



Sway

The Irresistible Pull of Irrational Behavior

THE SUMMARY IN BRIEF

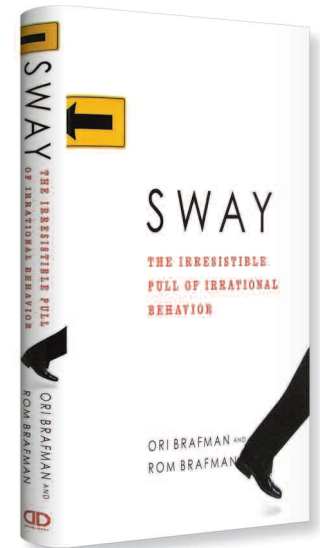
Although most of us think of ourselves as rational, we're much more prone to irrational behavior than we realize.

What psychological forces underlie our own irrational behaviors? How do these forces creep up on us? When are we most vulnerable to them? How do they affect our careers? How do they shape our business and personal relationships? When do they put our finances, or even our lives, at risk? And why don't we realize when we're getting swayed?

In *Sway: The Irresistible Pull of Irrational Behavior*, brothers and authors Ori and Rom Brafman explore several of the psychological forces that derail rational thinking. Wherever they looked — across different sectors, countries and cultures—the authors saw different people being swayed in very similar ways. We're all susceptible to the sway of irrational behaviors. But by better understanding the seductive pull of these forces, we'll be less likely to fall victim to them in the future.

IN THIS SUMMARY, YOU WILL LEARN:

- How the natural aversion to loss leads many people to ignore the facts, put on blinders and chase a loss in the hopes of recovering something often unrecoverable.
- What happens when you can't navigate the swamp of commitment.
- How looks can be deceiving, especially when they assign an inaccurate value to something or someone based on an initial impression.
- Why interviews are often like first dates, and how hiring managers need more structure in their interviews in order to truly find the right-fit candidate.
- Why every individual is a psychological chameleon.



by Ori Brafman
and Rom Brafman

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THE COMPLETE SUMMARY: SWAY

by Ori Brafman and Rom Brafman

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Dealing With Loss

A growing body of research reveals that our behavior and decision making are influenced by an array of psychological undercurrents that are much more powerful and pervasive than most of us realize. The interesting thing about these forces is that, like streams, they converge to become even more powerful. Charting these psychological undercurrents and their unexpected effects, we can see where the currents are strongest and how their dynamics help us understand some of the most perplexing human mysteries.

Oversensitive Egg Shoppers

Professor Daniel Putler, a former researcher at the U.S. Department of Agriculture, has spent more time thinking about eggs in a year than the rest of us spend in a lifetime. He carefully tracked and studied every aspect of egg sales in southern California. Looking at the data, he found some interesting patterns. Egg sales were typically higher during the first week of each month. Not surprisingly, they were abnormally high in the weeks leading up to Easter, only to experience a sharp decline the week after. Poring over cash-register data that reflected egg-price fluctuations, Putler identified what is referred to in economics as an “asymmetry.”

Traditional economic theory holds that people should react to price fluctuations with equal intensity whether the price moves up or down. If the price goes down, we buy more. If the price goes up, we buy less. Economists wouldn't expect people to be more sensitive to price increases than to price decreases. But Putler found that shoppers completely overreacted when prices rose.

It turns out that, when it comes to price increases, egg

buyers are a sensitive bunch. If you reduce the price of eggs, consumers buy a little more. But when the price of eggs rises, they cut back their consumption by *two and a half times*. The feeling of dread over a price increase is disproportionate — or asymmetric — to the satisfaction felt when a good deal arises.

We experience the pain associated with a loss much more vividly than we do the joy of experiencing a gain. Putler's research illuminates a mystery that economists have been grappling with for years. For no apparent logical reason, we overreact to perceived losses.

So Long, Martha's Vineyard

According to Columbia Business School professor Eric Johnson, the more meaningful a potential loss is, the more loss averse we become. In other words, the more there is on the line, the easier it is to get swept into an irrational decision.

