The BATNA allows the weaker party to make the most of their assets. The better the BATNA, the greater the power a party will hold in the negotiation. Moreover, both sides should also estimate each other's BATNA and recognize that any agreement must be better for both than walking away without an agreement.

In the situation when the other party remains steadfast in positional bargaining, makes personal attacks, and refuses to use principled negotiation, the first party can proceed in three ways. First, continue to use the principled approach to encourage them to do the same. Second, use *negotiation jujitsu,* refusing to retaliate and redirect the other's personal attacks on the problem. When the other side continues to assert their position, ask for the reasons behind that position. When they attack your ideas, take it as constructive criticism and invite further feedback. Third, use the *one-text approach*, working on specific wording of an agreement and possibly involving a third party to explore the underlying interests of both parties and reconcile their differences. When the other party uses unethical tricks such as lies, psychological warfare, good guy/bad guy routines, and positional pressure tactics, the principled party must avoid the two common responses – appeasing the other party or reciprocating the dirty tricks. Three effective ways to handle this situation include recognizing the trick for what it is so one can ignore it; pointing out the trick being played; and establishing ground rules with which the negotiation will be conducted.

Core concerns framework

While the principled negotiation described in *Getting to YES* provided advice on how negotiators can obtain the best outcomes by understanding each other's interests and reaching win-win agreements, it did not thoroughly address the question of how to handle the emotions and relationship issues in negotiations. Negotiators can enhance the primarily rational process of interest-based negotiation by learning how to manage emotions – such as anger, fear, hope, pride, guilt, and embarrassment – both in oneself and the other person (Barsky, 2017; Zhang, Ting-Toomey, & Oetzel, 2014). Thus, Fisher

and Shapiro (2005) developed the core concerns framework and introduced it in *Beyond Reason.* The authors posited that "negotiation involves both your head and your gut – both reasons and emotion" (p. 4). Oftentimes, emotion gets in the way of rational argument and effective negotiation. Yet, it is impractical to stop having or simply ignore emotions. One cannot simply tell oneself or the other party to stop feeling angry, frustrated, or heartbroken. Additionally, dealing with emotions directly as they happen can be daunting. Attending to every emotion one and the other party are experiencing will keep negotiators very busy. One will have to observe myriad nonverbal cues, identify what causes that emotion, and figure out how to behave (rightly or wrongly) while one is already trying to understand the other party's differing views and think about how to arrive at a mutually desirable solution. Per Fisher and Shapiro, a more effective approach to deal with emotions is to focus on five *core concerns* or basic human wants that often underlie negative emotions in a negotiation. The core concerns "touch upon how one wants to be treated" within a relationship (p. 211). By using the core concerns framework, negotiators can uncover the cause of negative emotions and generate positive emotions in themselves and others so they can reach a mutually satisfying agreement while maintaining a good relationship. The five core concerns include appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role.

Appreciation

Appreciation refers to the desire to be understood and honestly valued. As action, it involves understanding each other's point of view; finding merit in what both parties think, feel, or do; and communicating that understanding. Individuals want their thoughts, feelings, and actions to be acknowledged as having merit. Expressing appreciation does

not mean one gives in. One may disagree with another person's viewpoint but can still find merit in their reasoning and let them know. Appreciation can be linked to an emergent research area, gratitude communication, defined as "one or more people communicating appreciation and/or thanks to one or more other people" (Brinkert, 2016, p. 313). This line of research reveals several benefits of expressing gratitude both for the receiver and the sender including increased happiness, self-worth, self-esteem, as well as increased pride and trust in others (Franks, 2015). In addition, gratitude communication has been studied and applied as a workplace conflict management tactic that plays a positive role before, during, and after conflict. Gratitude communication can also affirm identities of the parties involved, generate positive feelings, and facilitate conflict transformation (Brinkert, 2016). Fisher and Shapiro described cooperation increases when there is a mutual feeling of appreciation. Mutual appreciation can be achieved by, first, listening to words and recognizing the emotional response of the other person; second, acknowledging the reasoning and beliefs behind their thoughts and feelings; third, disregarding age, wealth, or authority; and finally, shaping one's message so one can be correctly understood.

Affiliation

Affiliation concerns the sense of belonging to or connectedness with another person or group. The need of affiliation is supported by several psychological theories such as Maslow's (1954) *hierarchy of needs* (i.e., human needs include physical, safety, social belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization, each of which must be met before the individual desires the next one); McClelland's (1961) *motivational need theory* (i.e., all workers and managers possess, in varying degrees, the need for achievement,

authority, and affiliation); and Deci and Ryan's (2000) *self-determination theory* (i.e., individuals across cultures have innate psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy). Citing the work of Baumeister and Leary (1995) on the need to belong, Fisher and Shapiro explained that individuals have a fundamental motive to bond. Strong negative emotions are associated with broken bonds and stable bonds generate positive emotions and opium-like chemicals in the brain.

There are two types of affiliation negotiators can strengthen or develop. *Structural connections* refer to links one has with another based on their membership in the same groups. For example, negotiators may be siblings, alumni of the same university, or fans of the same football team. A negotiator can strengthen his or her structural connections with another negotiator by finding links that already exist between them. Prior to the negotiation, negotiators can ask sincere questions about the other parties' rank, family, background, or common interests. They can also build new links by treating their negotiation partner as a colleague as opposed to an enemy through simple actions such as arranging to meet in an informal social setting, sitting side by side, and avoiding dominating the conversation. Asking for a favor, engaging in joint activities, and including others (such as in a meeting, a conversation, or a questionnaire) are also ways to build new structural connections. Another type of affiliation, *personal connections*, refers to personal ties that make one feel closer to another. Getting to know someone as a person forges a good working relationship and facilitates negotiation. Negotiators can connect with others at a personal level by meeting in person rather than via phone, computer, or email; discussing things they care about; allowing others and themselves plenty of space while remaining friendly; and keeping in contact. Lastly, it is important to

maintain the appropriate distance between others and us. Too much or too little distance can make others uncomfortable and can get in the way of productive discussion. Fisher and Shapiro suggested negotiators seek relationship development while also resisting manipulation by avoiding agreements based solely on emotions.

Autonomy

Autonomy deals with freedom to think, act, or make decisions independently and without the imposition of others. The need for autonomy is supported by Deci and Ryan's (2000) self-determination theory, which argues that well-being is enhanced when the three universal needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are met. Following Deci's (1980) work, Fisher and Shapiro explained autonomy as one's will or capacity to choose how to satisfy one's needs. Individuals are most autonomous when their action corresponds to their authentic interests or integrated values and desires (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003). Fisher and Shapiro posited individuals want an appropriate degree of autonomy and tend to get offended when their autonomy is limited. To stimulate positive emotions during a negotiation both in oneself and another, one should seek to expand one's autonomy and respect the other person's autonomy. Even when one is not the final decision maker, one can affect a decision by making a recommendation, inventing options before deciding, and conducting joint brainstorming. The process of joint brainstorming includes exploring options without making a commitment, refining those options, and then deciding among them. Negotiators can avoid impinging upon the autonomy of others by always consulting before deciding, inviting input from stakeholders, and clarifying decision-making authority.

Status

Status concerns our standing compared to the standing of others. The interest is in whether our standing is treated as inferior to others, or is given full recognition where deserved. Adler (1930) posited human beings are all born with a sense of inferiority and strive for status. Children are smaller and weaker, both physically and intellectually, than their parents. This sense of inferiority is often heightened later in life such as by being told one is dull, unattractive, or poor at sports. Most children manage to overcome these inferiorities by improving their weaknesses or compensating by becoming excellent at something else. For some children, inferiorities are so overwhelming and insurmountable that they develop an *inferiority complex*. To overcome feelings of inferiority, Adler postulated individuals have an urge for superiority that influences their thoughts, actions, and emotions. The concern for status is therefore relevant in conflict negotiation.

Fisher and Shapiro (2005) described two types of status. *Social status* is one's general standing in a social hierarchy; the level to which one is regarded as important or famous in society. People of high social status are, for example, royalty, presidents, celebrities, senior executives, or millionaires. Negotiators should observe the clues in what others say and do to understand how they perceive their social status and respond appropriately. *Particular status* is one's standing based on expertise, education, or experience. For example, a public relations associate might not have as high social status as her CEO but a high particular status as an expert in crisis management. An experienced nurse may have a lower social status compared to a doctor but has a high particular status regarding patient care and administrative records. Instead of competing for higher status which prompts negative emotions, negotiators should identify their own

areas of high social and particular status so they can approach their negotiations with a sense of confidence. Importantly, negotiators should respect others' social and particular status and regard everyone as equally important to the success of the negotiation. Acknowledgment of status brings about self-esteem and positive emotions.

Role

Role addresses the question of whether the many roles we play are meaningless, or they are personally fulfilling. Fisher and Shapiro's thinking about the core concern for role was influenced by the work of Frankl (1984) and Csikszentmihalyi (1990). Frankl found meaning despite living in Nazi concentration camps by deciding to use his suffering as an opportunity to make himself a better person. He proposed that individuals have deepest desire to find meaning in their lives and once they find that meaning, they can survive anything. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) researched the experience of *flow* and described it as the state in which people are so involved in an activity and enjoy it so much that they will do it for the sheer sake of doing it. Fisher and Shapiro suggested that a fulfilling role helps one feel *in the flow* with the task in which one is engaged. In the negotiation process, it is important to understand each person's role including one's own role. The main goal is to choose a role that fulfills one's needs. One can do so by first becoming aware of one's conventional role (e.g., a manager, an assistant, or a parent) and second by shaping or expanding that role to make it fulfilling. A fulfilling role has a clear purpose and is personally meaningful. We can also adopt temporary roles (e.g., a problem-solver, a listener, or a brainstormer) that contribute to collaboration in the negotiation. Moreover, it is important to recognize the roles others want to adopt and broaden their roles by asking for their advice or recommendations.

In sum, the core concerns framework complements the four steps of principled negotiation described in *Getting to Yes* and is particularly helpful as a guideline to further uncover the underlying interests of negotiation parties. Negotiators can use the framework as a lens to understand which concern is unmet and to tailor their communication or actions to address the unmet concern. They can also use the framework as a lever to stimulate positive emotions. When the core concerns are not met, a person can feel angry, anxious, jealous, disgusted, guilty and ashamed, and sad. When the core concerns are met, a person feels happy, hopeful, proud, calm and enthusiastic (Fisher & Shapiro, 2006). The CCF can form a simple-to-remember set of principles for preparing, conducting, and reviewing a conflict negotiation and achieving win-win agreements.

Competent application of the core concerns framework

For the past decade, the core concerns framework has been influential in interest-based negotiation that embraces the aspect of emotions (Riskin, 2010). The framework is part of Harvard Law School's Program on Negotiation curriculum and has been used by the framework founders, Fisher and Shapiro, in multiple international negotiations (Gúčiková, 2015). Nevertheless, scholars and practitioners have found some limitations about this system. For example, Riskin (2010) argued people sometimes fail to employ the core concerns framework (even though they understand it) because they lack present-moment awareness to use it during the negotiation. Mindfulness can "enhance awareness and an ability to maintain balance and focus" during the negotiation process, thus helping a negotiator carry out the CCF appropriately (Riskin, 2010, p. 334).

On the other hand, Freshman (2010) suggested both Riskin's mindfulness argument and parts of Fisher and Shapiro's (2005) CCF may not work with certain individuals in certain circumstances. He proposed instead "external mindfulness" as a complementary skill to check when core concerns help and when other tools may work better (p. 366). Freshman (2010) defined "external mindfulness" as awareness of thoughts and emotions of others (e.g., through other people's facial expressions or one's own physiological responses) which may yield greater insights for negotiation and improve our ability to detect deception. He also suggested that two of the core concerns, affiliation and autonomy, may be core for some individuals, but not for others. Further, some cultures may prioritize some of the core concerns more than others.

In response to Freshman (2010), Shapiro (2010) suggested the core concerns are universal motives driving behavior, cognition, and emotion; but *how* to address each concern or implement the framework varies across cultures and individuals. He highlighted the distinction between strategic and tactical guidance the framework offers. For example, affiliation (as a strategy) is an important cross-cultural concern but "building affiliation with an extrovert requires different tactics – different words and actions – than building affiliation with an introvert" (Shapiro, 2010, p. 465). Similarly, giving gifts is a common way to build friendly business relations in China or Japan but not an acceptable tactic to build relationships with certain corporate or government-based organizations in the United States. In sum, Shapiro posits that the core concerns do apply across cultures and should be calibrated to fit cultural and individual contexts.

Results from a series of experimental studies by Charoensap-Kelly, Young, Ismail, and Fourney (2017) supported Shapiro's position. The researchers examined the

effectiveness of the CCF in managing conflicts between inter-and intracultural manager-employee dyads. American manager participants were trained on the CCF and then negotiated a simulated conflict with employee participants from the United States and China. Managers reported a high degree of negotiation satisfaction regardless of the employee culture. Likewise, employees from both cultures reported relatively the same degree of negotiation satisfaction. The researchers reasoned that CCF could facilitate emotionally-loaded conflict negotiations in both American and Chinese cultures because by addressing the core concerns, managers maintained positive and negative face wants of employees, regardless of employee cultural values, thus generating positive negotiation outcomes (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). In addition, the researchers found that employees' perception of the manager's competency in the negotiation process significantly predicted the negotiation satisfaction. Participants with poor nonverbal delivery were rated much less competent than those with stronger delivery. Also, descriptive data indicated employees were more satisfied with the negotiation when their managers correctly addressed the core concern most upsetting to them as opposed to when managers addressed all five core concerns effusively (i.e., out of context). However, no significance was found for this result due to a small sample size and low statistical power. Charoensap-Kelly and colleagues concluded that, with CCF as with many negotiation principles, using the right tool for the right situation is not sufficient; One also needs to use the right tool *competently*.

To summarize, review of literature regarding CCF application revealed that the framework (at least in part) serves as logical and beneficial guidelines for dealing with emotion in the negotiation process. Its effectiveness depends on *how* it is used. As

Shapiro (2010) himself stated: "*How* one responds to a core concern will determine its efficacy" (p. 465). The question then lies in how one can use the framework competently. The current study adds to this conversation by examining communication and gender variables in determining the outcomes of a core concerns negotiation. The communication accommodation theory (CAT) is used to frame the investigation.

Communication accommodation theory

CAT describes the motivations behind why we choose to maintain or alter our communicative behaviors when interacting with others and the consequences of those choices on our identity and relationships (Giles & Soliz, 2015). CAT began with Giles and colleagues' sociopsychological observation of how people, in everyday interaction, shifted their dialects or words depending on to whom they were speaking (Giles, Taylor, & Bouris, 1973; Giles & Powesland, 1975; Giles, Mulac, Bradac, & Johnson, 1987). Over time, the theory has moved beyond the adaptive use of accents and languages to embrace nonverbal adjustments and different discourse styles. It has expanded into an "interdisciplinary model of relational and identity processes in communicative interaction'' (Coupland & Jaworski, 1997, pp. 241–242).

CAT has been studied in face-to-face as well as mediated interactions such as e-mail, text messages, voice mail, and social media. The theory has also been applied to various interpersonal and intergroup contexts (e.g., family, health, organizational, law enforcement, and intercultural interactions) (Giles & Soliz, 2015). Two major features of CAT include *accommodation* and *nonaccommodation*. At the core of the CAT are its four key principles that 1) accommodation is used to reduce distance; 2) accommodation leads to positive psychological outcomes for recipients when they attribute it to positive intent;

3) nonaccommodation is used to increase social distance; and 4) when attributed to harmful intent, nonaccommodation will be negatively evaluated and reacted to by the recipients. The following section highlights key features of CAT, its recent conceptualizations, and its relevance to the core concerns framework as well as the current study.

Accommodation

Accommodation. Accommodation refers to the process in which speakers shift their communicative behavior toward that of the listeners to elicit positive feelings, reduce social distances, or gain approval (Giles & Soliz, 2015). Central to the accommodative behavior is "the notion that individuals have attuned their communication accurately to the needs and/or desires of the conversational partners" (Soliz & Giles, 2014, p. 110). The communicative shifts or *convergences* are CAT's historical foundation and the most researched aspect (Dragojevic, Gasiorek, & Giles, 2016). Convergences may include verbal elements (e.g., dialects, languages), nonverbal elements (e.g., speech rate, eye contact, dress style), or topics of mutual interest (Giles & Soliz, 2015). Per recent CAT research, the concept of convergence "may be manifested in behaviors such as politeness, pleasantness, clarity of explanation, and respect for a conversational partner" (Hajek, Villagran, & Witten-Lyles, 2007, p. 295). Considering this recent view of CAT, communicatively attending to negotiation partners' core concerns can be regarded as a form of accommodation. This point will be explained later in this chapter.

Convergences can be upward or downward. *Upward convergence* is when a speaker adapts to another's more socially acceptable communication style. For example,

speakers from an ethnic group may change their accents or code-switch to a more prestigious dialect. *Downward convergence* is when speakers change their style to match another's more colloquial or stigmatized style. For instance, physicians use lay terms when explaining a medical condition to their patients. In response, recipients might, or might not, reciprocate, resulting in *symmetrical* or *asymmetrical* patterns respectively. More broadly, convergence also includes positive communicative behaviors like expression of empathy (Giles, Fortman, Dailey, Barker, Hajek, Anderson, & Rule, 2006; Ayoko, Härtel, & Callan, 2002) and reassurance (Watson & Gallois, 1999).

Social power plays an important role in accommodative acts. People of lower status are more likely to converge to people of higher status than vice versa. In other words, people will converge to others they find socially rewarding and respected. For instance, vendors in a Taiwanese market accommodate more to their clients than vice versa (van den Berg, 1986). People sometimes adopt the swearing patterns of bosses to feel connected on the job (Baruch & Jenkins, 2007). To the extent that they are perceived as sincere and other-oriented, accommodative behaviors are regarded by the recipient of the behavior as contextually appropriate and respectful (Giles, 2008). Converging toward another's communication patterns enhances interpersonal similarities which has been shown to increase mutual liking and perceived credibility for convergers (Giles, 2008). In organizational contexts, accommodative communication is vital in "creating the inclusive organizational identity, relational satisfaction among members, and productive communication central to organizational success" (Gnisci, Giles, & Soliz, 2016, p. 183).

Nonaccommodation

Nonaccommodation is a broad term for communicative adjustments or lack thereof that involve disaffiliation, dissimilarity, and/or disconfirmation (Gasiorek, 2016). Early CAT research on nonaccommunication primarily focused on two objective forms of speakers' behaviors: *divergence* and *maintenance.* These constructs were taken from empirical studies that objectively measured variables such as speech rate, pause length, and pitch (Gasiorek, 2013). Divergence refers to altering one's communication style to move away and distance oneself from the conversational partner's communication style. Individuals may diverge from the communication styles of their interaction partners upwardly (e.g., sounding more sophisticated than their partner) or downwardly (e.g., using less prestigious accent than their partner). These forms of divergence can increase social distance and dissimilarities. Following social identity theory (SIT), divergence may also be used to signal in-group and out-group membership. Diverging speakers may accentuate their in-group verbal or nonverbal style when they feel their identity is threatened and when they feel the other group has historically and illegitimately discriminated against them. For example, an African American may adopt more Black Vernacular English when encountering a prejudiced White speaker (Giles, 2009).

Maintenance refers to keeping one's "default" communication style without making any adjustments for others. Examples of maintenance include an Anglophone speaker continuing to speak English when asked a question in French or speakers continuing to discuss a certain topic or using a particular form of address (e.g., a first name or last name) no matter the wishes of their conversational partners (Gasiorek, 2016). Like divergence, maintenance often leads to negative evaluations (e.g., insulting,

impolite, or hostile) and negative relational outcomes. However, according to SIT, speakers whose group membership is central to their identity may maintain their communication behaviors (e.g., dialect) to demonstrate pride and remain authentic to their roots (Gallois, Franklyn-Stokes, Giles, & Coupland, 1988). Further, negative consequences of divergence and maintenance can be attenuated in certain circumstances such as when the speaker is unable to speak the other's language (Giles & Soliz, 2015).

Later CAT research has shifted the objective standpoint of nonaccommodation (i.e., what the speakers do) to the subjective standpoint (i.e., how listeners perceive the speakers' behaviors). Coupland, Coupland, Giles, and Henwood's (1988) research on intergenerational communication gave rise to two newer forms of nonaccommodation: *under-* and *overaccommodation.* The focus is now not on whether the speakers intend to distance themselves from the listeners but whether the listeners *perceive* the speakers' communicative behaviors as undershooting or overshooting their needs. Speakers might deliberately slow down their speech to match that of slower conversational partners or mimic an accent of their conversational partners to sound similar to them (convergence attempts) but be perceived as over- or underaccommodative if the listeners do not feel these adjustments are appropriate (Gasiorek, 2016). The current study focuses on these two forms of nonaccommodation for two reasons. First, the core concerns involve a person's social and emotional needs and the degree to which negotiators (non)accommodate those needs are subject to their negotiation partners' perceptions. Second, in supervisor-subordinate contexts, both parties make subjective evaluations of each other's intentions and behaviors (Tompkins, 1983).

Underaccommodation. Underaccommodation refers to undershooting the level of implementation desired for successful interaction (Coupland et al., 1988). Individuals underaccommodate others when they intentionally or unintentionally do not attend or listen to another's needs for some self-serving purposes (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012) or due to the lack of skill, forethought, or resources (Hewett, Watson, & Gallois, 2015). Examples of underaccommodation include an older person continuing to talk about his or her sufferings and ignoring the discomfort of the younger conversational partner (Coupland et al., 1988); a younger worker making fun of an older worker's limited proficiency with technology; a native speaker talking too fast for a non-native coworker to follow; and a manager using a lot of jargon that hampers a new employee's understanding. Communication in a patriarchal workplace environment that excludes and demeans women can also be regarded as a form of underaccommodation (Gnisci, Giles, & Soliz, 2016).

Underaccommodative individuals can be perceived as egoistic, insensitive, and uncaring (Giles, 2009). More recently, Gasiorek and Dragojevic (2017) found that accumulated underaccommodation results in less positive motive inferences (i.e., the listener's explanation of the speaker's behavior) and less favorable evaluations of the speaker and their communication. Underaccommodation is believed to be more prevalent than overaccommodation but has not been studied as much as overaccommodation (Hewett, Watson, & Gallois, 2015).

Overaccommodation. Giles, Willemyns, Gallois, and Anderson (2007) asserted that "accommodation may be considered appropriate only up to a certain point, beyond which it is considered socially inappropriate, depending on various factors such as social,

situational, or status norms" (p. 143). Hence, there is a non-linear relationship between accommodation and positive outcomes (Giles & Smith, 1979). The point beyond which accommodation is considered appropriate is called *overaccommodation*, defined as the process of going too far in accommodating others' needs (Harwood, 2000). Overaccommodation can be perceived as insincere or over-facilitative, leading to misinterpretation and negative results (Sparks, Bevan, & Rogers, 2012). For example, a young person may overaccommodate an older adult by talking slowly, becoming overly polite and warm, and enunciating loudly. This overaccommodation can reinforce negative age-based stereotypes, damage self-esteem of the older adults, lessen psychological activity and social interaction, and cause older adults to change their behavior to conform with the negative stereotypes (Nussbaum & Friedrich, 2005). In a health communication study, Duggan and colleagues (Duggan, Bradshaw, Swergold, & Altman, 2011) found that physicians' attempts to build rapport with patients with disabilities can come across as patronizing and pose negative implications when they "exceed the expected quantity or duration, when they are inconsistent with patient verbal disclosure, or when verbal and nonverbal messages are inconsistent" (p. 23). In a supervisor-subordinate context, Jablin (1985) suggested that supervisors evaluated employees who accommodated too much as ingratiating. In sum, both under- and overaccommodative behaviors incur a host of social costs. In organizational settings, these nonaccommodative behaviors may lead to organizational incivility, lower productivity, and employee turn-over (Gnisci, Giles, & Soliz, 2016).

Elaborations on CAT

Over the years, the tenets of CAT have been refined to encompass five adjustment strategies conceptualized in terms of their goal relative to a conversational partner's needs (Dragojevic, Gasiorek, & Giles, 2016). In an interaction, speakers may make accommodative or nonaccommodative moves in response to their interlocutors' productive language, cognitive, macro-conversational, role relational, and emotional needs. Many of these concepts (particularly the last three) are aligned with the core concerns negotiation principles, hence explained below.

First, *approximation* refers the many ways in which people adjust their verbal or nonverbal behaviors toward (convergence) or away from (divergence) their conversational partners. As previously mentioned, these strategies are the initial focus of CAT and have received the most scholarly attention (Dragojevic, Gasiorek, & Giles, 2016). Second, *interpretability* involves strategies or actions taken to facilitate (or inhibit) comprehension of a message. Examples include slowing down, using simpler terms, increasing volume, repeating the words, or changing syntax (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013). For instance, Hewett, Watson, and Gallois (2014) examined the correlation between underaccommodation and interpretability among doctors from various specialties working together to treat the same patients. They found that doctors underaccommodated the outgroup (doctors from another specialty) by maintaining their specialized concepts and terms in written medical charts. This underaccommodation inhibited the understanding of other specialist doctors and led to erroneous patient treatment.

Third, *discourse management* refers to actions taken in response to another's social and conversational needs. These include regulating speaking turns,

backchanneling, or selecting topics of mutual concern (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013). Discourse management can be very important during an interaction because it shows conversational partners that they are being listened to and understood (Sparks, Bevan, & Rogers, 2012). Fourth, *interpersonal control* refers to speakers' adjusting to role relationships within an interaction. These strategies denote who has power or control in a given interaction. For instance, one may use interruptions or particular forms of address to remind another of their relative status or role (Dragojevic, Gasiorek, & Giles, 2016). Fifth and finally, *emotional expressions* are used when speakers are concerned about another's feelings. Watson, Jones, and Hewett (2016) posit that "appropriate emotional expression occurs when the other person's individual needs for reassurance are met and their concerns are addressed" (p.155). For example, examining interactions between patients and health professionals from the lens of CAT, Watson and Gallois (1999) found that health professionals in unsatisfying interactions were less likely to attend to the relationship needs and express positive emotion toward the patients. On the opposite side, health professionals in satisfying interactions showed concern and were reassuring.

CAT and the core concerns framework

Gasiorek and Giles (2013) posited that CAT can be used to understand and diagnose interactional issues in conflict situations. Parties' language, communicative choices, and interpretation of the other party's behavior can lead to the escalation, maintenance, or resolution of a conflict (Gasiorek & Giles, 2013). Particularly, CAT can be a logical framework for examining a core concerns negotiation for two main reasons. First, CAT explains how an individual's communication strategies may be perceived, evaluated, and responded to by another communicator (Coupland, Coupland, Giles, &

Henwood, 1988), allowing for an examination of interactions between conflict partners and consequences. For example, Ayoko, Härtel, and Callan (2002) used CAT to explore productive and destructive conflict management strategies in culturally heterogenous workgroups. They found that groups high on convergence communicative behavior, such as discussing differences and empathizing, facilitated more productive conflict. Not surprisingly, groups high on divergence communicative behavior, such as verbal aggression and speech interruptions, engaged in more destructive conflict. Similar results were found in the study conducted by Huffaker, Swaab, and Diermeier (2011). Through an experimental design, the researchers examined how language affected coalition formation in online multiparty negotiation. They found that linguistic convergence (i.e., using similar language) and assent (i.e., turn-taking cues such as "mm-hmm," "yes," "right") establish a sense of unity and increase agreements between coalition partners. Also, the expression of negative emotion words decrease agreement. The authors suggested that "converging on a counterpart's language as well as expressing assent can be a powerful way to build the social capital necessary to facilitate the negotiation process" (p. 78).

