

Current trends in business negotiation research

An overview of articles published 1996-2005

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Summary

This is a report about business negotiation research. It has three purposes and consists of three parts.

Firstly, it provides a general overview of business negotiation research published 1996-2005. A total of 263 articles with some form of the word negotiate* in their title were identified in academic journals and were classified according to the research they present and the business context they study. It was found that empirically-based studies dominate, although nearly one-third of the articles were conceptual in nature. Most empirical work (63%) was based on simulations or experiments, nearly all of which used students as research subjects. There were also a number of survey-based studies (26%), most of which used managers (or similar) as respondents. Statistical analysis was the dominant form of data analysis. Most articles focused on commercial negotiations, while more than one-third were focused around national cultures rather than being “culture neutral”.

Secondly, the report provides an overview of findings regarding business negotiations. A model was created to structure these discussions. The model consists of four major groups of constructs, including the negotiation context, the negotiating parties, the negotiation process, and negotiation outcomes. The empirical studies encountered were sorted according to the model, and each group of constructs was discussed. Aspects of the negotiation context in focus in current research include the medium of negotiation, the negotiation setting, various aspects of time, the negotiation issue(s), and the cultural context of the negotiation. Variables relating to the negotiating parties focus on the organisation (such as organisational climate and the team), the individual negotiator (e.g. experience and skills, motives and aims, personality, negotiation style, negotiation training and demographic variables), and the relationship between the negotiation parties (focusing on aspects such as prior experience and outcomes, knowledge and understanding of each other, power relations and status, and composition of the negotiation dyad). Variables relating to the negotiation process include stages in the process, preparations for negotiations, making offers, negotiation tactics and strategy, negotiation behaviours, and communication and sharing of information. Negotiation outcomes centre around objective outcomes such as mathematical and economic definitions and deal or impasse, but also on perceived outcomes. Further, many studies relate to the issue of integrative and distributive negotiations. In some studies, these constructs are considered as characterising the process. In other studies they are considered as negotiation outcomes.

Third, based on the two previous parts, the report also discusses some avenues for future research. It is recommended that attempts to replicate or contradict findings from extant research using students as research subjects are made using real-life negotiators as research subjects. It is also suggested that studies on various national culture contexts should be extended to the Swedish context, which is very poorly researched. Effects of negotiation training should be studied, and combinations of perceived and objective measures of process and outcomes should be combined. It is further recommended that attempts be made to study negotiations where negotiations are not only be considered as single episodes, but as part of sequences that can occur both within newly formed and within established relationships.

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Introduction

Negotiations are an integral part of the lives of nearly all people, and people negotiate about almost all aspects of life. Many definitions of what a negotiation is have therefore been proposed. Most of these definitions seem to have in common that they consider a negotiation to be a decision process where two or more parties try to influence each other through different means of communication with the purpose of achieving their own as well as common interests.

Many people also negotiate in their role as employees or owners of organisations. This may be termed professional negotiating, since people carry out these negotiations in their professional capacity. This goes on at all levels in all organisations all of the time. Negotiations are also carried out between organisations for business purposes, and an aspect of professional negotiating that may be termed business negotiations. Business negotiations most commonly take the form of buyer-seller negotiations. How such negotiations are carried out and the outcomes they yield, naturally have great impact on organisations.

Purpose and structure of the report

The importance of negotiations in practice is reflected in substantial research efforts among scholars. In fact, when searching academic journal data bases for terms relating to negotiations (such as variants of the terms negotiation, negotiator, bargaining etc.), thousands of articles are encountered. With this plethora of research available, it is difficult to quickly gain an overview of what areas and phenomena relating to business negotiations that interest scholars and what findings studies have reached.

Therefore, this report serves three related purposes. Firstly, it aims to provide a general overview of business negotiation research. Secondly, it aims to present and discuss some findings of current research. Third, the report also aims to discuss some avenues for future business negotiation research. In effect, when addressing the first purpose, areas for more in-depth discussion are identified. Further, the first and second purposes provide a platform for discussing future research.

The report is structured around these three purposes. The first part of the report (p. 2-5) presents an overview of research on business negotiations published in peer reviewed academic journals. The second part (p. 6-45) discusses certain areas of this research in greater depth. The third part of the report (p. 46-54) provides some recommendations for future research.

A note on terminology used

Research on negotiations is conducted within different academic disciplines, using different frameworks, methods, and so on. Therefore, the terminology used by negotiation scholars to describe certain phenomena also varies. In this report, no attempts have been made to standardise this terminology. Rather, throughout the discussions the terminology used in the research under discussion is employed.

One important issue deserves commenting on, though. Scholars tend to distinguish between two different types of negotiations, although different terms are used to describe them. One type of negotiation is either described as competitive, distributive, win-lose, or transactional

negotiation. These terms are used more or less interchangeably, and refer to negotiations characterised by the perception that the issue under negotiation (often referred to as the negotiation pie) is fixed in size. What one party gains, the other loses. Hence, the negotiation is a competition between the parties.

Another type of negotiation is termed collaborative, integrative, win-win or relational. Again, these terms are used interchangeably, but here refer to a negotiation where the parties perceive that the issue under negotiation is not fixed in size. Rather, it can be expanded to include aspects not thought of until the parties get to know each other and develop the relationship. The negotiation is not a competition as such, and joint efforts are made that both parties should be “winners”.

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Part I – An overview of research on business negotiations

Before the area of business negotiations is discussed in greater detail and some suggestions for future research projects are made, an overview of published research in the area is provided below. This overview focuses on which trends can be identified, which areas within the business negotiations field are researched, to what extent publications are empirically based and which types of empirical studies are undertaken.

1.1 How the overview was generated

This overview focused on academic publications. There is a tremendous amount of material published in the business negotiations area. Much of this represents view points, opinions and experiences of certain individuals, often presented in the form of “how to” manuals focusing on specific cultural or geographical areas. Such publications are not in focus in this overview. Rather, here the focus lies on publications with scholarly ambitions.

1.1.1 Method of selection

Negotiation research spans across a wide variety of sub topics. Negotiations are often part of research even if they are not the topic as such. E.g., the article “The evolving role of trade associations in negotiated environmental agreements: the case of United Kingdom Climate Change Agreements” by Beiley and Rupp (2006) clearly has negotiations as part of its title and scope, but is not about the phenomenon of business negotiations. This overview is limited to dealing with publications where negotiations as such are in focus. This is henceforth referred to as negotiation research, i.e. research specifically about the phenomenon of negotiations. Further, the focus lies on business negotiations.

This study also only focuses on articles published in peer reviewed journals. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, the body of literature on business negotiations is vast enough that is difficult to generate a reasonably comprehensive overview of all edited books, conference papers, Ph D theses etc. It is also difficult to access many of these publications. Secondly, peer reviewed articles are likely to provide a good overview of research in the area since much of the research presented in form of Ph D theses and conference contributions actually ends up being published in journals. Further, peer reviewed journal publication provides some measure of quality assurance and has the advantage of easy access through various databases.

To identify relevant journal articles, business administration journal databases were searched using the truncated keyword “negotiat*” (covering negotiation, negotiations, negotiated and negotiating) to appear in the title. The Business-ABI/Inform Global/Proquest search yielded 2436 hits. Additionally, the EMERALD (106 hits) database was searched using the same criteria. Naturally, there were many overlaps between the databases. I.e., most of the articles in the EMERALD database were also encountered in the Business-ABI/Inform Global/Proquest search. This provides some indication that the search was relatively exhaustive, even if some journals were missed (due to not being present in either database).

Without question, this search excluded many articles about negotiations lacking this word (or a variation thereof) in their titles, but the need for a manageable number of publications had to be considered. Also, the aim of this report is not to provide an exhaustive overview of all negotiations research. Rather it aims to present a realistically comprehensive picture of the research efforts currently undertaken, and there is reason to believe that this search method

will provide a reasonably representative picture. The need for a restricted search can be illustrated by the fact that searching for the truncated keyword “negotiat*” in the *abstracts* of scholarly journals in the Business-ABI/Inform Global/Proquest database (1/26-06) yielded a total of 9753 hits. Searching for negotiat* in all publications in the entire ABI/Inform Global/Proquest database yielded 873 198 hits!

The titles of all articles found in the search were then scanned to identify those dealing specifically with business negotiations. During this process, articles focusing on macro economic issues like labour conflicts and articles with political science or legal themes were excluded. This process led to just under 300 articles being identified for inclusion in the overview. A closer examination of their content led to a few additional publications being removed, generating a final body of 263 articles for closer scrutiny¹.

1.1.2 *Classification criteria*

The 263 articles were classified according to the following criteria using an Excel spreadsheet:

- Empirical/non-empirical (i.e. are the conclusions of the article based on an empirical study), see 1.2 below.
- Nature of empirical study (survey, simulation etc.) and analysis (statistical/non-statistical), see 1.2 below.
- Business context studied (international/domestic/cross-cultural etc.; commercial/non-commercial), see 1.3 below.

Based on these classification criteria, the following sections of the report present the findings of the study.

1.2 Empirical and non-empirical work

Of the 263 articles, 172 are based on original empirical work, corresponding to 65 per cent. Eighty articles, or 30 per cent, do not contain empirical material. The remaining eleven articles are meta-analyses (six), are based on newspaper articles, are textbook studies or similar. Empirical work, thus, dominates among published articles (see Table 1)

Table 1: Empirical and non-empirical work

| | | Number of articles |
|---------------|--------------|---------------------------|
| Empirical | Original | 172 (65%) |
| | Non-original | 11 (5%) |
| Non-empirical | | 80 (30%) |
| Total | | 263 |

¹ Here it should be noted that a number of articles are included that do not specifically deal with business buyer-seller relationships. E.g., a number of studies report experiments of negotiations regarding work contract details (e.g. salary levels, vacation) and a few even report on experiment regarding private purchases of capital goods (e.g. cars). Such empirical works are cited when the psychological (and other) mechanisms are arguably similar to those present in more strictly business-oriented negotiation experiments (there are also studies reporting on multiple experiments where some are commercial and some non-commercial in nature).

Looking only at the 172 articles based on original empirical work, it can be noted that experimental research designs dominate (63%). There are also a number of surveys conducted (26%), but only a handful other research designs such as case studies and anthropological studies (see Table 2).

Table 2: Nature of empirical study (or studies) presented in article

| Type of study | Research subjects (respondents) or similar | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|--|---------------------|----------|--------------------|------------|
| | Students | Managers or similar | Mix | Other or uncertain | |
| Simulation/experiment | 100 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 108(63%) |
| Survey or interview study | 3 | 39 | 4 | 0 | 46 (26%) |
| Mix of survey and simulation | 4 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 8 (5%) |
| Case study (or similar) | 0 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 7 (4%) |
| Other | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 (2%) |
| Total | 107 | 54 | 8 | 3 | 172 |

Clearly, students are the most common form of research subjects in simulation/experimental designs. Researchers are typically careful about also investigating the business experience of students when using them for experiments of this nature, though. Typically, negotiation experiments of simulations entail students being provided with a written scenario regarding the negotiation situation. Students are often asked a number of questions in connection with this, to determine demographic and psychological characteristics. Often, the students taking part in negotiation simulations also work or have worked as negotiators (this being the case, for instance, of many MBA students). Negotiation simulations typically take the form of role plays. In surveys, on the other hand, practicing negotiators/managers/executives (etc.) are typically studied (see Table 2).

The number of research subjects involved in the research reported varies widely from article to article. Comparing numbers of research subjects is complicated by the fact that a large number of articles report on several studies, though. The largest number of research subjects reported in a single article using an experimental design is 1366 (testing a web-based negotiation support system), while the lowest number is 10 research subjects. The largest number of respondents in a survey is 652, while the lowest in an interview-based study is eight respondents.

Table 3: Data analysis per article

| Nature of analysis | Number of articles |
|--|--------------------|
| Statistical | 143 (83%) |
| Non-statistical | 25 (15%) |
| Mix of statistical and non-statistical | 4 (2%) |
| Total | 172 |

Statistical data analysis is the dominant form of analysis (see Table 3). There is, of course, a strong correlation between nature of empirical study and data analysis. Nearly all survey-based findings among the articles here are subjected to statistical testing, as are most findings from simulations and experiments. Overall, it can be concluded that the research in this area is dominated by statistical analysis of findings from experimental research.

1.3 Context studied

There are two aspects of the context that are particularly of interest here. These include the business context and the geographical context.

Table 4: Business context

| Context | Number of articles |
|---|---------------------------|
| Commercial | 125 (73%) |
| Non-commercial (or semi-commercial, but still relevant) | 35 (20%) |
| Mix of commercial and non-commercial | 9 (5%) |
| Not specified | 3 (2%) |
| Total | 172 |

The majority of articles, or 73 per cent, focuses on commercial negotiations (business buyer-to-business seller implied in scenario). A number of articles (5%) involve a mix of commercial and non-commercial negotiations, and several are non- or semi-commercial in nature (20%). The latter most commonly include experimental studies of salary negotiations. Thus, one party is still negotiating for a constituent and the negotiation may be regarded as semi-commercial in nature. A few articles include the private purchase of capital goods from business sellers, again semi-commercial. Only a couple of articles involve transactions between private buyers and sellers. These articles have been included in this overview when they have been deemed relevant for the discussions in Part II. More specifically, they have been included when the psychological mechanisms at play are similar to those at play when business negotiations are carried out. The non- or semi-commercial negotiation studies all employ experimental designs² (see also footnote 1).

Table 5: Geographical context

| | Nature of study | | Total |
|---|---------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | Empirical (original and non-original) | Non-empirical | |
| Cross-cultural, single culture-study or similar | 78 | 16 | 94 (36%) |
| Study where national cultural is not stressed | 105 | 64 | 169 (64%) |
| Total | 183 (70%) | 80 (30%) | 263 |

A review of the 263 articles reveals that more than one-third are specifically concerned with the cultural component of negotiations, here as indicated by national culture. Nonetheless, the majority of research in the negotiation area seems not to be specifically concerned with the national culture of negotiators (see section 2.2.2 for a more detailed discussion about different types of studies that stress the cultural aspect of negotiations).

It is clear that business negotiation research can be considered a fairly mature research field, since there are numerous articles on research methods, meta-analyses, articles attempting to integrate different aspects of negotiation research and research findings. It is also quite clear

² Here it has, thus, been assumed that research subjects in experimental designs do not act very differently in negotiations if they are told to negotiate for hypothetical gains for a hypothetical constituent than if they are told to negotiate for hypothetical gains to be reaped by themselves.

that there are two paradigms dominating this research. The most dominant paradigm is a cognitive, psychological approach, typically relying on experiments and statistical testing of findings. The second dominating paradigm is a behavioural one, largely being concerned with mathematical modelling and game-theoretical models. There are also articles that do not neatly slot into either of these two categories, but they are relatively few in number. There does, however, seem to be an emerging research stream focusing on the negotiation as a process, arguing against the decontextualisation of negotiation research in the form of experiments and simulations.

The second part of this report delves more deeply into the articles, focusing primarily on their findings. It also discusses some areas in greater detail.