If anyone knows about having a lot on the line, it's Jordan Walters of the Silicon Valley branch of investment house Smith Barney. He remembers one client in particular, whose biotech startup purchased by a public company. The client had it made and was planning to retire on Martha's Vineyard.

But Walters pointed out to his client that investing the vast majority of his wealth in his former biotech company's stock would be putting all his eggs in one basket. It would have made more sense to diversify, and Walters came up with a plan to sell a predetermined percentage of his client's holdings every quarter in order to “take the emotion out of the decision.”

But the client wanted to ride the stock even higher. He had just sold his company and made it big. Why stop



1-800-SUMMARY
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Published by Soundview Executive Book Summaries (ISSN 0747-2196), P.O. Box 1053, Concordville, PA 19331 USA, a division of Concentrated Knowledge Corp. Published monthly. Subscriptions: \$209 per year in the United States, Canada and Mexico, and \$295 to all other countries. Periodicals postage paid at Concordville, Pa., and additional offices.

Postmaster: Send address changes to Soundview, P.O. Box 1053, Concordville, PA 19331. Copyright © 2008 by Soundview Executive Book Summaries.

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now? “What happened,” Walters recalled, “when he came in and the stock was at \$47, we sold maybe 10 percent of his total position.” Shortly after that, the stock began to drop and hit \$42. The client said that if the stock went back to \$47, he would sell.

Sensing that money was starting to slip through his fingers, the client developed an aversion to loss. Walters realized that his client was so eager to make up for a loss that he was becoming oblivious to the risks he was taking. From Walters’ rational perspective, there was nothing magical about the \$47 stock price, and there was no guarantee that it would get back up there. On the flip side, the stock was liable to slip even further. But for the client, selling at anything less than \$47 represented a loss.

The stock dropped to \$38, and the client decided he would sell if it went back up to \$44. Stock traders call this kind of behavior “chasing a loss” — when investors ignore the current data, put on blinders and proceed with the singular purpose of recovering as much of their loss as possible.

Walters explained to his client that holding on to the position in hopes that the stock price would recover was risky. But the client ignored Walters’ advice and kept his stake. The stock ended up at 12 cents, and the only value the client got out of it was the initial 10 percent he sold up front. Painful as it may have been, the client could have sold at \$42, perhaps giving up the dream of a fancy yacht but keeping the majority of his assets and realizing his plan to retire to Martha’s Vineyard. ●

The Swamp of Commitment

We’ve all experienced the pervasive pull of commitment in some form or another; whether we’ve invested our time and money in a particular project or poured our energy into a doomed relationship, it’s difficult to let go even when things clearly aren’t working. As difficult as it can be to admit defeat, however, staying the course simply because of a past commitment hurts us in the long run.

Independently, each of these two forces — commitment and aversion to loss — has a powerful effect on us. But when the two forces combine, it becomes much harder to break free and do something different.

The \$20 Auction

It’s precisely because of the compounding effect of commitment and aversion to loss that students in Max Bazerman’s negotiations class at Harvard Business School would do well to hold on to their wallets when he

Kahneman on Loss Aversion

Nobel Prize-winning economist Daniel Kahneman, who, together with Amos Tversky, first discovered and chronicled the phenomenon of loss aversion, offers a telling reflection of our psychology during such situations. “To withdraw now is to accept a sure loss,” he writes about digging oneself into a deeper hole, “and that option is deeply unattractive.” When you combine this with the force of commitment, “the option of hanging on will therefore be relatively attractive, even if the chances of success are small and the cost of delaying failure is high.”

Aversion to loss, on its own, is strong. But when it converges with commitment, the force becomes an even more powerful influence in shaping our thinking and decision making.

introduces his “\$20 auction.”

On the first day of class, Bazerman announces a game in which he offers up a \$20 bill for auction. Everybody is free to bid; there are only two rules. The first rule is that bids are to be made in \$1 increments. The second rule is a little trickier: The winner of the auction wins the bill, but the runner-up must still honor his or her bid while receiving nothing in return.