Another CAT-based conflict communication study was conducted by Hewett and colleagues (Hewett, Watson, Gallois, Ward, & Leggett, 2009). The researchers examined conflict among doctors of various specialty departments at a hospital in Australia who coordinated care for patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding. Guided by social identity theory and CAT, the researchers conducted in-depth interviews with 45 doctors and found that disagreements over patient ownership generated conflict among doctors. The lack of formal policies regarding shared ownership of a patient coupled with heavy

workload caused doctors to evade responsibility. Accommodation was found to minimize intergroup differences but to be present sparingly only in cases when doctors knew each other personally. On the contrary, counter-accommodative strategies (e.g., blames, hostile comments against other doctors, and emphasis on one's own role and status) prevailed and exacerbated conflicts between departments. Consequently, this intergroup climate and interspecialty conflict adversely affected patient care. As demonstrated by these studies, CAT has proven to be a fruitful framework for studying conflict communication.

Second, the core concerns framework encourages negotiators to respond to their negotiation partners' social needs in order to stimulate positive emotions and elicit cooperation. By attending to others' needs to feel appreciated, affiliated, or respected, for example, negotiators can cool down strong negative emotions and open up communication, leading to more win-win solutions. This falls within the scope of CAT which views accommodation as "the notion that individuals have attuned their communication accurately to the needs and/or desires of the conversational partners" (Soliz & Giles, 2014, p. 110). Notably, recent CAT research in law enforcement contexts has found that accommodative behaviors of law enforcement officers strongly predict citizens' trust, compliance, and satisfaction with police officers (Barker, Giles, Hajek, Ota, Noels, Lim, & Somera, 2008; Giles, et al., 2006; Giles, Hajek, Barker, Lin, Hummert, & Anderson, 2007; Hajek, Barker, Giles, Makoni, Pecchioni, Louw-Potgieter, & Myers, 2006; Hajek, Giles, Barker, Lin, Zhang, & Hummert, 2008). In these studies, police accommodation is conceptualized and measured as one in which police officers listen to their conversational partners (i.e., the civilians), take the civilians' views into account, desire to understand the civilians' needs and unique situations, and explain

things in ways that "sit right" with the civilians. An accommodation also includes pleasantness, politeness, and respect. Defining and measuring accommodation similarly to the police-civilian CAT research, Hajek, Villagran, and Wittenberg-Lyles (2007) examined the effects of accommodation in physical-patient relationships. The authors found that physician accommodation and perceived outgroup typicality (i.e., how similar a physician is to other physicians) mutually influenced patients' tendency to comply with physician recommendations. Physician accommodation also directly predicted patient compliance. Taken together, this line of CAT research demonstrates an extended view of accommodation from the original verbal adjustments to the attentiveness to another's social needs which fits well with CCF propositions. Thus, CAT can provide a helpful theoretical lens to explore the extent to which core concerns accommodativeness will be perceived as appropriate and yield the most satisfactory conflict negotiation outcomes. Specifically, accommodation is defined in this study as communicative responses to another's core concerns.

Curvilinear effects of core concerns accommodativeness

Fisher and Shapiro (2005) explained the five core concerns are not mutually exclusive but are merging and blending, and "together, these core concerns more fully describe the emotional content of a negotiation than could any single core concern" (p. 16). However, the core concerns should be met "not excessively nor minimally, but to an appropriate extent" (p. 16). Considering CAT and CCF, *underaccommodation* (i.e., neglecting another's concerns or unyieldingly asserting one's own interests and positions), would perpetuate or even exacerbate negative emotions. *Moderate accommodation* would be perceived as more honest and caring. The other end of the

spectrum, *overaccommodation*, can be perceived as manipulating or patronizing as previous overaccommodation research has discovered.

This view of the core concerns accommodativeness is aligned with the recent too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) perspective in management and organizational research which posits that: “Too much of any good thing is ultimately bad” (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013, p. 315). In the TMGT view, all seemingly beneficial antecedents reach inflection points after which their relations with desired outcomes cease to be linear and proceed in the opposite, often undesirable, direction resulting in an overall curvilinear pattern. Pierce and Aguinis (2013) illustrated that this effect applied across personality traits (e.g., self-efficacy, passion) and organizational interventions (e.g., organizational identification, hiring for experience, and diversification). The authors used William Hapgood as an actual example of the TMGT effect which coincided with a concern in CCF. William Hapgood implemented a series of changes that gave employees at Columbia Preserve Company increasingly more autonomy presuming that a fully democratized workplace would translate to maximum firm performance and employee well-being. His initiatives initially led to unprecedented growth and profitability but “ultimately led to an uprising that nearly destroyed the firm.” (p. 331). This curvilinear effect of autonomy is consistent with Shapiro’s (2010) notion that: “Respect for autonomy should not be equated with giving an individual or group unlimited freedom to do whatever they want.” (p. 466).

In sum, the researcher argues that core concerns accommodativeness is curvilinearly as opposed to linearly related to its outcomes, with the low and high accommodation yielding negative results and moderate accommodation giving positive results. This study examined the curvilinear effects of core concerns accommodativeness

on positive emotional change, integrative intention, and distributive intention when mediated by perceived goodwill and moderated by gender.

Dependent variable 1: emotional change

Conflict does not exist in the absence of emotion (Jones, 2000). During conflict episodes, people experience some emotional charge and that is partly why conflict is so uncomfortable (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). Moreover, emotion is inherent in the negotiation process. Morris and Keltner (2000) posited, "Negotiators use emotions in order to initiate relationships, make demands, seek cooperation, and seal commitments" (p. 2). Nonetheless, early conflict research focused largely on the rational and paid little attention to the emotional dimension of conflict management and negotiation (Morris & Keltner, 2000; Nair, 2008). Likewise, the role of emotion in organizational management has received little attention until recent years (Claeys, Cauberghe, & Leysen, 2013; Jia, Jiuqing, & Hale, 2017; Kramer & Hess, 2002; Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007; Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Maitlis, Vogue, & Lawrence, 2013; Nair, 2008).

Modern research on emotions began with Hochschild's (1983) seminal book, *The Managed Heart,* concerning *emotional labor* in the service industry (Miller, Considine, & Garner, 2007; Nair, 2008). Emotional labor is the process of regulating emotional displays to fulfill the requirements of a job (Wharton, 2009). For example, restaurant servers or retail sales associates are expected to keep smiling and remain polite to clients when they may or may not want to. A decade later, Goleman's (1995) book *Emotional Intelligence* drew scholars' and practitioners' attention to the importance of emotion in personal and professional lives (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Murphy, 2013; Nair, 2008). *Emotional intelligence* refers to the ability to recognize one's own and others' emotions

as well as the ability to manage those emotions in ways that enhance personal growth and interpersonal relationships (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The term emotional intelligence preceded Goleman's (1995) work which has been criticized by the scientific community as mere speculations; nevertheless, Goleman (1995) has been credited for popularizing and inspiring a vast body of empirical research on emotional management (Murphy, 2013; Nair, 2008). In the communication field, Mumby and Putnam (1992) were among the first scholars who called for greater attention to emotion in organizational management. In conflict communication, in particular, Jones (2000) was one of the first scholars who extensively explored emotion in conflict (Jameson, Bodtker, Porch, & Jordan, 2009). Since then, the critical role of emotion in conflict management communication has been widely studied and recognized (Guerrero, 2013; Jameson, Bodtker, Porch, & Jordan, 2009; Troth, Jordan, & Westerlaken, 2014; Zhang, Andreychik, Sapp, & Arendt, 2014; Zhang, Ting-Toomey, & Oetzel, 2014).

Emotion is typically divided into three components (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014; Jones, 2000; Nair, 2008). First, the *physiological* component of emotion refers to the bodily reactions to a situation such as increase in heart beat or blood pressure. Second, the *cognitive* component of emotion refers to the way we interpret, make sense of, or think about what is happening. For instance, people will experience stress so long as they realize that a conflict affects their self-esteem or goal attainment. They also make sense of who to blame or praise and how to cope with the conflict (Lazarus, 1991). Third, the *expressive* or *behavioral* component of emotion is the verbal and nonverbal expression of emotion. People may intentionally or unintentionally express an emotion by voicing it explicitly or conveying it through a facial expression, tone of

voice, or body posture. Similar to this general view of emotion, Fisher and Shapiro (2005) define emotion as a felt experience in response to matters of personal significance that typically involves subjective feeling (e.g., angry); cognitive activity (e.g., negative judgment of the other party); physiological arousal (e.g., rising blood pressure), and action tendency (e.g., a desire to attack). They posit that positive emotions usually stem from a core concern being satisfied and distressing emotions usually result from a core concern being unmet.

Hocker and Wilmot (2014) explained six principles of emotion in conflict. First, conflict depends on enough emotional arousal to reach a resolution. People are likely to avoid conflict unless they are unhappy, angry, or excited enough about a possibility to exert energy necessary for resolving a conflict. Second, emotional events trigger responses. People realize they are in conflict when they start to feel uncomfortable, agitated, or distressed about a situation. Third, intensity of emotion changes as the conflict progresses. Individuals may feel very strongly at the start of a conflict, then feel less intensely as the conflict processes, and finally experience relief when a satisfactory solution is reached. Fourth, emotions can be positive (e.g., enthusiasm, hope, and joy) or negative (e.g., anger, fear, and guilt). Previous research has indicated that positive emotions often result in cooperative behaviors and negative emotions lead to competitive behaviors (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997; Beersma, Harinck, & Gerts, 2003). Fifth, people become emotional because something affects their self-identity or the sense of who they are. For example, Campbell and Muncer (1987), suggested that for both men and women, personal attacks on competence as a professional might result in the most angry and emotional responses. Sixth, relationships are defined by the kind of emotion

expressed. For instance, reciprocal expression of sincere appreciation and elation between a supervisor and a subordinate signal their positive relationship. In contrast, habitual passive-aggressive or disparaging remarks suggest a strained relationship.

Several studies provide insights about the links between emotion and conflict in the workplace. Gayle and Preiss (1998) found that participants used more emotional language when recalling and writing about an unresolved or ongoing conflict. Also, lingering emotional responses could negatively impact future interactions between coworkers. Jehn (1994) found emotional conflict to be negatively correlated with group performance and satisfaction whereas task conflict was positively correlated with group performance. In addition, negative memories of past interactions can impair supervisor-subordinate relationships (Lee & Jablin, 1995). On the contrary, positive emotion on the job was positively associated with favorable supervisor evaluations, higher pay, and support from supervisors and coworkers (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). More recently, Ayoko and Konrad's (2012) research suggested that transformational leaders of diverse groups can act to prevent negative emotions from task and relationship conflict from damaging group performance. In a field study of a healthcare organization, Bear, Weingart, and Todorova (2014) found that relationship conflict led to negative emotions which resulted in emotional exhaustion two months later. Moreover, an avoidant conflict management style reduced negative emotions and emotional exhaustion among men but did not do so among women.

In the conflict negotiation context, Liu (2009) found that angry negotiators are more likely to use positional statements and fewer integrative offers than nonangry negotiators. Steinel, Van Kleef, and Harinck (2008) reported that interpersonal effects of

anger and happiness depend critically on the target of the emotion. Behavior-oriented anger elicited more cooperation than behavior-oriented happiness, whereas person-directed anger elicited less cooperation than person-directed happiness. Sinaceur, Adam, Van Kleef, and Galinksy (2013) found that emotional inconsistency (i.e., alternating between anger and happiness or disappointment) led to greater concessions compared to expressing a consistent emotion and the effect of emotional inconsistency was mediated by recipients' feeling less control. Further, Butt and Choi's (2010) experiment showed that negotiator power status moderated the relationship between negotiator emotion and behavior. High-power negotiators' emotions predicted dominating behavior and low-power negotiators' were more sensitive and responsive to the emotions of their high-power counterparts than vice versa. In the mediation context, Jameson, Bodtker, Porch, and Jordan (2009) conducted an experimental study in which participants were primed to discuss emotions in mediated versus negotiated conflict simulations. Participants in the mediated group (i.e., parties discussing conflict with help from a trained mediator) reported better improvements in their emotion and perception of the negotiation partner compared to participants in the negotiated group (i.e., parties negotiating with one another alone).

While the literature on emotion in conflict situations has focused largely on the causes and impact of felt or expressed emotional states on interpersonal, organizational, and negotiation outcomes, little attention has been given to how negotiators can effectively transcend negative emotions and reach mutually agreed-upon solutions. A great number of studies have investigated the links between discrete emotions (e.g., anger, happiness, guilt, or compassion) and conflict styles or negotiation outcomes; yet,

their findings are conflicting and situational (Liu, 2009; Zhang, Andreychik, Sapp, & Arendt, 2014; Zhang, Ting-Toomey, & Oetzel, 2014). Moreover, it can be overwhelming to remember what emotion to express in what circumstances and doing so unauthentically can raise ethical concerns. Fisher and Shapiro's (2005) core concerns framework is considered a pioneer, systematic model for handling emotions during a conflict negotiation (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014). The framework is designed as a simple-to-remember, pragmatic theory that negotiators can use to understand a conflict and stimulate positive emotions (Shapiro, 2010). Through the chunking method (i.e., organizing sources of emotions into the five core concerns) and continued practice of the framework, negotiators should be able to easily recognize and automatically attend to their negotiation partners' concerns, saving mental resources for brainstorming mutually beneficial solutions (Shapiro, 2010).

Nevertheless, little attention has been given to empirically investigate to what extent the core concerns communication increases positive emotions in supervisor-subordinate conflict negotiations. Hence, the first dependent variable in this study is increased positive emotion. Guided by CAT previously mentioned, *underaccommodation* (i.e., neglecting another's concerns or unyieldingly asserting one's own interests and positions) would perpetuate or even exacerbate negative emotions. *Moderate accommodation* would be perceived as more honest and caring. Lastly, *overaccommodation*, can be perceived as manipulating or patronizing. Hence, it is hypothesized:

H1: Core concerns accommodativeness has a Bell-shaped curvilinear relationship with positive emotion such that under- and overaccommodation are associated with decreased positive emotion while moderate accommodation is associated with increased positive emotion.

Dependent variables 2 and 3: distributive versus integrative intention

Another dependent variable of interest is the intended negotiation behavior in response to a core concerns message. Following Walton and McKerzie's (1965) seminal work on collective bargaining, scholars and practitioners have classified conflict negotiation behavior into two broad dimensions: distributive approaches and integrative approaches. *Distribution* refers to attempts to achieve one's own objectives at the other party's expense. A distributive negotiator focuses on maximizing his or her own payoffs, views the other party as an adversary, and debates differences almost exclusively in terms of who will get how much of what (Bigoness, 1984). Distributive strategies include withholding information, using threats, manipulations, forceful speaking, resisting persuasion, and employing tactics to acquire the largest share of a "fixed pie" (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014; Putnam, 2013). *Integration*, on the other hand, refers to cooperative attempts to reach a mutually beneficial agreement. Integrative negotiators view their counterparts as allies, recognize everyone's needs and interests, and seek to maximize joint outcomes through information sharing and objective problem-solving (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; Bigoness, 1984). Integrative agreements help expand the pie, produce satisfaction and strengthen relationships between interaction partners,

decrease the possibility for future conflicts, and create a positive climate (Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; Hocker & Wilmot, 2014).

Similar to the distributive and integrative view of conflict negation is the dual concern model which focuses on conflict styles and behavioral tendencies. Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed the original dual-concern approach to conflict management, the *managerial grid*, and Kilmann and Thomas (1977) developed an instrument to measure it. The two dimensions are concern for self (i.e., personal goals) and concern for others (i.e., the relationships). A combination of the two dimensions results in five conflict management styles: *competing* (also called dominating – high concern for self and low concern for relationships), *avoiding* (low concern for both personal goals and relationships), *compromising* (moderate concern for both personal goals and relationships), *accommodating* (also known as obliging – sacrificing one's goals for the other), and *collaborating* (also called integrating – high concern for both personal goals and relationships). The dual concern model shaped the development of several communication-based conflict style instruments such as Putnam and Wilson's (1982) Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI). Several of these instruments collapse conflict styles into *distributive* (competing), *integrative* (compromising, accommodating, and collaborating), and *avoidance* patterns (Canary & Cupach, 1988; Putnam, 2013; Sillar, 1980).

Conflict scholars have widely used the distributive-integrative model of negotiation. For instance, Beersma, Harinck, and Gerts (2003) examined the effects of one's honor values (i.e., the degree to which individuals attach value to their self-worth and social reputation) and the other party's insults on perceived conflict, negative

emotions, and intentions to behave distributively or integratively during a workplace conflict. Brett, Shapiro, and Lytle (1998) conducted an experiment to test strategies for avoiding or stopping conflict spirals in negotiations and coded negotiation outcomes as either distributive or integrative. Keck and Samp (2007) examined interrelationships between communication goals (e.g., instrumental, relational, self-identity, or other-identity) and distributive or integrative tactics in conflict interactions between close friends and dating partners. Moreover, Pietroni, Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Pagliaro (2008) investigated how verbal and nonverbal emotional expressions may reduce distributive behavior and promote integrative behavior.

In parallel, examples of conflict communication studies using the dual-concern-based conflicts styles, are plentiful. Cai and Fink (2002) examined conflict style differences in participants from individualistic versus collectivistic cultures using a sample of 188 graduate students from 31 countries residing in the United States. Zhang, Ting-Toomey, and Oetzel (2014) examined the mediating role of emotion in the effects of self-construal and face concerns on the five conflict styles in United States and Chinese cultures. Punynunt-Carter and Wrench (2008) investigated the link between graduate student advisee perceptions of faculty advisor’s verbal aggression, credibility, and three conflict styles (integrating, distributing, and avoiding). Similarly, Bevan (2010) examined serial arguments and the three conflict strategies in romantic and family relationships.

The present study focuses on the two broader dimensions of conflict negotiation behavior – distribution and integration – for three reasons. First, the five conflict styles mirror the integrative, distributive, and avoidance categories (Putnam, 2013). Second, the

supervisor-subordinate conflict negotiation examined in this study involves urgency that makes avoidance inapplicable (see details about the conflict negotiation scenario in the method section). Third, focusing on fewer dependent variables helps maintain parsimony and reduce complexity for the study. Specifically, this study will investigate the extent to which participants intend to respond *distributively* or *integratively* to a core concerns message. Because the core concerns framework attends to the interests of all parties and seeks to produce integrative agreements, a core concerns message should translate into more integrative than distributive responses. Based on CAT, it is likely that an accommodating core concerns message would be viewed as more sincere and effective, thus generating more cooperation and integrative responses. Conversely, negotiators who underaccommodate the core concerns may be perceived as cold or uncaring while those who overaccommodate the core concerns may be perceived as trying too hard or manipulating. Both of the latter can increase social distance and distributive behavior. Hence, it is hypothesized:

> **H2:** Core concerns accommodativeness has a Bell-shaped curvilinear relationship with integrative intention such that under- and overaccommodation are associated with decreased integrative intention while moderate accommodation is associated with increased integrative intention.
>
> **H3:** Core concerns accommodativeness has a U-shaped curvilinear relationship with distributive intention such that under- and overaccommodation are associated with increased distributive intention while moderate accommodation is associated with decreased distributive intention.

Mediator: goodwill and conflict negotiation

Messages are interpreted and evaluated through the subjective perception of the receiver toward the speaker. McCroskey and Teven (1999) posited, “No message is received independently from its source or presumed source” (p. 90). Arguably, the effects of managers’ core concerns accommodativeness on employees’ positive emotion and intended negotiation behavior may be mediated by the employees’ subjective perception of manager credibility. A highly credible source is commonly found to influence perceptions and behaviors more than a low-credibility one (Bannister; 1986; Pornpitakpan, 2004; Suzuki, 1978). McCroskey and Teven (1999) proposed that source credibility consisted of three dimensions: *competence, trustworthiness,* and *goodwill*. Competence refers to expertness, qualifications, or the extent to which one knows what one is discussing (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). Trustworthiness refers to the degree to which an audience perceives the communicator to be honest (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). Goodwill is defined as perceived caring or positive intent of the speaker toward the audience (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Teven, 1999). McCroskey (1992) found that we listen more attentively to a person who we believe has our best interests at heart than to one who does not. Therefore, goodwill is considered a means of opening communication channels and maybe the most important factor of credibility (McCroskey, 1998). For parsimony and the rationale provided hereafter, this study will focus on goodwill as the mediator in the relationship between core concern accommodativeness and its outcomes. The mediating effects of competence and trustworthiness will be examined and reported in a follow-up study.

Goodwill has three components: understanding, empathy, and responsiveness (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). *Understanding* is knowing another's ideas, feelings, and needs. *Empathy* involves the identification with another's feelings or views and accepting them as valid whether or not one agrees with those views. *Responsiveness* refers to the acknowledgment of another's communicative efforts as shown by the reaction time and degree of attentiveness. Research has shown goodwill to be positively associated with believability and likeability (McCroskey & Teven, 1999). The mediating effect of goodwill between core concerns accommodativeness and outcomes is worth exploring considering 1) the potentially critical role of perceived goodwill in conflict negotiation, 2) the standards for applying CCF appropriately, and 3) the recent CAT research findings.

First, although research on the effects of goodwill in supervisor-subordinate conflicts is limited, several studies in interpersonal and business relationships point to its relevant influence. Mikkelson, Sloan, and Hesse (2017) surveyed workers from various industries and found that employees perceived their employers as having less goodwill and less trustworthiness when supervisors took too much control of the conversation, too much time talking, or kept employees from sharing their input. In contrast, supervisors who exhibited higher persuasive and social skills were perceived to be more competent, trustworthy, and have more goodwill toward employees. Considering CCF, managers who attend to employees' core concerns should be viewed as having more goodwill than managers who ignore them. In another study, Gardner (1998) investigated teamwork among health professionals and found that goodwill decreased the negative effects of task conflict and enhanced interdisciplinary team collaboration. At the organizational level,

Malhotra and Lumineau (2011) analyzed legal files concerning contract disputes of 178 firms to examine the effects of contract (i.e., number of control versus coordination provisions) on trust and the intent of disputants to continue collaboration after their interfirm conflicts had been resolved. The researchers found that higher number of control provisions in the contract (e.g., confidentiality and termination of agreement clauses) increased competence-based trust (i.e., the belief in the other party's ability to perform as expected) but reduced goodwill-based trust (i.e., the belief in the other's intent to behave trustworthily). Reduced goodwill-based trust, in turn, decreased the likelihood of continued collaboration. These studies demonstrate that perceived goodwill or positive intent of individuals as well as organizations plays a significant role in mitigating negative results of conflict and promoting collaboration.

Second, Fisher and Shapiro (2005) suggested that negotiators use three standards to ensure that the core concerns are met appropriately: fairness, honesty, and consistency. *Fairness* refers to treatment corresponding to custom, law, organizational practices, and community expectations. *Honesty* involves communicating facts, expressing one's concerns, or addressing others' concerns without a deceptive intent. *Consistency* involves behaving in accordance with the circumstances. Conceivably, these three standards focus on a broader idea that negotiators must mean well and show their concerns authentically, parallel to the construct of goodwill. An examination of perceived goodwill can inform negotiators about the extent to which the outcomes of their core concerns accommodativeness hinges upon their recipients' subjective perceptions of their intent.

Third, recent communication accommodation research has focused on variables that mediate the effects of accommodation on outcome variables (Giles, 2016).

Particularly, CAT researchers have been investigating how *attributed intent* mediates the effects of speakers' accommodation on listeners' reactions (Gasiorek, 2013; Gasiorek & Giles, 2012; Gasiorek & Giles, 2015; Gasiorek & Dragojevic, 2017). Previous research has indicated that when individuals perceive a nonaccommodative communication as intentional and ill-intended, they evaluate both the nonaccommodative communication and speaker more negatively than when the nonaccommodative communication is perceived to be either unintentional or well-intended (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012). Perceptions of negative motive (e.g., intention to hurt or harm) have been found to increase the tendency to stop interacting with an underaccommodative speaker and express nonverbal negative affect (e.g., returning impoliteness) while decreasing the tendency to ignore or let the underaccommodative behavior pass (Gasiorek, 2013). Correspondingly, perceptions of positive motive (e.g., intention to help) have been found to increase positive evaluations of a nonaccommodative behavior. Also, research has consistently found overaccommodation to be perceived as more positively motivated (i.e., done with good intention) and, thus, more positively evaluated than underaccommodation (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012; Gasiorek & Giles, 2015). To date, the influence of attributions or inferred motives on under- and overaccommodation has received more scholarly attention than the influence of attributions on accommodation. More research is needed to examine the link between attributions and perceived accommodation and this study can increase this understanding in the CAT literature.

In sum, the critical role of positive intent in workplace interactions, core concerns application, and (non)accommodativeness emphasizes the importance of examining perceived goodwill as a potential mediator between core concerns accommodativeness

and its outcomes. Arguably, managers who underaccommodate their employees' core concerns may be perceived as uncaring or unempathetic (i.e., having less goodwill) which, in turn, decreases the employees' positive emotion and integrative intention but increases distributive intention. Managers who appropriately accommodate their employee's core concerns should be seen as having goodwill which consequently increases the employees' positive emotion and integrative intention while decreasing distributive intention. Although research has indicated overaccommodation is often perceived as more positively motivated and evaluated than underaccommodation (Gasiorek & Giles, 2015), overaccommodation may be perceived less favorably than accommodation. Thus, managers who overaccommodate their employees' core concerns may be regarded as less caring (compared to accommodative managers) which decreases the employees' positive emotion and integrative intention and increases distributive intention. Based on this rationale:

H4: Perceived goodwill will mediate the relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and a) positive emotion, b) integrative intention, and c) distributive intention.

Moderator: gender role and conflict negotiation

Today's women have greater opportunity in the workforce than in past decades (Owen, Scherer, Sincoff, & Cordano, 2003; Tinsley, Cheldelin, Schneider, & Amanatullah, 2009). Women now constitute nearly half of the labor force (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018) and the number of women heading Fortune 500 companies has significantly increased from 0% in 1995 to an all-time high of 6.4% in 2017 (Pew Research Center, 2018). Nevertheless, research has indicated that the United States work

force is still generally patriarchal (Semali & Shakespeare, 2014). Women continue to earn considerably less than men with the gender wage gap (for full-time/year-round workers) of 19.5% in 2017 (Hegewisch, 2018). Also, women remain underrepresented in senior executive positions and female leaders often face biases compared to their male counterparts (Catalyst, 2018; Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Livingston, Rosette, & Washington, 2012; Owen, Scherer, Sincoff, & Cordano, 2003). Currently, there are still dramatically fewer female Fortune 500 CEOs (4.8%) than male CEOs and the share of women occupying board seats was only 22.2% (Pew Research Center, 2018). The gender bias toward female leaders in general and disadvantages of female negotiators in particular warrant an examination of gender as a potential moderator in the relationship between the core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes.