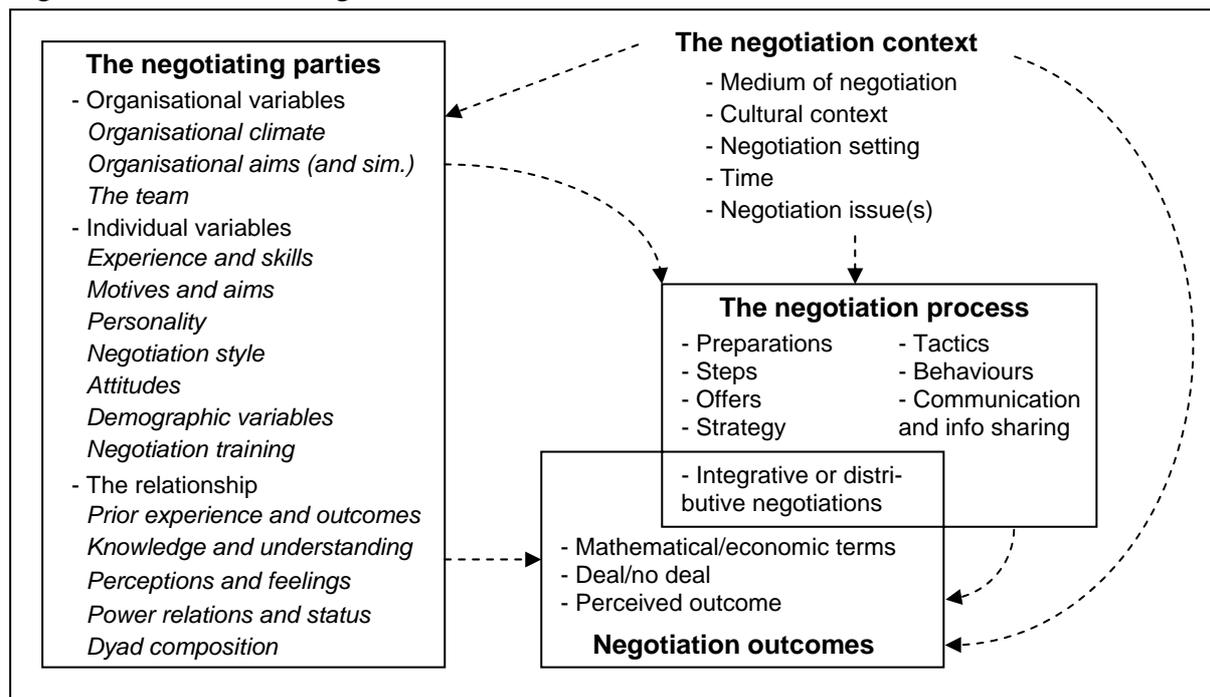
Part II – State of the art of business negotiations research

The purpose of the second part of this report is to discuss in greater detail some issues that are relevant to *SILF Negotiation Institute* when initiating negotiations research and when teaching business negotiations.

2.1 A model of negotiation research

That the body of research within the negotiation area is highly varied is apparent from the 263 research articles studied here. This applies not only to the variables and contexts studied, but also to the types of processes and outcomes that are in focus. There is also great variety in theoretical frameworks and terminologies used, and methodologically variety exists. This means that attempts to structure the body of business negotiation research literature are challenging, and that some form of overall model of negotiation research is needed to guide further discussions. Here such a model has been constructed based on the reviewed research (see Figure 1). The model indicates that four groups of constructs can be distinguished. These include constructs relating the context of the negotiation, constructs relating to the negotiating parties, constructs relating to the negotiation process and constructs relating to negotiation outcomes³.

Figure 1 – A model of negotiation research



Most studies relate to more than one group of constructs, e.g. attempting to establish connections between constructs relating to the negotiating parties and constructs relating to negotiation outcomes. This is illustrated by the arrows in the figure. Therefore, most studies cannot be simply categorised according to either context, parties, process or outcomes. This

³ Since the model is based only on the 263 reviewed articles, it is of course possible that there are aspects of business negotiations that are not included. The categories generated, however, are intentionally broad to encompass variables and constructs not specifically identified *a priori*. It should also be stressed that this is a model of negotiation research rather than a model of negotiations as such, although of course all the components of the model are relevant for business negotiations in practice.

causes some problems when attempting to generate an overview of what findings past studies has reached and a decision must be made which should be the main sorting mechanism for a discussion of research results.

To achieve as interesting and coherent discussions as possible, discussions will firstly take their starting point in negotiation context (see 2.2) and negotiation parties (see 2.3), regardless what types of processes and outcomes are related to the context and the parties. Secondly, studies that deal neither with the negotiation context nor with the negotiating parties will be discussed under process (see 2.4) or outcomes (see 2.5).

2.2 The negotiation context

All negotiations take place in a context. That context can be said to be made up of the medium through which the context is conducted and other aspects of the negotiation setting such as its physical location. Another part of the negotiation context is the issue(s) under negotiation. Aspects relating to time, such as time pressures and deadlines, are also part of the setting. Finally, negotiations take place in a cultural context. In negotiation research this has commonly been expressed as national culture, although corporate culture may also impact negotiations⁴.

2.2.1 *Medium of negotiation and negotiation support systems*

With technological advances and increasing interest in e.g. electronic auctions, the medium of negotiation is receiving increasing attention from scholars. In particular, electronic negotiations and electronic negotiation support systems are popular topics of research. Nearly ten percent of the reviewed studies, or 24 articles, have this as their main focus.

Some of these articles compare different negotiation media. One study explores negotiation outcomes (profit and satisfaction) arising in face-to-face negotiations, videoconference, telephone and computer-mediated communication. "Media richness" was found to impact negotiation processes and outcomes. Face-to-face negotiations were most efficient in terms of time used, while computer-mediated media were the least efficient. "Richer" media usage did not lead to higher joint outcomes, however. In fact, differences in outcomes between media were not great. Different media usage did result in unequal distribution of profits, however, face-to-face negotiations yielding the most equal distribution. Those using richer media reported the highest satisfaction⁵. Different media were, thus, perceived to yield different outcomes, even if on a more objective level this was not found to be the case. Partly contradicting findings were made in another experimental study of the effects of multimedia on remote negotiations. Again, subjects clearly preferred media involving audio and video over simple text, but these more involving media neither improved communication efficiency nor the perceived success of negotiation outcomes⁶.

Yet another study on the topic of electronic negotiations specifically addressed the issue why email negotiations break down. In an experiment it was found that when negotiators neither had common ingroup status (here corresponding to someone at another university) nor a

⁴ Corporate culture is discussed under 2.3.1, organisational variables.

⁵ Purdy, J. & Nye, P. 2000. The impact of communication media on negotiation outcomes *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(2):162-187.

⁶ Yuan, Y., Head, M. & Du, M. 2003. The effects of multimedia communication on web-based negotiations.. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 12(2):89-109.

personalised relationship, negotiations were more likely to end in impasse⁷. Other experiments indicate that intricate (prepared) arguments presented using a quick exchange medium (Instant messaging) made it possible for sellers to claim more value than using simple arguments presented through a slow medium (e-mail)⁸.

The body of literature on medium of negotiation is, by now, large enough to have inspired meta analyses⁹. In such an analysis of extant research comparing face-to-face negotiations with virtual (e.g. email, videoconferencing) negotiations, it was found that in virtual negotiations, negotiators were more hostile and reached lower profits than in face-to-face negotiations. This was especially the case when the negotiators were not known to each other¹⁰.

So called electronic negotiation support systems (NSSs) are also being developed and tested by many researchers. In a review of the extant literature in the area, it was found that using NSSs can be a way to overcome inefficiencies in negotiation processes arising from cognitive limitations, biases and "dysfunctional socio-emotional aspects of negotiator behaviour"¹¹. For example, Perkins et al. (1996) found that using an NSS (in a laboratory setting) enabled managers to arrive at higher joint outcomes and more balanced contracts, and allowed agreements to be made in less time than when not using a negotiation support system¹². Another study found that task complexity and conflict handling style of negotiator impact effectiveness of negotiation support systems. Face-to-face negotiations provided better outcomes if negotiators had a collaborative conflict handling style. Primarily when negotiators had a conflict-oriented negotiation style NSSs or EMSs (electronic meeting systems) were appropriate¹³.

Several other studies also analyses different types of electronic negotiations¹⁴ and present NSSs tailored to specific negotiation situations¹⁵. There are also studies providing meta models that can be used to analyse strengths and weaknesses of NSSs¹⁶.

⁷ Moore, D., Kurtzberg, T., Thompson, L. & Morris, M. 1999. Long and short routes to success in electronically mediated negotiations: group affiliations and good vibrations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 77(1):22-43.

⁸ Loewenstein, J., Morris, M., Chakravarti, A., Thompson, L. & Kopelman, S. 2005. At a loss for words: dominating the conversation and the outcome in negotiation as a function of intricate arguments and communication media. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 98(1):28-38.

⁹ I.e., an analysis of the findings of several already published studies.

¹⁰ Stuhlmacher, A. & Citera, M. 2005. Hostile behavior and profit in virtual negotiation: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 20(1):69ff.

¹¹ Foroughi, A. 1998. Minimizing negotiation process losses with computerized negotiation support systems. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 14(4):15-26.

¹² Perkins, W., Hershauer, J., Foroughi, A. & Delaney, M. 1996. Can a negotiation support system help a purchasing manager? *International Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management*, 32(2):37-45.

¹³ Jain, B. & Stern Solomon, J. 2000. The effects of task complexity and conflict handling styles on computer-supported negotiations. *Information and Management*, 37(4):161-168.

¹⁴ Weigand, H., Schoop, M., de Moor, A. & Dignum, F. 2003. B2B negotiation support: the need for a communication perspective. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 12(1):3-29.

¹⁵ Ströbel, M. 2001. Design of roles and protocols for electronic negotiations. *Electronic Commerce Research*, 1(3):335-353. Also Beam, C., Segev, A., Bichler, M. & Krishnan, R. 1999. On negotiations and deal making in electronic markets. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 1(3):241-258. Also Baek Kim, J. & Segev, A. 2005. A Web services-enabled marketplace architecture for negotiation process management. *Decision Support Systems*, 40(1):71-87. Also Beam, C., Segev, A., Bichler, M. & Krishnan, R. 1999. On negotiations and deal making in electronic markets. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 1(3):241-258.

¹⁶ De Moor, A. & Weigand, H. 2004. Business negotiation support: theory and practice. *International Negotiation*, 9(1):31-57.

Negotiation support systems are not appropriate for all situations and are not adopted by all organisations. In a study aiming to identify factors affecting intention to adopt NSS, it was found that organisational culture and industrial characteristics played important roles. More specifically, perceptions regarding customers' and clients' expectations, as well as IT specialists and other employees in the firm strongly impacted intentions to adopt NSSs. Perceived support among employees was also found to significantly impact adoption plans¹⁷.

Much of the NSS literature, though, focuses on technical aspects of systems design. Swaab et al. (2004) argue that there are contextual factors that play important roles in negotiations, and that must be taken into consideration when creating electronic NSSs. E.g., they argue and find support for the importance of shared information. When the negotiators shared the same information on their screens (i.e. rather than only information regarding their own situation), negotiations ran more smoothly¹⁸. Further, in negotiations supported by software it is design principles and information processing that differentiate between integrative and distributive negotiations, rather than negotiators' perceptions of the problem as is commonly the case in face-to-face negotiations¹⁹.

Electronic negotiation software can be complex, and may require expert support. In a study of the role of the expert advisor in NSSs, it is argued that (s)he should primarily helping negotiators and decision makers to understand the problems they face. They further argue that there is a need for negotiation support systems that engage the user rather than promoting certain solutions²⁰.

Medium of negotiation has also been studied in connection with national cultural context, sometimes as a means of overcoming culture-related problems arising in negotiations. One study found that when using an electronic negotiation medium, Chinese negotiating dyads (i.e. Chinese negotiating with other Chinese) reached higher joint outcomes than American dyads. Both dyads reached higher outcomes than they did in face-to-face negotiators, though²¹. Another study compared German and Dutch negotiators negotiating via an electronic medium. It was found that Germans were more cooperative in negotiations in an operations management context and less cooperative in an innovation management setting when negotiating electronically. The opposite was found to be the case for Dutch negotiators²². Overall, though, Kersten et al. (2003) argue that in electronic negotiations, technology moderates the relationship between culture and negotiation behaviour. Those dimensions of culture that rely on social cues (such as power distance) become less salient in Web-based negotiations. There are still significant cultural differences present, though, such as relating to expectations of outcomes and communication patterns. However, in an experiment they found

¹⁷ Lim, J. 2003. A conceptual framework on the adoption of negotiation support systems. *Information and Software Technology*, 45(8):469-477.

¹⁸ Swaab, R., Postmes, T. & Neijens, P. 2004. Negotiation support systems: communication and information as antecedents of negotiation settlement. *International Negotiation*, 9(1):59-78.

¹⁹ Kersten, G. 2001. Modelling distributive and integrative negotiations. Review and revised characterization. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 10(6):493-514.

²⁰ Kersten, G. & Mallory, G. 1999. Rational inefficient compromises in negotiation. *Journal of Multi-criteria Decision Analyses*, 8(2):106-111.

²¹ Potter, R. & Balthazard, P. 2000. Supporting integrative negotiation via computer mediated communication technologies: an empirical example with geographically dispersed Chinese and American negotiators. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 12(4):7ff.

²² Ulijn, J., Lincke, A. & Wynstra, F. 2004. The effects of Dutch and German culture on negotiation strategy: an exploratory study to compare innovation and operations contexts. *International Negotiation*, 9(2):201-228.

that, as the negotiations proceeded, individual differences between negotiators (e.g. approach to problem solving) became more important than cultural differences²³.

Also negotiation support systems have been addressed in an international setting. Kersten and Noronha (1999) argue that there are important differences between cultures in negotiation behaviour apparent even if the negotiators do not know of each others' identities. They therefore explain an NSS tool suitable for international or cross-cultural negotiations²⁴.

2.2.2 *Negotiation setting*

Apart from negotiation medium, there is surprisingly little research identified dealing with the negotiation setting in terms of the physical location of the negotiation. Mayfield et al. (1998) offer one exception, discussions the impact of site selection on cross-cultural negotiations. They argue that in many cases location favours one party over the other, and the host company has many advantages, e.g. relating to greater control over the negotiation. There are also advantages to visiting the other party, but selecting neutral ground is a key strategy in conflict avoidance²⁵.

2.2.3 *Time*

The issue of time in negotiations has received some attention. Seven articles deal with time pressures and deadlines in negotiations. In particular, the impact of deadlines and other time pressures on the negotiation process and negotiation outcomes has been in focus.