At the beginning of the auction, the hands shoot up quickly, with a flurry of bids following. As Bazerman described it, “The pattern is always the same. The bidding starts out fast and furious until it reaches the \$12-to-\$16 range.”

At this point, it becomes clear to each of the participants that he or she isn’t the only one with the idea of winning the \$20 for cheap. Everyone but the two highest bidders drops out of the auction, and without realizing it, those two students are locked in. Up to this point, the students were looking to make a quick dollar; now neither one wants to be the sucker who paid good money for nothing. This is when the students become committed to the strategy of playing not to lose.

Like a runaway train, the auction continues, with the bidding going up to \$18, \$19 and \$20. From a rational perspective, the obvious decision would be for the bidders to accept their losses and stop the auction before it spins even further out of control. But the students are pulled by both the momentum of the auction and the looming loss if they back down — a loss that is growing greater by the bid. The two forces, in turn, feed off each other: Commitment to a chosen path inspires additional

bids, driving the price up, making the potential loss loom even larger.

And so students continue bidding: \$21, \$22, \$23, \$50, \$100, up to a record \$204. Over the years Bazerman has conducted this experiment, he has never lost a penny (he donates all proceeds to charity). Regardless of who the bidders are — college students or business executives attending a seminar — they are always swayed. ●

The Value of the Stradivarius on the Subway

To understand how value attribution works, we must journey beneath the streets of Washington, D.C. On a January morning in 2007, L'Enfant Plaza subway station was about to be filled with music. At exactly 7:51 a.m., during rush hour, an ordinary-looking man dressed in jeans and a baseball cap nonchalantly took out his \$3.5 million Stradivarius violin and got ready to play. The man was Joshua Bell, one of the finest violinists alive, who regularly performs to sold-out crowds in the best concert halls. Unbeknownst to any of the commuters, Bell was taking part in an undercover field study conducted by *The Washington Post*.

Over the next 43 minutes the concert continued, but on that morning there was no thunderous applause. Here was one of the best musicians in the world playing in the subway station for free, but no one seemed to care. Of the 1,097 people who walked by, hardly anyone stopped. One man listened for a few minutes, a couple of kids stared, and one woman, who happened to recognize the violinist, gaped in disbelief.

Now, the commuters might have been in too much of a hurry to pay attention to Bell. But think about how Joshua Bell appeared to the subway riders. He wasn't dressed in formal attire; he stood on no stage. For all intents and purposes, Bell looked like your average street performer. Even though he didn't *sound* like a mediocre violinist, he looked the part. Without realizing it, the commuters attributed the value they perceived — the baseball cap, jeans, subway venue — to the quality of the performance. As they passed Bell, most subway riders didn't even glance in his direction. Instead of hearing an outstanding concert, they heard street music.

Value Attribution

It's easy to understand why the subway riders reacted the way they did. Value attribution acts as a mental shortcut to determine what's worthy of our attention. When we encounter a new object, person or situation, the

value we assign to it shapes our further perception of it, whether it's our dismissal of a curiously inexpensive antique at a flea market or our admiration of a high-priced designer bag in a boutique. Imagine stumbling upon a discarded armoire on the street. Do you see it for the rare treasure it might be? Or is it your knee-jerk reaction that *something* must be wrong with it? In the same way, value attribution affects our perceptions of people. We may turn down a pitch or idea that is presented by the "wrong" person or blindly follow the advice of someone who is highly regarded.

That is not to say that a person's title doesn't count for anything or that a product's price usually fails to give you a good idea of its true value. But when we apply that price tag (be it real or metaphorical) too broadly, we compromise our rationality. ●

The First-Date Interview

Here's where value attribution meets up with a sway called the *diagnosis bias* — our propensity to label people, ideas or things based on our initial opinions of them — and our inability to reconsider those judgments once we've made them.