Research on women's leadership has indicated that women are judged against male norms (Eddy & Cox, 2008). Effective managers are expected to possess such stereotypically masculine characteristics as independence, assertiveness, self-reliance, and power as opposed to stereotypically feminine characteristics as communality, caring, and helpfulness (Tinsley, Cheldelin, Schneider, & Amanatullah, 2009). Unlike men, women are often evaluated negatively when they violate these gendered expectations and display agentic behaviors such as assertiveness, anger, or dominance (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008; Korabik, Baril, & Watson, 1993; Livingston, Rosette, & Washington, 2012). Women are expected to be warm and communal and face a backlash when they deviate from female gender norms (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010; Tinsley, Cheldelin, Schneider, & Amanatullah, 2009). For example, Brescoll and Uhlmann (2008) reported that, regardless of occupational rank (i.e., whether CEO or

trainee) women who expressed anger in a professional context were accorded lower status and lower wages, and were seen as less competent, than angry men and unemotional women. Because the expected behaviors of effective leaders coincide with male stereotypes, female leaders often encounter a double bind in which they are forced to either be regarded as competent but unlikeable or likeable but incompetent (Tinsley, Cheldelin, Schneider, & Amanatullah, 2009). For example, job negotiation research has shown that self-promoting women were perceived as more competent but socially unattractive and were deemed less desirable job candidates (Janoff-Bulman & Wade, 1996). Another poignant example, former CEO of Hewlett Packard, Carly Fiorina, stated that she was routinely referred to as “either a ‘bimbo’ or a ‘bitch’ – too soft or too hard” (Zheng, Kark, & Meister, 2018, para 1). This double bind suggests that female managers may be perceived more negatively than their male counterparts when they underaccommodate or overaccommodate their employees.

In the negotiation context, research has shown that gender stereotypes negatively impact women at the bargaining table (Gladstone & O’Connor, 2014; Kulik & Olekalns, 2012; Tinsley, Cheldelin, Schneider, & Amanatullah, 2009). Women incur greater social costs than men when they negotiate on their own behalf and assert themselves in general (Bear, Weingart, & Todorova, 2014). Bowles, Babcock, and Lai (2007) found that female job candidates who asked for more compensation were judged significantly more demanding and less nice than male job candidates who engaged in the same behavior. Ayres and Siegelman (1995) observed 306 car negotiations and found that dealers quoted significantly lower prices to white males than to female (or black male) test buyers who bargained for the same model of car and used the identical scripts. The researchers

explained that dealers might use gender (and race) as a proxy for the customer's reservation price. In other words, sellers assumed that female and black buyers were willing to spend more on a new car compared to white male buyers, so sellers quoted women and blacks higher prices. Similarly, Amanatullah and Tinsley (cited in Tinsley et al., 2009) conducted a simulation in which a human resources (HR) manager, played by a female and a male, negotiated for a refund on unused hotel space. The results showed the female HR manager was judged more offensive and less likely to receive a refund than the male manager.

Notably, women tend to take a more passive style (i.e., compromising, obliging, or avoidant) (Holt & Devore, 2005; Tannen, 1994) while men tend to be more competing or dominating (Berryman-Fink & Brunner, 1987; Chan, Monroe, Ng, & Tan, 2006; Thomas, Thomas, & Schaubhut, 2008) which may put women at a disadvantage in a conflict interaction. However, comprehensive studies have indicated that the differences in men's and women's conflict styles are small (Canary, Cupach, & Messman, 1995; Walters, Stuhlmacher, & Meyer, 1998). Women can be as assertive (Putnam & Jones, 1982) or more assertive than men (Canary, Cunningham, & Cody, 1988) and have a tendency to mirror competitive behaviors of the other party (Walters, Stuhlmacher, & Meyer, 1998), especially when placed in vulnerable positions (Conrad, 1991). Hence, the small differences in men's and women's conflict behaviors may only partially explain the negative evaluations and less desirable negotiated outcomes women often receive (Gladstone & O'Connor, 2014). A growing literature suggests that the stereotypes people hold of female negotiators negatively affect women's negotiated outcome (Gladstone &

O'Connor, 2014; Kray, 2007). With men having more power than women culturally, "women and men often sit at an uneven table" (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014, p. 65).

Considering the culturally-bound gender stereotypes aforementioned, it can be conceived that female managers may be regarded more negatively than male managers when they underaccommodate their subordinates' core concerns. Neglecting the core concerns or the emotional and social needs of another would violate female gender norms that focus on caring for others and maintaining relationships (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Because communication accommodation often results in positive outcomes regardless of the speaker's gender, there may be no differences in the subordinates' perception of male and female managers when they accommodate the subordinates' concerns moderately. However, female managers may suffer more social consequences (e.g., perceived as too soft) compared to men when overaccommodating their subordinates' concerns. That is, female managers are likely to encounter a double bind and negative results, as shown in scholarly research and business practices, when they under- and over-accommodate their subordinates' core concerns (Janoff-Bulman & Wade, 1996; Zheng, Kark, & Meister, 2018). In sum:

H5: The positive effect of core concerns accommodativeness on a) positive emotion, b) integrative intention, and c) distributive intention will be greater for male managers than female managers.

H6: The negative effect of core concerns underaccommodation and overaccommodation on a) positive emotion, b) integrative intention, and c) distributive intention will be greater for female managers than male managers.

Chapter summary

Situated in the conflict communication literature, this research is based on the assumptions that 1) conflict is inevitable in supervisor-subordinate relationships, 2) conflict can lead to negative outcomes when managed poorly and positive outcomes when managed constructively, 3) negative emotions can hinder constructive conflict negotiation, and 4) communication is key to transforming emotions and negotiating conflict effectively. Fisher and Shapiro's (2005) core concerns framework is a principled negotiation strategy built upon the classic conflict negotiation book *Getting to Yes* (Fisher & Ury, 1981; Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011). The core concerns framework's tenet is that people have five basic social needs for appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role, which, when neglected, result in negative emotions and, when met, stimulate positive emotions. By attending to these five core concerns in themselves and other parties, negotiators can understand and respond to an emotional-laden conflict more effectively. This research sees the core concerns framework as a promising strategy for handling emotions in conflict negotiation, however its effectiveness needs more empirical investigation. Consistent with Shapiro's (2010) notion that "*how* one responds to a core concern will determine its efficacy" (p. 465), this research argues that the way the core concerns *are communicated* affects its efficacy. Grounded in the communication accommodation theory, which explains how and why individuals attune their communication to the needs or desires of the conversational partners, the present research predicted there would be curvilinear relationships between the core concerns accommodativeness (i.e., the degree to which the core concerns are attended to) and its outcomes. Specifically, moderate core concerns accommodation would be associated

with increased positive emotion and integrative (win-win) intention and decreased the distributive (win-lose) intention whereas core concerns under- and overaccommodation would be associated with decreased positive emotion and integrative (win-win) intention and increased distributive (win-lose) intention. This study also predicted that the employees' perceived goodwill of the managers and the manager gender would mediate and moderate these curvilinear relationships, respectively. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical model to be tested. In the next chapter, I explain the research methodology.

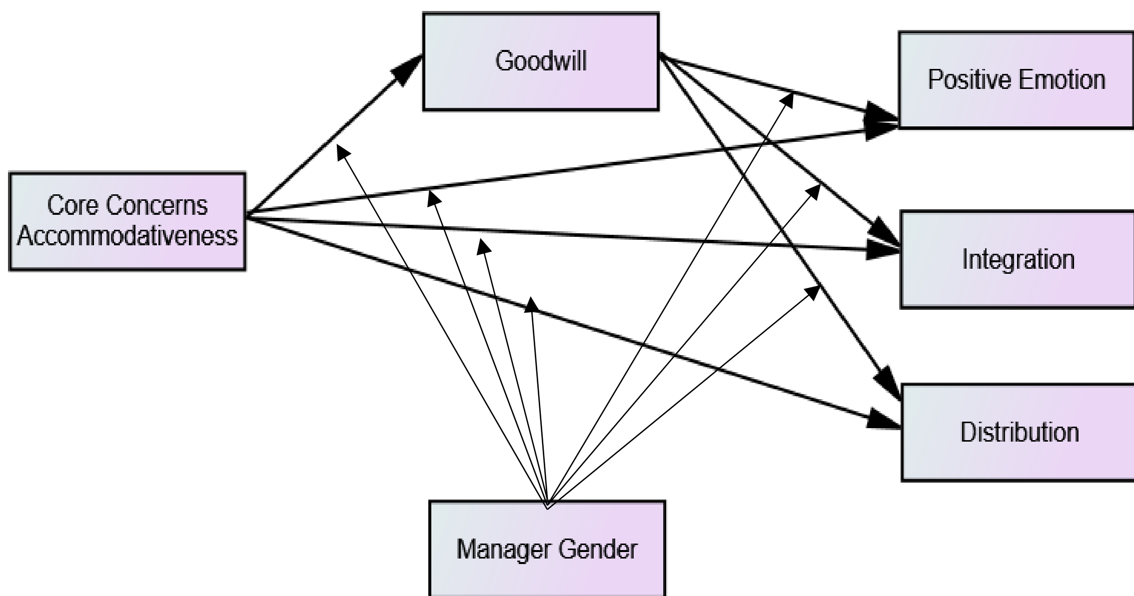

Figure 1. Theoretical Model.

CHAPTER III - METHODOLOGY

A quasi-experimental design was used to test the hypothesized relationships among core concerns accommodativeness, positive emotion, integrative intention, distributive intention, goodwill, and manager gender. A pilot survey was first conducted with a group of core concerns trainees to assess the validity of the conflict scenario and core concerns manipulations. After that, the main study was conducted with adult workers ages 18 and older. This chapter explains the research methodology beginning with the pilot study and manipulation checks. Then, the main study is described including the sample, data collection procedures, instruments, and data analysis.

Pilot study and manipulation checks

Prior to the survey execution, a pilot study was conducted to assure that 1) violations of the five core concerns were present in the conflict scenario, 2) the scenario prompted negative feelings, and 3) the three messages of the manager were significantly different on the degrees of accommodativeness and core concerns addressed. Eleven experts (i.e., adults age 18 and above working in the United States who were trained in the core concerns framework) took the pilot survey (Appendix A). Participants were recruited from a negotiation workshop delivered by Daniel Shapiro, the co-author of the core concerns framework and from a pool of individuals previously trained by the researcher and colleagues. Participants were asked to use their knowledge of the core concerns framework to complete the questionnaire.

Scenario check

The conflict scenario contained a mix of task and relationship issues, intended to invoke strong, negative emotions. The core concerns are not mutually exclusive and by

addressing just one concern (such as appreciation) one might incidentally meet many of the other core concerns (such as role or status) (D. Shapiro, personal communication, April 3, 2018). Therefore, the conflict scenario contained violations of all five core concerns. Also, a long-distance relationship situation between two parties was used to make the scenario more realistic and to lessen the impact of nonexistent relationships between participants and the fictional manager on the research results. According to Li, Tost and Wade-Benzoni (2007), the lack of realness in both the relationship manipulations and negotiation task was perhaps the biggest challenge in laboratory negotiation research. Therefore, the scenario used in this study was that the manager and employee were located in two different cities, the two of them never met personally, and the negotiation was about to occur via a videoconference call. After all, this type of online working relationship is common in the current technology-driven and global market. Based on the above premises, the scenario was:

> "You are Sam. You are a dedicated employee of the company ABC **[Status]**. You work in a local office and report directly to the new manager Taylor who is based in the company's headquarters in another city. During the past two months that Taylor has been in this current position, you have never met Taylor in person but have been communicating with Taylor via email and phone calls **[Affiliation].** For all of these two months, Taylor has consistently requested you to stay late at work to finish an "urgent" project and the request often comes half an hour or so before the end of your work day **[Autonomy].** You never deny the request because you know Taylor is new in this position and you want to support your manager as well as the company. However, Taylor has never once thanked you

for your dedication and good work **[Appreciation]**. You have started to wonder if your role means anything to the company **[Role].** You are feeling devalued, unappreciated, and used **[Appreciation].** It is 4.30 pm. Taylor is calling you via Skype and this is the first time you are going to see Taylor's face. You know you will be asked to stay late again and you feel this is the last straw."

In the questionnaire, participants first read the scenario (without the bracketed core concerns labels included above) and answered the question, "If you were Sam in this situation, what aspect of the situation would upset you?" Five aspects representing the five core concerns were given:

"Your dedication and good work have never been valued." [Appreciation]

"Your new manager has never taken time to meet with you and get to know you as a person." [Affiliation]

"You are never given a reason nor consulted whether you want to stay late working." [Autonomy]

"The consistently last-minute requests show the manager's lack of respect for you." [Status]

"You are not playing a meaningful role for this company." [Role]

Participants rated each of these five items on a 6-point scale from "not applicable" (0) to "not upsetting at all" (1) to "very upsetting" (5). An average score above 1 on any item would indicate the presence of at least a smallest possible violation of that core concern. Results met the expectations suggesting all five aspects of the scenario would upset participants in smaller or greater degrees: lack of appreciation M = 3.81, SD = .98; lack of affiliation M = 3.00, SD = 1.10; impinged autonomy M = 4.63, SD = .51;

neglected status M = 4.18, SD = .98; unfulfilling role M = 2.91, SD = 1.04. Hence, all five core concerns could be said to be present in the conflict scenario.

Negative feelings

After reading the scenario and indicating how upsetting each aspect of the scenario would be to them, participants were asked to imagine they were Sam, the employee, and indicate how much they would experience a set of positive and negative feelings from "not at all" (1) to "to a great extent" (5). Diener, Wirtz, Tov, Kim-Prieto, Choi, Oishi, and Biswas-Diener's (2010) Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) was used. The SPANE contained six items assessing positive feelings (e.g., happy and pleasant) and another six items assessing negative feelings (e.g., angry and afraid). In Diener et al.'s (2010) study, the positive subscale had Cronbach alpha of .87 and the positive subscale had Cronbach alpha of .81, suggesting high internal reliability. A paired t test indicated that participants would experience negative feelings (M = 3.27, SD = .77, $n = 11$) significantly more than positive feelings (M = 1.23, SD = .21, $n = 11$), hence the scenario was likely to stimulate negative feelings as intended.

Message check

For this study, accommodativeness (defined as the degree to which an individual is accommodating to another's social needs) is measured from two perspectives: 1) the core concerns perspective (i.e., the degree to which the core concerns are addressed in the negotiation) and 2) the communication accommodation theory perspective (i.e., how accommodating the manager is in the interaction). Statistical analyses were performed to make sure that the three messages were significantly different on both dimensions. The three messages were the following:

Underaccommodation. "Sam, I know this is aggravating but we gotta do what we gotta do. We don't have time for whining and complaining here. Stay over today to help me complete a client's urgent request."

Accommodation. "Sam, I'm glad I finally get to see your face. **[Affiliation]** First of all, I want you to know that I sincerely appreciate all you have been doing. **[Appreciation]** Your role is vital for our success **[Role]** and you have helped greatly with my transition to this position. **[Status]** I admire your dedication, knowledge, and excellent work. **[Appreciation/Status]** I know my last-minute requests have been aggravating and I really am sorry. I should have told you this a while back, Sam, but the reason why I keep coming to you so late in the day is because our new major client is based overseas and operates in a different time zone. They often make their request when they come into work which is when we are getting off work. So, I would be really grateful for your help as it happened again today. **[Appreciation]** This situation will last just a couple more weeks until we pass this phase of the project. During this time, you can come in an hour or two later whenever you stay late on the previous day. **[Autonomy]** Would you please stay over today to help me complete the client's request?" **[Autonomy]**

Overaccommodation. "Sam, my friend, I'm glad I finally get to see your face. **[Affiliation]** First of all, I want you to know that I sincerely appreciate all you have been doing. **[Appreciation]** Your role is vital for our success **[Role]** and you have helped greatly with my transition to this position. **[Status]** I admire your dedication, knowledge, and excellent work. **[Appreciation/Status]** I know my last-minute requests have been aggravating and I really am sorry. The reason why I keep coming to you so late in the day

is because our new major client is based overseas and operates in a different time zone. They often make their request when they come into work which is when we are getting off work. You are such a great asset to our team, and from now on, I will make sure to share with you important information about our department. **[Affiliation]** I will include you in all board meetings and we will work together like partners! **[Affiliation]** Also, Sam, I want you to be able to use your creativity and carry out your tasks the way you think is best. **[Autonomy]** I am not a micromanager and am totally open to your suggestions. **[Autonomy]** So, feel free to tell me what you think we can do better around here, yeah? **[Autonomy]** And, hey, with your experience and unmatched ability, **[Status]** I want to make sure you are happy with the role you are playing. **[Role]** If your current position is not fulfilling to you in anyway, you let me know, ok? We will figure something out. **[Role]** Your satisfaction is *super* important to me! For now, Sam, our client made an urgent request again today and I would be really grateful for your help. **[Appreciation]** This situation will last just a couple more weeks until we pass this phase of the project. During this time, you can come in an hour or two later whenever you stay late on the previous day. Would you please stay over today to help me complete the client's request?" **[Autonomy]**

In addition to the core concerns framework and communication accommodation theory, the three messages were designed following the principles of politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Underaccommodation followed the bald-on-record strategies and was blunt and straight forward. Accommodation was more elaborate incorporating both positive redress (e.g., attending to Sam's needs) and negative redress strategies (e.g., using questions, hedging, apologizing). Overaccommodation built upon the

accommodation with additional statements that intensified each of the five core concerns. The intensifications also included in-group forms of address (e.g., "Sam, my friend") and intensifiers (e.g., "*super* important to me!"). As a result, the three messages were different in length which was aligned with previous research that measured message effects and indicated that relational or other-oriented messages were usually longer in words (Ellison, Vitak, Gray, & Lampe, 2014; Freeman & Brinkley, 2014; Lowrey-Kinberg, 2018). Thus, the length of messages varied but was not a point of concern.

Extent of core concerns addressed

After indicating their likely emotions, participants read each of above-mentioned messages (i.e., underaccommodating, accommodating, and overaccommodating) [without the bracketed core concerns labels added above] and indicated the extent to which, they believed, Taylor addressed each of Sam's core concerns from "not addressed at all" (1) to "overly addressed" (5). This manipulation check was necessary to make sure that the messages did incorporate the core concerns framework and in various degrees. Hence, expert raters were used. A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that the three messages varied significantly on the extent of core concerns addressed ($F(2, 20) = 142.62$, $p < .001$). Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that the underaccommodative message ($M = 1.40$, $SD = .41$, $n = 11$) sparsely or unclearly addressed the core concerns compared to the accommodative ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .54$, $n = 11$, $p < .001$) and overaccommodative ($M = 4.25$, $SD = .41$, $n = 11$, $p < .001$) messages. The accommodative message moderately and clearly addressed the core concerns compared to the overaccommodative message that excessively addressed the core

concerns (p = .001). Therefore, the three messages were in the intended directions in terms of the extent of core concerns addressed.

Level of accommodativeness

Lastly, for each message, participants indicated the extent to which they thought Taylor was accommodating to Sam, from the CAT viewpoint, using the scale developed by Giles and colleagues for their international studies on communication accommodation and attitudes toward law enforcement (Barker, Giles, Hajek, Ota, Noels, Lin, & Somera, 2008; Giles, Fortman, Dailey, Barker, Hajek, Anderson, & Rule, 2006; Hajek, Giles, Barker, Lin, Zhang, & Hummert, 2008). The original communication accommodation scale contains five items measuring the degree to which an individual is *pleasant, accommodative, respectful, polite,* and *explanatory* when interacting with another. For this study, three new items were added to capture how an individual (i.e., the manager) also attended to another (i.e., the employee)'s *needs, concerns,* and *feelings*, the focal points of a core concerns message. The original scale is a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). To measure the broad range of underaccomodativeness to overaccommodativeness and detect curvilinear relationships between variables, the accommodation items used in this study were anchored by "not at all" (1), "a little" (2), "about right" (3), "a lot" (4), and "too much" (5). This rating format is conceptually aligned with the recent too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) perspective in management and organizational research which posits that all seemingly beneficial antecedents reach inflection points, ultimately resulting in an overall curvilinear pattern. Factor analyses were not feasible to assess the scale validity due to a small sample size and insufficient variances. However, the scale had acceptable internal reliability

(underaccommodation: $\alpha = .58$, M = 1.20, SD = .11, $n = 11$; accommodation $\alpha = .93$, M = 3.38, SD = .22, $n = 11$; and overaccommodation $\alpha = .91$, M = 3.82, SD = .27, $n = 11$).

A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that the three messages varied significantly on the extent of core concerns accommodativeness (F [2, 20] = 105.02, $p < .001$). Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that the underaccommodative message had a significantly lower accommodation score (M = 1.17, SD = .19, $n = 11$) than the accommodative (M = 3.37, SD = .62, $n = 11$, $p < .001$) and overaccommodative (M = 3.82, SD = .66, $n = 11$, $p < .001$) messages. The accommodative message also had a significantly lower accommodation score than the overaccommodative message ($p = .043$). Therefore, the three messages were in the intended directions in terms of the degree of perceived accommodation.

In sum, the pilot test with the expert raters indicated that the scenario and message manipulations were valid. The next step was to conduct the actual study.

Main study

The main study used a volunteer sample consisting of adult workers from different parts of the United States working in various industries. Participants were not experts in the core concerns framework and not aware of the research purpose. Three criteria were used to include participants in the data analysis:

1. Participants must be working adults age 18 or over employed full-time or part-time in the United States. Three hundred and sixty-five participants met this criterion.

2. Participants must not have extreme scores, based on univariate outlier and multivariate outlier analyses, that could distort the results. Of 365 initial participants, 339 met this criterion.
3. To clearly separate the three levels of accommodation and allow for a more accurate interpretation on the effects of the core concerns messages, cutoff points were used for each of the three accommodative conditions. This approach followed a communication accommodation study conducted by Gasiorek and Giles (2012). A score on the communication accommodation scale of less than 2.50 represented underaccommodation, a score between 2.50 and 3.50 represented accommodation, and a score greater than 3.50 represented overaccommodation. One hundred and four (30.67%) participants who rated their fictional managers' core concerns accommodativeness below or above their groups' cutoff points were excluded from the analyses. The final data set included 235 (69.32%) participants. An analysis was performed to ensure that the 30.67% case removal would not bias the results which is explained in the Data Analysis Section.

The following sections explain the data screening, sample, data collection procedures, instruments, and data analysis for testing the hypotheses.

Data screening

The data were screened for multicollinearity, univariate outliers, multivariate outliers, and missing values, four issues that could create problems to path analyses (the statistical approach used in this study) which could result in poor interpretation. First, multicollinearity occurs when two or more predictors are highly correlated, suggesting

they are overlapping and redundant (Kline, 2011). To check for multicollinearity, three multiple regression analyses were performed with accommodativeness and goodwill as the independent variables and emotion (F [2, 250] = 362.82, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .74$), integrative intention (F [2, 250] = 39.61, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .24$), and distributive intention (F [2, 250] = .354, $p = .70$, $R^2 = .003$) as dependent variables, respectively. With r^2 values less than .90, tolerance values greater than .10, and variance inflation factor (VIF) values less than 10.0 in all three analyses, multicollinearity was not an issue (Kline, 2011). Second, univariate outliers are cases with extreme scores on a single variable. Frequency distributions of z scores were inspected and sixteen cases had z scores greater than 3 indicating they were outliers. Thus, those cases were removed from the analysis. Third, multivariate outliers are extreme scores on a combination of two or more variables. To look for these multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis Distance procedures were run on SPSS with the same multiple regression analyses explained above. The Mahalanobis Distance values of two cases were significant at $p < .001$ with two degrees of freedom. These two cases were considered multivariate outliers and thus removed. Lastly, the data were screened for missing values on the hypothesized continuous variables (core concerns accommodativeness, goodwill, positive emotional change, integrative intention, and distributive intention). Emotional change missed 1 value (0.3%), accommodativeness 7 values (2.1%), and goodwill 45 values (13.3%). Integration and distribution had no missing values. A missing value analysis was performed on IBM SPSS and the results of Little's MCAR tests were not statistically significant ($X^2 = 17.97$, $df = 12$, $p = .116$), indicating that the missing data were completely at random and not problematic. The

missing values were replaced with medians of nearby points. In conclusion, the data set was considered clean and satisfactorily meeting path analysis assumptions.

Participants

As previously mentioned, the final data set was comprised of 235 participants. Path analysis is an extension of multiple regression (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017). Therefore, the factors for determining an appropriate sample size of a multiple regression were considered in this study including effect size, desired statistical power, probability level of making Type I error, and number of predictors (Stevens, 2002). With the effect size of .25, power of 0.8, probability level of .05, and 3 predictors (accommodativeness, accommodativeness squared, and perceived goodwill), the suggested sample size would be 48 (Soper, 2019). Additionally, Stevens (2002) recommended a general rule of at least 15 participants per predictor in multiple regression analysis. With three predictors, the minimum sample size would be 45. Because confirmatory factor analyses were used to assess the validity of the scales in this study, the average sample size for a confirmatory factor analysis was also considered. Following Kline (2011), the average sample size is 200. Therefore, a sample size of 235 was appropriate for this study.

Participants were recruited through five different channels: 1) online participant pools (106 usable responses or 44.7%), 2) word of mouth (55 usable responses or 23.20%), 3) a campus-wide e-newsletter at a large Southeastern United States university (38 usable responses or 16%), 4) social media (29 usable responses or 12.2%), and 5) the National Communication Association email listserv (9 responses or 3.8%). Respondents from Amazon MTurk were compensated US$1 for completing the survey. All other

respondents were offered a chance to win one of five $25 Amazon gift cards.

Participants' demographics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Participants' Demographics (n = 235)

Characteristic	*n*	%	Characteristic	*n*	%
Age			**Job Titles**		
M = 35.14, *SD* = 12.63, Min = 18, Max = 74			Intern/Entry Level/Clerical	80	34.0
Sex			Analyst/Associate/professional	87	37.0
Male	83	35.3	Management	63	26.8
Female	148	63.0	Owner	3	1.3
Not reported	4	1.7	Not reported	2	0.9
Ethnicity			**Industries**		
American Indian/Alaskan Native	2	0.9	Education	67	28.51
Asian/Pacific Islander	17	7.2	Professional, scientific, and	59	25.11
Black/African American	12	5.1	technical services		
Hispanic/Latino	11	4.7	Wholesale and retail trade	27	11.49
Mixed Ethnicity	4	1.7	Healthcare and social	24	10.21
White/Caucasian	186	79.1	assistance		
Not reported	3	1.3	Food and hospitality	21	8.94
Education			Construction, manufacturing,	16	6.81
Up to high school	61	25.9	transportation, and		
Associate degree	32	13.6	warehousing		
Bachelor's degree	78	33.2	Arts, entertainment, and	8	3.40
Master's degree	43	18.3	recreation		
Doctoral degree or equivalent	19	8.1	Government and military	8	3.40
Not reported	2	0.9	Others	5	2.13

Procedures

An online quasi-experimental survey was used (see Appendix B). A quasi-experiment approximates but lacks one or more elements of a true experiment: random sampling, random assignment, and control group (Babbie, 2013; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Because random sampling was not feasible in this study, a true experiment cannot be used. The random assignment approach was used as will be explained next. Quasi-experiments can provide exploratory findings about cause-effect relationships when true

experiments are not possible (Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000; Patten, 2012) and are used frequently in conflict management research (e.g., Bendersky, 2007; Beersma, Harinck, & Gerts, 2003; Itzchakov & Kluger, 2017). Because the current study sought to examine the outcomes of the core concerns message when delivered in different accommodative levels, a quasi-experimental design was considered appropriate.