One study focused on the effects of time pressure and accountability on competitiveness of interaction and outcome. It was found that when negotiators negotiated only for themselves, time pressure made them less competitive and a greater proportion of negotiations lead to an agreement. When negotiators negotiated on behalf of "constituents", however, the opposite was found. Time pressure resulted in more competitive behaviour and a lower proportion of agreements (vs. impasses)²⁶. Another study found that participants under time high pressure averaged fewer offers. Time pressure primarily impacted actions later in the negotiation, though, indicating that negotiators did not feel time pressures very strongly at the beginning. High time pressure resulted in more and larger concessions, concessions that were also more consistent with negotiator preferences, than offers made under low time pressure²⁷. Some of these findings were largely supported in a meta analysis of extant research on time pressures, where Stuhlmacher and Champagne (1998) found that across studies high time pressure increased likelihood of concessions and cooperative behaviour. It was, however, found that time pressures also made the reaching of an agreement more likely. Interestingly, effects of

²³ Kersten, G., Koeszegi, S. & Vetschera, R. 2003. The effects of culture in computer-mediated negotiations. *Journal of Information Technology and Theory and Application*, 5(2):1-27.

²⁴ Kersten, G. & Noronha, S. 1999. Negotiation via the World Wide Web: a cross-cultural study of decision making. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 8(3):251-279. Also Kersten, G. & Noronha, S. 1999. WWW-based negotiation support: design, implementation, and use. *Decision Support Systems*, 25(2):135-154.

²⁵ Mayfield, J., Mayfield, M., Martin, D. & Herbig, P. 1998. How location impacts international business negotiations. *Review of Business*, 19(2):21-24.

²⁶ Mosterd, I. & Rutte, C. 2000. Effects of time pressure and accountability to constituents on negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(3):227-247.

²⁷ Stuhlmacher, A. & Champagne, M. 2000. The impact of time pressure and information on negotiation process and decisions. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 9(6):471-491.

time pressure increased as deadlines near. Effects of high time pressure were greatest on flexible negotiators using less tough negotiating strategies, though²⁸.

A study looking at people behaviours and mental processes under time pressure found that time pressure reduced motives of systematically processing information, and led to greater reliance on cognitive heuristics. Under time pressure stereotypes were more likely to be used and perceptions regarding the "fixed pie" were less likely to be revised²⁹.

Another study looked the connection between time of negotiation and time when the agreement was to be implemented. It was found that negotiated agreements were more efficient (less contentious, e.g.) when there was more time until the agreements had to be implemented. This was especially the case when "burdens" were allocated in the negotiations compared to "benefits"³⁰.

Yet another study on negotiations and time looked at how deadlines were treated strategically by negotiators. It was found that, when given the choice of revealing time deadlines for negotiations, negotiators chose not to do so, because they thought this would be detrimental to their own outcomes. However, the study found that revealing deadlines could lead to more speedy concessions from the other party, actually generating better outcomes for the negotiator³¹.

2.2.4 *Negotiation issue(s)*

The negotiation issue, is, of course, relevant in most of the negotiation research studied here. Since the vast majority of empirical studies are based on experimental designs entailing negotiation simulations, research subjects are given, more or less detailed, scripts or outlines of negotiation tasks. Such tasks include, e.g., business buyer-seller negotiations or job contract negotiations. Actually relating the task as such to processes or outcomes is less common, however.

One study set out to explore the connection between number of issues under negotiation and negotiator satisfaction. Arguably, while the number of negotiable issues increases potential for integrative outcomes, the authors ask themselves if this increases negotiator satisfaction. The study showed that the greater the number of issues under negotiation, the worse negotiators felt about the outcome, the reason being that the greater the number of issues, the better possible outcomes were envisioned by negotiators. This also meant that greater numbers of outcomes were not realised, and negotiators consequently felt dissatisfied³².

²⁸ Stuhlmacher, A. & Champagne, M. 1998. The impact of time pressure in negotiation: a meta-analysis. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9(2):97-116.

²⁹ De Dreu, C. 2003. Time pressure and closing of the mind in negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 91(2):280-295.

³⁰ Okhuysen, G., Galinski, A. & Uptigrove, T. 2003. Saving the worst for last: the effects of time horizon on the efficiency of negotiation benefits and burdens. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 91(2):269-279.

³¹ Moore, D. 2004. Myopic prediction, self-destructive secrecy, and the unexpected benefits of revealing final deadlines in negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 94(2):125-139.

³² Naquin, C. 2003. The agony of opportunity in negotiation: Number of negotiable issues, counterfactual thinking, and feelings of satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 91(1):97-107.

2.2.5 *The cultural context*

The aim of this report is not to discuss cross-cultural differences and similarities in negotiation styles³³. Nonetheless, many of the aspects relating to culture are still relevant to discuss here, and a brief overview of the literature is provided below. Indeed, 36 percent of the 263 articles focus on negotiations and culture.

This vast literature chiefly consists of studies of negotiations in or negotiators from individual cultures, often with the aim of providing recommendations regarding conduct to negotiators from other cultures as well as pointing to difficulties in negotiations relating to culture (e.g. looking at Chinese negotiators). Other studies aim at comparing negotiations and negotiation styles between different cultures (e.g. comparing negotiation practices in China and the US). Yet further studies look at interaction between negotiators from two or more cultures (e.g. looking at negotiation practices when Chinese and US negotiators negotiate), so called cross-cultural research. Yet other research looks at the cross-cultural negotiation as such, arguing that such a setting differs from a negotiation setting where all negotiators are from the same culture.

Single country studies

Among the studies that focus on separate countries, a few countries clearly dominate³⁴. Most prominently, in the last ten years researchers have been focused on investigating negotiation practices in China³⁵, but also in other Asian countries such as Pakistan³⁶, South Korea³⁷, Japan³⁸ and Thailand³⁹. Nigerian⁴⁰ business negotiators and French⁴¹ business negotiators are also discussed in the sample of articles.

³³ Since this is not an aspect of negotiations that can be fruitfully pursued when designing research projects together with SILF Negotiation Institute, which chiefly focuses on training Swedish negotiators.

³⁴ It should be noted here that the majority of negotiation articles are based on empirical studies, generally experiments or surveys. Most of these study negotiators from a certain country. To be defined as a "single country study" here, though, the study must make a point of the fact that cultural aspects of negotiations are in focus. A study on any given negotiation topic (other than culture) that just happens to study its phenomenon empirically using a selection of subjects from a certain country is, thus, not considered a country study.

³⁵ Woo, H.S. 1999. Negotiating in China: some issues for women. *Women in management review*, 14(4):115-120. Woo, H.S. & Prud'homme, C. 1999. Cultural characteristics prevalent in the Chinese negotiation process. *European Business Review*, 99(5):313-322. Ghauri, P. & Fang, T. 2001. Negotiating with the Chinese: a socio-cultural analysis. *Journal of World Business*, 36(3):303-325. Stark, A., Fam, K-S., Waller, D. & Tian, Z. 2005. Chinese negotiation practice: a perspective from New Zealand exporters. *Cross Cultural Management*, 12(3):85-102. Woo, H.S., Wilson, D. & Liu, J. 2001. Gender impact on Chinese negotiation: "some key issues for western negotiators". *Women in management review*, 16(7):349-356. Li, J. & Labig, C. 2001. Negotiating with China: exploratory study of relationship-building. *Journal of Management Issues*, 13(3):345-359. Zhao, J. 2000. The Chinese approach to international business negotiation. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 37(3):209-237. Miles, M. 2003. Negotiating with the Chinese. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 39(4):453-472. Abrahamson, N. 2005. Do the Chinese seek relationship? A psychological analysis of Chinese-American business negotiations using the Jungian typology. *Journal of Global Business*, 16(31):7ff. Faure, G.O. 1999. The cultural dimension of negotiation: the Chinese case. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 8(3):187-215. Herbig, P. & Martin, D. 1998. Negotiating with Chinese: a cultural perspective. *Cross Cultural Management*, 5(3):40-54.

³⁶ Rammal, H. 2005. International business negotiations: the case of Pakistan. *International Journal of Commerce & Management*, 15(2):129-140.

³⁷ Lee, J. 2005. Guidelines for effective negotiations with Korean managers: a conceptual analysis. *International Journal of Management*, 22(1):11-16. Song, Y-J., Hale, C. & Rao, N. 2004. Success and failure of business negotiations for South Koreans. *Journal of International and Area Studies*, 11(2):45-65.

³⁸ Martin, D., Herbig, P., Howard, C. & Borstorff, P. 1999. At the table: observations on Japanese negotiation style. *American Business Review*, 17(1):65-71.

The topics raised in regard to negotiations in China include, e.g., attitudes to Western women (who are argued not to necessarily encounter major obstacles and can even have advantages provided they have a professional and businesslike approach and understand cultural characteristics of Chinese negotiations)⁴², various aspects of Chinese behaviour (such as status, face, trust, friendship, Guanxi, network, ambiguity, patience and Chinese protocols)⁴³, Chinese negotiation style⁴⁴, the importance of relationships⁴⁵, Chinese negotiation training⁴⁶, and a host of other factors⁴⁷.

Cross-cultural negotiation practices

A few studies focus specifically on the interaction between distinct cultures. Again, South East Asia dominates as one party, with a focus on China, while the other party is made up of Western negotiators⁴⁸. To illustrate some of the topics, one study looked at emotions in negotiations between Dutch and Chinese negotiations. Significant differences were found. The Chinese reported being more angry at themselves, more anxious, and more uncertain than the Dutch, who felt more irritated, driven, less friendly and less quiet. The Chinese reported being frustrated when taking on a role contrary to their national culture. Other findings also support the notion that there are main effects of culture⁴⁹. Another study compared aspects of social capital between Danish and Chinese negotiators. It was found that the Chinese understood Danish objectives better than the other way around, and that Chinese understanding was primarily based on experience. Danes perceived negotiations as time consuming and tried to reduce negotiation times, while the Chinese did not. Trust was more important to Chinese, especially affect-based trust. Both parties perceived networks to be important, although the Danes have difficulties in figuring out network interconnectedness⁵⁰.

³⁹ Hendon, D. 2001. How to negotiate with Thai executives. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 13(3):41-62.

⁴⁰ Epie, C. 2002. Nigerian business negotiators: cultural characteristics. *Journal of African Business*, 3(2):105ff.

⁴¹ Newson-Ballé, L. & Gottschalk, A. 1996. Negotiating with the French. *Career Development International*, 1(5):15-19.

⁴² Woo, H.S. 1999. Negotiating in China: some issues for women. *Women in management review*, 14(4):115-120. Woo, H.S., Wilson, D. & Liu, J. 2001. Gender impact on Chinese negotiation: "some key issues for western negotiators". *Women in management review*, 16(7):349-356.

⁴³ Woo, H.S. & Prud'homme, C. 1999. Cultural characteristics prevalent in the Chinese negotiation process. *European Business Review*, 99(5):313-322.

⁴⁴ Ghauri, P. & Fang, T. 2001. Negotiating with the Chinese: a socio-cultural analysis. *Journal of World Business*, 36(3):303-325.

⁴⁵ Li, J. & Labig, C. 2001. Negotiating with China: exploratory study of relationship-building. *Journal of Management Issues*, 13(3):345-359. Abrahamson, N. 2005. Do the Chinese seek relationship? A psychological analysis of Chinese-American business negotiations using the Jungian typology. *Journal of Global Business*, 16(31):7ff.

⁴⁶ Zhao, J. 2000. The Chinese approach to international business negotiation. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 37(3):209-237.

⁴⁷ Faure, G.O. 1999. The cultural dimension of negotiation: the Chinese case. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 8(3):187-215. Herbig, P. & Martin, D. 1998. Negotiating with Chinese: a cultural perspective. *Cross Cultural Management*, 5(3):40-54.

⁴⁸ Sheer, V. & Chen, L. 2003. Successful Sino-Western business negotiation: participants' accounts of national and professional culture. *Journal of Business Communication*, 40(1):50-85. Shi, X. 2001. Antecedent factors of international business negotiations in the China context. *Management International Review*, 41(2):163-187.

⁴⁹ Ulijn, J., Rutkowski, A.F., Kumar, R. & Zhu, Y. 2005. Patterns of feelings in face-to-face negotiation: a Sino-Dutch pilot study. *Cross Cultural Management*, 12(3):103-118.

⁵⁰ Kumar, R. & Worm, V. 2003. Social capital and the dynamics of business negotiations between the northern Europeans and the Chinese. *International Marketing Review*, 20(3):262-285.

Other cross-cultural negotiations have also been studied, including American-Mexican (alliance) negotiations⁵¹, American-Japanese negotiations⁵², and American-Greek negotiations⁵³. Often discussions centre on issues such as collectivism/individualism or high/low context cultures.

Country negotiating culture comparisons

Another set of studies compare practices between different negotiating cultures, without specifically looking at the interaction between negotiators from these cultures. I.e., these studies do not necessarily look at cross-cultural or international negotiations as such, but still compare negotiation behaviours (for example) across culture. Sometimes culture is not primarily defined in terms of national culture, but in terms of collectivist or individualist culture, or high or low context culture.

Some studies focus on negotiation style (across 12 countries⁵⁴, between US and Taiwanese⁵⁵, between Indian, Malay and Chinese Singaporeans⁵⁶, between Koreans, Japanese and Chinese⁵⁷, between Japanese and Americans⁵⁸, between Americans and Chinese⁵⁹, between Americans and Philipinos⁶⁰, between Chinese and the West⁶¹), often explaining these differences with differences in national culture. Other factors, such as gender, age, experience, tenure and educational level on problem-solving behaviours, are also employed in this line of research⁶².

⁵¹ Teegen, H. & Doh, J. 2002. US-Mexican alliance negotiations: Impact of culture on authority, trust, performance. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 44(6):749-775.

⁵² Adachi, Y. 1998. The effects of semantic difference on cross-cultural business negotiation: a Japanese and American case study. *Journal of Language for International Business*, 9(1):43ff. Brett, J. & Okumura, T. 1998. Inter- and intracultural negotiation: U.S. and Japanese negotiators. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5):495-510.

⁵³ Gelfand, M. & Christakopoulou, S. 1999. Culture and negotiator cognition: judgement accuracy and negotiation processes in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 79(3):248-269.

⁵⁴ Salacuse, J. 1999. Intercultural Negotiation in International Business. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 8(3):217-236.

⁵⁵ Chang, L-C. 2002. Cross-cultural differences in styles of negotiation between North Americans (U.S.) and Chinese. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 1(2):179-187.

⁵⁶ Osman-Gain, A. & Tan, J-S. 2002. Influence of culture on negotiation styles of Asian managers: an empirical study of major cultural/ethnic groups in Singapore. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 44(6):819-839.

⁵⁷ Paik, Y. & Tung, R. 1999. Negotiating with East Asians: how to obtain "win-win" outcomes. *Management International Review*, 39(2):103-122.

⁵⁸ Adair, W., Okumura, T. & Brett, J. 2001. Negotiation behavior when cultures collide: the United states and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3):371. Brett, J. & Okumura, T. 1998. Inter- and intracultural negotiation: U.S. and Japanese negotiators. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5):495-510.