When you think about it, the standard job interview is a lot like a first date. As Professor Allen Huffcutt explained, "You don't have a clear format to follow and you just let the interview go as it will." It's easy to understand why companies would be so drawn to the "first-date" interview format. After all, managers will spend a lot of time with the person they hire; they want to make sure the person is a good fit.

Standard Interview Questions That Don't Cut It

The standard job interview questions are familiar to all of us, but they make Huffcutt cringe. He shared a list of the top 10 most commonly asked questions during an interview. You'd think that, given the frequency with which they're asked, at least *some* of them would be useful. But from the whole list, Huffcutt gave a passing mark to only one question.

1. Why should I hire you?
2. What do you see yourself doing five years from now?
3. What do you consider some of your greatest strengths and weaknesses?
4. How would you describe yourself?
5. What college subjects did you like the best?

and the least?

6. What do you know about our company?
7. Why did you decide to seek a job with our company?
8. Why did you leave your last job?
9. What do you want to earn five years from now?
10. What do you really want to do in life?

When we look at these questions more closely, we see that they cluster around specific themes. The first group (questions 1, 3 and 4) is taken from the Barbara Walters school of interviewing. The second group (questions 2, 9 and 10) requires the candidates to gaze into the future. But unless they're applying for a job at a psychic hotline, their predictions carry little weight. The final cluster (questions 5, 7 and 8) takes the opposite approach and turns the interviewer into a historian. The thing is, when people revisit the past, they often reconstruct it. That leaves question No. 6, "What do you know about our company?" as the winner. "That can actually be a decent question," explained Huffcutt. "That gets into whether they took the time to research your company, which can be a good sign — at least better than the previous questions."

Does a Good Interview = Good Job Performance?

When researchers conducted a meta-analysis — a broad study incorporating data from every scientific work ever conducted in the field — they found there's only a small correlation between first-date (unstructured) job interviews and job performance. The marks managers give job candidates have very little to do with how well those candidates actually perform on the job.

It all comes back to the dating analogy. "How many people go on a first date," Huffcutt reflected, "get a certain impression; keep dating the person; and then, over time, see the reality of the person? That first impression can be totally wrong. You later wonder, 'What in the world was I thinking? How did I not see these things?' The same thing happens in the interview. You've got a very limited time exposure, applicants put on their best show and — not surprisingly — you don't see the realities of the person in 20 minutes."

When it comes to interviews, managers need to restrain themselves from delving into first-date questions (i.e., What do you see yourself doing five years from now?) and focus instead on specific past experience and "job-related hypothetical scenarios," said Huffcutt. The idea is to focus on relevant data and squelch any ques-

tions that invite the candidate to predict the future, reconstruct the past or ponder life's big questions. It's all about the important information. What kind of accounting software are you familiar with? What experience do you have running PR campaigns?

But even then, interviews aren't that great as a predictive tool, because some people simply know how to sell themselves better than others. As counterintuitive as it sounds, you don't need interviews at all. Research shows that an aptitude test predicts performance just as well as a structured interview.

The point is, when we're in the position to make a diagnosis, we all become overly confident in our predictive abilities and overly optimistic about the future. ●

The Chameleon Effect

To look at another trap of diagnosis, let's head to Israel, where 105 soldiers were about to participate in a grueling 15-week commander training program. It was a rigorous and intense process, requiring harsh physical training, mental concentration and 16-hour workdays.

The would-be commanders didn't know it, but this particular course was going to be different from any previous to that date. Before this session's classes started, psychologist Dov Eden informed the training officers leading the program that the army had accumulated comprehensive data on each of the trainees.

Based on this information, Eden told the officers that each soldier had been classified into one of three "command potential" (CP) categories: high, regular and unknown (due to insufficient information). Trainees from each classification were divided equally into four trainee classes. "You will copy each trainee's CP," Eden told the

The Chameleon Effect in the Workplace

This kind of phenomenon is by no means limited to the military. A meta-analysis conducted by psychologists at SUNY Albany suggested that these same diagnostic effects operate in the workplace. If you've ever been fortunate enough to work for a boss who values you, you'll know that you tend to rise to meet the high expectations set for you. On the other hand, there's nothing that will make you feel more incompetent and demoralized than a supervisor who is convinced you don't have what it takes.