Participants were randomly assigned into either a male or female manager group and read the manager-subordinate conflict scenario (the pilot-tested one). They then indicated their possible emotions as if they were the subordinate and the situation happened to them in real life. The vignette for male and female managers had the exact same text except that the title “Mr” and “Ms” preceded the manager’s name “Taylor” to denote the manager’s gender.

After reading the scenario and indicating their likely emotional state, participants were once again randomly assigned to read one of three core concerns messages from the manager. The random assignment was set in such a way that each of the three groups had a relatively equal number of participants. The three messages (explained previously) included the manager addressing the core concerns in underaccommodative, accommodative, and overaccommodative manners, respectively. After reading the message, participants completed a series of scales indicating the accommodative level of the message, their perceptions of the manager’s goodwill, their intended responses to the manager (distributive versus integrative behavior), and their emotional state after receiving the manager’s core concerns message. Participants also answered demographic questions including their age, sex, ethnicity, education level, employment status, US residency, job title, and industry.

Measures

Accommodativeness. As aforementioned, participants in the main study were not trained in the core concerns framework. Also, trained raters in the pilot study had determined that the three messages were significantly different on the *extent of core concerns addressed* (i.e., the degree to which appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role were attended to in each message from not at all to overly addressed). Therefore, the main study focused solely on the *level of accommodativeness* participants perceived in the manager's message assigned to them. As in the pilot study, a modified version of Giles and colleagues' communication accommodation scale (Barker et al., 2008; Giles et al., 2006; Hajek et al., 2008) was used to make sure participants considered each message the way it was intended to be (i.e., underaccomodative, accommodative, and overaccommodative, respectively). As a reminder, three new items (*attentive to another's needs, concerns,* and *feelings*) were added to the original five-item communication accommodation scale (*pleasant, accommodative, respectful, polite,* and *explanatory*) to capture the scope of the core concerns communication. An exploratory factor analysis using the principal axis factoring method with promax rotation revealed the previous five items and three new items loaded well together. Only one factor with an eigenvalue above 1 was extracted which accounted for 85.97% of the total variance. Factor loadings ranged from .93 to .94.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to make sure the three messages were statistically different and were perceived by participants in each group as they were intended to be. Results showed that the three messages were perceived as planned with *underaccomodation* having the lowest accommodative mean score (M = 1.28, SD = .33,

n = 110), *accommodation* having the moderate mean score (M = 3.06, SD = .29, n = 62), and *overaccommodation* having the highest mean score (M = 3.93, SD = .27, n = 63), *Welch's F*(2, 139.73) = 1686.26, $p < .001$. It should be noted that the three messages were used to manipulate the different levels of core concerns accommodativeness. Because this study aimed to examine the linear and curvilinear relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes as opposed to investigate differences between groups, accommodativeness was treated as a continuous variable in path analysis models with all three groups combined into one (n = 235). Using the cutoff points procedure previously mentioned, the accommodativeness scores consist of different degrees of underaccommodation (less than 2.50), accommodation (between 2.50 and 3.50), and overaccommodation (greater than 3.50) with no overlapping scores between groups. Treating accommodativeness as a continuous variable in this way allowed for an examination of its predictive value and linear or curvilinear relationships through path analysis, a statistical technique that is not feasible with categorical or grouping variable (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017).

Emotional change. Like in the pilot study, Diener and colleagues' (2010) Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE) was used to measure participants' emotion after they read the conflict scenario (pre-test) and after they read the manager's core concerns message (post-test). To explain further, the SPANE is a 12-item questionnaire containing six items that assess positive feelings (SPANE-P) and six items that assess negative feelings (SPANE-N). For both the positive and negative subscales, three of the items are general (i.e., SPANE-P: positive, good, pleasant; SPANE-N: negative, bad, unpleasant) and the other three are more specific (i.e., SPANE-P: happy, joyful, and

contented; SPANE-N: sad, afraid, and angry). Thus, the SPANE captures a broader range of positive and negative feelings compared to previous emotion scales (Deiner et. al, 2010). The original SPANE instructs respondents to think about what they have been experiencing during the past four weeks and report how much they experienced each feeling from "very rarely or never" (1) to "very often or always" (5). In this study, participants were asked to put themselves in Sam's shoes and imagine how much they would experience each of the listed feelings from "not at all" (1) to "to a great extent" (5).

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to determine the number of constructs of this scale. In the first analysis with pre-test data, a principal axis factoring analysis with the promax rotation indicated that the SPANE had two factors, each with an eigenvalue above 1 and accounting for a combined 55.36% of the total variance (SPANE-P, 34.46% of the variance; SPANE-N, 20.89% of the variance). Factor loadings ranged from .69 to .82 for positive feelings and .48 to .82 for negative feelings. The item "afraid" had the lowest factor loading of .48. The principal axis factoring analysis for post-test data yielded similar results suggesting the SPANE had two factors, each with an eigenvalue above 1 and accounting for a combined 79.34% of the total variance (SPANE-P, 71.71% of the variance; SPANE-N, 7.63% of the variance). Factor loadings ranged from .83 to .96 for positive feelings and .67 to .83 for negative feelings.

In sum, the final SPANE-P (positive feelings subscale) had six items (i.e., positive, good, pleasant, happy, joyful, and contented) and the SPANE-N (negative feelings subscale) had five items (i.e., negative, bad, unpleasant, sad, and angry). (The item "afraid" was removed in the final data analyses due to the weak standardized

regression coefficient in confirmatory factor analysis). For each of the two SPANEs, the *affect balance score* was calculated by subtracting negative feelings score from the positive feelings score, resulting in a range between -25 (unhappiest possible) and 25 (happiest possible). The pre-test affect balance score was then subtracted from the post-test affect balance score to measure participants' *emotional change*. This yielded a range from -50 (the most negative change possible) to 50 (the most positive change possible).

Intended negotiation behavior. Eight slightly modified items from the Dutch Test for Conflict Handling (DUTCH, De Dreu et al., 2001) were used to measure how likely participants would respond distributively and integratively to the manager's core concerns message from "definitely not" (1) to "definitely" (5). In Beersma, Harinck, and Gerts's (2003) study, the DUTCH scale had Conbrach alphas of .70 for the distributive behavior subscale and .82 for the integrative behavior subscale, indicating the scale is fairly reliable. Two new items were added to further increase internal reliability for both subscales, however the two added items had low factor loadings and hence were removed from the analysis.

The *distributive intention* subscale included four items from the DUTCH's "forcing" subscale (i.e., high concern for self and low concern for others) including such statements as, "I would search for gains for myself" and "I would do everything to win."

The *integrative intention* subscale included four items from the DUTCH's problem-solving subscale (i.e., high concern for both parties), for example, "I would stand for my own as well as the manager's goals and interests" and "I would try to find a solution that is optimal both for me and the manager."

An exploratory factor analysis using the principal axis factoring method with promax rotation suggested that the scale had two factors, each with an eigenvalue above 1 and accounting for a combined 56.61% of the total variance (integrative intention, 37.17% of the variance; distributive intention, 19.43% of the variance). Factor loadings ranged from .46 to .79 for *distributive items* and .66 to .86 for *integrative items.* The two variables were slightly correlated (r = .26, p < .01) in the positive direction, suggesting that participants did not intend to respond either positively or negatively. For those who intended to seek a win-lose solution, there was a 7% chance that they were also willing to seek a win-win solution, and vice versa. This provided support for examining these two variables independently.

Goodwill. Participants' perceptions of manager goodwill were assessed using the Goodwill Subscale in McCroskey and Teven's (1999) Source Credibility Measure. The 7-point scale has six bipolar items: "care about me/doesn't care about me" (reverse-coded), "has my interest at heart/doesn't have my interest at heart" (reverse-coded), "self-centered/not self-centered," "concerned with me/not concerned with me" (reversed coded), "insensitive/sensitive," "not understanding/understanding". An exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring with the promax rotation indicated that this measure had a single construct with an eigenvalue above 1, accounting for 69.87% of the total variance. Factor loadings ranged from .71 to .93.

In addition to the above measures and demographic data, the questionnaire used in this study collected data on the other two credibility dimensions (i.e., competence and trustworthiness), however only the goodwill dimension was used to test the hypotheses for the rationale explained in the literature review and to maintain parsimony of the

research. Results on competence and trustworthiness will be reported in a follow-up study. Interested individuals can contact the author for further information.

Validity and reliability of measurements

Confirmatory factor analysis. To assess the construct validity of the measures, a confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model was conducted. The measurement model included all scales previously mentioned: accommodativeness, pre-test SPANE-P, pre-test SPANE-N, post-test SPANE-P, post-test SPANE-N, distributive intention, integrative intention, and goodwill. The model indices indicated the model fit the data adequately: $X^2 = 1822.67$, ($df = 961$, $n = 235$, $p < .001$), TLI = .92, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07). All items were statistically significant at $p < .001$ and had reasonably robust regression weights except for the item “afraid” in pre-test SPANE-N which had unacceptable coefficient of .26. The low regression weight for “afraid” was consistent with the results of exploratory factor analyses in this study and in the original SPANE study by Diener and colleagues (2010). Diener and his colleagues posited that the lowest loadings (“afraid” and “angry”) were *specific* negative emotions which might not be tapped, in certain groups of respondents, compared to more *general* feelings such as “negative” or “bad.” They suggested that researchers might use only the three general negative and positive items. Conceptually, the low regression weight for “afraid” makes sense in the present study because the imaginary conflict scenario and the manager’s message might not prompt participants to feel afraid compared to other more general feelings (e.g., “negative” or “unpleasant”) which were more likely to be evoked. Therefore, “afraid” was removed from pre-test SPANE-N as well as post-test SPANE-N for consistency, and another CFA for the measurement model was run. The revised

model fit the data reasonably well: $X^2 = 1617.29$, ($df = 874$, $n = 235$, $p < .001$), TLI = .93, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .06). All items were statistically significant at $p < .001$ and had acceptable to robust standardized regression weights, suggesting the scales were satisfactorily valid. Table 2 shows standardized regression weights of all indicators.

Table 2

Standardized Regression Weights for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of All Scales

Scale	Standardized Regression Weights
Accommodativeness	
1. Pleasant	.94
2. Accommodative	.93
3. Respectful	.94
4. Polite	.93
5. Explaining things clearly	.86
6. Responding to your needs	.94
7. Addressing your concerns	.93
8. Attending to your feelings	.94
Goodwill	
1. Cares about me/Doesn't care about me (reverse coded)	.92
2. Has my interests at heart/Doesn't have my interests at heart (reverse coded)	.94
3. Self-centered/Not self-centered	.68
4. Concerned with me/Not concerned with me (reverse coded)	.90
5. Insensitive/Sensitive	.75
6. Not understanding/Understanding	.80
Pre-Test SPANE-P (Positive Emotion)	
1. Positive	.70
2. Good	.78
3. Pleasant	.69
4. Happy	.78
5. Joyful	.59
6. Contented	.63
Pre-Test SPANE-N (Negative Emotion)	
1. Negative	.78
2. Bad	.72
3. Unpleasant	.76
4. Sad	.43
5. Angry	.72
Post-Test SPANE-P (Positive Emotion)	
1. Positive	.97
2. Good	.96
3. Pleasant	.94

Table 2

Standardized Regression Weights for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of All Scales (continued)

Scale	Standardized Regression Weights
4. Happy	.93
5. Joyful	.84
6. Contented	.89
Post-Test SPANE-N (Negative Emotion)	
1. Negative	.96
2. Bad	.87
3. Unpleasant	.96
4. Sad	.70
5. Angry	.94
Distributive Intention	
6. I would push my own point of view.	.68
7. I would search for gains for myself.	.75
8. I would fight for a good outcome for myself.	.78
9. I would do everything to win.	.50
Integrative Intention	
1. I would examine the situation until I find a solution that really satisfies me and the manager.	.85
2. I would stand for my own as well as the manager's goals and interests.	.69
3. I would try to find a solution that is optimal both for me and the manager.	.85
4. I would work out a solution that serves my own as well as the manager's interests as good as possible.	.81

Confirmatory factor invariance analysis. Because a goal of this study was to examine whether the effects of the core concerns accommodativeness on outcome variables would be different across manager sexes, a multigroup analysis was necessary. Before a multigroup analysis can be performed, a confirmatory factor invariance analysis should be conducted to make sure that the measurement model can viably be applied to each group. As a preliminary step, two separate confirmatory factor analyses were

performed for participants in the male manager group and participants in the female manager group (Byrne, 2004).

The fit indices of both male and female manager groups were similar to that of the full-sample analysis reported above, suggesting that the measurement model configuration was applicable to both groups. For the male manager group, the fit indices were $X^2 = 1254.08$, ($df = 874$, $n = 121$, $p < .001$), TLI = .93, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07); for the female manager group, the fit indices were $X^2 = 1506.12$, ($df = 874$, $n = 114$, $p < .001$), TLI = .87, CFI = .88, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .08). The confirmatory factor invariance analysis was then performed, comparing the unconstrained model with the measurement weights model to evaluate whether there were any differences between groups in terms of the standardized regression weights (factor loadings) associating the indicator variables (scale items) to their factors. The unconstrained model was statistically significant, $X^2 = 2760.29$, $df = 1748$, $n = 235$, $p < .001$. No significance was found between the unconstrained model and the Measurement Weights, $X^2 = 50.41$, $df = 36$, $n = 235$, $p < .056$. This suggested that the scales were viable for respondents both in the male and female manager conditions.

Reliability. Cronbach's alpha reliability tests were run to assess the internal consistency reliability of all scales. As shown in Table 3, all scales in this study had acceptable to high internal reliability.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Cronbach's Alphas of All Scales

Scale	*M*	*SD*	*N* of Items	α
Accommodativeness	19.69	9.56	8	.98
Pre-test SPANE-P	7.63	2.43	6	.84
Pre-test SPANE-N	17.38	4.13	5	.81
Post-test SPANE-P	13.37	7.52	6	.97
Post-test SPANE-N	12.99	6.67	5	.95
Distributive Intention	11.92	3.48	4	.77
Integrative Intention	13.95	3.65	4	.87
Goodwill	21.74	10.10	6	.93

Data analysis

Path analysis using IMB SPSS AMOS 25 was used to test the hypotheses. Path analysis describes the interrelationships among multiple variables. Researchers can use a path model (a path diagram) to determine the strengths and type of relationship (direct or indirect) that they expect to be signified by the path coefficients in the model (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017). Path analyses can also be used to evaluate the overall fit of the model (i.e., how well the model explains the data). A model-fitting software such as AMOS allows researchers to use a *full-information* approach to path analysis in which all paths in the model are estimated simultaneously (Kelloway, 1998). In other words, "when the software is evaluating the relationship between one set of variables, it is taking into account (controlling for) the interrelationships between those variables and the remaining variables in the model" (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017, p. 569). Path analysis is suitable for testing a theory-based model and can robustly examine how the variables in the hypothesized model are related to each other.

Path analysis is a special case of structural equation modeling (SEM) (Maruyama, 1998). Like a path analysis, SEM is a comprehensive multivariate technique that analyzes directional and nondirectional relationships among multiple variables (Hoyle, 1995; MacCallum & Austin, 2000). It is designed to examine patterns of covariances among a set of variables and explain as much of their variance as possible with a specified model (Kline, 2011). The key difference between the two statistical approaches is that a path analysis contains only observed variables whereas an SEM includes both observed and latent variables in the model, hence accounting for measurement error (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2017). Simply put, SEM can be thought of as a combination of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis in one omnibus model (Weston & Gore, 2006). Due to the number of observed and latent variables as well as the goal of examining both linear and curvilinear relationships among variables in this study, path analysis was chosen over SEM to minimize complexity of the model and maintain parsimony (Aarts, 2007). To minimize measurement error, exploratory factor analyses and a confirmatory factor analysis were first conducted, and all measures achieved an acceptable to high level of reliability and validity. Path models with observed variables were then analyzed to test the hypotheses. In short, path analysis was considered a robust statistical technique appropriate for this study.

Because about 30% of cases were outside of the cutoff points for each accommodative level, two path models were run to ensure that the removal of these cases would not bias the results. The first model (n = 339) included and the second model (n = 235) excluded the 30% cases. The two models fit the data well and chi square difference test between the two models was not statistically significant (X^2 diff = .383, df = 2, p =

.83). Both models yielded the same results on the significant linear and curvilinear relationships among variables with only minor differences in the path coefficients and moderating effects. Therefore, the case removal was not an issue. The smaller data set removed the overlapping accommodativeness scores between groups that could confound the results and thus provide more accurate interpretation regarding the effects of core concerns accommodativeness per se. That is, we would be able to determine how the lower and higher level of accommodativeness *as linked to each core concerns message* (not simply as subjectively perceived by participants regardless of their manager message) affects the outcome variables. Therefore, the smaller sample size was used to test all of the hypotheses. For comparisons, please see the statistical findings from the entire sample (n = 339) in Appendix C.

In conclusion, this chapter outlined the research design for both the pilot study and main study. The pilot study with the expert raters indicated that the scenario and core concerns manipulations were valid. For the main study, the sample size was adequate, and the data met all path analysis assumptions. Additionally, the three core concerns conditions were statistically different as intended and all measures were satisfactorily valid and reliable. The next chapter will explain the results in detail.

CHAPTER IV – RESULTS

This study examined the interplay between core concerns accommodativeness, perceived goodwill, emotion, intended negotiation behavior, and gender role. It predicted that core concerns accommodativeness had a Bell-shaped curvilinear relationship with positive emotion (H1) and integrative intention (H2), and a U-shaped curvilinear relationship with distributive intention (H3). This research also predicted that the employees' perceived goodwill of the managers (H4) and the manager gender (H5 and H6) would mediate and moderate these relationships, respectively. Table 4 shows means and standard deviations of all variables by level of core concerns accommodativeness and manager gender. Table 5 shows correlations among the variables.

To test the hypotheses regarding the curvilinear relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes when mediated by perceived goodwill (H1 – H4), the model depicted in Figure 2 was analyzed in IBM SPSS AMOS 25. The figure includes standardized path coefficients with notations of significant paths (* = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .001$). For the ease of understanding, Figure 3 presents the same model with only significant paths.

Table 4

Variables' Means and Standard Deviations by Level of Core Concerns Accommodativeness and Manager Gender

Variable	Underaccommodation			Accommodation			Overaccommodation		
	Male (*n* = 51)	Female (*n* = 59)	Total (*n* = 110)	Male (*n* = 36)	Female (*n* = 26)	Total (*n* = 62)	Male (*n* = 34)	Female (*n* = 29)	Total (*n* = 63)
	M (SD)	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*
Accommodativeness	1.33 (.34)	1.24 (.33)	1.28 (.33)	3.07 (.29)	3.05 (.30)	3.06 (.29)	3.89 (.18)	3.98 (.34)	3.93 (.27)
Goodwill	2.04 (.95)	2.34 (1.03)	2.20 (1.00)	4.56 (.96)	4.03 (.83)	4.34 (.94)	5.39 (.91)	5.43 (.81)	5.41 (.85)
Positive Emotion	-1.61 (5.00)	-2.85 (5.46)	-2.27 (5.26)	19.33 (8.52)	16.04 (8.38)	17.95 (8.55)	23.88 (7.46)	24.31 (8.77)	24.08 (8.02)
Integrative Intention	3.10 (.87)	2.94 (.88)	3.02 (.87)	3.71 (.86)	3.68 (.61)	3.70 (.76)	4.15 (.68)	4.04 (.60)	4.10 (.64)
Distributive Intention	3.03 (.96)	2.95 (.80)	2.99 (.87)	2.76 (.95)	2.92 (.75)	2.83 (.87)	3.16 (.86)	3.06 (.85)	3.12 (.85)

Note. *n* = sample size, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation

Table 5

Intercorrelations among All Variables

Variable	*M*	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Accommodativeness	2.46	1.20	-				
2. Goodwill	3.62	1.68	.853*	-			
3. Positive Emotion	10.13	13.78	.865*	.817*	-		
4. Integrative Intention	3.49	.91	.499*	.492*	.473*	-	
5. Distributive Intention	2.98	.87	-.005	-.012	.000	.257*	-

*$p < .001$

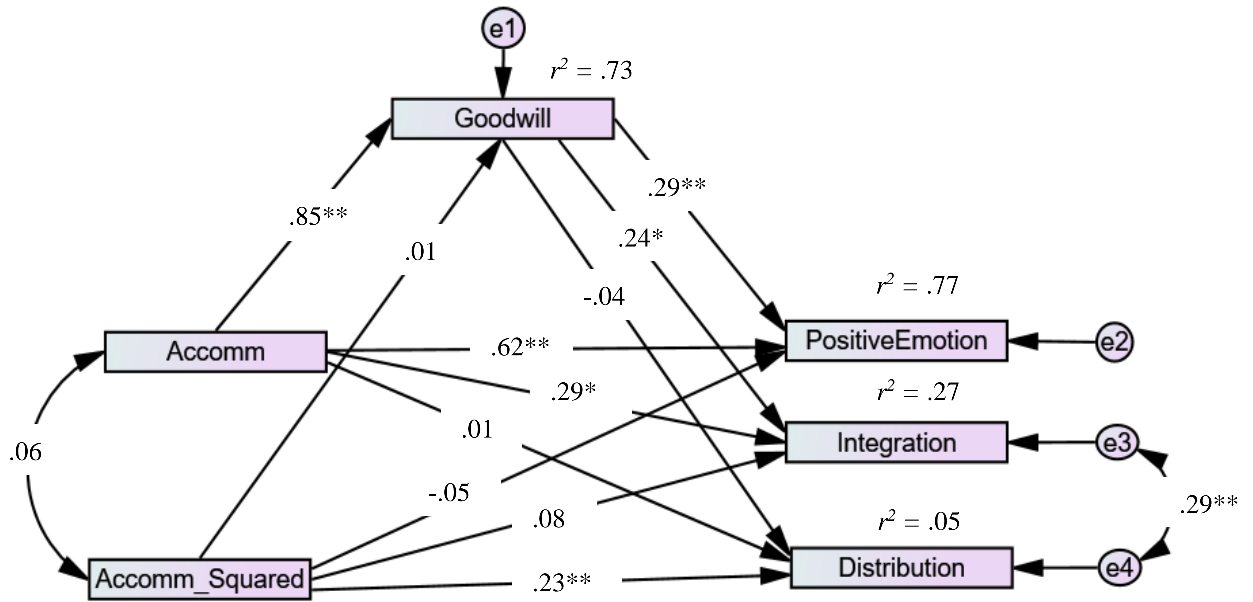

Figure 2. Statistical model with all paths.

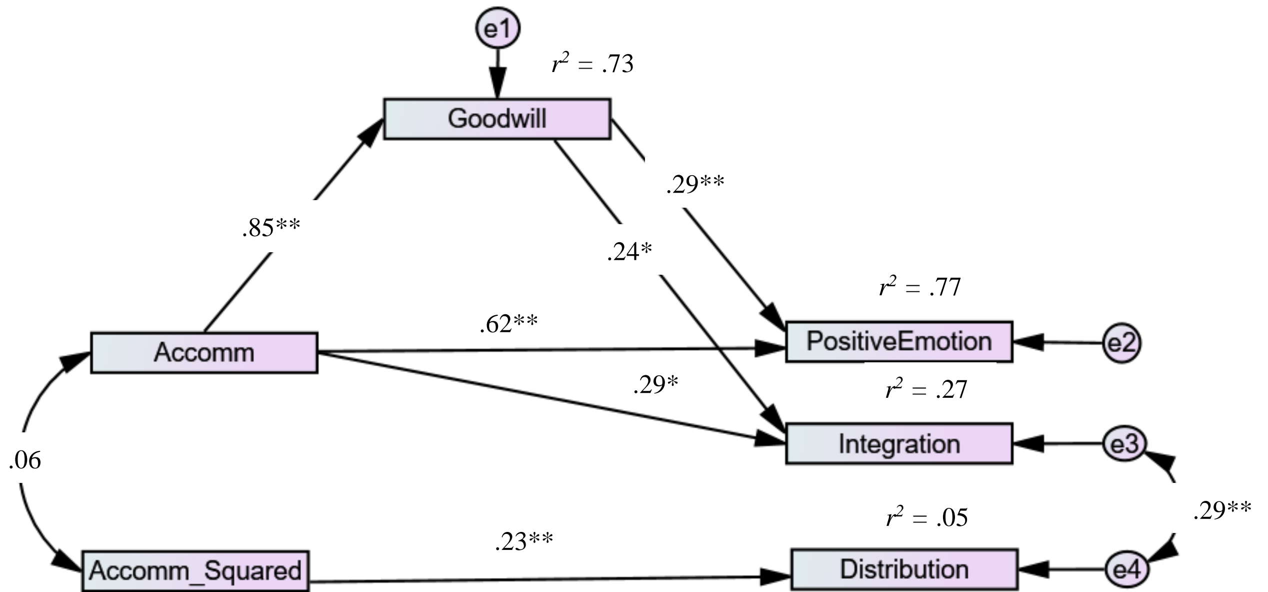

Figure 3. Statistical model with only significant paths.

All variables were treated as observed (using mean scores). Accommodativeness was the exogeneous variable and goodwill, positive emotion, integrative intention, and distributive intention endogenous variables. The original accommodativeness was centered, squared, and added to the model as another exogeneous variable pointing to all endogenous variables. The presence of the accommodativeness squared in the equation adds one bend to the regression line, and its regression coefficients indicate the extent to which accommodativeness is curvilinearly (i.e., quadratically) related to all of the dependent variables while controlling for its linear effects (Kline, 2009). The original accommodativeness was centered before it was squared and added into the equation to avoid extreme collinearity (Field, 2013; Kline, 2009). Fit indices indicated the model was a poor fit to the data: $X^2 = 22.06$, ($df = 3$, $n = 235$, $p < .001$), TLI = .87, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .17, SRMR = .05). The modification indices suggested that the addition of a correlation between integrative intention and distributive intention error terms would improve model fit. Such correlation makes sense considering both variables concern intended negotiation behavior, therefore a correlation between these error terms was incorporated into the respecified model. The revised model was an excellent fit to the data: $X^2 = 1.150$, ($df = 2$, $n = 235$, $p = .563$), TLI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .007). Table 6 reports model results for linear and curvilinear relationships between core concerns accommodativeness, goodwill, positive emotion, integrative intention, and distributive intention.