⁵⁹ Palich, L., Carini, G. & Livingstone, L. 2002. Comparing American and Chinese negotiating styles: the influence of logic paradigms. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 44(6):777-798. Yang, G., Graham, J. & Lee, K-H. 2002. The antecedents of tension felt in international marketing negotiations: a content analysis. *American Marketing Association, Conference Proceedings*, 13:338-344.

⁶⁰ Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Gassenheimer, J. 1996. Negotiation differences between two diverse cultures. An industrial seller's perspective. *European Journal of Marketing*, 30(4):20-39.

⁶¹ Buttrey, A. & Leung, T.K.P. 1998. The difference between Chinese and Western negotiators. *European Journal of Marketing*, 32(3/4):374-389.

⁶² Volkema, R. 2004. Demographic, cultural, and economic predictors of perceived ethicality of negotiation behavior: a nine-country analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(1):69-78. Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Gassenheimer, J. 2002. The impact of demographic variables on negotiators' problem solving approach: a two country study. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 10(1):23-35.

Different types of behaviours and their perceived ethicality has also interested several scholars, focusing primarily on negotiation tactics⁶³. Self-interest and problem solving norms⁶⁴, self-serving biases⁶⁵, preferences for integrative or distributive negotiations⁶⁶, concern for their actions' impacts of society⁶⁷ are some variables connected to degree of individualism of national culture. E.g., one study found that cultures with high levels of collectivism spend more time on non-task negotiation activities, spend more time in positioning and spend more time planning. Other aspects of Hofstede's well-known framework have also been investigated. E.g., high power distance cultures have been found to spend less time compromising. High masculinity cultures spend less time persuading. High uncertainty avoidance cultures spend more time in agreement⁶⁸.

The cross-cultural negotiation setting

Another group of articles focuses on the cross-cultural negotiation setting, without making a point of studying one or several specific cultures. A variety of themes emerge in this stream of literature. A number of studies examine differences between inter- and intracultural negotiations, others aim to identify success or failure factors specific to international negotiations, while yet other studies focus on more specific topics. There are also reviews the literature on international business negotiations⁶⁹.

As noted above, a number of studies set out to explore if there are differences in how negotiations are carried out depending on if the negotiators are from the same culture or not. One study revealed more indirect integrative sequences in high context dyads and more direct integrative sequences in low and mixed context dyads⁷⁰. Direct integrative sequences

⁶³ Volkema, R. & Leme Fleury, M.T. 2002. Alternative negotiating conditions and the choice of negotiation tactics: a cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 36(4):381-398. Volkema, R. 1998. A comparison of perceptions of ethical negotiation behavior in Mexico and the United States. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9(3):218-233. Zarkada-Fraser, A. & Fraser, C. 2001. Moral decision making in international sales negotiations. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 16(4):274-293. Volkema, R. 1997. Perceptual differences in appropriateness and likelihood of use of negotiation behaviors: a cross-cultural analysis. *The International Executive*, 39(3):335-350.

⁶⁴ Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Graham, J. 2004. Testing a Negotiation Model on Canadian anglophone and Mexican Exporters. *Academy of Marketing Science, Journal*, 32(3):345-356. Mintu-Wimsatt, A., Garci, R. & Calantone, R. 2005. Risk, trust and the problem solving approach: a cross cultural negotiation study. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 13(1):52-61. Adair, W., Brett, J., Lempereur, A., Okumura, T., Shikhirev, P., Tinsley, C. & Lytle, A. 2004. Culture and negotiation strategy. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(1):87-111. Tinsley, C. & Pillutla, M. 1998. Negotiating in the United States and Hong Kong. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(4):711-727. Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Gassenheimer, J. 2000. The moderating effects of cultural context in buyer-seller negotiation. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 20(1):1-9.

⁶⁵ Gelfand, M., Higgins, M., Nishii, L. & Raver, J. 2002. Culture and egocentric perceptions of fairness in conflict and negotiation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5):833ff.

⁶⁶ Fraser, C. & Zarkada-Fraser, A. 2002. An exploratory investigation into cultural awareness and approach to negotiation of Greek, Russian and British Managers. *European Business Review*, 14(2):111-127.

⁶⁷ Ford, J., LaTour, M., Vitell, S. & Warren, F. 1997. Moral judgment and market negotiations: a comparison of Chinese and American managers. *Journal of International Marketing*, 5(2):57-76.

⁶⁸ Gulbro, R. & Herbig, P. 1999. Cultural difference encountered by firms when negotiating internationally. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 99(2):47-53.

⁶⁹ Reynolds, N., Simintiras, A. & Vlachou, E. 2003. International business negotiations. Present knowledge and direction for future research. *International Marketing Review*, 20(3): 236-261. Simintiras, A. & Thomas, A. 1998. Cross-cultural sales negotiations. A literature review and research propositions. *International Marketing Review*, 15(1):10-28.

⁷⁰ Context is a concept often used to distinguish between cultures. People from a high context culture prefer doing business with people who are known to them, who have high status. Negotiations are allowed to take a long time and relationship building is important. Informal agreements are more important than contractual

predicted joint gains for mixed context dyads⁷¹. Another study on the topic found that sharing orientation to time (monochronic/polychronic) and agreement preference (written/oral) did not result in greater adaptability to foreign partner⁷², while yet another revealed that Joint gains were lower in intercultural negotiations than in intracultural negotiations, there was also less understanding of priorities, and even when there was understanding of priorities this yielded lower joint gains⁷³. Other studies can also be identified⁷⁴.

A number of studies examine factors that determine success of cross-cultural negotiations. Herbig and Gulbro are frequent writers in this area. One of their studies argues that negotiators must devote time to the process, must be better prepared, and must improve knowledge about the other party's culture to improve chances of success. Large firms were found to be more successful in this endeavour than small firms⁷⁵. Another article identified aspects of culture likely to impact aspects of negotiations, suggesting that managers should be aware that foreign negotiators are different, that one should be culturally neutral and be sensitive to cultural norms⁷⁶. In yet another study, Herbig and Gulbro (1997) found that firms using translators and country and culture experts are more successful in negotiations, predicting success to a higher degree than the use of business or technical experts. Buyers rather than sellers were found to be the predominant users of external assistance⁷⁷.

There are also studies that look at factors related to failure of international negotiations, suggesting, for example, that failure of intercultural negotiations is more a question of failures of goodwill, and lack of willingness to adapt and understand than actual intercultural differences⁷⁸. Another study argues that cross-cultural misunderstandings arise partly from different patterns of argumentation⁷⁹. Sebenius (2002) argues that there are several fallacies possible in cross-national analysis of negotiations, including stereotyping, over attribution, skewed perceptions and information processing, and the "When in Rome..." issue⁸⁰.

agreements. Examples are Korea, China, Japan and Arabic countries. Examples of low context cultures are the US, Scandinavia, and the UK. See e.g. Mühlbacher, H., Dahringer, L. and Leihs, H. 1999. *International Marketing. A Global Perspective*. London etc.: Thomson Business Press.

⁷¹ Adair, W. 2003. Integrative Sequences and negotiation outcome in same- and mixed-culture negotiations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3/4):273-296.

⁷² Ang, S.H., Leong, S.M. & Teo, G. 2000. The effects of personal value similarity on business negotiations. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 29(5):397-410.

⁷³ Brett, J. & Okumura, T. 1998. Inter- and intracultural negotiation: U.S. and Japanese negotiators. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5):495-510.

⁷⁴ Adair, W., Okumura, T. & Brett, J. 2001. Negotiation behavior when cultures collide: the United states and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3):371. Lee, S. 2005. Judgment of ingroups and outgroups in intra- and intercultural negotiation: the role of interdependent self-construal judgment timing. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14(1):43-62. Elahee, M., Kirby, S. & Easif, E. 2002. National culture, trust, and perceptions about ethical behavior in intra- and cross-cultural negotiations: an analysis of NAFTA countries. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 44(6):799-818.

⁷⁵ Gulbro, R. & Herbig, P. 1996. Negotiating successfully in cross-cultural situations. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 25(3):235-241.

⁷⁶ Martin, D. & Herbig, P. 1997. Contractual aspects of cross-cultural negotiations. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 15(1):19-27.

⁷⁷ Herbig, P. & Gulbro, R. 1997. External influences in the cross-cultural negotiation process. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 97(4):158-168.

⁷⁸ Geok, L.C. 1997. Successful intercultural negotiations: a matter of attitude. *Journal of Language for International Business*, 8(1):19ff.

⁷⁹ Simintiras, A. 2000. The role of tautological equivalence in cross-cultural sales negotiations. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 12(4):33ff.

⁸⁰ Sebenius, J. 2002. Caveats for cross-border negotiators. *Negotiation Journal*, 18(2):121-133.

Many of the issues raised in regard to negotiations in general are raised also in international or cross-cultural negotiations. Topics include, e.g., the negotiation process as a predictor of relationship outcomes in international buyer-seller arrangements⁸¹, and non face-to-face negotiations⁸². Ethicality is an issue often raised in negotiations research, and cross-cultural studies on this theme can also be found. One study found that the best predictors of performance were ethical behaviour of the parties and perceived honesty of the other party. Real and perceived use of unethical tactics resulted in worse performance of non-agreement. Interestingly, a pre-negotiation questionnaire regarding attitudes to tactics proved not to predict actual behaviour⁸³. Another study on this topic focused on influence tactics (of senior US executives) when negotiating international business alliances. The authors did not find that trust led to using softer tactics, but rather the opposite. Longer time horizon was positively associated with softer tactics, though, and also found indications that increasing cultural distance led to harder tactics being employed⁸⁴.

The relationship between personality and negotiating style is another often recurring theme in negotiation research. Mintu-Wimsatt (2002) set out to explore if culture could have a moderating effect on this relationship. She found, e.g., that negative effects of conciliation (i.e. belligerence) were decreased by high context culture, i.e. high context cultures enhance cooperation by reducing belligerence⁸⁵. On a similar topic, Chairsraeko and Speece (2004) suggest a model of three levels of cultural issues (national, organisational, individual) that influence people's negotiation styles. They found that when problem were problem-solving oriented, they also acted in a problem-solving manner. They also found that high levels of intercultural communication competence was correlated with high levels of problem solving approach (PSA). A supportive organisational culture was found to foster high levels of PSA, being characteristic of high context cultures⁸⁶

Other studies focus on the international context and its impact on international negotiations⁸⁷, the international negotiator⁸⁸, and other frameworks such as Hofstede's five cultural dimensions⁸⁹. Kopelman and Olekalns (1999) discuss four themes relating to process in cross-cultural negotiations, including the nature of the conflict, the role of cognition and rapport, the

⁸¹ Sharland, A. 2001. The negotiation process as a predictor of relationship outcomes in international buyer-seller arrangements. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 30(7):551-559.

⁸² Ulijn, J., Lincke, A. & Karakaya, Y. 2001. Non-face-to-face international business negotiation: how is national culture reflected in this medium? *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, 44(2):126ff.

⁸³ Volkema, R., Fleck, D. & Hofmeister-Toth, A. 2004. Ethicality in negotiation: an analysis of attitudes, intentions, and outcomes. *International Negotiation*, 9(2):315-339.

⁸⁴ Rao, A. & Schmidt, S. 1998. A behavioral perspective on negotiating international alliances. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(4):665-689.

⁸⁵ Mintu-Wimsatt, A. 2002. Personality and negotiation style: the moderating effects of cultural context. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 44(6):729-748.

⁸⁶ Chairsraeko, S. & Speece, M. 2004. Culture, intercultural communication competence, and sales negotiation: a qualitative research approach. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 19(4):267-282.

⁸⁷ Phatak, A. & Habib, M. 1996. The dynamics of international business negotiations. *Business Horizons*, 39(3):30-38.

⁸⁸ Shi, X. & Wright, P. 2001. Developing and validating an international business negotiator's profile. The China context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(5):364-389.

⁸⁹ Chang, L-C. 2003. An examination of cross-cultural negotiation: using Hofstede framework. *Journal of American Adecemy of Business*, Cambridge, 2(2):567-570.

extent to which negotiations create relationships based on trust and power⁹⁰. The issue of relationships is clearly a recurring one⁹¹.

Conclusion

Studies on cultural aspects of the negotiation setting largely mirror the body of negotiation research as a whole. Many of the same issues are under exploration and similar methods are employed, although survey research appears to be somewhat more common than in research not focusing on national culture. There is, apparently, a strong focus on East Asia in this research, especially on China.

2.3 The parties

The second set of constructs in negotiation research concern the negotiating parties. Here, three groups of variables can be found, those focusing on the organisation (sometimes termed constituent, i.e. that body for which the negotiator is negotiating), those focusing on the individual negotiator, and those focusing on the relationship between the negotiating parties.

2.3.1 *Organisational variables*

There are apparently not many studies attempting to explain negotiation process and outcome with organisational demographics. One study found that consumer product firms failed in greater percentage of negotiations, though, and also that they spent less time in the compromise stage than industrial-product firms. Industrial-product firms, in turn, to a greater extent used translators, external experts (especially culture/country experts), prepared more and used sufficient numbers of negotiators to counterbalance the other sides' teams⁹². Another study set out to investigate *both* organisational and individual characteristics, and how these impacted on problem solving approach. While it was found that perceptions of the other party's problem-solving behaviour was the most important influence of problem-solving behaviour, organisational variables such as flexibility and group decision making were also positively significantly correlated with a problem solving approach⁹³. Other types of organisational variables have been studied more extensively, though, at least in the 263 articles examined here, especially organisational climate, accountability, and the negotiating team.

Organisational climate

The ethical climate of the organisation has interested some researchers. An organisational climate in which ethical standards were highly salient decreased the use of deception by negotiators, even when there were strong individual incentives to do so. Climate perceptions also led negotiators to behave more ethically. Interestingly, negotiators who used deception

⁹⁰ Kopelman, S. & Olekalns, M. 1999. Process in cross-cultural negotiations. *Negotiation Journal*, 15(4):373-380.

⁹¹ Money, B. 1998. International multilateral negotiations and social networks. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(4):695-710. Lin, X. & Miller, S. 2003. Negotiating approaches: direct and indirect effect of national culture. *International Marketing Review*, 20(3):286-393.

⁹² Gulbro, R. & Herbig, P. 1996. Cross-cultural negotiating processes. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 96(3):17-23.

⁹³ Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Calantone, R. 2000. Crossing the border: testing a negotiation model among Canadian exporters. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 15(5):340-353.

received higher payoffs⁹⁴. Another study found that the climate of the organisation and the consequences of lying impacted the level of minimization of lies in negotiations⁹⁵.

Organisational expectations, aims and accountability

How and to what extent negotiators are held accountable for their actions in negotiations and negotiation outcomes is studied by some researchers. One study found that accountability produced not necessarily competitive behaviour, but the type of behaviour most normative for an individual considering his or her sociocultural context. I.e., accountability enhanced competition for individuals in high individualism contexts, while reduced competitive behaviour for individuals in highly collectivist contexts⁹⁶. Another study found that process accountability motivated negotiators to engage in more thorough and systematic processing of information, leading them to discover that fixed-pie perceptions may be erroneous. Process accountability led to increased encoding of information rather than increased exchange of information, though. Thus, fixed-pie perceptions are pervasive only when negotiators lack motivation to engage in thorough encoding of information⁹⁷.