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officers, “into his personal record. You are requested to learn your trainees’ names and their predicted CP by the beginning of the course.”

The trainees had no idea that any of this was going on. And the officers didn’t know that the so-called command potential, along with the supporting data, was bogus. Scores were randomly assigned to the trainees and had nothing to do with their intelligence, past performance or ability.

When Eden returned 15 weeks later, he discovered something remarkable. At the end of the course, the soldiers took a paper-and-pencil test that measured their new knowledge of “combat tactics, topography, standard operating procedures, and such practical skills as navigation and accuracy of weapon firing.” This test wasn’t rigged; it was part of the normal procedure. But this is where the effects of assigning soldiers to the different command potential categories became apparent.

The Results

The soldiers who the training officers *thought* had a high CP score performed better on the test (scoring an average of 79.98) than their “unknown” and “regular” counterparts (who scored 72.43 and 65.18, respectively). Simply being labeled, however arbitrarily, as having high leadership potential translated directly into actual improved ability — improved by a staggering 22.7 percent. Remember, neither the trainers nor the trainees had any idea what was going on. Without realizing it, the trainees had taken on the characteristics of the diagnoses ascribed to them.

This molding process becomes self-perpetuating: When we take on the characteristics assigned to us, the diagnosis is reinforced and reaffirmed. Take a look at what happened with the Israeli soldiers and officers. When Eden informed the trainers that the command potential scores had actually been fabricated and assigned randomly, they staunchly disagreed. In an attempt to prove their point, they offered up evidence that the high-potential soldiers indeed performed better on their exit exams. This, of course, is circular logic. The exit tests confirmed the initial diagnosis; the trainees had merely molded their abilities to the diagnoses ascribed to them.

When we brand or label people, they take on the characteristics of the diagnosis, displaying the chameleon effect. We’re constantly sending and receiving cues and subtle messages to and from one another — swaying and being swayed, even if our rational brain hasn’t been let in on the secret. As this study illustrates, we can’t help but take on the characteristics others ascribe to us. There’s a

hidden dance at work within even the most seemingly straightforward interactions — and in this way, we’re all psychological chameleons. ●

What’s Fair Is Fair

Researcher Joseph Henrich decided to test the cultural universality of fairness. To begin with, Henrich replicated a money-splitting experiment among UCLA graduate students. He decided to use a dollar amount that he knew would be significant to students and came up with \$160, which translated to 2.3 days’ worth of work at the grad students’ standard university wage of \$9 an hour. Participants were randomly paired with strangers in separate rooms. Each participant was told that he or she had been paired with a partner whose identity would not be revealed. The pair would be given the combined sum of \$160 — but it was up to them to decide how to split it. The catch, though, was that the students couldn’t talk to each other, flip a coin or enter into negotiations. Instead, one person was randomly chosen to decide how to split the money. The splitting participant could divvy up the money any way he or she wanted. The receiving partner was then presented with the offer and had to decide whether to accept it or not. If the receiving partner accepted, both participants would collect their shares. If he or she rejected the offer, *both* parties would leave empty-handed.

Playing the Game

The most common split offered in the UCLA study was 50/50, which the receiving partner always accepted. After the game was over, Henrich interviewed the participants to see what they had been thinking as they considered their offers. The same word came up again and again: fairness. Most thought that if they offered less than half, their partners wouldn’t accept the offer. It turns out they were right. Asked whether they would have accepted an 80/20 split — an offer of \$32 — virtually all the partners scoffed. “That would be unfair,” they protested. They’d rather go home empty-handed. Some even went so far as to say that they would have rejected *any* offer less than 50 percent.