Table 6

Standardized Regression Weights for Linear and Curvilinear Relationships between Core Concerns Accommodativeness and Outcome Variables

	β	*p*
Accom to Goodwill	**.853**	< .001
Accom to Positive Emotion	**.620**	< .001
Accom to Integration	**.290**	.007
Accom to Distribution	.011	.930
$Accom^2$ to Goodwill	.006	.870
$Accom^2$ to Positive Emotion	-.053	.091
$Accom^2$ to Integration	.081	.149
$Accom^2$ to Distribution	**.230**	< .001
Goodwill to Positive Emotion	**.291**	< .001
Goodwill to Integration	**.239**	.025
Goodwill to Distribution	-.035	.774

Note. Accom = Accommodativeness; $Accom^2$ = Accommodativeness Squared; The paths from Accom to all other variables estimate linear effects of accommodativeness and the paths from $Accom^2$ estimate the curvilinear effects of accommodativeness, each controlling for the other effects. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

Surprisingly and contrary to H1 and H2, the results showed that core concerns accommodativeness had a significant and positive, linear relationship as opposed to curvilinear relationship with both positive emotion (H1, $r^2 = .77$) and integrative intention (H2, $r^2 = .27$). The more accommodative the manager was to the employee's core concerns, the more likely the employee would experience positive emotional change and intend to respond integratively (i.e., seeking win-win solutions). Hence, H1 and H2 were not supported. However, consistent with H3, core concerns accommodativeness had a significant curvilinear relationship with distributive intention ($r^2 = .05$). The employees' likelihood to respond distributively (i.e., seeking win-lose solutions) decreased as the manager's accommodativeness increased but then rose up when

accommodativeness reached a high point. In other words, distribution scores were higher at both under- and overaccommodation and lowest at moderate accommodation, forming a U-shaped curvilinear relationship. Therefore, H3 was supported. Figures 3-5 illustrates the linear and curvilinear relationships between accommodativeness and positive emotion, integrative intention, and distributive intention, respectively.

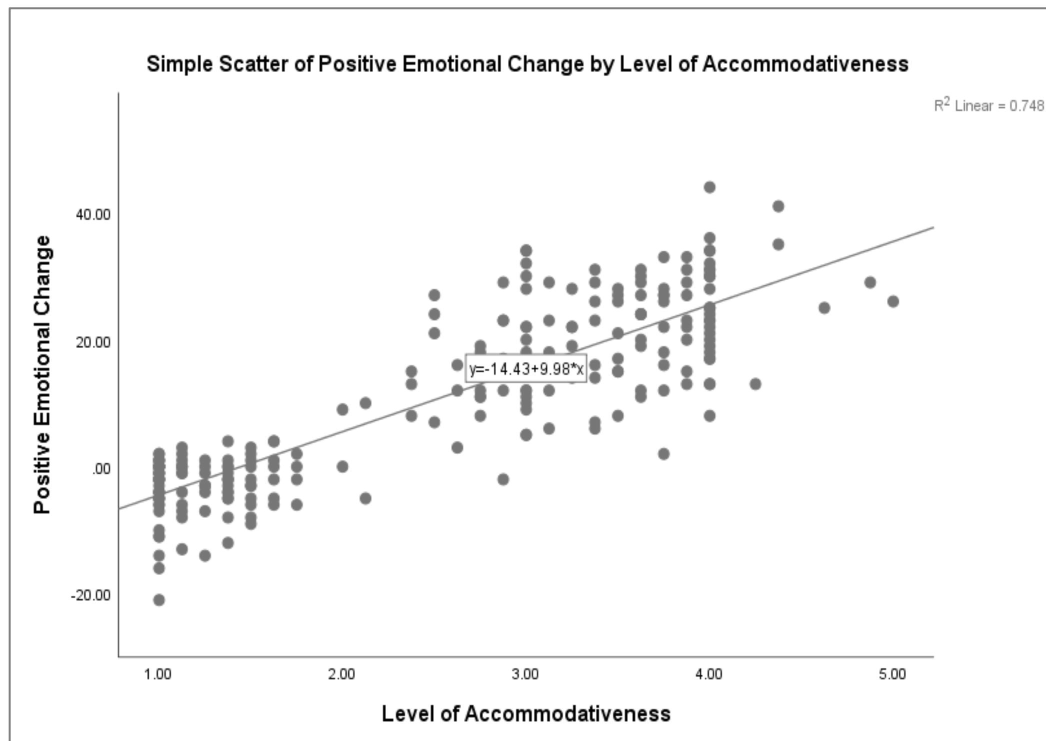

Figure 4. Linear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion.

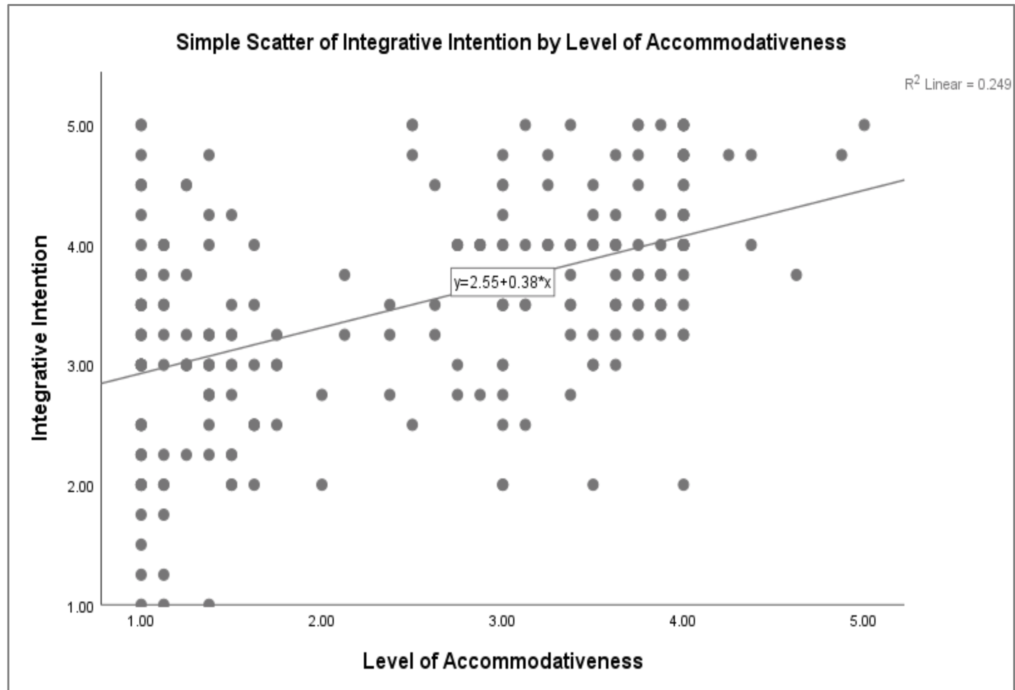

Figure 5. Linear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and integrative intention.

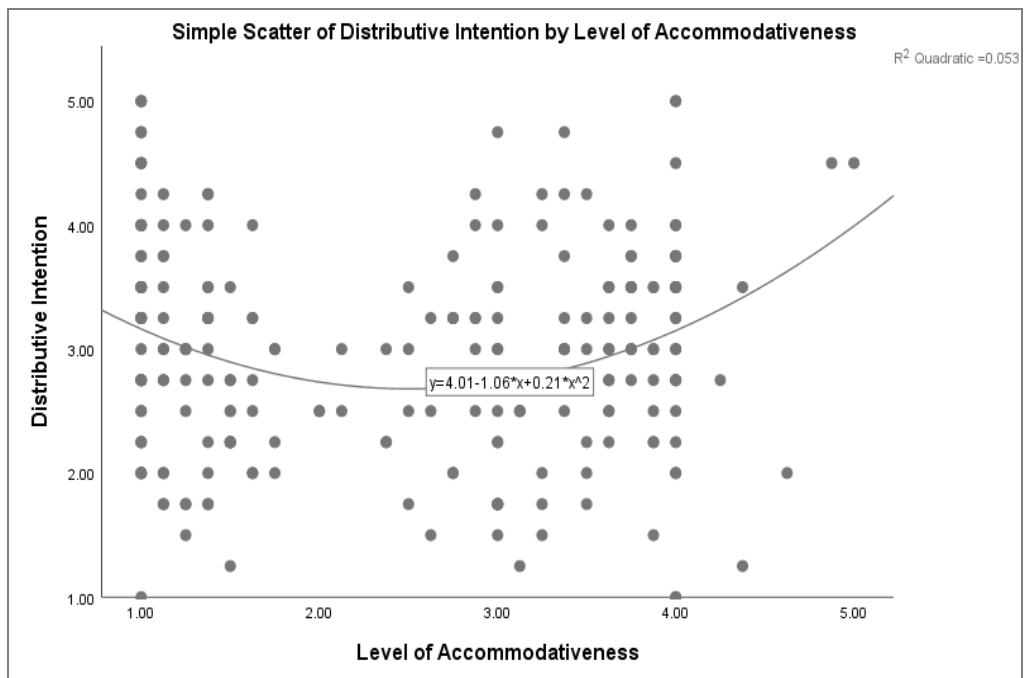

Figure 6. Curvilinear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention.

Hypothesis 4 stated that employee perceptions of manager goodwill would mediate the relationships between manager core concerns accommodativeness and outcome variables. As shown in Table 2 and Figure 6, accommodativeness significantly and strongly predicted goodwill in a linear fashion ($r^2 = .73$). Perceived goodwill, in turn, predicted positive emotion and integrative intention but did not predict distributive intention. This suggested that goodwill might mediate the linear relationship between accommodativeness and positive emotion and integrative intention but did not mediate the linear or curvilinear relationship between accommodativeness and distributive intention (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

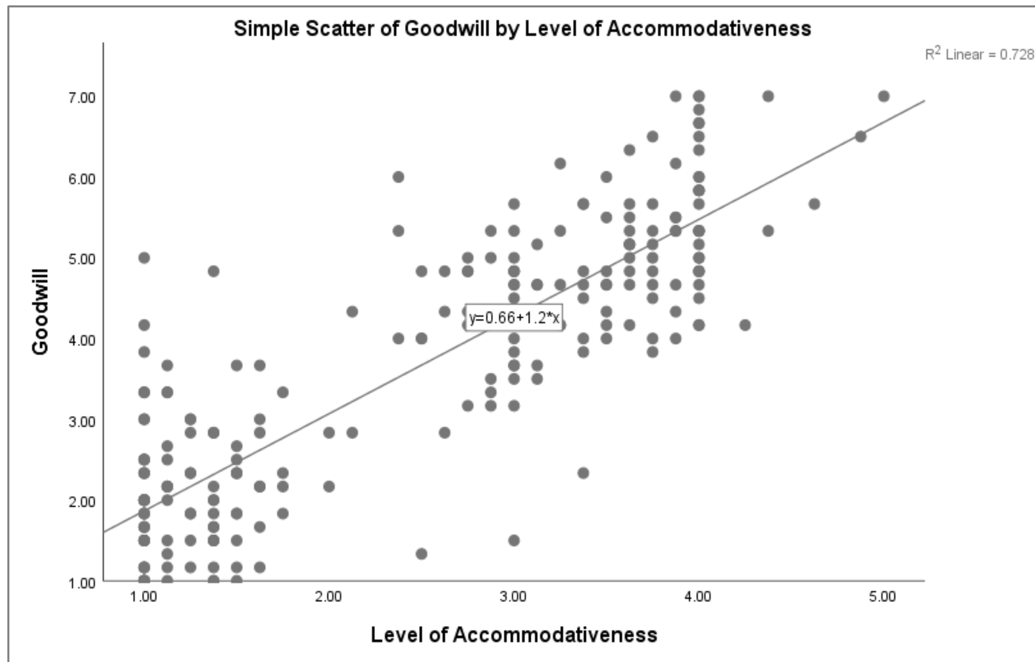

Figure 7. Linear relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and perceived goodwill

To examine the mediating effects of goodwill on all outcome variables, bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals was specified in the model shown above. Bootstrapping was considered the most powerful and reasonable method for testing mediating effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008), thus this approach was appropriate for this study. As shown in Table 7 under the "Indirect Effect" column, perceived goodwill was found to be a significant mediator only between accommodativeness and positive emotion. The influence of goodwill did reduce the direct effect of accommodativeness on integrative intention but not at a significant level. No mediating effect was found between accommodativeness and distributive intention.

This implies that accommodativeness had both direct effect on positive emotion and indirect effect on positive emotion through perceived goodwill. In other words, employees were likely to experience even greater positive emotion when they perceived the manager goodwill to be high. Likewise, the influence of manager accommodativeness on employee positive emotion would be lower when employees perceived the manager goodwill to be low. The mediating effect of goodwill between accommodativeness and integrative intention should be further explored. For distributive intention, the results indicated that the high or low level of manager goodwill in the eye of the employees did not matter. Accommodativeness decreased distributive intention only up to a certain point. When accommodativeness passed the moderate level, it increased distributive intention. Therefore, hypothesis four was partially supported.

Table 7

Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Accommodativeness on Positive Emotion, Integrative Intention, and Distributive Intention

	Direct			Indirect			Total		
	β	95% CI	*p*	*β*	95% CI	*p*	*β*	95% CI	*p*
Accommodativeness (linear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	.620	[.51, .72]	**< .001**	.248	[.16, .35]	**< .001**	.868	[.84, .89]	**.001**
Integration	.290	[.05, .54]	**.017**	.204	[-.01, .41]	.067	.494	[.39, .59]	**.001**
Distribution	.011	[-.25, .25]	.943	-.030	[-.24, .19]	.767	-.019	[-.15, .11]	.746
Accommodativeness squared (curvilinear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	-.053	[-.12, .02]	.147	.002	[-.02, .02]	.860	-.051	[-.12, .02]	.178
Integration	.081	[-.02, .18]	.115	.001	[-.02, .03]	.731	.082	[-.02, .19]	.123
Distribution	.230	[.08, .36]	**.002**	.000	[-.01, .01]	.844	.230	[.08, .37]	**.002**

Note. Direct effect = effect of the predictor (i.e., accommodativeness and accommodativeness squared) on the outcomes controlling for goodwill; Indirect effect = effect of the predictor on the outcomes mediated by goodwill; Total effect = effect of the predictor on the outcomes when goodwill is not included in the model. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

To test hypotheses 5 and 6 which predicted that manager gender would moderate the relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and the three outcome variables, a multigroup path analysis was used with IBM SPSS AMOS 25. As a preliminary step in assessing invariance, two separate path analysis models were performed for each of the two manager gender groups. This step was necessary to ensure that the model configuration applied to both groups (Byrne, 2004). Results were similar to that of the full-sample analysis, indicating the model configuration was viable for both male and female manager conditions. For the male manager group, the fit indices were $X^2 = 2.423$, ($df = 2$, $n = 121$, $p = .298$), TLI = .99, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .01); for the female manager group, the fit indices were $X^2 = 2.744$, ($df = 2$, $n = 114$, $p = .254$), TLI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .01). A multigroup path analysis was then

performed to identify if there were differences between the two manager groups regarding the direct and indirect effects of accommodativeness on positive emotion, integrative intention, and distributive intention. Contrasted to the unconstrained model (CFI = .998), the structural weights model (CFI = .981) fit the data less well. Specifically, the CFI difference between the two models (greater than .01), indicated there was a difference in path coefficients between the two groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 1999). Table 8 shows the standardized path coefficients (beta weights) for the two groups, as estimated through the unconstrained model. Pairwise parameter comparisons (z score and p values) from critical ratio tests are also presented to show which pairs of path coefficients are significantly different. Figures 7-10 illustrates the relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion, integrative intention, distributive intention, and goodwill by manager gender.

Table 8

Standardized Regression Weights by Manager Gender Based on the Unconstrained Model and Pairwise Comparisons

	Male Manager Group			Female Manager Group			Pairwise Comparison	
	β	*SE*	*p*	β	*SE*	*p*	*z*	*p*
Accom to Goodwill	.878	.067	< **.001**	.828	.066	< **.001**	-2.907	**.004**
Accom to Positive Emotion	.478	1.007	< **.001**	.727	.964	< **.001**	1.803	.071
Accom to Integration	.046	.131	.775	.444	.105	**.002**	1.683	.092
Accom to Distribution	-.167	.149	.357	.113	.108	.503	1.139	.255
Accom^2 to Goodwill	-.080	.092	.069	.088	.079	.086	2.499	**.012**
Accom^2 to Positive Emotion	-.022	.672	.595	-.050	.641	.297	-.336	.737
Accom^2 to Integration	.179	.087	**.022**	.037	.070	.643	-1.496	.135
Accom^2 to Distribution	.316	.099	< **.001**	.179	.072	.057	-1.784	.074
Goodwill to Positive Emotion	.445	.656	< **.001**	.167	.752	.055	-1.983	**.047**
Goodwill to Integration	.464	.085	**.004**	.101	.082	.494	-1.604	.109
Goodwill to Distribution	.134	.097	.459	-.123	.084	.471	-1.032	.302

Note. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

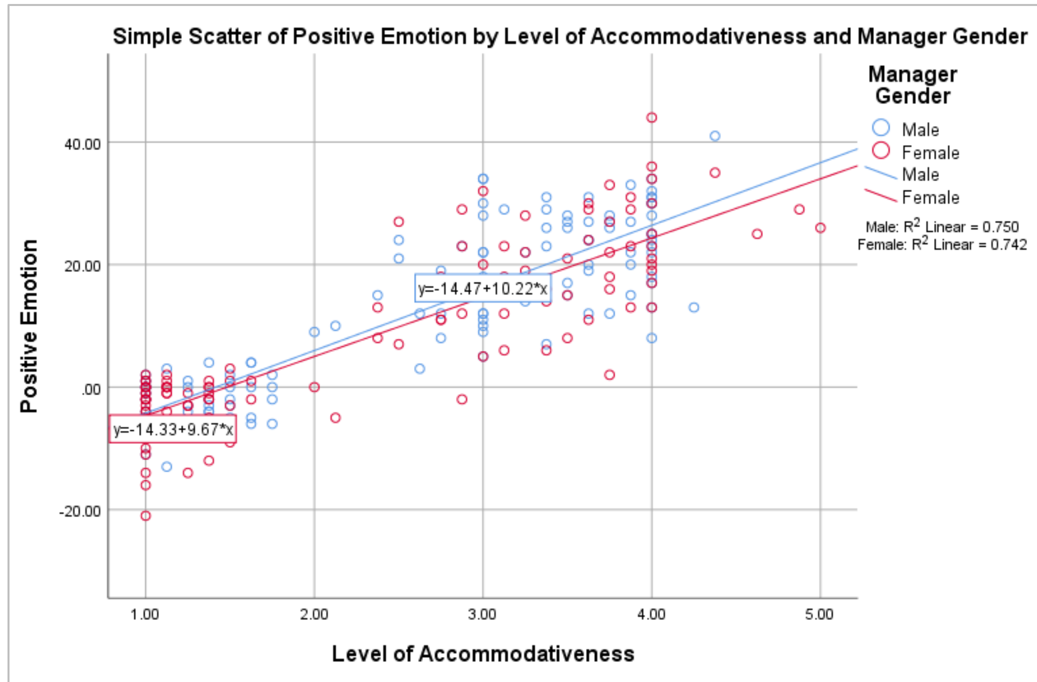

Figure 8. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion by manager gender.

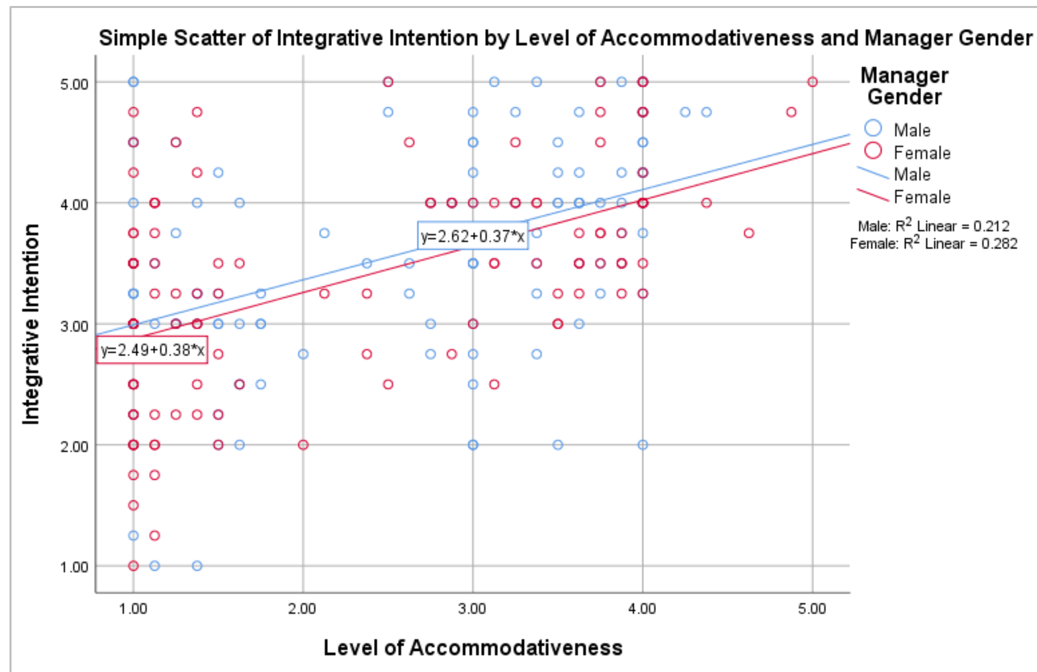

Figure 9. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and integrative intention by manager gender.

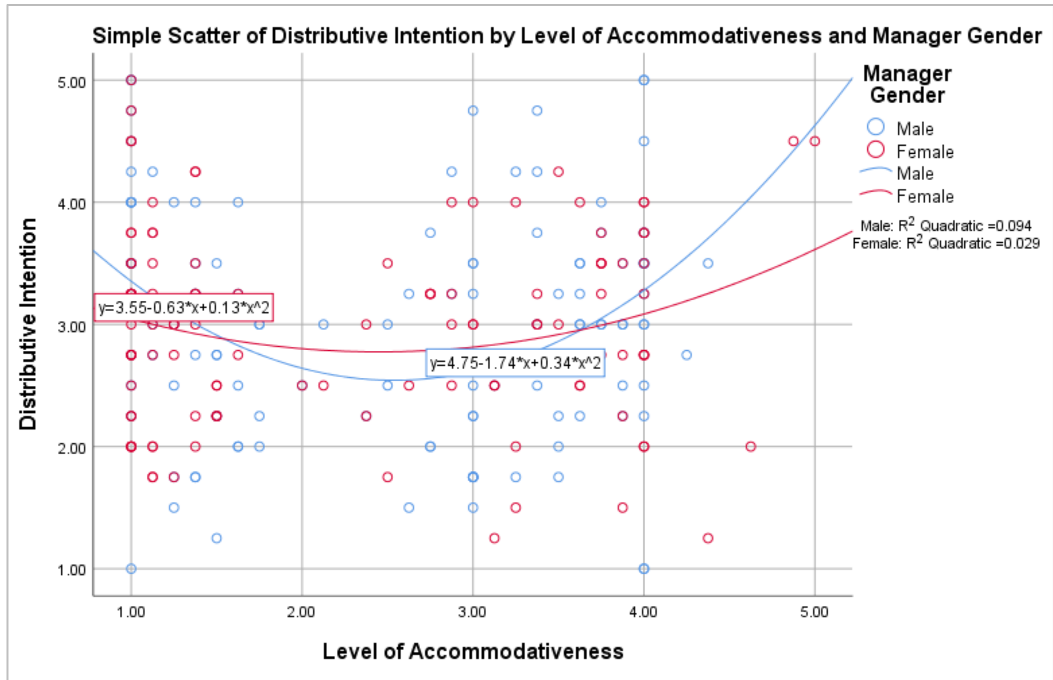

Figure 10. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention by manager gender.

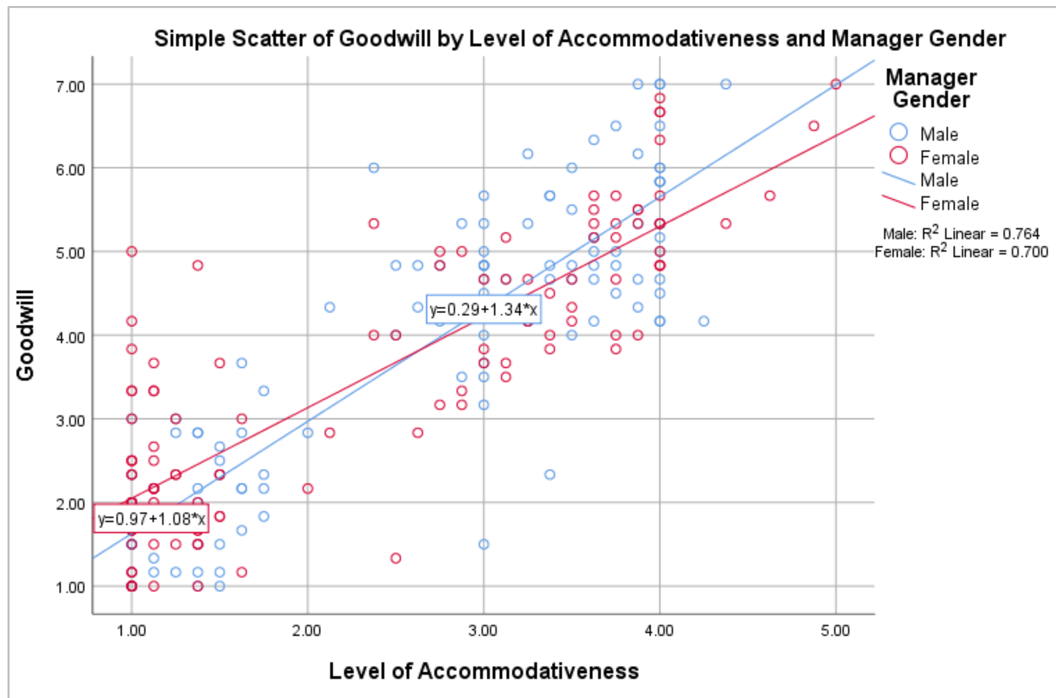

Figure 11. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and goodwill by manager gender.

Core concerns accommodativeness predicted perceived goodwill within the male manager group significantly more than within the female manager group (p = 004). Accommodativeness predicted positive emotion (p = .071) and integrative intention in the female manager group at a greater extent than in the male manager group (p = .092). A significant difference was found on the accommodativeness squared to goodwill path coefficients between the two groups (p = .012). However, when comparing the accommodativeness to goodwill parameter with the accommodativeness squared to goodwill parameter within each manager group, it was clear that accommodativeness was associated with goodwill linearly as opposed to curvilinearly for both male and female managers (Male Manager z = -12.98, $p < .001$; Female Manager z = -8.675, $p < .001$). Therefore, the between-group difference in the accommodativeness squared to goodwill path coefficients was negligible. Of greater interest is that the curvilinear effect of accommodativeness on distributive intention was present in both manager gender groups but more pronounced in the male manager group at a nearly significant level (p = .074). This might imply that male managers who underaccommodate or overaccommodate would encounter more distributive intention from their employees compared to female managers who underaccommodate or overaccommodate. Finally, perceived goodwill predicted positive emotion significantly more in the male manager group than in the female manager group (p = .047). Also, goodwill predicted integrative intention more strongly in the male manager than in the female manager group, but no statistical significance was found. Goodwill did not predict distributive intention in either of the manager groups.