A third study focused on the effects of time pressure and accountability on competitiveness of interaction and outcome. Found that when negotiators negotiate only for themselves, time pressure makes them less competitive and a greater proportion of negotiations led to an agreement. When negotiators negotiate on behalf of constituents, however, the opposite was found. Time pressure resulted in more competitive behaviour and a lower proportion of agreements (here, more impasses)⁹⁸.

The team

A couple of studies compare performance of negotiating teams with performance of individual negotiators. One study found that when teams were present, competitiveness increased and cooperation and trust decreased. When teams negotiated with individuals, teams performed best⁹⁹. Another study made partially contradicting findings, observing that joint profits increased when at least one negotiating party was a team, and that teams were more likely to identify potential mutual gains and discover compatible interests. Information exchange was also greater when at least one team took part in the negotiation. It was also shown that neither private meetings nor friendship between team members improved teams' outcomes. While teams reached higher joint gains, the relative share of gains was not greater for negotiations involving teams than negotiations involving only sole individuals¹⁰⁰. In another study, Peterson and Thompson (1997) set out to further investigate differences in negotiated settlements between teams consisting of friend and teams consisting of strangers.

⁹⁴ Aquino, K. 1998. The effects of ethical climate and the availability of alternatives on the use of deception during negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9(3):195-217.

⁹⁵ Aquino, K. & Becker, T. 2005. Lying in negotiations: how individual and situational factors influence the use of neutralization strategies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(6):661ff.

⁹⁶ Gelfand, M. & Realo, A. 1999. Individualism-collectivism and accountability in intergroup negotiations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5):721.

⁹⁷ De Dreu, C., Koole, S. & Steinel, W. 2000. Unfixing the fixed pie: a motivated information-processing approach to integrative negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(6):975ff.

⁹⁸ Mosterd, I. & Rutte, C. 2000. Effects of time pressure and accountability to constituents on negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(3):227-247.

⁹⁹ Polzer, J. 1996. Intergroup Negotiations. The effects of negotiating teams. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 40(4):678-698.

¹⁰⁰ Thompson, L., Peterson, E. & Brodt, S. 1996. Team negotiating: an examination of integrative and distributive bargaining. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(1):66ff.

They also considered the impact of whether negotiators were negotiating for themselves, or whether they were accountable to a supervisor. It was found that teams of strangers reaped greater share of joint profits when they were accountable to a supervisor, but not otherwise. Teams of friends were more concerned about maintaining the relationship than teams of strangers¹⁰¹. Bright and Parkin (1998) argue that that teams who work together often are more effective and efficient. They also note that smaller teams are more effective, three to four members being ideal¹⁰².

2.3.2 *Individual variables*

If, overall, organisational variables appear not to have been particularly well studied in negotiation research, the opposite is true for individual variables. In fact, nearly 40 percent of the studies reviewed here focused on individual negotiator variables. Topics include negotiator experience and skills, negotiation training, motives and aims, personality, attitudes, negotiation style, and demographic variables.

Experience and skills

Three studies have been identified explicitly addressing negotiator experience and skills. One study set out to investigate what actions inexperienced negotiators considered to be part of a negotiation. There were strong assumptions among the novices that negotiations were largely about incompatible interests, competitive behaviours, sequential issue resolution and negotiation impasses. Most of the actions described were shared by the research subjects, who apparently believed negotiations to be conflict filled events¹⁰³. Studies of negotiations have often revealed the opposite to be the case. E.g., skilled negotiators have been found to approach conflict through collaboration, even if low avoidance of conflict issues and lower levels of accommodation and compromise also characterise their behaviour. Overall, more skilled negotiators, thus, avoided competition as a mode of conflict handling¹⁰⁴. In another study it was found that more informed and experienced negotiators did better than uninformed negotiators in distributive negotiations, but were also better at achieving maximum joint outcomes in integrative negotiations. The study also found that experienced negotiators were more adept at gleaning information about the other parties' preferences during negotiations, especially when incentives were high¹⁰⁵.

Negotiation training and feedback

A variety of studies have addressed issues of negotiation training and feedback on negotiation behaviour, this being the topic for seven studies among the 263 articles reviewed here. It is clear that negotiation training impacts behaviour and skills. One study found that training had significant effects on collaborative negotiation behaviours, thoughts, feelings, attitudes,

¹⁰¹ Peterson, E. & Thompson, L. 1997. Negotiation teamwork: the impact of information distribution and accountability on performance depends on the relationship among team members. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 72(3):364-383.

¹⁰² Bright, B. & Parkin, W. 1998. How Negotiators work in teams. *Management Research News*, 21(7/8):20-36.

¹⁰³ O'Connor, K. & Adams, A. 1999. What novices think about negotiation: a content analysis of scripts. *Negotiation Journal*, 15(2):135-147.

¹⁰⁴ Manning, T. & Robertson, B. 2004. Influencing, negotiating skills and conflict-handling: some additional research and reflections. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 36(3):104-109.

¹⁰⁵ Murnighan, K., Babcock, L., Thompson, L. & Pillutla, M. 1999. The information dilemma in negotiations: effects of experience, incentives and integrative potential. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10(4):313-339.

outcomes and work-climate. Constructive conflict behaviours increased after training and there was less attacking and negative evading¹⁰⁶. From another experiment it is apparent that it is relatively easy to manipulate negotiation behaviours. Negotiators who had been provided with descriptions of tactical moves in negotiations tended to act more integratively than those who had not been given such descriptions. Dyads who had knowledge of tactics also achieved better joint outcomes¹⁰⁷. Extensive training is, thus, not always needed for changes in behaviour to occur.

There are different types of negotiation training, however. One article studied the effects of different methods of learning negotiation skills. Observational learning and analogical learning led to outcomes more favourable for both parties compared to merely experiential learning, while informational and didactic learning showed no advantage compared to experimental learning. Those who learned observationally exhibited the greatest increases in performance, but were least able to articulate "learning principles", the author arguing that tacit knowledge had been acquired¹⁰⁸. Another study contends that workshops provide a good environment for negotiation training. The artificiality of the laboratory setting, the authors argue, is compensated by the advantage of being able to observe, analyse and discuss outcomes¹⁰⁹.

Negotiation training can also have different aims. In an experiment, negotiators who viewed negotiation training as a way of improving negotiation skills rather than engaging in training where performance was stressed, received a more positive effect of the training. Negotiators with low confidence in their own abilities received the least benefits from performance-oriented training, while skills-oriented training was beneficial regardless of belief about one's own abilities¹¹⁰.

Effective training requires feedback. One study set out to explore the impact of feedback on negotiator performance. When negotiators received negative feedback regarding their ability they achieved the worst individual performance and were the least competitive. They were most honest when they received negative feedback regarding their ethicality and were most cooperative when they received positive feedback on ethicality¹¹¹.

Motives, aims and orientation

Some studies have researched the connection between aims and outcomes. One study found that having the highest aspirations had greater influence on positive outcome than having the minimum aspiration (i.e. the fallback position)¹¹². I.e. aiming for a high goal is better than

¹⁰⁶ Coleman, P. & Lim, Y.Y.J. 2001. A systematic approach to evaluating the effects of collaborative negotiation training on individuals and groups. *Negotiation Journal*, 17(4):363-392.

¹⁰⁷ Weingart, L., Hyder, E. & Prietula, M. 1996. Knowledge matters: the effect of tactical descriptions on negotiation behavior and outcome. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(6):1205ff.

¹⁰⁸ Nadler, J., Thompson, L. & Van Boven, L. 2003. Learning negotiation skills: four models of knowledge creation and transfer. *Management Science*, 49(4):529-540.

¹⁰⁹ Rees, D. & Porter, C. 1997. Negotiation - mystic art or identifiable process? Part 1. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 29(3):65-69.

¹¹⁰ Stevens, S.K. & Gist, M. 1997. Effects of self-efficacy and goal-orientation training on negotiation skill maintenance: what are the mechanisms? *Personnel Psychology*, 50(4):955-978.

¹¹¹ Kim, P., Diekmann, K. & Tenbrunsel, A. 2003. Flattery may get you somewhere: the strategic implications of providing positive vs. negative feedback about ability vs. ethicality in negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(2):225-243.

¹¹² Cohen, W. 2003. The importance of expectations on negotiation results. *European Business Review*, 15(2):87-93.

aiming to avoid a negative outcome. In another experiment, so called loss frame negotiators (i.e. those wanting to avoid a loss) were more cooperative and more likely to settle, as well as more likely to create more integrative solutions¹¹³. Opposite results were found in another study, where loss-framed negotiators (avoiding a loss) adopted a conflict approach oriented towards winning to a greater extent than gain-framed (focusing on achieving a gain) negotiators¹¹⁴.

Having competitive (self-oriented or egotistical) or cooperative (prosocial or team-oriented) goals generate different different behaviours and different understandings of the negotiation situation. Prosocially motivated negotiators have been shown to achieved more integrative agreements and fewer impasses, reporting higher levels of trust, more problem solving and less contending behaviour than egotistically (self-oriented) motivated negotiators¹¹⁵. One study showed this to be the case only when resistance to yielding is high¹¹⁶. Olekalns and Smith (2005) found competitive or cooperative understanding of the negotiation situation not to be static, however, but evolved as a response to the negotiation situation. "Mental maps" implying high levels of flexibility generated high joint gains when negotiators were competitively oriented, but not when they had cooperative goals¹¹⁷.

The importance of having clear goals is stressed by Brett et al. (1996), who found that negotiators who had a clear goal, self-efficacy (positive feedback regarding likelihood of fulfilling aims), alternative goals, and a BATNA attained higher individual outcomes than other negotiators¹¹⁸.

Personality

A variety of factors relating to negotiator personality (here used broadly) have been investigated and it is quite clear that personality impacts negotiation behaviour. One study found that open-minded people were more likely to use problem-solving approach to achieve outcomes satisfactory to both parties, as were extroverted negotiators. When advances by extroverted people (e.g. information sharing) were not reciprocated, though, they were more likely to revert to competitive behaviour¹¹⁹. Another study found that extraversion and agreeableness were liabilities in distributive bargaining¹²⁰.

¹¹³ Bottom, W. 1998. Negotiator risk: sources of uncertainty and the impact of reference points on negotiated agreements. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 76(2):89-112.

¹¹⁴ Schweitzer, M. & DeChurch, L. 2001. Linking frames in negotiations: gains, losses and conflict frame adoption. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(2):100-113.

¹¹⁵ Beersma, B. 1999. Negotiation processes and outcomes in prosocially and egoistically motivated groups. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10(4):385-402.

¹¹⁶ De Dreu, C., Weingart, L. & Kwon, S. 2000. Influence of social motives on integrative negotiation: a meta-analytic review and test of two theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(5):889ff.

¹¹⁷ Olekalns, M. & Smith, P. 2005. Cognitive representations of negotiation. *Australian Journal of Management*, 30(1):57-76.

¹¹⁸ Brett, J., Pinkley, R. & Jackofsky, E. 1996. alternatives to having a BATNA in dyadic negotiation: the influence of goals, self-efficacy, and alternatives to negotiated outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 7(2):121-138.

¹¹⁹ Ma, Z. & Jaeger, A. 2005. Getting to yes in China: exploring personality effects in Chinese negotiation style. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14(5):415ff.

¹²⁰ Barry, B. & Friedman, R. 1998. Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2):345ff.

More autonomous individuals have been found to be more likely to employ cooperative negotiation tactics¹²¹. Overconfident negotiators have been found to be more persistent and show more concern for their own outcomes. In an experiment, though, overconfident negotiators were found to fare neither better nor worse than realistically confident negotiators¹²². Aggressive people have been found to be more likely to take a distributive approach¹²³. Concerned with face, or social image, has also been found to impact on negotiations. One experiment found that buyers and sellers were less likely to reach an agreement when the seller was sensitive to face threats¹²⁴.

Negotiators with high self monitoring (i.e. individuals relying on situational and interpersonal appropriateness as opposed to relying on inner feelings and personal attributes) have been found to be more committed to pre-negotiation goals and make more complex plans regarding integrative tactics. They have also been found to be more likely to engage in argumentation during negotiations, and overall are more likely to achieve their goals¹²⁵. Another study found that being conscientious, though, was not related to outcome¹²⁶.

The issue of intelligence and negotiation behaviour has interested several scholars. In one study it was found that cognitive ability played no role in distributive bargaining, but was strongly related to attainment of joint outcomes in integrative negotiations¹²⁷. Analytical people have also been found to be more likely to behave more competitively, this because of higher cognitive abilities¹²⁸. The more complex the bargaining situation, the more important are individual differences¹²⁹.

Related to intelligence is cognitive motivation (e.g. preference of complex tasks over simple ones, finding new solutions), which has been hypothesized to predict outcomes in buyer-seller negotiation. In an experiment it was found that dyads where sellers had high cognitive motivation, better outcomes were achieved than by dyads where sellers had low cognitive motivation. The cognitive motivation of buyers, though, did not affect outcomes¹³⁰.

¹²¹ Bolman Pullins, E., Haugtvedt, C., Dickson, P., Fine, L. & Lewicki, R. 2000. Individual differences in intrinsic motivation and the use of cooperative negotiation tactics. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 15(7):466-478.

¹²² Lim, R. 1997. Overconfidence in negotiation revisited. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8(1):52-79.

¹²³ Ma, Z. & Jaeger, A. 2005. Getting to yes in China: exploring personality effects in Chinese negotiation style. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14(5):415ff.

¹²⁴ White, J., Tynan, R., Galinsky, A. & Thompson, L. 2004. Face threat sensitivity in negotiation: roadblock to agreement and joint gain. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 94(2):102-124.

¹²⁵ Jordan, J.M. & Roloff, M. 1997. Planning skills and negotiator goal accomplishment. *Communication Research*, 24(1):33ff.

¹²⁶ Barry, B. & Friedman, R. 1998. Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2):345ff.

¹²⁷ Barry, B. & Friedman, R. 1998. Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2):345ff.

¹²⁸ Ma, Z. & Jaeger, A. 2005. Getting to yes in China: exploring personality effects in Chinese negotiation style. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14(5):415ff.

¹²⁹ Smithy Fulmer, I. & Barry, B. 2004. The smart negotiator: cognitive ability and emotional intelligence in negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3):245-272.

¹³⁰ Schei, V. & Rognes, J. 2003. Knowing me, knowing you: own orientation and information about the opponent's orientation in negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(1):43-59.

There is also more and more emphasis placed on emotional intelligence (EI)¹³¹. One study examined the relationship between the EI of both parties in negotiation and outcome. It was found that, while high EI people reported more positive experience, objective outcomes for these people was lower¹³².

Attitudes

Ethicality and perceptions regarding fairness are recurring themes in negotiation research. One study discusses ethics in negotiations. It is argued that, while negotiating ethically may entail risks and put negotiators in vulnerable positions, it acts against rigidity in future negotiations, is less likely to damage relationships with other negotiating parties, and is less likely to lead to lost opportunities¹³³.