We don’t typically think of fairness as an irrational force, but it dramatically affects our perceptions and sways our thinking. We’ve all been in situations where we had to negotiate a position. From an objective, logical perspective, it would make sense to focus strictly on the issue at hand: the offer we’re presenting or the price we’re asking for. As it turns out, because of these fairness sways, it’s not always true that what’s fair is fair. ●

Motivation Through Compensation

Managers are always looking for ways to better motivate people; they have long operated under the assumption that monetary incentives increase motivation. But psychologists are beginning to discover that the connection between the two is trickier than it first appears.

Economists can debate the reasons that financial rewards backfire. But researchers at the National Institutes of Health (NIH) have been able to pinpoint the neurophysiology behind this paradox. In an experiment, the NIH researchers placed participants in a specially modified MRI machine fitted with a computer monitor and a simple joystick. Lying inside the machine, the subjects played a video game reminiscent of the Atari era.

At the start of each round of the game, a circle, square or triangle would appear on the screen. Each shape held a unique meaning: A circle meant that if you succeeded in completing a task — zapping a figure as it appeared on the screen — you'd earn a monetary reward. However, when subjects saw a square instead of a circle, they braced themselves for bad news. The object of the game would be the same — zap the figure — except that failing to do so would result in a monetary penalty. If the participants saw a triangle, it meant that no money was on the line; whether they hit the target or not, they would neither lose nor gain any money that round.

While the participants were playing the game, they were shown a running tab of their earnings and losses. Meanwhile, the scientists monitored their brain activity and noticed that every time a circle or square appeared — that is, every time there was money to be gained or lost — a certain part of the brain lit up. This region, which remained dormant when the triangle appeared and no money was at stake, is called the *nucleus accumbens*. Evolutionarily speaking, the nucleus accumbens is one of the most primitive parts of the brain — one traditionally associated with our “wild side.” Scientists call this region the pleasure center because it's associated with the high that results from drugs and gambling.

At its most extreme, the pleasure center drives addiction. The MRI study surprised the researchers because it revealed that the pleasure center is also where we react to financial compensation. And the more money there is on the line, the more the pleasure center lights up. A

monetary reward is — biologically speaking — like a tiny dose of a drug.

Pleasure Versus Altruism

Now compare this reaction with our neurological reaction to altruistic behavior. In 2006, after the NIH study, Duke scientists asked subjects to play a similar game, but instead of earning money for themselves, the participants were told that the better their score, the more money would be donated to charity. In the MRI images, the pleasure center remained quiet throughout the game, but a different region of the brain, the *posterior superior temporal sulcus*, kept lighting up — the altruism center. This is the same part of the brain responsible for social interactions — how we perceive others, how we relate and how we form bonds.

Considering the two studies, scientists discovered that unlike the parts of our brain that control movement and speech, the pleasure center and the altruism center cannot both function at the same time. It's as if we have two “engines” running in our brain that can't operate simultaneously. We can approach a task either altruistically or from a self-interested perspective. The two different engines run on different fuels and also need different amounts of those fuels to fire up. It doesn't take much to fuel the altruism center: All you need is the sense that you're helping someone or making a positive impact. But the pleasure center seems to need a lot more.

Everywhere we look, we see efforts to provide concrete financial incentives: from compensating star teachers whose students do well on standardized tests to giving tax credits to people who house Hurricane Katrina refugees. Of course these individuals deserve recognition for their efforts. The problem with offering incentives, though, is that they carry a lot of baggage with them. For many, throwing money into the mix diminishes altruistic motivation and introduces unexpected behavior. ●

Dissenting Justice

In a study conducted by Solomon Asch to observe group dynamics, each participant was placed in a room with several other people. The participants were told they would be tested for visual acuity. It was pretty straightforward; the lengths of the lines they were shown were so glaringly different that you didn't need a magnifying glass or a ruler to tell the difference.

But what the participant didn't know was that the

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other “subjects” in the room were actors, and they had all been instructed to give the same wrong answer. As the actors called out their wrong answers one by one, the real participant was bewildered. But something strange happened: Rather than stick to their guns, most participants began to doubt themselves and their lone dissenting opinion. Time and again, they figured that it was best to go along with the group — 75 percent of the subjects joined the actors in giving the wrong answer in at least one round.