Taken together, results indicated that participants in the male manager group and female manager group responded to the core concerns accommodativeness in a varying manner. Notably, the marked difference between the two manager genders concerned goodwill, the mediator in the model. To examine the extent to which the employee perception of manager goodwill mediated the effects of the manager core concerns accommodativeness on outcomes in each group, a moderated mediation analysis on AMOS 25 was performed using Gaskin's (2016) MyModMed estimand and the bootstrapping method with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. Gaskin's (2016) MyModMed estimand calculates the differences in unstandardized indirect effects between two groups together with the significance levels. Results are reported in Table 9.

Table 9

Differences in Indirect Effects of Accommodativeness on Outcome Variables between the Manager Genders

	Male Manager			Female Manager			Indirect Effect Difference		
	B	*β*	*p*	B	*β*	*p*	B	95% CI	*p*
Accommodativeness (linear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	4.610	.391	**< .001**	1.549	.138	**.009**	3.061	[.86, 5.34]	**.006**
Integration	.330	.408	**.003**	.060	.083	.622	.270	[-.02, .57]	.06
Distribution	.097	.118	.526	-.065	-.102	.468	.162	[-.17, .50]	.34
Accommodativeness squared (curvilinear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	-.575	-.036	.107	.196	.015	**.036**	-.772	[-1.64, -.03]	**.04**
Integration	-.041	-.037	.084	.008	.009	.431	-.049	[-.12, .01]	.09
Distribution	-.012	-.011	.370	-.008	-.011	.335	-.004	[-.07, .04]	.80

Note. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

Results revealed that, goodwill significantly mediated the linear relationship between accommodativeness and positive emotion in both male manager and female

manager groups. However, it did so more strongly in the male manager group ($p = .006$). Additionally, goodwill significantly and completely mediated the linear relationship between accommodativeness and integrative intention in the male manager group but had no mediating effect in the female manager group. This difference was approaching the statistically significant level ($p = .06$). Lastly, goodwill appeared to mediate the curvilinear relationship between accommodativeness and positive emotion in the female manager group while no mediating effect was found in the male manager group, and this between-group difference was significant at $p = .04$. However, considering the difference in unstandardized indirect effect of female manager accommodativeness ($B = 1.549$) and accommodativeness squared ($B = .196$) on positive emotion (Diff B = 1.353, CI[.163, 2.71], $p = .028$) and the scatterplot in Figure 5a, it is evident that the relationship between accommodativeness and positive emotion in the female manager group is more linear than curvilinear. Therefore, the mediating effect of goodwill between female manager accommodativeness and employee positive emotion in the curvilinear regression is likely negligible. No mediating effects were found on other outcome variables.

In conclusion, an examination of the linear and curvilinear effects of core concerns accommodativeness in each manager gender group suggested that manager gender did moderate between accommodativeness and outcome variables. However, the results were contrary to the expectations. When applied by a male manager, the desirable effects of core concerns accommodativeness hinge partially (for positive emotion) and completely (for integrative intention) on the employee perception of the manager's goodwill. Male manager accommodativeness alone was not associated with integrative intention. However, a male manager's under- and overaccommodation could result in

distributive intention. When applied by a female manager, core concerns accommodativeness was strongly associated with employee positive emotion although this association could be slightly mediated by the employee perception of the manager goodwill. Also, a female manager's accommodativeness was substantially associated with employee integrative intention and was not associated with distributive intention regardless of the employee perception of the manager goodwill. These results suggested the positive effects of core concerns accommodativeness were stronger in the female manager group and the negative effects of core concerns accommodativeness were stronger in the male manager group. Therefore, hypotheses five and six were not supported.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the research findings in detail. The summary results of all six hypotheses testing are provided in Table 10. In the next chapter, these results will be interpreted and discussed in terms of their theoretical and practical implications. Limitations and directions for future research will also be provided.

Table 10

Summary of Research Results

H	Results
1	**Not Supported:** Core concerns accommodativeness had a significant linear, as opposed to curvilinear relationship with positive emotion.
2	**Not supported:** Core concerns accommodativeness had a significant linear, as opposed to curvilinear relationship with integrative intention.
3	**Supported:** Core concerns accommodativeness had a U-shaped curvilinear relationship with distributive intention.
4	**Partially supported:** Perceived goodwill mediated the linear relationship between accommodativeness and positive emotion, not other outcome variables.
5	**Not supported:** Core concerns accommodativeness yielded more positive and direct effects on outcome variables for the female manager sample.
6	**Not supported:** Core concerns accommodativeness had more curvilinear and negative impact on outcome variables for the male manager sample.

CHAPTER V – DISCUSSION

Conflict is a natural part of organizational life, especially in supervisor-subordinate relationships (Putnam & Wilson, 1982; Ayoko, Callan, & Härel, 2003). Conflict can lead to negative consequences when managed poorly and can result in positive outcomes when managed constructively (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2006). Part of the reason conflict is difficult to manage is the negative emotions that accompany it (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). As such, negotiators should understand how to communicate effectively to transform emotions and use them to reach optimum solutions (Jameson, Bodtker, Porch, & Jordan, 2009). Fisher and Shapiro (2005) pioneered the inclusion of emotion in conflict management and proposed the core concerns framework (CCF) as a strategy for handling negative emotions and stimulating positive emotions to reach mutually satisfying negotiation outcomes. Although grounded in psychological theories and influential in the past decades (Riskin, 2010), CCF has received little empirical attention regarding the extent to which it increases positive emotions and facilitates integrative behavior through communication, and how the framework can be applied effectively in messages.

Based on the conflict communication perspective, the present study posited that how the core concerns were *communicated* affected their efficacy. Examining CCF from the lens of communication accommodation theory, this study hypothesized the relationships between core concerns accommodativeness, perceived goodwill, gender roles, emotion, integrative (win-win) intention, and distributive (win-lose) intention in supervisor-subordinate conflict negotiations. Results were surprising and have important implications for the conflict communication literature and organizational practices. This

chapter will first explain the major findings from the lens of the core concerns framework, communication accommodation theory, and gender role research. Then, theoretical and practical implications will be discussed followed by the study limitations and directions for future research. The chapter ends with an overall conclusion of this research.

Explanation of major findings

First and foremost, results indicated that a core concerns message was associated with increased positive emotion and integrative intention. Compared to participants in the underaccommodation group (where the manager neglected the employee's core concerns), those in the accommodation and overaccommodation groups (in which the manager addressed employee's concerns in the moderate and extensive degrees) reported significantly greater positive emotional change and integrative intention. These findings supported the CCF tenets that the core concerns – appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role – are basic human wants in relationships. We experience positive emotions when our core concerns are attended to and we experience negative emotions when our concerns are ignored. Addressing the core concerns also promotes cooperative stance.

Second and contradictory to expectations, core concerns accommodativeness predicted positive emotion ($\beta = .62$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .77$) and integrative intention ($\beta = .29$, $p = .007$, $r^2 = .27$) in a linear as opposed to curvilinear fashion. These linear relationships were also quite strong especially for positive emotion. Overaccommodating an employee's core concerns did not reduce his or her positive emotion and integrative intention but resulted in the highest increase in his or her positive emotion and integrative

intention. Two analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed to examine more closely if positive emotion and integrative intention varied significantly by the level of core concerns accommodativeness and results indicated that they did. For positive emotion, a mixed ANOVA was run comparing the difference in employees' emotion before and after the manager's negotiation message (within-subjects) among the three levels of accommodativeness (between-subjects). There was a significant interaction between emotion and level of accommodativeness, $F(2, 232) = 333.4$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .74$, indicating the difference between pretest and posttest emotion varied by level of accommodativeness. Participants in the underaccommodation condition reported a significant increase in *negative* emotion (Pretest $M = -9.65$, $SD = 5.51$; Posttest $M = -11.92$, $SD = 5.85$, $n = 110$, $t[109] = 4.53$, $p < .001$) whereas participants in the accommodation (Pretest $M = -9.89$, $SD = 5.41$; Posttest $M = 8.06$, $SD = 7.37$, $n = 62$, $t[61] = -16.53$, $p < .001$) and overaccommodation conditions (Pretest $M = -9.79$, $SD = 4.88$; Posttest $M = 14.29$, $SD = 6.97$, $n = 63$, $t[62] = -23.82$, $p < .001$) each reported a significant increase in *positive* emotion. Among the three conditions, participants in the overaccommodation condition reported the highest increase in positive emotion. Similarly, another ANOVA revealed that integrative intention was highest in the overaccommodation condition ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .64$, $n = 63$) compared to the accommodation condition ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .76$, $n = 62$) and underaccommodation condition ($M = 3.02$, $SD = .87$, $n = 110$), $F(2, 232) = 41.15$, $p < .001$. From the CAT perspective, overaccommodation, although a form of nonaccommodation, is often rated more positively than underaccommodation (Gasiorek & Giles, 2015). For example, in Edwards and Noller's (1993) study, elderly participants rated overaccommodating (i.e.,

patronizing) talks by a caretaker more positively than did nursing students or neutral party participants. Likewise, Sachweh (1998) found that nursing home residents did not perceive babytalk as necessarily bad and some reacted to the overaccommodative talk extremely positively. Considering that (non)accommodation depends on the recipient's subjective evaluation (Gasiorek & Giles, 2012; Gasiorek, 2016), it is likely that participants in this study's overaccommodation condition did not perceive the manager's overaccommodation as negative but appropriate for the context of constrained superior-subordinate communication. This argument may be elucidated by politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987), which describes why and how people communicate directly to some and politely to others.

According to politeness theory, one of the important factors people use to decide how polite they should be in a social interaction is *rank* or how face-threatening the situation is as defined by cultural norm. Rank also includes the degree of imposition. In the scenario used in this study, the manager Taylor consistently made a last-minute request that Sam stay late at work and did so without an expression of appreciation. Moreover, Taylor did not provide a proper explanation or engage Sam in a proper conversation until two months later. Considering Taylor's repeated transgression and delayed response which are highly face-threatening, a highly polite albeit ingratiating message (e.g., with the use of in-group terms such as "my friend" or "I will include you in all board meetings" or "We will work together like partners!") may be considered appropriate or even necessary to cool down Sam's prolonged negative emotions and stimulate his or her cooperative intention.

Additionally, the positive outcomes of core concerns overaccommodation may be explained by the *linear* effects of person-centered messages as indicated in the social support literature (High & Dillard, 2012). Speakers who use person-centered messages are aware of and adjust their communication to the subjective, emotional, and relational needs of their conversational partners (Burleson, 1987). According to social support research, the more person-centered a message, the greater the outcomes (e.g., the recipient perceiving the message as helpful, sensitive, and supportive, and feeling better afterward). Because a core concerns message attends to another's social and psychological needs, it can be considered a person-centered message. Accommodating and overaccommodating a person's core concerns may then be considered simply as lesser and greater degrees of person-centeredness, and the latter yielding even more positive outcomes. As such, participants in the overaccommodation condition might have perceived the manager overattentiveness to their concerns (e.g., "your satisfaction is *super* important to me!") as very (instead of overly) person-centered and thus responded most positively to it. Interestingly, the results suggested that one probably could not be "too person-centered" or "too accommodating" when attending to another's core concerns.

The third and expected result is the U-shaped curvilinear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention. This finding supported Fisher and Shapiro's (2005) recommendation that the core concerns should be addressed appropriately – not too excessively nor minimally. The data demonstrated that under- and overaccommodating the core concerns could stimulate win-lose intentions. However, this result should be interpreted carefully because this curvilinear relationship was quite weak

($\beta = .23$, $p < .001$) and had a small effect size ($r^2 = .05$). Also, although distributive intention was higher in the underaccommodation condition ($M = 2.99$, $SD = .87$, $n = 110$) compared to the accommodation condition ($M = 2.83$, $SD = .87$, $n = 62$) and highest of all three in the overaccommodation condition ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .85$, $n = 63$), an analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that these between-group differences were not statistically significant ($F[2, 232] = 1.75$, $p = .177$). This finding may be explained by the power dynamics in the supervisor-subordinate relationship. That is, the greater power the supervisor holds in a supervisor-subordinate relationship may suppress the subordinate's distributive intention. Since disobeying or counteracting a supervisor's requests may adversely affect a subordinate's job security, participants might not wish to seek distributive solutions in the first place. As evidence, the data in this study showed that, across the three levels of accommodativeness, participants' integrative intention was significantly greater than their distributive intention, $F(2, 232) = 24.58$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .18$. This may explain why the distributive intention mean scores across the three accommodative levels did not vary greatly. Despite this small effect size and insignificant between-group difference caveat, the significant curvilinear effect of core concerns accommodativeness on distributive intention should not be ignored. Accommodativeness does predict distributive intention in the curvilinear fashion, and, by common sense, it is probably safe not to overaccommodate to avoid stimulating any distributive intention.

Fourth, the path coefficients indicated that core concerns accommodativeness strongly and linearly predicted goodwill ($\beta = .85$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = .73$). A post-hoc examination through an ANOVA also showed that participants in the three accommodation groups perceived their managers' goodwill to be significantly different

(F [2, 232] = 251.97, $p < .001$). The manager in the overaccommodation condition was perceived to have the highest goodwill ($M = 5.41$, $SD = .86$, $n = 63$) compared to the manager in the accommodation ($M = 4.34$, $SD = .94$, $n = 62$, $p < .001$) and underaccommodation conditions ($M = 2.20$, $SD = 1.00$, $n = 110$, $p < .001$). The manager in the accommodation condition was also perceived to have significantly higher goodwill than the manager in the underaccommodation condition ($p < .001$). Importantly, goodwill was found to mediate between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion. That is, the positive effects of the core concerns accommodativeness on positive emotion may be attenuated or strengthened by the employee perception of the manager goodwill (e.g., how caring, understanding, or well-intended the manager is toward the employee). This finding is consistent with the CAT principle that attributed intent impacts the evaluations and outcomes of (non)accommodation (Giles & Soliz, 2015). For example, Gasiorek and Giles (2015) found that overaccommodation was perceived as more positively motivated (i.e., meaning to help) than underaccommodation, and thus was evaluated more positively. Additionally, that the manager's core concerns overaccommodation was regarded by participants as having high goodwill helped explain why participants in the overaccommodation condition reported the highest increase in positive emotion and integrative intention as reported previously.

Fifth, results indicated that manager gender did moderate the effects of accommodativeness on the outcome variables. Based on the gender bias toward female leaders and female negotiators reported in the scholarly and business literature, it was hypothesized that female managers would encounter more negative results when they under- and overaccommodated their subordinates' core concerns (Janoff-Bulman &

Wade, 1996; Zheng, Kark, & Meister, 2018). However, the results indicated the opposite. Comparing between the two manager gender groups, positive effects of the core concerns accommodativeness were stronger in the female manager group while the negative effects of accommodativeness were more pronounced in the male manager group. Specifically, female manager accommodativeness strongly predicted employee positive emotion (although slightly mediated by the employee perception of the manager goodwill) and significantly predicted integrative intention regardless of perceived goodwill. Simply put, the more accommodative a female manager is to her employee's core concerns, the better results she is likely to obtain. For the male manager group, accommodativeness predicted employee positive emotion but with a considerable mediating effect of goodwill. Additionally, male manager accommodativeness did not affect integrative intention directly but did so only through the employee perception of the manager goodwill. In other words, a male manager's use of the core concerns is likely to predict an employee's integrative intention only when the employee considers the manager to be caring or have the employee's interest at heart. Interestingly, regardless of goodwill, the U-shaped curvilinear effect of accommodativeness on distributive intention was more prominent among the male manager than female manager group. What could account for these unexpected findings?

According to role incongruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), attending to others' concerns and feelings is a stereotypically feminine characteristic which may explain why the positive results of core concerns accommodativeness were stronger in the female manager group. A female manager addressing her employees' concerns is conforming to her gendered expectations and thus evaluated positively. On the contrary, male managers

are expected to be assertive, tough, and unemotional, which may explain why overaccommodating male managers are likely to stimulate employees' distributive intention. Compared to a female manager, a male manager addressing employees' emotional and social needs may be viewed as atypical and suspicious (i.e., "It's not a man thing"). Perhaps, this is a reason why employees' consideration of the manager goodwill played a significant mediating role between the male manager's core concerns accommodativeness and positive outcomes. Future studies can explore this issue.

Sixth, demographic variables were analyzed to examine if the findings were partially due to participants' characteristics unique to this study. A series of moderated mediation path analyses were performed with participants' *age, sex* (male vs female), *ethnicity* (White vs Non-White), *education level* (up to high school, associate degree, college degree, and graduate degree), *job rank* (entry level, professional, and management/owner), and *industry* (manufacturing/transportation, education, healthcare, food/hospitality, professional/technical services, wholesale and retail trade) as the moderators. Ethnicity was regrouped as White and Non-White in this analysis due to the small number of different Non-White subgroups. As in the hypothesized model, accommodativeness and accommodativeness squared were used as the independent variables, goodwill as the mediator, and positive emotion, integrative intention, and distributive intention as the dependent variables. No significant between-group differences were found along any of the categorical demographic variables. However, there was a significant interaction effect between accommodativeness and age on distributive intention (X^2 = 10.415, [df = 12, n = 235, p = .58], TLI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .02, β = .129, p < .034). For younger employees, their

distributive intention decreased as their manager became more accommodating. On the contrary, older employees reported a higher degree of distributive intention the more accommodating their manager became. This suggested that core concerns overaccommodation had a positive effect among younger employees but negative effect among older employees. This finding was aligned with research on generational differences which posited that the millennials preferred a more nurturing work environment and stronger interpersonal connection with their supervisors compared to the older generations (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). The influence of age on the relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention should be interpreted carefully due to the weak path coefficient ($\beta = .129$, $p < .034$); however, this significant moderating effect still merits further investigation.

Theoretical implications

This study integrated communication accommodation theory and gender role research in examining effectiveness of the core concerns framework in supervisor-subordinate conflict negotiation. Shapiro (2010) suggests that CCF serves as a strategy for dealing with emotion in conflict negotiation and its workability depends on how it is *tactically* implemented. This research shows that communication theory provides a fruitful lens for investigating the core concerns and demonstrates that, at the tactical level, how the core concerns are *communicated* affects their efficacy. Although the results are mostly unexpected, they make several contributions to the conflict communication and organizational literature.

First, the results add to the currently limited empirical knowledge about the effects of CCF and support CCF's propositions that by addressing the core concerns,

negotiators can stimulate positive emotions and integrative intention at least in the supervisor-subordinate context. Several studies (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997; Beersma, Harinck, & Gerts, 2003; Liu, 2009; Zhang, Andreychik, Sapp, & Arendt, 2014; Zhang, Ting-Toomey, & Oetzel, 2014) have previously reported the effects of emotions on negotiation outcomes, but few have examined how negotiators can effectively transcend negative emotions and reach mutually agreed-upon solutions. The results of this study suggest that CCF is a viable strategy. During a conflict negotiation, managers can stimulate their employees' positive emotion and integrative intention to the degree that they expressively accommodate or attend to their employees' core concerns.

Second, consistent with previous CAT research, results show that overaccommodation is perceived more positively than underaccommodation, and positive intent (i.e., goodwill in this study) does mediate the relationship between accommodativeness and its outcomes. Additionally, this study provides a new finding that positive intent has an intervening effect only on certain outcome variables and with certain groups. The results show that goodwill mediates between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion but has no mediating effects on negotiation intentions. The mediating effect of goodwill on integrative intention approached a significant level and should be further explored with a larger sample size. However, the data clearly showed that goodwill had no mediating effect on distributive intention. This might suggest that, as far as communication accommodation is concerned, positive intent has a stronger mediating effect on individuals' affect or internal state (e.g., emotion) than their behavioral intention during negotiations. Also, the results of this study show that the mediating effect of goodwill is stronger among male managers. In this respect, this study

suggests that the moderated mediation effect of positive intent (mediator) and gender (moderator) between communication accommodation (predictor) and affective versus behavioral outcome variables might be worthy of exploration for future CAT research.

Third, the curvilinear effect between accommodativeness and distributive intention found in this study is in line with CCF, CAT, and the recent too-much-of-a-good-thing (TMGT) perspective (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) in organizational studies. Per CCF, the core concerns should not be addressed too minimally or too excessively. Per CAT, the relationship between accommodation and its outcome is nonlinear. Per TMGT, many personality traits (e.g., self-efficacy, passion) and organizational practices (e.g., organizational identification, hiring for experience, and diversification) are not linearly related to organizational outcomes (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013) and "too much of any good thing is ultimately bad" (p. 315). Although this curvilinear effect should be further investigated due to the small effect size and insignificant between-group difference as previously mentioned, it suggests that curvilinear effects do exist in supervisor-subordinate communication and deserve more attention from organizational communication scholars.

Practical implications

From the practical standpoint, the results of this study suggest that the core concerns framework is an effective strategy worthy of training investment. Managers can use the core concerns as the lens to understand a conflict and the lever to stimulate positive emotion as well as integrative intention. Being aware that the five core concerns – appreciation, affiliation, autonomy, status, and role – often underlie conflicts, managers should be able to analyze an emotion-laden conflict and adjust their communication to

their employees more effectively. By focusing on the five core concerns rather than a multitude of discrete emotions that can occur during a negotiation, managers can save their mental capacity for discovering both parties' interests and generating mutually beneficial solutions (Shapiro, 2010).

Riskin (2010) recommended that mindfulness or present-moment awareness is necessary for carrying out CCF appropriately during the negotiation process. The results of this study suggest that, when addressing employees' core concerns, managers should be particularly mindful about how they are conveying their goodwill or positive intent to their employees. This is because the employees' perception of the manager goodwill toward them can strengthen or attenuate the positive effect of core concerns accommodativeness, especially in regard to increasing positive emotions. Explicit statements such as "I care about your happiness" or "I understand your concerns" may help managers convey their goodwill and address their employees' core concerns more successfully.

Additionally, managers should be attentive not to overaccommodate the core concerns because it can backfire and increase distributive intention. This is especially important among male managers. For male managers seeking to stimulate positive emotion as well as integrative intention and avoid distributive intention, moderate accommodation is recommended. Also, the expression of goodwill as mentioned above is particularly necessary for male managers. For female managers, the results show that they have more latitude and can reap even greater benefits from using the core concerns framework. Traditionally, female negotiators receive less desirable negotiated outcomes due to negative stereotypes (Gladstone & O'Connor, 2014; Kray, 2007) and "women and

men often sit at an uneven table" (Hocker & Wilmot, 2014, p. 65). Perhaps, the core concerns framework can make the negotiation table more even for female negotiators.

Limitations

The present research examines only one side of a negotiation with the manager acting as the sole negotiator. As such, it did not capture the transactional process of negotiation in which both parties simultaneously send and receive messages and influence one another's perceptions, communicative moves, as well as negotiation outcomes (Mortensen, 1974). However, this linear approach helped isolate the influence of a manager's core concerns accommodativeness on an employee's perceptions and intended behavior while controlling for extraneous variables such as the influence of nonverbal behaviors (e.g., tone of voice, facial expression, or hand gestures).

Next, this research examined intended behavior as opposed to actual behavior. Although previous research has shown that intended behavior is often correlated with actual behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005), an observation of actual behavior can more concretely determine the effectiveness of a core concerns framework. Future research may use confederates in the study design to overcome this limitation. Moreover, this study examined the manager's gender as a moderator and excluded the employee's gender to maintain parsimony. Also, the sample contained significantly more female than male participants disallowing a proper statistical test of the employee gender effect. Although an exploratory examination was conducted to assess the moderating effect of employee gender on the outcomes of core concerns accommodativeness and no statistical findings were found, future research can explore more closely how male and female employees perceive a manager's core concerns message especially when delivered

underaccommodatively or overaccommodatively. Future research can also examine whether the effects of core concerns accommodativeness on positive emotion and integrative intention vary by employee's gender.

Although the cutoff point procedure and resultant removal of cases did not affect the findings as reported in full in Appendix C, it was not ideal to remove a significant number of respondents from the data analysis. Considering the amount of time, money, and effort it takes to recruit participants and collect data, future researchers should adopt a better strategy that can prevent this situation. In hindsight, the obstacle facing this research was the measurement of accommodativeness. The five-point Likert scale and uneven anchors ("not at all," "a little," "about right," "a lot," and "too much") allowed for a clear indication of the underaccommodation condition but might not separate clearly between accommodation and overaccommodation. Whereas participants in the underaccommodation group mostly selected "not at all" and "a little" on most CAT scale items, many in the accommodation and overaccommodation both selected "a lot" on most items. Although on average the accommodation and overaccommodation conditions were statistically significant (in both the culled and unculled samples), there were a significant number of participants in both conditions that had overlapping overall scores which led to their removal from the data analysis. Recently, Vergauwe, Wille, Hofmans, Kaiser, and De Fruyt (2017) have proposed a 9-point too little/too much (TLTM) scale for detecting curvilinear relationships in organizational research. The TLTM scale ranges between -4 (*much too little*), 0 (*the right amount*), and +4 (*much too much*). The authors reported that this fine-grained 9-point scale was superior to the traditional 5-point Linkert scale and provided greater variance associated with both the too little and too much ranges. Future

researchers are recommended to use this TLTM scale in examining the curvilinear effects of core concerns accommodativeness in particular or communication accommodation in general.

Directions for future research

To overcome limitations of the vignette research design which does not capture the transactional nature of negotiation, future researchers may use confederates to play the manager role undergoing a core concerns negotiation with employees in underaccommodating, accommodating, and overaccommodating manners. This will allow for an observation of a back and forth communication between the two parties which occur in natural settings. Also, the actual interaction will allow the manager actors to adapt to the employee's responses and portray each manner of interaction more precisely. Another approach that may be fruitful is to record an interaction between two actors, one playing the manager role and the other playing the employee role and have participants complete a questionnaire based on their perceptions of the interaction and the manager actor. Lowrey-Kinberg (2018) successfully employed this procedure in her recent police-citizen communication research and found that overaccommodation caused police officers to be perceived as having less authority and professionalism. Using the above methods, future researchers may be able to determine more concretely whether the effect of a core concerns message is attenuated (or heightened) by the level of accommodativeness in which the message is delivered. Particularly, future studies with other methodologies can determine whether the positive effects of overaccommodation are particular to this study (due to its vignette manipulation) or a more general phenomenon.

Furthering the view of negotiation as a transaction, future studies can also investigate the effects of an employee's core concerns message on the manager's perception and decision. This study answered how a manager's core concerns accommodativeness could affect his or her employee. We need more studies that consider the managers' perceptions, feelings, and intended behaviors. Studies that examine the results of a core concerns message when used by both the manager and the employee will also be beneficial.

Next, researchers may consider other mediators in addition to the manager's goodwill such as Fisher and Shapiro's three recommended standards for using the core concerns, personality traits, conflict styles, or job security. This study posited that the three recommended standards for using the core concerns – fairness, honesty, and consistency – conveyed a negotiator's positive intent which paralleled the construct of goodwill. Perhaps it is conceptually and operationally more viable to treat these criteria as three separate mediators between accommodativeness and outcome variables.