Maxwell et al. (1999) tested the effects of concern for fairness in distributive negotiations. They found that priming for fairness (through information to experiment participants regarding fair price) elicited more cooperative behaviour and increased satisfaction without a lower final price¹³⁴. Paese and Yonker (2001) studied how cognitive mechanisms underlie egocentric judgements of fairness. They conducted an experiment where participants were given different information to identify if selective retrieval and encoding (i.e. search for and distortion of facts to suit own objectives) was necessary for egocentric fairness judgements (i.e. self-serving conclusion concerning fair agreement) to be made. They found that egocentric biases were greatest when selective encoding and retrieval was possible. Selective encoding was, however, not found to be a prerequisite for biases to occur¹³⁵.

Negotiation style and negotiation strategy

There is some research conducted about individuals' negotiation styles¹³⁶. For example, Brooks and Roes (2004) argue that negotiation orientation (organisational representative's approach to negotiation process and outcome) is influenced by personality, negotiation schema and aspects of the negotiation setting (reward structure, accountability, power relations, time pressures, knowledge, corporate philosophy and objectives) and impacts success and satisfaction levels¹³⁷.

Manning and Robertson (2003) look at the connection between an individual's influence style and negotiation skills. So called "strategists" exhibited high levels of clarity of focus, while "opportunists" exhibited relatively lower levels. Strategists were also better prepared and more likely to close deals. Collaborators were more flexible in working towards a win-win

¹³¹ Ogilvie, J. & Carsky, M. 2002. Building emotional intelligence in negotiations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(4):381-400.

¹³² Foo, M.D., Anger Elfenbein, H., Tan, H.H. & Aik, V.C. 2004. Emotional intelligence and negotiation: the tension between creating and claiming value. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(4):411-429.

¹³³ Reitz, J., Wall, J. & Love, M.S. 1998. Ethics in negotiation: oil and water of good lubrication? *Business Horizons*, 41(3):5-14.

¹³⁴ Maxwell, S., Nye, P. & Maxwell, N. 1999. Less pain, some gain: the effects of priming fairness in price negotiations. *Psychology & Marketing*, 16(7):545-562.

¹³⁵ Paese, P. & Yonker, R. 2001. Toward a better understanding of egocentric fairness judgments in negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(2):114-131.

¹³⁶ See also dyad composition under 2.3.5.

¹³⁷ Brooks, B. & Rose, R. 2004. A contextual model of negotiation orientation. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 33(2):125-133.

situation, while opportunists were less so. Collaborators were also better than opportunists at reaching agreements¹³⁸.

In an experiment, Kern et al. (2005) observed that cooperative negotiators use integrative strategies more than individualistic negotiators and also engaged more in cooperative information sharing. The more cooperative negotiators persisted in integrative information sharing, the better their individual outcomes¹³⁹. Craver (2003), though, argues that the most effective negotiators may be those that employ a hybrid competitive problem-solving approach, incorporating traits from both classifications¹⁴⁰.

Koeszegi (2004) suggests strategies managers may employ to manage risk, including risk-preventing strategies such as distrust, norm of reciprocity (e.g. 3rd party guarantee, and exchange of credible commitments) and risk-taking strategies such as trust and reliance on reputation¹⁴¹.

Demographic variables

Among demographic variables, apparently negotiator gender has received the most attention. Here, five articles dealing with this issue have been identified.

In a meta analysis of extant research dealing with gender differences in negotiation outcomes, Stuhlmacher and Walters (1999) found that across studies men negotiated significantly better than women. The authors tried to explain some of these differences in outcome with gender composition of negotiation dyads, relative power of negotiators, integrative potential of the negotiation task, ways of communication and age of the research in question, but still found that the overall result of extant research indicates that men negotiate better than women. It should be noted, though, that the differences in outcome between men and women were small¹⁴². The same researchers have also found that women tended to behave more cooperatively than men except when the opponent pursued a tit-for-tat strategy, where women were more competitive than men. Gender differences were smallest when there were constraints on the negotiation such as restrictions in communication¹⁴³.

In a study of differences in the negotiation process between males and females, it was found that males mentioned money earlier and spent more time discussing money issues, were more likely to emphasise their positions and responsibilities. Female dyads considered absent, but affected, parties to a greater extent, and mentioned personal information earlier. Male dyads were more confrontational but also used humour more¹⁴⁴.

¹³⁸ Manning, T. & Robertson, B. 2003. Influencing and negotiating skills: some research and reflections - Part II: influencing styles and negotiating skills. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 35(2):60-66.

¹³⁹ Kern, M., Brett, J. & Weingart, L. 2005. Getting the floor: motive-consistent strategy and individual outcomes in multi-party negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14(1):21-41.

¹⁴⁰ Craver, C. 2003. Negotiation styles. The impact of bargaining transactions. *Dispute resolution journal*, 58(1):48-56.

¹⁴¹ Koeszegi, S. 2004. Trust-building strategies in inter-organizational negotiations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19(6):640-660.

¹⁴² Stuhlmacher, A. & Walters, M. 1999. Gender difference in negotiation outcome: a meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(3):653-677.

¹⁴³ Walters, A., Stuhlmacher, A. & Meyer, L. 1998. Gender and negotiator competitiveness: a meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 76(1):1-29.

¹⁴⁴ Halpern, J. & McLean Parks, J. 1996. Vive la différence: differences between males and females in process and outcomes in a low-conflict negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 7(1):45-70.

As noted above, women are often claimed to have a disadvantage at the negotiating table. However, when negotiators participating in an experiment were told that stereotypically feminine traits (e.g. good listening skills, high ability to verbalise, insights into feelings etc.) positively impacted negotiation outcomes, the gender gap was much smaller. However, when gender-neutral traits were connected to outcome, this was not the case. When negotiators were told that stereotypically male traits (overconfidence etc.) were associated with negative outcome for the negotiator, women actually outperformed male negotiators¹⁴⁵.

In another experiment it was found that the threat of negative stereotype confirmation hurt women's performance relative to men's. Men outperformed women when the negotiation was perceived as diagnostic of ability and in an experiment when the negotiation was linked to gender-specific traits. Gender stereotypes, however, were only confirmed when they were activated implicitly and not when they were activated explicitly (i.e. in the latter case when such stereotypes were pointed out to experiment participants). In the latter case there was even a tendency to behave contrary to gender stereotypes. Cooperative behaviour between men and women was most likely when a shared identity transcending the gender issue was activated¹⁴⁶.

2.3.3 *Variables relating to the relationship*

A number of factors in negotiation research concern the relationship between the negotiating parties. These include primarily prior experience and prior outcomes, knowledge and understanding, perceptions and feelings, power relations and status, and negotiating dyad composition.

Prior negotiating experience and prior outcomes

One study specifically addresses how negotiation agreements were impacted by negotiators' past negotiation experiences. The authors found that negotiators who failed to reach an agreement were more likely to fail to reach an agreement the next time they (i.e. the same negotiators) negotiated again. Even when the same negotiators did not fail to reach an agreement the second time, the deal agreed upon was worse compared to the deal achieved by negotiators who has a successful history of joint agreements. When parties were changed, however, the effects of past negative experiences were mediated¹⁴⁷.

Another experimental study compared negotiators' experiences of impasses and agreements. The authors argued that unsuccessful negotiations led negotiators to finding themselves in a distributive spiral, where they developed negative perceptions of the other party. This, in turn, led to less willingness to negotiate in the future, less information sharing, less cooperative behaviour and loss of faith in negotiations as a means of conflict management. The also found that negotiators with higher levels of perceived control over the situation were less likely to experience these negative perceptions about negotiations and the negotiation process¹⁴⁸.

¹⁴⁵ Kray, L., Galinsky, A. & Thompson, L. 2002. Reversing the gender gap in negotiations: an exploration of stereotype regeneration. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 87(2):386-409.

¹⁴⁶ Kray, L., Galinsky, A. & Thompson, L. 2001. Battle of the sexes: gender stereotypic confirmation and reactance in negotiations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(6):942ff.

¹⁴⁷ O'Connor, K., Arnold, J. & Burris, E. 2005. Negotiators' bargaining histories and their effects on future negotiation performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2):350ff.

¹⁴⁸ O'Connor, K. & Arnold, J. 2001. Distributive spirals: negotiation impasses and the moderating role of disputant self-efficacy. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 84(1):148-176.

Knowledge and understanding about the other party

On experimental study undertook to research interpersonal understanding in negotiations. It was found, e.g., that negotiators were unable to accurately estimate the other parties' payoff for the agreement. Contrary to popular belief, it was also found that fixed-pie bias was not a reason for poor interpersonal understanding. Rather, it was found that negotiators reasoned that the other party would not settle for a worse payoff than oneself, and often interpreted integrative potential even when no such potential was present. When the fixed pie model was perfectly linear (i.e. one party's gain exactly equals the other party's loss), however, the predictive ability of payoffs was high. The study failed to find support for better understanding of the other party's situation leading to a better result for oneself¹⁴⁹. Another study found that the most important influence on negotiation behaviour was perceptions regarding the other party's problem-solving behaviour¹⁵⁰. Yet another study concluded that knowledge of the other party's BATNA was strongest determinant of initial offer¹⁵¹.

Another study focused on "the illusion of transparency", i.e. the tendency of individuals to assume that their internal states and intentions are known to others. It was found that this illusion was greater for less powerful negotiators than for more powerful negotiators¹⁵².

Yet another article focuses on negotiations between friends. The authors argue that people do not feel comfortable negotiating with friend and suggests that friendship impacts negotiation process and outcome¹⁵³.

Perceptions and feelings about the other party

A variety of feelings are examined in a negotiation context. Van Kleef et al. (2004) examined how anger and happiness affected negotiations. They found that negotiators were more willing to concede if they perceived the opponent as angry, although adjustments of demands were not as great when the perceived angry party made large concessions¹⁵⁴. In another study by the same authors it was found that negotiators were only affected by the other party's emotions when there was low time pressure, since time pressure reduced degree of information processing. It was also found that the emotions of the other party were most influential when the negotiator had low relative power¹⁵⁵. Allred et al. (1997) also studied anger, and found that negotiators who feel high anger and low compassion for each other will not want to work together in the future and will achieve few joint gains. It was not found, however, that negative emotional regard led to higher gains¹⁵⁶.

¹⁴⁹ Mumpower, J., Sheffield, J., Darling, T. & Miller, R. 2004. The accuracy of post-negotiation estimates of the other negotiator's payoff. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 13(3):259-290.

¹⁵⁰ Mintu-Wimsatt, A. & Calantone, R. 2000. Crossing the border: testing a negotiation model among Canadian exporters. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 15(5):340-353.

¹⁵¹ Buelens, M. & Van Poucke, D. 2004. Determinants of a negotiator's initial opening offer. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 19(1):23-35.

¹⁵² Garcia, S. 2002. Power and the illusion of transparency in negotiations. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17(1):133-144.

¹⁵³ Kurtzberg, T. & Husted Medvec, V. 1999. Can we negotiate and still be friends? *Negotiation Journal*, 15(4):355-361.

¹⁵⁴ Van Kleef, G., De Dreu, C. & Manstead, A. 2004. The interpersonal effects of anger and happiness in negotiations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86(1):57ff.

¹⁵⁵ Van Kleef, G., De Dreu, C. & Manstead, A. 2004. The interpersonal effects of emotions in negotiations: a motivated information processing approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87(4):510ff.

¹⁵⁶ Allred, K., Mallozzi, J., Matsui, F. & Raia, C. 1997. The influence of anger and compassion on negotiation performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 70(3):175-187.

Anxiety is another feeling addressed by research. Wheeler (2004) focuses on openings of negotiations and discusses this from the point of view of the anxiety that people feel at this stage. He finds that such anxiety can be triggered by many factors, e.g. including doubts about their competence, fears regarding attitudes and behaviours of the other party, and negotiation process and outcome. He also argues that anxiety does not have to be entirely negative, since it can spark creativity and can help foster constructive relationships¹⁵⁷.

A couple of studies examine affect on a more general level. Kumar (1997) discusses the origins and consequences of affect in negotiations. He argues that positive and negative affect may have positive and negative effects on negotiation outcomes¹⁵⁸. Barry and Oliver (1996) review the sizeable literature on affect and discuss how affect influences the decision to negotiate, selection of opponent, formulation of expectations and offers, tactics, outcomes and proclivity to comply with agreed terms¹⁵⁹.

There are several other psychological mechanisms discussed in the negotiation literature on emotions. One study examines the impact of social comparison on satisfaction with negotiation outcome. When comparing outcomes with a party who did less well than the negotiator (i.e. when the negotiator captured more of the bargaining zone than the other party), the negotiator felt dissatisfied since an even greater share of the bargaining zone could have been captured, compared to when outcomes were contrasted to others in similar negotiation situations who captures less than the negotiator. There is, thus, a difference in satisfaction when making internal and external comparisons of outcomes¹⁶⁰.

Fukushima (1999) argues that intrapersonal conflict has not been addressed much in negotiation research. Psychodynamic theory of transference (projecting attributes of one individual on another) and countertransference can help understand and predict what happens in negotiation situations¹⁶¹.

Personality-trait attribution is another interesting psychological mechanism salient in the negotiation situation. Morris et al. (1999) studied how negotiators make errors in regard to this, i.e. how aspects of the other party's situation are attributed to personality traits. Their overall hypothesis was that bargaining behaviours were primarily determined by situational constraints but were attributed to the other parties' personality traits. They found, e.g., that counterparts who had attractive alternative offers were perceived as less agreeable and less cooperative, and counterparts who did not have attractive alternatives were perceived as more emotionally unstable. When they did not have alternatives and, thus, tended to be indecisive, they were perceived to be inconsistent and insincere¹⁶². Further, Barrett (2004) studied parties

¹⁵⁷ Wheeler, M. 2004. Anxious moments: openings in negotiations. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2):153-169.

¹⁵⁸ Kumar, R. 1997. The role of affect in negotiations. An integrative overview. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 33(1):84-100.

¹⁵⁹ Barry, B. & Oliver, R. 1996. Affect in dyadic negotiation: a model and propositions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67(2):127-143.

¹⁶⁰ Novemsky, N. & Schweitzer, M. 2004. What makes negotiators happy? The differential effects of internal and external social comparisons on negotiator satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 95(2):186-197.

¹⁶¹ Fukushima, S. 1999. What you bring to the table: transference and countertransference in the negotiation process. *Negotiation Journal*, 15(2):169-180.

¹⁶² Morris, M., Larrick, R. & Su, S. 1999. Misperceiving negotiation counterparts: when situationally determined bargaining behaviours are attributed to personality traits. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77(1):52ff.

who were locked on conflict. He found that they tended to see themselves as acting virtuously, were unlikely to articulate the position of the other party in a way (s)he would agree on, and often had a lot to say about what was wrong with the other party¹⁶³.