Ferris Bueller and Group Dynamics

Within every group dynamic, there are four distinct roles. The first role is that of the *initiator*: the person who always has the ideas, likes to start projects and advocates new ways of moving forward. Think of someone like Matthew Broderick’s character, Ferris Bueller, in *Ferris Bueller’s Day Off*. The entire movie is about Ferris’ creative ideas for something fun to do: ditch school, take a vintage car for a joyride, sneak into a restaurant, attend a baseball game and star in a parade. When you’re in the same room with an initiator, it’s hard not to get excited about whatever new project — or idea he or she has in mind.

If initiators are represented by Ferris, their opposites — *blockers* — are like Ferris’ friend Cameron. Ferris wants to take a joyride; Cameron is afraid of getting caught. Whatever new idea the initiator comes up with, the blocker finds fault with it. If hanging out with Ferris makes us want to go out and do something fun, spending a minute with Cameron makes us reluctant to do anything. Of course, it’s easy to think of blockers as pure curmudgeons. But they play a vital role in maintaining a balance within a group.

Initiators and blockers are bound to lock horns, which is when the *supporter* steps in, taking one side or the other. If there’s a decision to be made, the supporter will side with either the initiator or the blocker. The fourth role, that of the *observer*, stays fairly neutral and tends to merely comment on what’s going on.

Most of the tension in the group lies between the initiator and the blocker. Initiators are all about making new things happen. They have a wealth of fresh ideas. In contrast, blockers question the merit or wisdom of new decisions. It’s easy to see why people and organizations are naturally attracted to initiators.

Whatever the situation, a dissenting voice can seem, well, annoying. And yet, as frustrating as it can be to encounter blockers, their opinions are absolutely essential to keeping groups balanced. It’s natural to want

to dismiss a blocker’s nay-saying, but a dissenting voice can often act as the dam that holds back a flood of irrational behavior. ●

Epilogue

Jordan Walters, the financial adviser from Smith Barney mentioned earlier, offers an example that illuminates his perspective on overcoming the psychological force of our irrational aversion to loss: “Let’s say you’re traveling on a long trip and you have a flat tire,” Walters begins. After fixing the tire, you have two choices: You can look for shortcuts to make up the lost time and completely rearrange your trip, or you can continue on your way and accept that you’re running behind schedule. Walters advocates the latter, “long-view” method: You might be a little late, but “you’re on your way again and you still know where you’re going.” Rearranging your trip on the fly, on the other hand, can get you lost.

When things go wrong, we can either apply a short-term Band-Aid solution or remember that in the grand scheme of things, it’s only a minor misstep. Having a long-term plan — and not casting it aside — is the key to dealing with our fear of loss.

Living in a time when we can predict hurricanes, treat diseases with complex medical interventions, map the universe and reap the benefits of systemized business approaches, it’s easy to forget that under the surface we humans are still influenced by irrational psychological forces that can undermine a logical perspective on the world around us. The fact is, all of us are swayed at times by factors that have nothing to do with logic or reason. From managers looking to hire a job applicant to trained psychiatrists studying why we act the way we do, each of us brings a variety of different experiences, emotions and perceptions to our thinking. It is only by recognizing and understanding the hidden world of sways that we can hope to weaken their influence and curb their power over our thinking and our lives. ●

RECOMMENDED READING LIST

If you liked *Sway*, you’ll also like:

1. ***The Art of Woo* by G. Richard Shell and Mario Moussa.** “Woo” is the ability to win people over to your ideas without coercion, using relationship-based emotionally intelligent persuasion.
2. ***Influencer* by Kerry Patterson, David Maxfield, Joseph Grenny, Al Switzler and Ron McMillan.** Individuals - no matter who they are - can become the type of influencers that are bringing about change in the world.
3. ***How to Win Friends and Influence People* by Dale Carnegie.** The classic book on achieving success through the greater use of our abilities. There are 30 principles given that will change your personal and business life.