For fairness, previous research has shown that employees often sought integrative solutions when their supervisor treated them in an interactionally just rather than unjust manner (Rahim, Magner, & Shapiro, 2000). Honesty may be viewed as the manager's ethos or trustworthiness, a dimension of credibility (Hovland, Janis, and Kelly, 1953). Honesty promotes trust (Hawkins, 2013) and higher trust encourages negotiators to share more information, reach more agreements, and adopt more integrative solutions (Citera, Beauregard, & Mitsuya, 2005). Lastly, consistency with circumstances may be viewed from the lens of expectancy violations theory (Burgoon, 1993). Individuals are judged positively when their behaviors conform to social situations and meet expectations of

others. They are judged negatively when they violate those expectations. From this perspective, when the core concerns are addressed inconsistently with social norms (e.g., an individualistic manager giving collectivistic employees abundant autonomy), negative evaluations and reactions may ensue. To conclude, whereas goodwill significantly mediates between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion; fairness, honesty, and consistency may mediate between core concerns accommodativeness and intended or actual negotiation behaviors (integrative or distributive). Future research can examine if and the degree to which these three variables play such mediating roles.

Further, research has shown that personality affects conflict styles in mediation and negotiation situations (Ahmed, Nawaz, Shaukat, & Usman, 2010; Antonio, 1998; Wood & Bell, 2008). Arguably, the personality type of the respondents may influence how they interpret the scenario and how they will react to the manager’s core concerns message. For example, highly neurotic personalities, which tend to be nervous, insecure, and anxious, might respond most positively to overaccommodating core concerns messages whereas low agreeableness personalities, often competitive or challenging people, may be disagreeing to any level of accommodativeness. Similarly, conflict styles – individuals’ common conflict negotiation pattern – may mediate the effect of a core concerns message on integrative behavior. The competitive style would be prone to act distributively by nature and the accommodating or collaborating style likely to behave integratively and seek win-win solutions. Lastly, a pragmatic factor such as job security may play a role in participants’ intended behavior. For example, an employee receiving an underaccommodating message from his or her manager may not want to comply with

the manager but will comply anyway to maintain his or her job. Future studies can inspect these propositions.

Another relevant and interesting area for further exploration is power dynamics and the extent to which it mediates or moderates the relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes. Particularly, future research can explore whether the curvilinear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention will be more pronounced in relationships where both parties have equal power (e.g., in marital partners or friendships) and where the (non)accommodation recipient has greater power (e.g., when employees under- or overaccommodate the managers or when service workers under- or overaccommodate clients).

Additionally, liking can be a factor that merits future investigation. The way in which a core concerns message is delivered might decrease or increase liking for the speaker. For example, an employee might rate his or her manager less likable when the manager underaccommodates and ignores the employee's core concerns which might also lower the employee's job satisfaction. Likewise, a manager might have less positive affect for the employee when the employee ignores the manager's core concerns. The opposite can also be true with higher accommodation resulting in higher liking.

Moreover, future studies may explore how nonverbal behavior decreases or increases the effect of core concerns accommodativeness. Conflict involves both "verbal and nonverbal strategies to establish, reinforce, and alter others' cognitions, emotions, and behaviors" (Seibold, Cantrill, & Meyers, 1985). Thus, an examination of a conflict negotiation would not be complete without investigating both verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Newton & Burgoon, 1990). An area of investigation can be the incongruity

between verbal and nonverbal messages which may increase the face threat and heighten negative feelings toward the interaction partner. A core concerns message, which can be viewed as a face-saving verbal message, may come across as face-threatening or impolite when it is not congruent with the communicator's nonverbal gestures, resulting in nonoptimal negotiation outcomes. Arguably, the effectiveness of the core concerns framework can be more accurately measured when examining its nonverbal delivery.

Conclusion

This quasi-experimental study examined a supervisor-subordinate negotiation of an emotion-laden conflict from the lens of the core concerns framework, communication accommodation theory, and gender roles research. Results empirically support CCF in that, by accommodating or attending to the employees' core concerns, managers can stimulate employees' positive emotion and integrative intention. However, under- and overaccommodating the core concerns can lead to distributive intention. Additionally, the employees' perception of manager goodwill can strengthen or attenuate the positive effect of core concerns accommodativeness on outcome variables especially for male managers. Thus, moderate accommodation is recommended for male managers. For female managers, the results show that they have more latitude in addressing the core concerns and can reap even greater benefits from using the framework. Theoretically, the findings show that CAT provides a fruitful lens for investigating the core concerns and demonstrates that the degree of accommodativeness affects the efficacy of the core concerns. Practically, the results show that CCF is an effective strategy for handling emotions in negotiation and is worthy of training investment. Future studies with other methodologies are necessary to determine if the findings, especially the surprising

positive effects of overaccommodation on positive emotion and integrative intention, are particular to this study or a general phenomenon. Future researchers can also explore a core concerns negotiation in other relationship contexts. Also, other variables that may moderate or mediate between core concerns accommodativeness and its outcomes should be further investigated.

APPENDIX A – Pilot Study Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions using your knowledge about the core concerns framework in managing conflicts.

Section 1 SCENARIO CHECK: Please read the following scenario and answer the questions below.

You are Sam. You are a dedicated employee of the company ABC. You work in a local office and report directly to the new manager Taylor who is based in the company's headquarters in another city. During the past two months that Taylor has been in this current position, you have never met Taylor in person but have been communicating with Taylor via email and phone calls. For all of these two months, Taylor has consistently requested you to stay late at work to finish an "urgent" project and the request often comes half an hour or so before the end of your work day. You never deny the request because you know Taylor is new in this position and you want to support your manager as well as the company. However, Taylor has never once thanked you for your dedication and good work. You have started to wonder if your role means anything to the company. You are feeling devalued, unappreciated, and used. It is 4.30 pm. Taylor is calling you via Skype and this is the first time you are going to see Taylor's face. You know you will be asked to stay late again and you feel this is the last straw.

If you were Sam in this situation, what aspect of the situation would upset you?

	Irrelevant to this situation	**Not Upsetting At All**	**A Little Upsetting**	**Somewhat Upsetting**	**Upsetting**	**Very Upsetting**
Your dedication and good work have never been valued.						
Your new manager has never taken time to meet with you and get to know you as a person.						
You are never given a reason nor consulted whether you want to stay late working.						
The consistently last-minute requests show the manager's lack of respect for you.						
You are not playing a meaningful role for this company.						

If you find any other aspects of the situation upsetting, please specify.

____

Imagine you were Sam and this were happening in real life. Please indicate how much you would experience each of the following feelings from "not at all" to "to a great extent."

Feelings	Not at All	A Little	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
1. Positive					
2. Negative					
3. Good					
4. Bad					
5. Pleasant					
6. Unpleasant					
7. Happy					
8. Sad					
9. Afraid					
10. Joyful					
11. Angry					
12. Contented					

Section 2 MESSAGE CHECK: Please read the below message in which Taylor is responding to Sam about their conflict and answer the following questions.

MESSAGE#1: Sam, I know this is aggravating but we gotta do what we gotta do. We don't have time for whining and complaining here. Stay over today to help me complete a client's urgent request.

In the above message, to what extent does Taylor address each of Sam's core concerns from "not addressed at all" to "overly addressed"?

	Not Addressed At All	Not Clearly Addressed	Addressed	Clearly Addressed	Overly Addressed
Appreciation					
Affiliation					
Autonomy					
Status					
Role					

On the scales below, please indicate your feelings about Taylor's response to Sam. "1" and "7" indicate extreme feelings. "2" and "6" indicate a strong feeling. "3" and "5" indicate a fairly weak feeling. "4" indicates you are undecided.

Unfair	1 2 3 4 5	Fair
Dishonest	1 2 3 4 5	Honest
Inconsistent with the situation	1 2 3 4 5	Consistent with the situation
Inappropriate	1 2 3 4 5	Appropriate

In MESSAGE#1 above, to what extent do you think Taylor…

	Not At All	**A Little**	**About Right**	**A Lot**	**Too Much**
Is pleasant to Sam?					
Is accommodative to Sam?					
Is respectful of Sam?					
Is polite to Sam?					
Explains things clearly?					
Responds to Sam's needs?					
Addresses Sam's concerns?					
Attends to Sam's feelings?					

MESSAGE#2: Sam, I'm glad I finally get to see your face. First of all, I want you to know that I sincerely appreciate all you have been doing. Your role is vital for our success and you have helped greatly with my transition to this position. I admire your dedication, knowledge, and excellent work. I know my last-minute requests have been aggravating and I really am sorry. I should have told you this a while back, Sam, but the reason why I keep coming to you so late in the day is because our new major client is based overseas and operates in a different time zone. They often make their request when they come into work which is when we are getting off work. So, I would be really grateful for your help as it happened again today. This situation will last just a couple more weeks until we pass this phase of the project. During this time, you can come in an hour or two later whenever you stay late on the previous day. Would you please stay over today to help me complete the client's request?

In the above message, to what extent does Taylor address each of Sam's core concerns from "not addressed at all" to "overly addressed"?

	Not Addressed At All	**Not Clearly Addressed**	**Addressed**	**Clearly Addressed**	**Overly Addressed**
Appreciation					
Affiliation					
Autonomy					
Status					
Role					

On the scales below, please indicate your feelings about Taylor's response to Sam. "1" and "7" indicate extreme feelings. "2" and "6" indicate a strong feeling. "3" and "5" indicate a fairly weak feeling. "4" indicates you are undecided.

Unfair	1 2 3 4 5	Fair
Dishonest	1 2 3 4 5	Honest
Inconsistent with the situation	1 2 3 4 5	Consistent with the situation
Inappropriate	1 2 3 4 5	Appropriate

In the above message, to what extent do you think Taylor…

	Not At All	A Little	About Right	A Lot	Too Much
Is pleasant to Sam?					
Is accommodative to Sam?					
Is respectful of Sam?					
Is polite to Sam?					
Explains things clearly?					
Responds to Sam's needs?					
Addresses Sam's concerns?					
Attends to Sam's feelings?					

MESSAGE#3: Sam, my friend, I'm glad I finally get to see your face. First of all, I want you to know that I sincerely appreciate all you have been doing. Your role is vital for our success and you have helped greatly with my transition to this position. I admire your dedication, knowledge, and excellent work. I know my last-minute requests have been aggravating and I really am sorry. The reason why I keep coming to you so late in the day is because our new major client is based overseas and operates in a different time zone. They often make their request when they come into work which is when we are getting off work. You are such a great asset to our team, and from now on, I will make sure to share with you important information about our department. I will include you in all board meetings and we will work together like partners! Also, Sam, I want you to be able to use your creativity and carry out your tasks the way you think is best. I am not a micromanager and am totally open to your suggestions. So, feel free to tell me what you think we can do better around here, yeah? And, hey, with your experience and unmatched ability, I want to make sure you are happy with the role you are playing. If your current position is not fulfilling to you in anyway, you let me know, ok? We will figure something out. Your satisfaction is *super* important to me! For now, Sam, our client made an urgent request again today and I would be really grateful for your help. This situation will last just a couple more weeks until we pass this phase of the project. During this time, you can come in an hour or two later whenever you stay late on the previous day. Would you please stay over today to help me complete the client's request?

In the above message, to what extent does Taylor address each of Sam's core concerns from "not addressed at all" to "overly addressed"?

	Not Addressed At All	Not Clearly Addressed	Addressed	Clearly Addressed	Overly Addressed
Appreciation					
Affiliation					
Autonomy					
Status					
Role					

On the scales below, please indicate your feelings about Taylor's response to Sam. "1" and "7" indicate extreme feelings. "2" and "6" indicate a strong feeling. "3" and "5" indicate a fairly weak feeling. "4" indicates you are undecided.

Unfair	1 2 3 4 5	Fair
Dishonest	1 2 3 4 5	Honest
Inconsistent with the situation	1 2 3 4 5	Consistent with the situation
Inappropriate	1 2 3 4 5	Appropriate

In the above message, to what extent do you think Taylor…

	Not At All	A Little	About Right	A Lot	Too Much
Is pleasant to Sam?					
Is accommodative to Sam?					
Is respectful to Sam?					
Is polite to Sam?					
Explains things clearly?					
Responds to Sam's needs?					
Addresses Sam's concerns?					
Attends to Sam's feelings?					

Are you currently working in the United States? ______________________________

What is your nationality? _______________________________

If you wish to enter a drawing to win a $25 Amazon gift card, please provide your email address. _______________________________

APPENDIX B – Main Study Questionnaire

SECTION 1: Please read the following scenario. [One of these two vignettes will be randomly assigned to participants.]

MALE MANAGER: "You are Sam. You are a dedicated employee of the company ABC. You work in a local office and report directly to the new manager Mr. Taylor who is based in the company's headquarters in another city. During the past two months that Mr. Taylor has been in his current position, you have never met Mr. Taylor in person but have been communicating with him via email and phone calls. For all of these two months, Mr. Taylor has consistently requested you to stay late at work to finish an "urgent" project and the request often comes half an hour or so before the end of your work day. You never deny the request because you know Mr. Taylor is new in this position and you want to support your manager as well as the company. However, Mr. Taylor has never once thanked you for your dedication and good work. You have started to wonder if your role means anything to the company. You are feeling devalued, unappreciated, and used. It is 4.30 pm. Mr. Taylor is calling you via Skype and this is the first time you are going to see his face. You know you will be asked to stay late again and you feel this is the last straw."

FEMALE MANAGER: "You are Sam. You are a dedicated employee of the company ABC. You work in a local office and report directly to the new manager Ms. Taylor who is based in the company's headquarters in another city. During the past two months that Ms. Taylor has been in her current position, you have never met Ms. Taylor in person but have been communicating with her via email and phone calls. For all of these two months, Ms. Taylor has consistently requested you to stay late at work to finish an "urgent" project and the request often comes half an hour or so before the end of your work day. You never deny the request because you know Ms. Taylor is new in this position and you want to support your manager as well as the company. However, Ms. Taylor has never once thanked you for your dedication and good work. You have started to wonder if your role means anything to the company. You are feeling devalued, unappreciated, and used. It is 4.30 pm. Ms. Taylor is calling you via Skype and this is the first time you are going to see her face. You know you will be asked to stay late again and you feel this is the last straw."

PRE-TEST EMOTION: Now, imagine you were Sam and this were happening in real life. Indicate how much you would experience each of the following feelings from "not at all" to "to a great extent."

Feelings	Not at All	A Little	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
1. Positive					
2. Negative					
3. Good					
4. Bad					
5. Pleasant					
6. Unpleasant					
7. Happy					
8. Sad					
9. Afraid					
10. Joyful					
11. Angry					
12. Contented					

SECTION 2: Imagine you are now discussing the previously mentioned conflict situation and Taylor says the following to you:

[One of three scripts will be randomly assigned to participants.]

Now, please keep in mind Taylor's communication to you and complete all questions in this section. Check the box below to proceed.

☐ I have read Taylor's response and I am ready to proceed.

Considering Taylor's message to you, to what extent do you think Taylor…

	Not At All	A Little	About Right	A Lot	Too Much
13. Is pleasant to you?					
14. Is accommodative to you?					
15. Is respectful of you?					
16. Is polite to you?					
17. Explains things clearly?					
18. Responds to your needs?					
19. Addresses your concerns?					
20. Attends to your feelings?					

On the scales below, indicate your feelings about Taylor. Numbers 1 and 7 indicate a very strong feeling. Numbers 2 and 6 indicate a strong feeling. Numbers 3 and 5 indicate a fairly weak feeling. Number 4 indicates you are undecided.

21. Intelligent	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Unintelligent
22. Untrained	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Trained
23. Cares about me	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Doesn't care about me
24. Honest	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Dishonest
25. Has my interests at heart	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Doesn't have my interests at heart
26. Untrustworthy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Trustworthy
27. Inexpert	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Expert
28. Self-centered	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not self-centered
29. Concerned with me	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Not concerned with me
30. Honorable	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Dishonorable
31. Informed	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Uninformed
32. Moral	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Immoral
33. Incompetent	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Competent
34. Unethical	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Ethical
35. Insensitive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Sensitive
36. Bright	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Stupid
37. Phony	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Genuine
38. Not understanding	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Understanding

POST-TEST EMOTION: Considering Taylor's message to you, please indicate how much you would now experience each of the following feelings from "not at all" to "to a great extent."

Feelings	Not at All	A Little	Somewhat	A Lot	To a Great Extent
39. Positive					
40. Negative					
41. Good					
42. Bad					
43. Pleasant					
44. Unpleasant					
45. Happy					
46. Sad					
47. Afraid					
48. Joyful					
49. Angry					
50. Contented					

INTENDED NEGOTIATION BEHAVIOR: Considering Taylor's explanation and request, indicate how likely you would respond in the following ways.

Questions	Definitely Not	Probably Not	Probably	Very Probably	Definitely
51. I would push my own point of view.					
52. I would search for gains for myself.					
53. I would fight for a good outcome for myself.					
54. I would do everything to win.					
55. I would not satisfy the manager's request.					
56. I would examine the situation until I find a solution that really satisfies me and the manager.					
57. I would stand for my own as well as the manager's goals and interests.					
58. I would try to find a solution that is optimal both for me and the manager.					
59. I would work out a solution that serves my own as well as the manager's interests as good as possible.					

60. I would be willing to work with the manager to fulfill the client's request.					

2.4 Please indicate why you would respond to Taylor as you indicated above. What in Taylor's communication would influence your decision to do so? If this were a real-life situation, what would you say back to Taylor?

____

SECTION 3: Demographic Information

61. How old are you? ________________________

62. What is your sex?

a. Female
b. Male
c. Prefer not to answer

63. What is your ethnicity?

a. American Indian/Alaskan Native
b. Asian/Pacific Islander
c. Black/African American
d. Hispanic/Latino
e. White/Caucasian
f. Other (please specify) _____________________

64. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

a. None or less than high school degree
b. High school degree or equivalent
c. Associate degree
d. Bachelor's degree
e. Master's degree
f. Doctoral degree, professional degree, or equivalent
g. Other (please specify) _____________________

65. What best describes your current employment status?

a. Employed (part-time, full-time, or self-employed)
b. Unemployed
c. Retired
d. I don't have job experience.
e. Other (Please specify) _____________________

66. Are you currently working in the United States?

a. Yes b. No

67. Which of the following most closely matches your current job title?

a. Intern/Entry Level/Clerical
b. Analyst/Associate/Professional
c. Manager/Administration
d. Senior Management/C level executive/ President
e. Owner
f. I don't have job experience.
g. Other (please specify) ____________________

68. What best describes the field you work in?

a. Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
b. Construction
c. Education
d. Government
e. Health Care and Social Assistance
f. Information and Mass Media
g. Military
h. Manufacturing
i. Food Service and Hospitality
j. Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
k. Transportation and Warehousing
l. Wholesale and Retail Trade
m. Other (please specify) ____________________

69. How did you learn about this survey?

a. AmazonMTurk (Please provide your ID#_______)
b. CRTNET
c. Social Media
d. My Professor
e. USM Mailout
f. Word of Mouth
g. Other (please specify) ____________________

70. [Shown only to those selecting "AmazonMTurk" in the previous question: What is your AmazonMTurk ID? After completing the survey, please enter your AmazonMTurk ID again on the MTurk website.

71. [Shown only to those selecting "My Professor" in the previous question] For extra credit, please provide your ID#, course#, and professor's name for example, Wxxxxxx, CMS 320, Dr. John Doe.

____

72. If you wish to enter a drawing to win a $25 Amazon gift card, please provide your email

73. address. __________________________

APPENDIX C – Results of the Entire Sample

This appendix reports the results of the entire sample (n = 339) including the cases that were outside of the cutoff points for the accommodativeness variable. The following are participants' demographics, results of the confirmatory factor analysis, Cronbrach's alphas, relevant statistical findings, and figures parallel to those reported in the body of this dissertation based on the main sample (n = 235). As previously described, the findings from both samples were all in the same directions with minor differences in path coefficients. The purpose of this appendix is to fully disclose all information and allow the reader to interpret the findings as they see appropriate.

Table A1.

Participants' Demographics (n = 339)

Characteristic	*n*	%	Characteristic	*n*	%
Age			**Job Titles**		
M = 35.64, *SD* = 12.64, Min = 18, Max = 74			Intern/Entry Level/Clerical	106	31.3
Sex			Analyst/Associate/professional	122	36.0
Male	115	33.9	Management	90	26.5
Female	219	64.6	Owner	14	4.1
Not reported	5	1.5	Not reported	7	2.1
Ethnicity			**Industries**		
American Indian/Alaskan Native	4	1.2	Education	96	28.3
Asian/Pacific Islander	23	6.8	Professional, scientific, and technical services	88	26.0
Black/African American	18	5.3			
Hispanic/Latino	13	3.8	Wholesale and retail trade	36	10.6
Mixed Ethnicity	6	1.8	Healthcare and social assistance	33	9.7
White/Caucasian	271	79.9			
Not reported	4	1.2	Food and hospitality	34	10.0
Education			Construction, manufacturing, transportation, and warehousing	19	5.6
Up to high school	85	25.1			
Associate degree	47	13.9			
Bachelor's degree	109	32.2	Arts, entertainment, and recreation	11	3.2
Master's degree	58	17.1			
Doctoral degree or equivalent	38	11.2	Government and military	13	3.8
Not reported	2	.6	Others	9	2.7

Table A2.

Standardized Regression Weights for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of All Scales

Scale	Standardized Regression Weights
Accommodativeness	
9. Pleasant	.91
10. Accommodative	.92
11. Respectful	.93
12. Polite	.91
13. Explaining things clearly	.85
14. Responding to your needs	.92
15. Addressing your concerns	.91
16. Attending to your feelings	.92
Goodwill	
7. Cares about me/Doesn't care about me (reverse coded)	.88
8. Has my interests at heart/Doesn't have my interests at heart (reverse coded)	.93
9. Self-centered/Not self-centered	.69
10. Concerned with me/Not concerned with me (reverse coded)	.89
11. Insensitive/Sensitive	.74
12. Not understanding/Understanding	.79
Pre-Test SPANE-P (Positive Emotion)	
7. Positive	.64
8. Good	.77
9. Pleasant	.67
10. Happy	.74
11. Joyful	.66
12. Contented	.66
Pre-Test SPANE-N (Negative Emotion)	
6. Negative	.80
7. Bad	.72
8. Unpleasant	.79
9. Sad	.43
10. Angry	.74
Post-Test SPANE-P (Positive Emotion)	
1. Positive	.95
2. Good	.95
3. Pleasant	.94
4. Happy	.93
5. Joyful	.84
6. Contented	.88
Post-Test SPANE-N (Negative Emotion)	
1. Negative	.95
2. Bad	.87
3. Unpleasant	.95
4. Sad	.71
5. Angry	.92

Table A2.

Standardized Regression Weights for Confirmatory Factor Analyses of All Scales

(continued)

Scale	Standardized Regression Weights
Distributive Intention	
10. I would push my own point of view.	.65
11. I would search for gains for myself.	.75
12. I would fight for a good outcome for myself.	.77
13. I would do everything to win.	.46
Integrative Intention	
5. I would examine the situation until I find a solution that really satisfies me and the manager.	.79
6. I would stand for my own as well as the manager's goals and interests.	.71
7. I would try to find a solution that is optimal both for me and the manager.	.83
8. I would work out a solution that serves my own as well as the manager's interests as good as possible.	.83

Table A3.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Cronbach's Alphas of All Scales

Scale	*M*	*SD*	*N* of Items	α
Accommodativeness	21.54	9.10	8	.97
Pre-test SPANE-P	7.67	2.43	6	.83
Pre-test SPANE-N	17.07	4.27	5	.82
Post-test SPANE-P	14.41	7.38	6	.97
Post-test SPANE-N	11.72	6.22	5	.95
Distributive Intention	11.56	3.31	4	.75
Integrative Intention	14.22	3.52	4	.87
Goodwill	23.14	9.74	6	.93

Table A4.

Variables' Means and Standard Deviations by Level of Core Concerns Accommodativeness and Manager Gender

Variable	Underaccommodation			Accommodation			Overaccommodation		
	Male (n = 52)	Female (n = 64)	Total (n = 116)	Male (n = 56)	Female (n = 52)	Total (n = 108)	Male (n = 64)	Female (n = 51)	Total (n = 115)
	M (SD)	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*
Accommodativeness	1.36 (.39)	1.30 (.44)	1.33 (.41)	3.24 (.63)	3.32 (.69)	3.28 (.66)	3.48 (.57)	3.56 (.62)	3.52 (.59)
Goodwill	2.09 (1.01)	2.38 (1.04)	2.25 (1.03)	4.62 (1.14)	4.55 (1.19)	4.59 (1.16)	4.79 (1.18)	4.79 (1.26)	4.79 (1.21)
Positive Emotion	-1.31 (5.40)	-2.70 (5.71)	-2.08 (5.60)	20.07 (8.96)	19.42 (10.35)	19.76 (9.61)	19.25 (10.46)	19.04 (10.36)	19.16 (10.37)
Integrative Intention	3.12 (.87)	2.98 (.89)	3.04 (.88)	3.79 (.85)	3.76 (.73)	3.78 (.79)	3.93 (.71)	3.78 (.72)	3.86 (.72)
Distributive Intention	3.01 (.97)	2.96 (.79)	2.98 (.87)	2.70 (.91)	2.79 (.76)	2.75 (.84)	2.96 (.76)	2.90 (.76)	2.93 (.76)

Note. n = sample size, M = mean, SD = standard deviation

Table A5.

Intercorrelations among All Variables

Variable	*M*	SD	1	2	3	4	5
6. Accommodativeness	2.69	1.14	-				
7. Goodwill	3.86	1.62	.839*	-			
8. Positive Emotion	12.08	13.45	.834*	.801*	-		
9. Integrative Intention	3.55	.88	.451*	.457*	.432*	-	
10. Distributive Intention	2.89	.83	-.072	-.067	-.047	.240*	-

*$p < .001$

Table A6.

Standardized Regression Weights for Linear and Curvilinear Relationships between Core Concerns Accommodativeness and Outcome Variables

	β	p
Accom to Goodwill	**.847**	**< .001**
Accom to Positive Emotion	**.538**	**< .001**
Accom to Integration	**.232**	**.010**
Accom to Distribution	.027	.784
$Accom^2$ to Goodwill	.030	.338
$Accom^2$ to Positive Emotion	-.031	.299
$Accom^2$ to Integration	.009	.865
$Accom^2$ to Distribution	**.218**	**< .001**
Goodwill to Positive Emotion	**.343**	**< .001**
Goodwill to Integration	**.265**	**.003**
Goodwill to Distribution	-.045	.646

Note. $X^2 = 1.533$, ($df = 2$, $n = 339$, $p = .465$), TLI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, SRMR = .008; Accom = Accommodativeness; $Accom^2$ = Accommodativeness Squared; The paths from Accom to all other variables estimate linear effects of accommodativeness and the paths from $Accom^2$ estimate the curvilinear effects of accommodativeness, each controlling for the other effects. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

Table A7.

Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Accommodativeness on Positive Emotion, Integrative Intention, and Distributive Intention

	Direct			Indirect			Total		
	β	95% CI	p	β	95% CI	p	β	95% CI	p
Accommodativeness (linear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	**.538**	[.44, .65]	**< .001**	.291	[.20, .38]	**.000**	.829	[.79, .86]	**.001**
Integration	**.232**	[.04, .42]	**.018**	.224	[.05, .39]	**.009**	.456	[.36, .54]	**<.001**
Distribution	.027	[-.18, .24]	.797	-.038	[-.20, .14]	.671	-.011	[-.14, .12]	.874
Accommodativeness squared (curvilinear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	-.031	[-.09, .03]	.311	.010	[-.01, .03]	.327	-.020	[-.08, .04]	.533
Integration	.009	[-.10, .11]	.877	.008	[-.01, .03]	.235	.016	[-.09, .12]	.763
Distribution	**.218**	[.08, .34]	**.002**	-.001	[-.02, .00]	.429	.216	[.08, .34]	**.002**

Note. Direct effect = effect of the predictor (i.e., accommodativeness and accommodativeness squared) on the outcomes controlling for goodwill; Indirect effect = effect of the predictor on the outcomes mediated by goodwill; Total effect = effect of the

predictor on the outcomes when goodwill is not included in the model. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

Table A8.

Standardized Regression Weights by Manager Gender Based on the Unconstrained Model and Pairwise Comparisons

	Male Manager Group			Female Manager Group			Pairwise Comparison	
	β	*SE*	*p*	*β*	*SE*	*p*	*z*	*p*
Accom to Goodwill	**.854**	.061	**< .001**	**.842**	.062	**< .001**	1.917	.055
Accom to Positive Emotion	**.412**	.904	**< .001**	**.628**	.869	**< .001**	-1.871	.061
Accom to Integration	.121	.107	.355	**.286**	.091	**.021**	-.793	.428
Accom to Distribution	-.032	.118	.824	.041	.090	.767	-.357	.721
$Accom^2$ to Goodwill	-.032	.068	.428	.081	.066	.078	-1.794	.073
$Accom^2$ to Positive Emotion	-.013	.525	.745	-.026	.534	.556	.192	.848
$Accom^2$ to Integration	.125	.062	.070	-.068	.056	.347	**1.974**	**.048**
$Accom^2$ to Distribution	**.322**	.068	**< .001**	.128	.055	.113	**2.319**	**.020**
Goodwill to Positive Emotion	**.484**	.592	**< .001**	**.243**	.627	**< .001**	**2.003**	**.045**
Goodwill to Integration	**.413**	.070	**.002**	.181	.066	.134	1.274	.203
Goodwill to Distribution	.075	.077	.604	-.117	.065	.383	.958	.338

Note. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

Table A9.

Differences in Indirect Effects of Accommodativeness on Outcome Variables between the Manager Genders

	Male Manager			Female Manager			Indirect Effect Difference		
	B	*β*	*p*	B	*β*	*p*	B	95% CI	*p*
Accommodativeness (linear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	4.973	.414	**< .001**	2.377	.205	**.004**	2.595	[.51, 4.92]	**.015**
Integration	.287	.353	**.002**	.111	.152	.195	.175	[-.05, .42]	.142
Distribution	.052	.064	.657	-.064	-.099	.410	.116	[-.159, .372]	.412
Accommodativeness squared (curvilinear relationship)									
Positive Emotion	-.205	-.015	.405	.242	.020	.052	-.447	[-1.16, .10]	.112
Integration	-.012	-.013	.351	.011	.015	.118	-.023	[-.07, .10]	146
Distribution	-.002	-.002	.451	-.007	-.010	.264	.004	[-.02, .04]	.607

Note. Bold indicates a statistically significant effect.

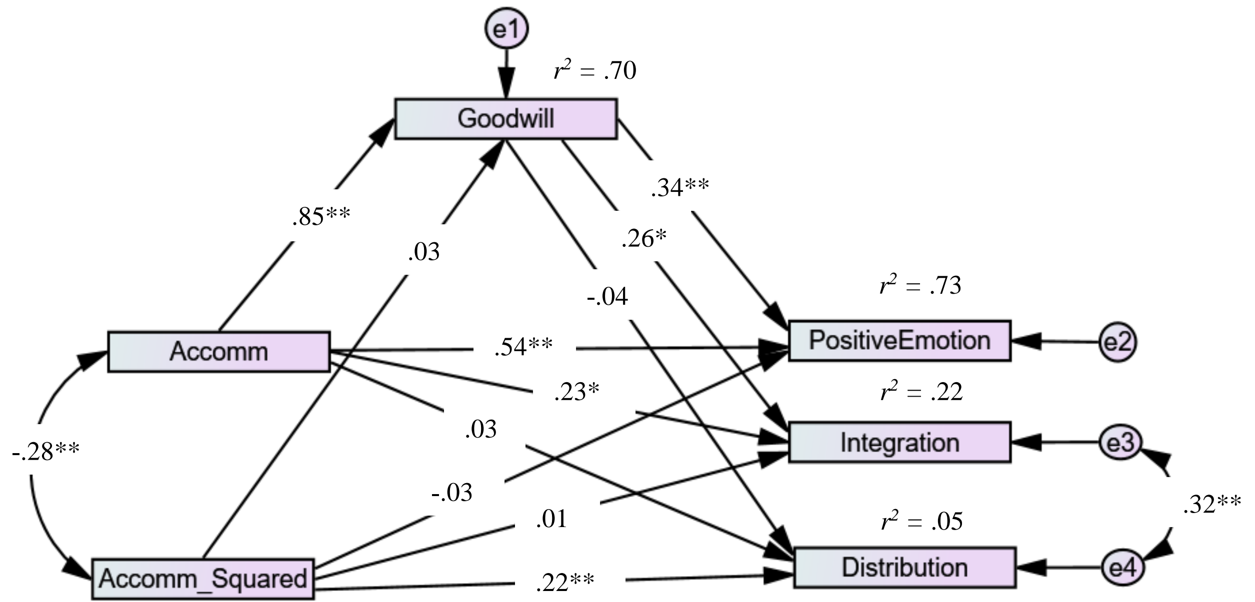

Figure A1. Statistical model with all paths.

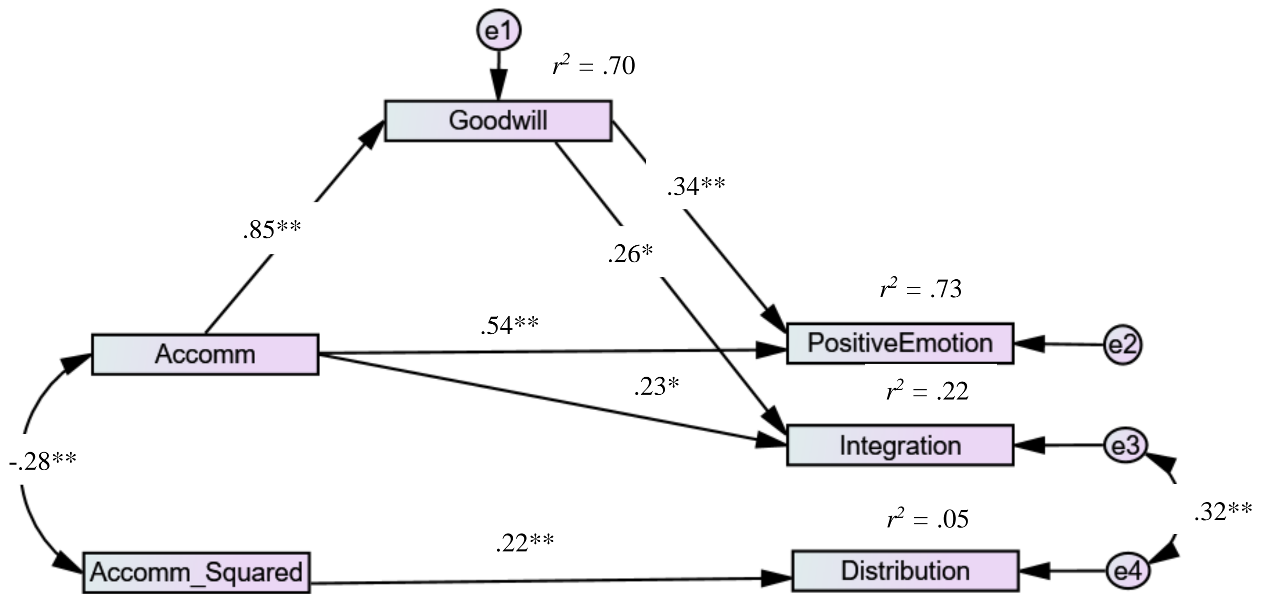

Figure A2. Statistical model with only significant paths.

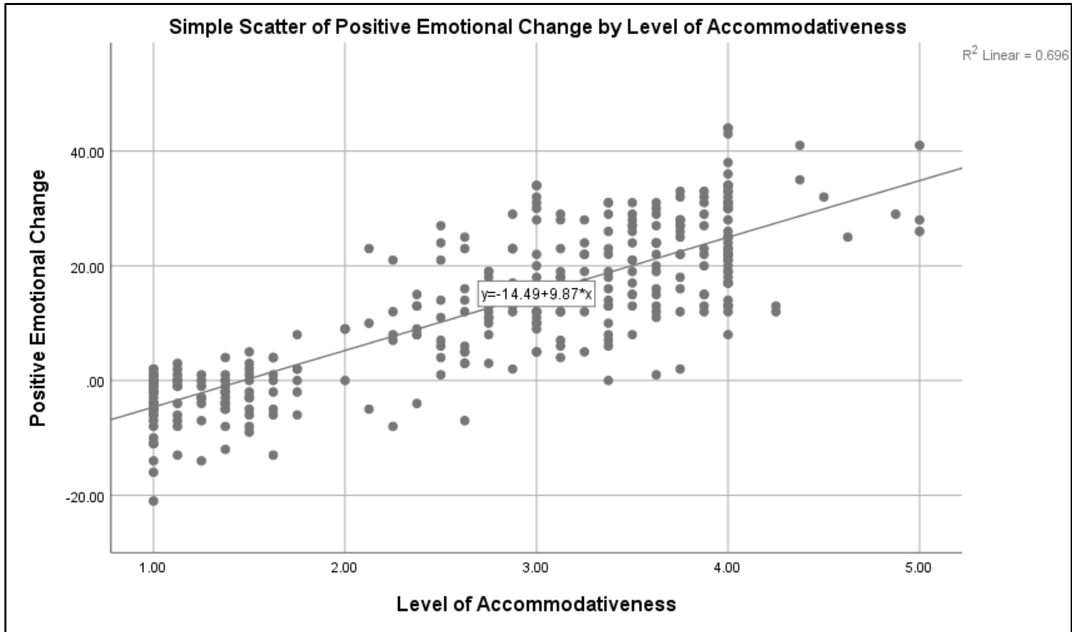

Figure A3. Linear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion.

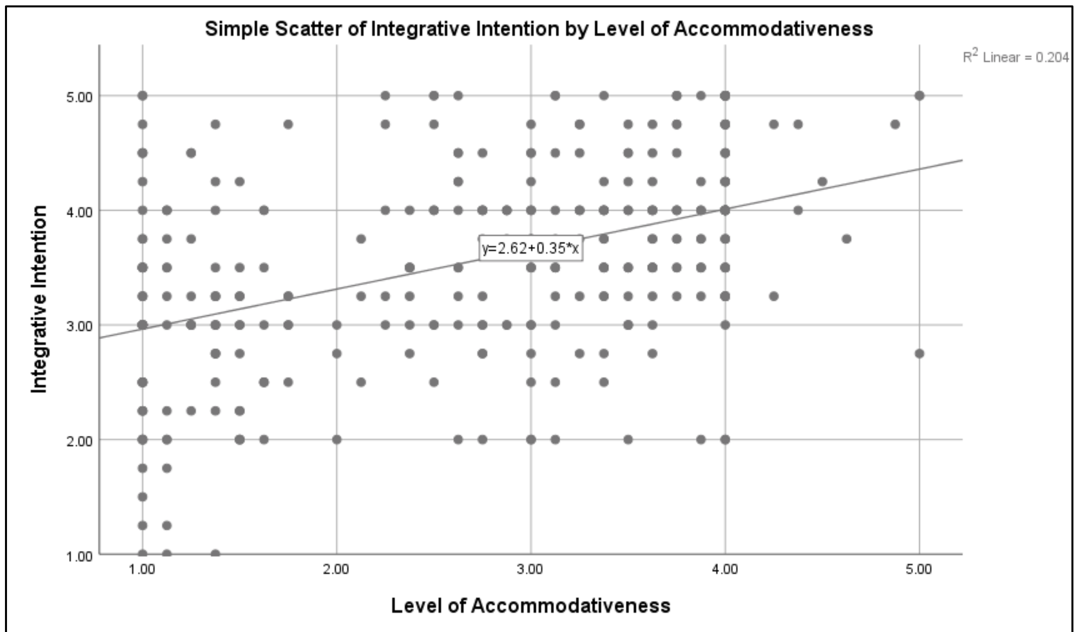

Figure A4. Linear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and integrative intention.

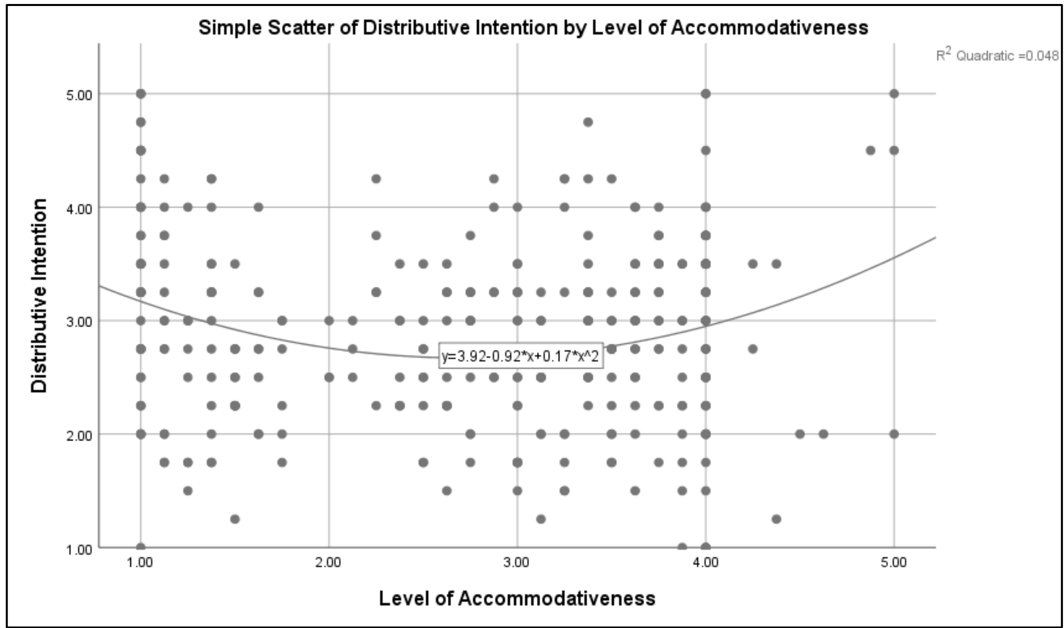

Figure A5. Curvilinear relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention.

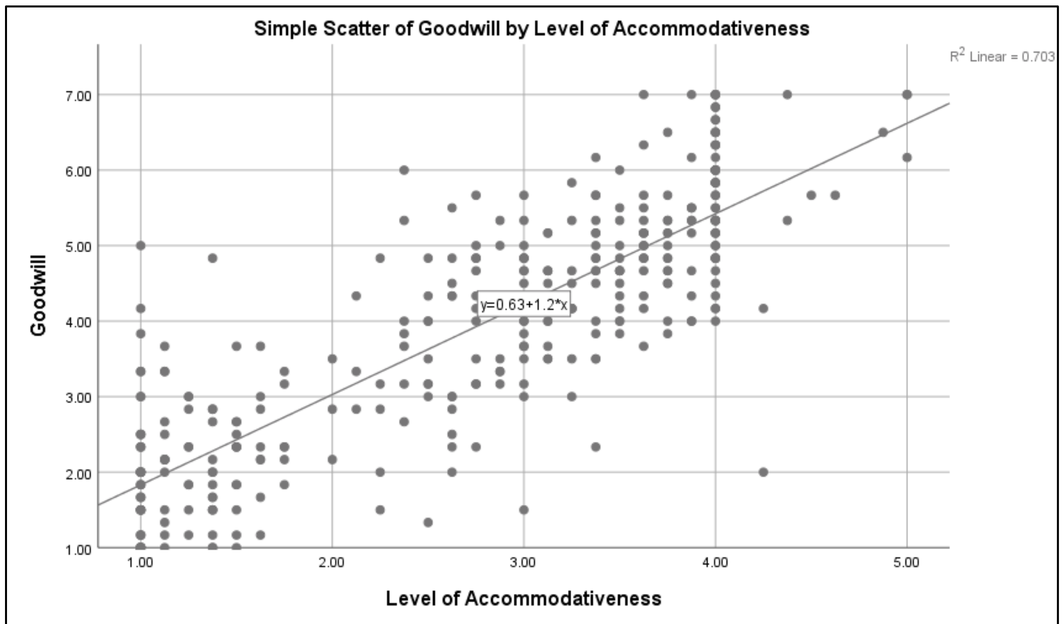

Figure A6. Linear relationships between core concerns accommodativeness and perceived goodwill

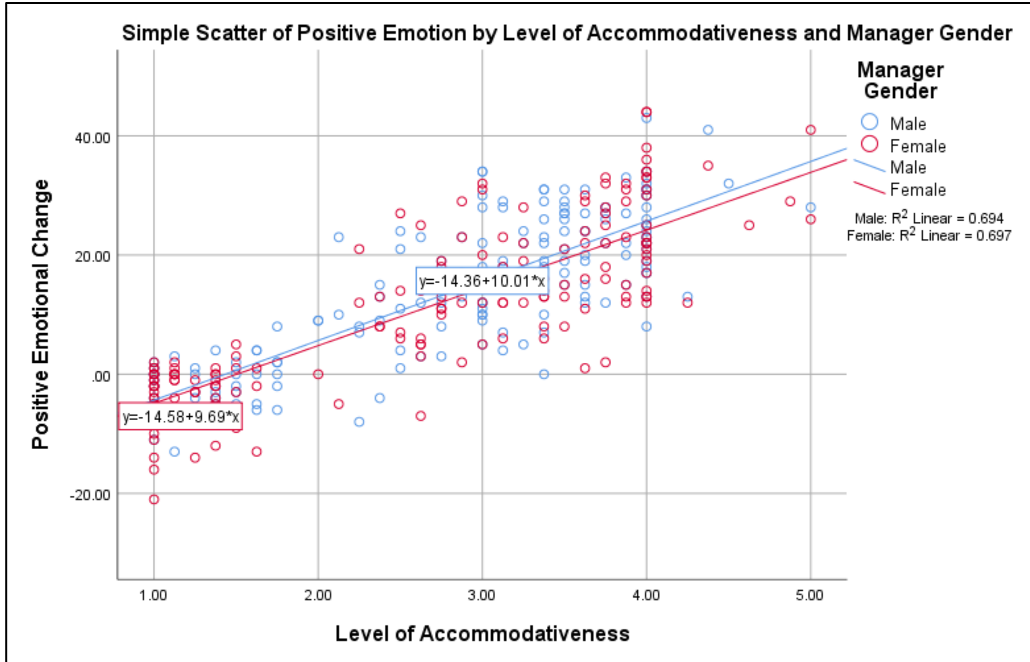

Figure A7. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and positive emotion by manager gender. Simple Scatter of Positive Emotion by Level of Accommodativeness and Manager Gender

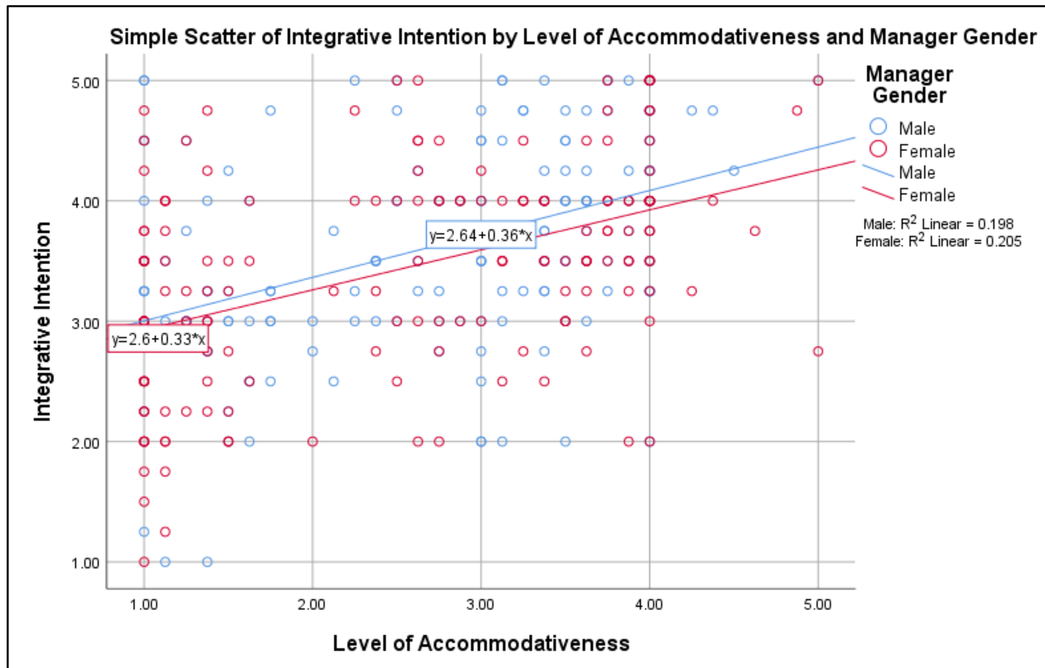

Figure A8. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and integrative intention by manager gender.

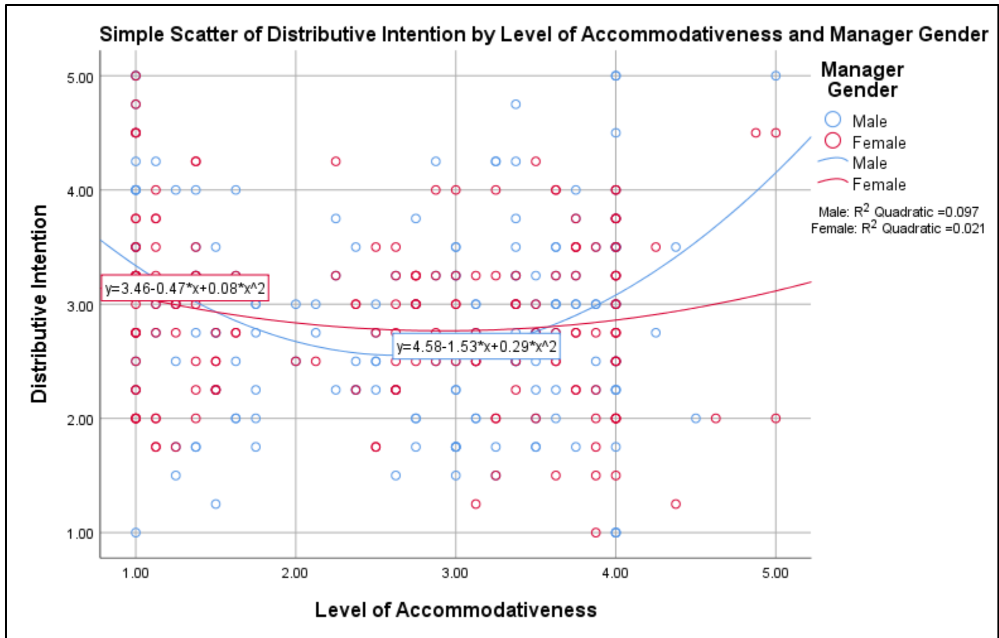

Figure A9. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and distributive intention by manager gender.

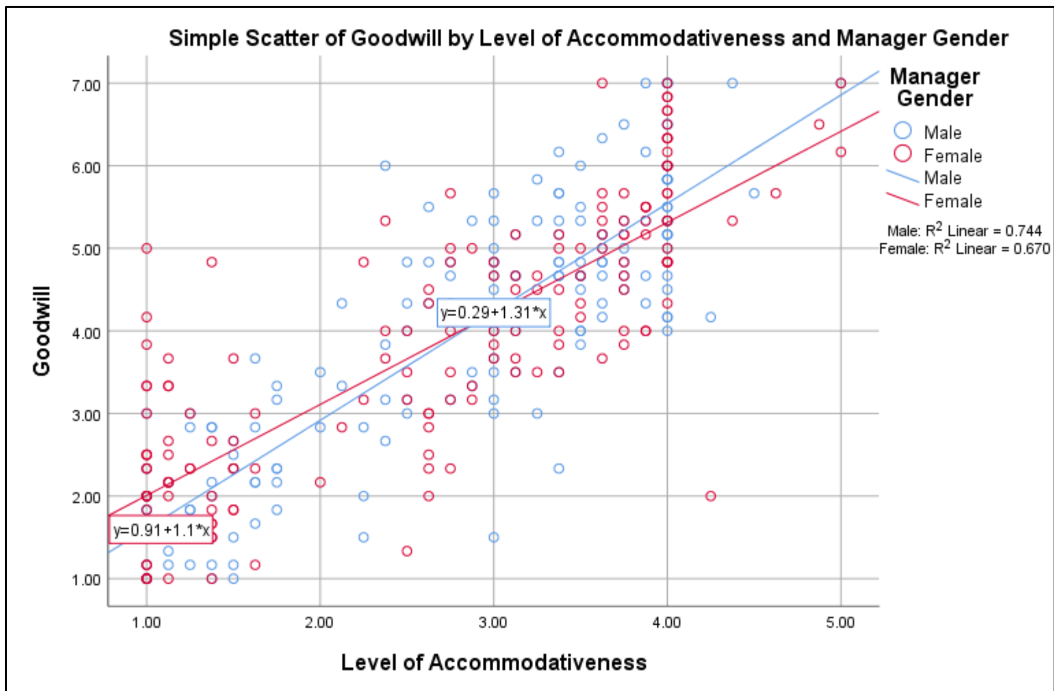

Figure A10. Relationship between core concerns accommodativeness and goodwill by manager gender.

APPENDIX D – IRB Approval Letters

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
118 College Drive #5147 | Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001
Phone: 601.266.5997 | Fax: 601.266.4377 | www.usm.edu/research/institutional.review.board

NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 18022306
PROJECT TITLE: "It's Not What you Say, It's How You Say It": Examining the Core Concerns Framework in Light of Politeness and Communication Accommodation
PROJECT TYPE: Doctoral Dissertation
RESEARCHER(S): Piyawan Charoensap
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Arts and Letters
DEPARTMENT: Communication Studies
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 03/01/2018 to 02/28/2019

Jennifer Downey
Institutional Review Board

THE UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
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- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the “Adverse Effect Report Form”.
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: CH18022306
PROJECT TITLE: "It's Not What you Say, It's How You Say It": Examining the Core Concerns Framework in Light of Politeness and Communication Accommodation
PROJECT TYPE: Change to a Previously Approved Project
RESEARCHER(S): Piyawan Charoensap
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Arts and Letters
DEPARTMENT: Communication Studies
FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 03/01/2018 to 02/28/2019
Edward L. Goshorn, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board

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