Trust between parties is another recurring negotiation research theme, particularly in the international and cross-cultural research streams. Only one article focusing primarily on trust was identified in the material reviewed here, though. Ross and LaCroix (1996) discuss the literature on trust in a negotiation context. They argue that trust can either refer to a personality trait or to a temporary state, the latter referring to cooperative motivational orientation, patterns of predictable behaviour and problem-solving orientation¹⁶⁴.

Power relations and perceived status

A few studies address the issue of power in negotiations. Kim et al. (2005), for example, argue that there are different types of power in negotiations, contending that it can be divided into potential power, perceived power, power tactics and realized power¹⁶⁵.

Empirical findings indicate that when the most powerful party acts in a positive way, this generates integrative negotiations, partly due to the trust it fostered¹⁶⁶. Other studies have found that negotiators with low differences in perceived power reach more integrative agreements. The availability of alternatives ("real power" in negotiations) also affected distribution of outcomes¹⁶⁷.

Another study found that subjects were prepared to make better offers to parties with higher status¹⁶⁸, although these results were not supported by another study finding that awareness of dependence of other party was not a determinant of first offer¹⁶⁹. Other studies on power also exist¹⁷⁰.

In an experimental study where groups of three negotiating parties negotiated, it was found that negotiators excluded from part of the negotiation received a worse outcome than those present throughout the negotiation. Especially those excluded from the latter part received a small share. In groups where the negotiator with lowest power was excluded, agreements were less integrative than those excluding the high power party or no party¹⁷¹.

Composition of negotiation dyads

¹⁶³ Barrett, F. 2004. Critical Moments as "change" in negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2): 213-219.

¹⁶⁴ Ross, W. & LaCroix, J. 1996. Multiple meanings of trust in negotiation theory and research: a literature review and integrative model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 7(4):314-360.

¹⁶⁵ Kim, P., Pinkley, R. & Fragale, A. 2005. Power dynamics in negotiation. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(4):799-822.

¹⁶⁶ Anderson, C. & Thompson, L. 2004. Affect from the top down: how powerful individuals' positive affect shapes negotiations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 95(2):125-139.

¹⁶⁷ Wolfe, R. & McGinn, K. 2005. Perceived relative power and its influence on Negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14:3-20.

¹⁶⁸ Ball, S. & Eckel, C. 1996. Buying status: experimental evidence on status in negotiation. *Psychology & Marketing*, 13(4):381-405.

¹⁶⁹ Buelens, M. & Van Poucke, D. 2004. Determinants of a negotiator's initial opening offer. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 19(1):23-35.

¹⁷⁰ Christen, C. 2005. The utility of coorientational variables as predictors of willingness to negotiate. *Journalism and Communication Quarterly*, 82(1):7ff.

¹⁷¹ Kim, P. 1997. Strategic timing in group negotiations: the implications of forced entry and forced exit for negotiators with unequal power. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 71(3):263-286.

Several studies addressed the issue of how dyad composition affected the negotiation process and its outcome. E.g., O'Connor (1997) investigated how the dyad's negotiation motives (here seen as individualistically or cooperatively-oriented dyads) were related to information exchange and how this affected perceptual accuracy (e.g. mistaking integrative issues for distributive ones, understanding of each others' motivational structure) as well as outcomes. It was found that cooperative dyads exchanged more information about integrative issues, while individualistically oriented dyads did not. Perceptual accuracy was greater in cooperative dyads. Information exchange had a positive effect on outcomes in cooperative dyads, but a negative effect on outcomes in individualistic dyads¹⁷².

Another experimental study went one step further, investigated three different types of dyads, so called proself (individualistically oriented), prosocial (cooperatively oriented), and mixed dyads. The study demonstrated that composition of negotiation dyad effected the negotiation process. It was found that cooperative reciprocity was critical to achieve high joint gains only in prosocial dyads. When dyads consisted of at least one proself negotiator, resource division (i.e. more in the way of distributive bargaining) characterised the process leading to high joint gains¹⁷³. A similar approach, although with greater focus on outcomes, was taken in another study where it was found that cooperative dyads achieved better outcomes than individualistic dyads. Mixed dyads did as well as cooperative dyads when the cooperative party had information about the orientation of the individualistic party, but did as badly as individualistic dyads when the individualist had information about the orientation of the cooperative party. The authors argue that naïve co-operators, thus, can easily be exploited¹⁷⁴.

Yet another study addressed the issue of dyad composition and changes in competitive and cooperative behaviour across the stages of the negotiation (here relational positioning, identifying the problem, generating solutions, reaching agreement). The first stage was most competitive, the second stage most cooperative. Findings appeared to be similar across different composition dyads, however¹⁷⁵.

2.4 The negotiation process

The negotiation process as such is in focus in much of negotiation research. Some researchers look at the process, suggesting that it consists of different steps. Other researchers focus on specific steps in the process, such as the preparation phase, communication and exchange of information, and making offers. Other studies are concerned with negotiation tactics or other behaviours in the negotiation process. Sometimes findings are also related to negotiation outcomes.

2.4.1 *Steps in the process*

The steps in the negotiation process are described in different ways by different authors. At least three steps are traditionally identified, including (1) planning or preparation, (2)

¹⁷² O'Connor, K. 1997. Motives and cognitions in negotiation: a theoretical integration and an empirical test. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8(2):114-131.

¹⁷³ Olekalns, M. & Smith, P. 2003. Social motives in negotiation: the relationship between dyad composition, negotiation processes and outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3/4):233-254.

¹⁷⁴ Schei, V., Rognes, J. & Mykland, S. 2006. Thinking deeply may sometimes help: cognitive motivation and role effects in negotiation. *Applied Psychology*, 55(1):73-90.

¹⁷⁵ Adair, W. & Brett, J. 2005. The negotiation dance: time, culture, and behavioral sequences in negotiation. *Organization Science*, 16(1):33-52.

negotiation, bargaining, interaction etc, and (3) striking a deal. Some scholars suggest other steps, such as relational positioning, identifying the problem, generating solutions, and reaching agreement¹⁷⁶.

Articles have also appeared that partly try to move away from traditional was of describing negotiations as processes of sequential phases, focusing on, e.g., "critical moments" in negotiations that can generate conflict transformation¹⁷⁷. Another term used is "turns" (i.e. actions taken in response to strategic moves) in negotiations as a way to move out of a defensive position of as a means to engage the other party in collaboration. Turns include e.g. interrupting, correcting, questioning, naming and diverting¹⁷⁸. "Moves" is yet another term, e.g. used by Stuart (2004) who suggests that all parties can potentially benefit from surprising moves by one of the parties¹⁷⁹.

Another way of looking at the negotiation is as a process of problem definition, information processes and situation framing. Problem definition is crucial for how problems are perceived, information processes are crucial for what information is used as basis for decision making and situation framing is crucial for how people act in certain situations. All these factors impact whether a win-win or win-lose approach is taken to negotiations. E.g., information exchange and fixation with original targets lead to win-lose negotiations¹⁸⁰.

One experimental study looked as behaviours in different phases of the negotiation. It was found that early in the negotiation process, concessionary cues and rejection responses signalled flexibility and tested the bargaining zone, later in the process they were used to reach an agreement. It was also found that, as the negotiation proceeded, negotiators became less willing to accept the other side's arguments, indicating that limits of the negotiation were typically set early on. Distributive outcomes were characterised by less priority information exchange and more positional information exchange, while the opposite was true for integrative outcomes¹⁸¹.

The idea of distributive and integrative negotiations is thus an important one in negotiation research. Sometimes these are treated as phases in the same negotiation. E.g., Olekalns et al. (2003) investigates patterns of communication in multi-party, multi-issue negotiations. Negotiations tended to start with a distributive phase and end with an integrative phase. Those that did not follow this pattern tended not to reach an agreement. Closure and process interruptions shifted negotiations from a distributive to integrative orientation¹⁸². Other studies consider distributive and integrative negotiations as distinctly different types of negotiations. Quite frequently, the ensuing type of negotiation is even considered the

¹⁷⁶ Adair, W. & Brett, J. 2005. The negotiation dance: time, culture, and behavioral sequences in negotiation. *Organization Science*, 16(1):33-52.

¹⁷⁷ Putnam, L. 2004. Transformations and critical moments in negotiations. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2):275-295.
Menkel-Meadow, C. 2004. Critical moments in negotiation: Implications for research, pedagogy, and practice. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2):341-347.

¹⁷⁸ Kolb, D. 2004. Staying in the Game or changing it: an analyses of moves and turns in negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2):253-268.

¹⁷⁹ Stuart, H. 2004. Surprise moves in negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 20(2): 239-251.

¹⁸⁰ Johannessen, J-A., Olaisen, J. & Olsen, B. 1997. Information management in negotiations: the conditions under which it could be expected that the negotiation partners substitute a competitive definition of the situation for a cooperative one. *International Journal of Information Management*, 17(3):153-168.

¹⁸¹ Olekalns, M., Philip S. & Walsh, T. 1996. The process of negotiating: strategy and timing as predictors of outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 68(1):68-77.

¹⁸² Olekalns, M., Brett, J. & Weingart, L. 2003. Phases, transitions and interruptions: modelling processes in multi-party negotiations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3/4):191-211.

“dependent variable” in a study, i.e. a study’s outcome variable, and factors leading to either integrative or distributive negotiations are in focus. In yet other studies, the type of negotiation (i.e. integrative or distributive) yield certain outcomes. The issue of negotiation type is, thus, a complex one.

2.4.2 *Preparations*

The preparation phase is widely held to be the first step in a negotiation process. Different scholars have different things to say about this phase¹⁸³. Sussman (1999) argues that persuasive negotiations require that the negotiation message is properly framed and that this requires some preparation. There are four steps in creating such a frame, including determining your own objectives, doing a SWOT analysis of the other party's situation, determining the other party's core values, and writing a simple statement connecting the other three aspects¹⁸⁴. Along similar lines, Fells (1996) found this not to be very common practice, noting that negotiators tended to carefully consider what they wanted to achieve, but not how they were to achieve it¹⁸⁵.

One aspect of preparing for negotiations is developing a BATNA, or “best alternative to negotiated agreement”. I.e., before the interaction phase begins, negotiators should determine what alternatives they have if the negotiation does not result in a satisfactory outcome. It has been found, though, that the benefits of possessing a superior BATNA diminish as the bargaining zone grows. I.e., the more narrow the bargaining zone, the greater the importance of developing a BATNA¹⁸⁶.

2.4.3 *Communication and information sharing*

Some studies look at the process of communication, often with a focus on information sharing, that goes on throughout a negotiation. For example, Brett et al. (1998) found that the more contentious the communication, the more one-sided distributive outcome were reached, this also being the case when the more contentious communication was reciprocated. Non-reciprocation broke the spiral, though, as did either side explicitly stating that they perceived the negotiation to be non-productive¹⁸⁷. Another experimental study found that negotiators reciprocated integrating, compromising and dominating behaviours, but also exhibited complementary responses to dominating and yielding behaviours. Overall, though, parties adopted a strategy similar to the one observed in the other party. More precisely, e.g. gratitude increased yielding behaviour, while pride-achievement had the opposite effect. Anger predicted dominating behaviour. The authors therefore argue that effective negotiators must strive to control the type of emotions felt and displayed in negotiations¹⁸⁸.

¹⁸³ Peterson, R. & Lucas, G. 2001. expanding the antecedent components of the traditional business negotiation model: pre-negotiation literature review and planning-preparation propositions. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 9(4):37-49.

¹⁸⁴ Sussman, L. 1999. How to frame a message: the art of persuasion and negotiation. *Business Horizons*, 42(4):2-6.

¹⁸⁵ Fells, R. 1996. Preparation for negotiation. *Issues and Process. Personnel Review*, 25(2):50-60.

¹⁸⁶ Kim, P. & Fragale, A. 2005. Choosing the path to bargaining power: an empirical comparison of BATNAs and contributions in negotiation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2):373ff.

¹⁸⁷ Brett, J., Shapiro, D. & Lytle, A. 1998. Breaking the bonds of reciprocity in negotiations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(4):410-424.

¹⁸⁸ Butt, A.N., Choi, J.N. & Jaeger, A. 2005. The effects of self-emotion, counterpart emotion, and counterpart behavior on negotiator behavior: a comparison of individual-level and dyad-level dynamics. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(6):681ff.

Butler (1999) addressed the issue of negotiation effectiveness and information sharing. It was clearly found that effectiveness was associated with amount of information shared and the time to reach solution decreased as information increased. Buyers monetary cost also increased as information increased, though, which was contrary to expectations¹⁸⁹. Others have also found that information exchange has considerable effects for negotiation process and outcomes¹⁹⁰, while van Bove et al. (2003) found that negotiators who were trying to convey information often overestimated the other party's ability to discern information¹⁹¹.

2.4.4 *Making offers*

Making offers and counteroffers is an integral part of negotiating, which is also recognised in negotiation research, where a considerable number of studies address this topic.

The importance of the first offer is attested to by many scholars. For example van Poucke and Buelens (2002) found that 57 percent of variance in negotiation outcomes could be explained by buyers' and sellers' intended initial offers. In another experimental study it was found that the party that made the first offer (regardless whether he or she was the seller or buyer) achieved the best outcome. However, focusing on the other party's reservation price, one's own target price or other party's alternative to negotiation negated effects of making the initial offer¹⁹². Another study found that sellers' previous purchase price affects not only the buyers' and sellers' offers and expectations, but also the final outcome¹⁹³. Yet another experimental study found that high uncertainty elicited high first offers, increased duration and impeded negotiation efficiency. Higher reservation prices decreased duration, increased negotiation efficiency, and raised joint gains.¹⁹⁴

Most of the studies in this vein look as distributive negotiations, using negotiations scripts in experiments that are apparently relatively simplistic. Moran and Ritov (2002) focused on the potential role of first offers in developing integrative agreements. They were unable to state that logrolling (i.e. concessions on low priority issues in exchange for gains on more important matters) offers were judged more attractive than distributive offers or implied a message of cooperation, or that logrolling offers were more likely to promote greater understanding of mutual interests (i.e. affect fixed pie presumptions). They did find, however, that logrolling offers established within-issue anchors, i.e. logrolling offers affected counter-offers (beyond effects of initial values)¹⁹⁵.

¹⁸⁹ Butler, J. 1999. Trust expectations, information sharing, climate of trust, and negotiation effectiveness and efficiency. *Group & Organization Management*, 24(2):217-238.

¹⁹⁰ Murnighan, K., Babcock, L., Thompson, L. & Pillutla, M. 1999. The information dilemma in negotiations: effects of experience, incentives and integrative potential. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10(4):313-339.

¹⁹¹ Van Bove, L., Gilovich, T. & Husted Medvec, V. 2003. The illusion of transparency in negotiations. *Negotiation Journal*, 19(2):117-131.

¹⁹² Galinsky, A. & Mussweiler, T. 2001. First offers as anchors: the role of perspective-taking and negotiator focus. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(4):657.

¹⁹³ Diekmann, K., Tenbrunsel, A., Pri Pradhan, S., Schroth, H. & Bazerman, M. 1996. The descriptive and prescriptive use of previous purchase price in negotiations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 66(2):179-191.

¹⁹⁴ Srivastava, J., Chakravarti, D. & Rapoport, A. 2000. Price and margin negotiations in marketing channels: an experimental study of sequential bargaining under one-sided uncertainty and opportunity cost of delay. *Marketing Science*, 19(2):163-184.

¹⁹⁵ Moran, S. & Ritov, I. 2002. Initial perceptions in negotiations: evaluation and response to "logrolling" offers. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 15(2):101-124.

Anchoring is thus an important aspect of negotiations, setting the stage for offers and counteroffers. Kristensen and Gärling (1997) found that anchor points (i.e. seller's initial offer) and reference points (reservation price) jointly influence counteroffers. When buyers perceived the initial offer as a gain rather than as a loss, they bought at a higher price, there were fewer offers and fewer impasses¹⁹⁶. In a later article they (2000) noted that counteroffers were higher for a high rather than low anchor point (seller's initial offer), but also higher for a high reference point when the anchor point was perceived as a gain compared to a low reference point when the anchor point was perceived as a loss¹⁹⁷. Galinsky et al. (2002) found that focusing on target price (i.e. ideal outcomes) leads to objectively superior performance than focusing on lower bound (reservation price). Interestingly, subjective (i.e. perceived) outcomes were lower, though¹⁹⁸. The type of transaction also impacts first offers. In captive transactions, Blount et al. (1996) found that contextual cues determined the extent to which market information versus reservation values influenced outcomes. When negotiators believed that there was little variation in market price, market information influenced outcomes more than private reservation values¹⁹⁹.

Effects of anchoring points in experiments may not provide an entirely truthful picture of real life situations, though. Rather than using increasing profit schedules, Ritov (1996) studied the effect of reversed payoff schedules (i.e. a payoff lists starting with the lowest profit level). Under such circumstances, the advantage of the buyer often observed in previous research was inverted. It was also found that offers made by negotiators with decreasing profit schedules were higher than those made by negotiators with increasing profit schedules²⁰⁰.

Counteroffers as the negotiation proceeds are also important. Kwon and Weingart (2004) argue that the timing of the other party's concessions (immediate, gradual, delayed) and justifications for concessions (negotiator skills or external constraints) impact negotiator satisfaction. Their experimental findings indicate that delayed concessions led to higher satisfaction than immediate concessions, although the highest satisfaction was reported for gradual concessions. When concessions were made immediately by sellers, buyers were likely to attribute this to the value of the object being low, rather than believing any statements regarding the buyer's negotiation skills²⁰¹.

2.4.5 *Tactics*

Negotiation tactics were much in focus in the negotiation literature a few decades ago. Today they are stressed less and less, although a few articles have here been found dealing explicitly with negotiation tactics.

¹⁹⁶ Kristensen, H. & Gärling, T. 1997. The effects of anchor points and reference points on negotiation process and outcome. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 71(1):85-94.

¹⁹⁷ Kristensen, H. & Gärling, T. 2000. Anchor points, reference points, and counteroffers in negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 9(6):493-505.

¹⁹⁸ Galinsky, A., Mussweiler, T. & Husted Medvec, V. 2002. Disconnecting outcomes and evaluations: the role of negotiator focus. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(5):1131ff.

¹⁹⁹ Blount, S., Thomas-Hunt, M. & Neale, M. 1996. The price is right - or is it? A reference point model of two-party price negotiations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 68(1):1-12.

²⁰⁰ Ritov, I. 1996. Anchoring in simulated competitive market negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67(1):16-25.

²⁰¹ Kwon, S. & Weingart, L. 2004. Unilateral concessions from the other party: concession behavior, attributions, and negotiation judgements. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(2):263-278.

One study focused on the influence of strategically displaying emotions and what effect this has on negotiation outcomes. Negotiators displaying positive emotions were more likely than those displaying negative or neutral emotions to incorporate a future business relationship as part of the outcome of the negotiation, and were more likely to close the deal. Negotiators also made more extreme demands when faced with a negotiator displaying negative emotions, while displaying positive emotions was more likely to result in the other party making concessions²⁰².

Yet another study addressed the well known good-cop/bad-cop tactic. It was found that employing this tactic actually led to greater likelihood of offers being accepted, although only in the traditional order, i.e. starting with the “bad cop” and following up with the “good cop”²⁰³.

Sinaceur and Neale (2005) studied timing and implicitness of threats in negotiations as a way of influencing the other party's response. The types of threats that elicited the greatest concessions were those that were early and implicit or late and explicit. Early and explicit, and late and implicit threats were less effective in eliciting concessions²⁰⁴.

There are also less questionable tactics (or strategies discussed) in the literature. E.g, Butler (1996) presents two strategies for integrative negotiations, logrolling and bridging. Logrolling is when each party sacrifices lesser important interests to obtain more important outcomes. Bridging entails redefining initial positions²⁰⁵.

2.4.6 *Negotiator behaviours during the negotiation*

In addition to negotiation tactics, there are other types of behaviours exhibited during negotiations that have interested scholars.

Vuolela (2005) studied the use of humour in negotiations. It was found that internal negotiations featured more use of humour than client (i.e. external, here international) negotiations. The most common objects of humour were national characteristics, the project itself and the selling activities. Ironic expressions and jokes expressing incongruity were the most common forms of jokes. Irony was used more cautiously in client negotiations than in internal meetings, though. Joking was also attached to power, both regarding who made jokes and whose jokes were laughed at²⁰⁶.

Consumption of alcohol in connection with negotiations is the topic of an article by Schweitzer and Kerr (2000). They noted that inebriated negotiators used more aggressive tactics than those who were sober. The former were also more likely to insult, mislead and threaten the other party. The authors therefore argue that consuming alcohol increases the risks of making mistakes and decreases chances of integrative solutions, the latter partly

²⁰² Kopelman, S., Shelby Rosette, A. & Thompson, L. 2006. The three faces of Eve: strategic displays of positive, negative, and neutral emotions in negotiations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 99(1):81-101.

²⁰³ Brodt, S. & Tuchinsky, M. 2000. Working together but in opposition: an examination of the "good-cop/bad-cop" negotiating team tactic. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 81(2):155-177.

²⁰⁴ Sinaceur, M. & Neale, M. 2005. Not all threats are created equal: how implicitness and timing affect the effectiveness of threats in negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14:63-85.

²⁰⁵ Butler, J. 1996. Two integrative win-win negotiating strategies. *Simulation & Gaming*, 27(3):387ff.

²⁰⁶ Vuolela, T. 2005. Laughing matters: a case study of humor in multicultural business negotiations. *Negotiation Journal*, 21(1):105-130.

because inebriated negotiators are less likely to see the other party's point of view. Inebriated negotiators are, thus, less efficient as negotiators, all as indicated by their study. Alcohol also serves to increase the self-confidence of negotiators, making them believe that they are more effective than they are. Sober negotiators did very poorly when negotiating with someone who was drunk, though²⁰⁷.

Lying is another type of behaviour apparently common to negotiations. Aquino and Becker (2005) found this to lead to distress, but people use different neutralisation strategies to manage this distress. When people felt high levels of distress, one strategy was to deny that they were lying (i.e., there was a correlation between distress and denial). The climate of the organisation and the consequences of lying impacted the level of minimization of the lie, though. Liars, however, engaged in less minimisation than those who merely concealed information²⁰⁸. Burr (2001) argues for candour in negotiations, which, if reciprocated, builds trust and increases the effectiveness of commercial negotiations²⁰⁹. Similarly, Cohen (2002) argues that ethical behaviour (regarding deception, disclosure, fairness and fidelity) on behalf of negotiators is not self-sacrificing, since it usually prompts the other party's cooperation²¹⁰.

Other types of activities have also been studied in regard to negotiations. Gimenez (2000) studied how negotiators keep track of what goes on during negotiations and found that most negotiators prepare in writing, take notes during the negotiation, and write down summaries of outcomes²¹¹.

2.5 Negotiation outcomes

The aim of this section is not to discuss what leads to certain negotiation outcomes. Such discussions can be found in the previous sections, dealing with the negotiation context (2.2), the negotiating parties and their relationship (2.3) and the negotiation process (2.4). Rather, here the outcome as a variable is discussed, with a focus on definitions of negotiation outcomes and mathematical modelling of negotiations.

2.5.1 *Definitions of outcomes*

There are different types of negotiation outcomes present in negotiation research. These can be said to break down into five main categories.

1. Outcomes are often expressed in economic or mathematical terms. This is typically the case when scholars attempt to find a connection between negotiators characteristics or behaviours and the share of the bargaining zone captured. Typically, distributive negotiations are in focus, with a small number of negotiation issues, since outcomes of multi-issue negotiations and integrative negotiations become complex or even impossible to characterise in such terms. This may be termed objective outcomes.

²⁰⁷ Schweitzer, M. & Kerr, J. 2000. Bargaining under the influence: the role of alcohol in negotiations. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(2):47-57.

²⁰⁸ Aquino, K. & Becker, T. 2005. Lying in negotiations: how individual and situational factors influence the use of neutralization strategies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(6):661ff.

²⁰⁹ Burr, A. 2001. Ethics in negotiation: does getting to yes require candor? *Dispute Resolution Journal*, 56(2):8-15.

²¹⁰ Cohen, J. 2002. The ethics of respect in negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 18(2):115-120.

²¹¹ Gimenez, J.C. 2000. Putting it in black and white: the role of writing in business negotiations. *Journal of Language for International Business*, 11(1):17ff.

2. Another form of objective outcome measure is whether the negotiation ends in agreement (i.e. not being concerned with what that agreement looks like) or impasse. Here both distributive and integrative negotiations may be in focus. This may also be combined with other outcome measures.
3. Also more subjective outcome measures are used. Typically, negotiators are asked to state whether they are happy with the outcome (or process), or what their perceptions of the outcome are. However, expressing negotiation outcomes in affective rather than monetary terms has been found to lead to longer negotiation times and higher likelihood of impasse. It also leads to higher levels of emotional involvement but lower levels of trust and cooperation²¹². Again, both distributive and integrative negotiations may be in focus.
4. Negotiation efficiency is another important negotiation outcome measurement, although here the *type of process* is considered an outcome variable. E.g., length of negotiation and number of iterations (bids, concessions) are in focus. Also here, distributive and integrative negotiations may be in focus, although this also depends on the efficiency measure employed.
5. As noted above, the type of negotiation process can be seen as a negotiation outcome. A specific case concerns whether the negotiation ends up being integrative or distributive in nature, or whether an integrative or distributive agreement is reached.

2.5.2 *Mathematical modelling*

One area that deserves mentioning, although perhaps not in focus in any project developed by SILF Negotiation Institute, is mathematical modelling of negotiations and their outcomes. A lot of models, often game-theoretic in nature, have been developed over the years. No less than 15 articles were found using this approach.

Topics addressed include, e.g., models of negotiation support²¹³ multi-party negotiations²¹⁴, multi-stage negotiations²¹⁵, multiple-issue (multiple target) negotiations²¹⁶, alternative bid evaluation²¹⁷ and other issues²¹⁸. Some models are also concerned with the negotiation

²¹² Conlon, D. & Shelton Hunt, C. 2002. Dealing with feeling: the influence of outcome representations on negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(1):38-58.

²¹³ Kersten, G. 2001. Modelling distributive and integrative negotiations. Review and revised characterization. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 10(6):493-514. Ehtamo, H. & Hämäläinen, R. 2001. Interactive multiple-criteria methods for reaching Pareto optimal agreements in negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 10(6):475-491.

²¹⁴ Ehtamo, H., Kettunen, E. & Hamalainen, R. 2001. Searching for joint gains in multi-party negotiations. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 130(1):54-69. Heiskanen, P., Ehtamo, H. & Hamalainen, R. 2001. Constraint proposal method for computing Pareto solutions in multi-party negotiations. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 133(1):44-61.

²¹⁵ John, R. & Raith, M. 2001. Optimizing multi-stage negotiations. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 45(2):155-173.

²¹⁶ Klein, M., Faratin, P., Sayama, H. & Bar-Yam, Y. 2003. Negotiating complex contracts. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 12(2):111-125. Zhu, J. 2004. A buyer-seller game model for selection and negotiation of purchasing bids: extensions and new models. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 154(1):150-156

²¹⁷ Talluri, S. 2002. A buyer-seller game model for selection and negotiation of purchasing bids. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 143(1):171-180.

process. E.g., Bac (2001) demonstrates that creative negotiation efforts intensify towards the deadline, which is determined by the tension between creating more value and reaping the benefits gained²¹⁹. Cunyat (2004) shows that a negotiator optimally chooses an intermediate degree of irrevocability provided the costs of increasing the degree of commitment are small enough. In this case, not only an immediate agreement is reached but also the commitment is effective²²⁰. Tajima and Fraser (2001) present a model for logrolling procedure in a negotiation based on the exchange of two issues, aiming at reaching pareto optimal negotiation outcomes²²¹.

²¹⁸ Busch, L-A. & Wen, Q. 2001. Negotiation games with observable mixed disagreement actions. *Journal of Mathematical Economics*, 35(4):563-579. Tohmé, F. 2002. Negotiation and defeasible decision making. *Theory and Decision*, 53(4):289-311. Calabuig, V., Cunyat, A. & Olcina, G. 2002. Commitment and choice of partner in a negotiation with a deadline. *Spanish Economic Review*, 4:61-78.

²¹⁹ Bac, M. 2001. On creating value and claiming value in negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 10(3):237-251.

²²⁰ Cunyat, A. 2004. The optimal degree of commitment in a negotiation with a deadline. *Economic Theory*, 23:455-465.

²²¹ Tajima, M. & Fraser, N. 2001. Logrolling procedure for multi-issue negotiation. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 10(3):217-235.

Part III – Some thoughts regarding future research

The aim of the third part of this report is to present and discuss some thoughts regarding future research. In doing so, it draws on insights gained in previous two sections of this report. It also draws on discussions of research methodology present in some of the reviewed articles (see 3.1), since these will be helpful in guiding the design of future research projects.

3.1 Negotiation research methodology

Among the 263 articles studied for this report, there is a sizeable body dealing with negotiation research methodology. Additionally, many of the articles that do not have a methodological focus still make comments regarding research methods. Much of this literature is relevant for the creation of negotiation research projects. Largely, those articles most relevant for this report deal with methods of data collection and the selection of research subjects or respondents. Occasionally, one can also find contributions that focus on analysis.

Simulation and experimentation are the most common methods of studying negotiation behaviours and outcomes, although a wide variety of approaches can be found in this area²²². There are, however, alternative approaches suggested by other scholars, methods including e.g. observations²²³, action research²²⁴, other “ethnographic” approaches²²⁵ and discourse analysis²²⁶.

Scholars are increasingly arguing that traditional experimental research tends to decontextualise the negotiation and that simple manipulation of issues (such as, e.g., presence or absence of communication²²⁷) provides a very incomplete picture of the essence of negotiations. A strong reliance on simplified “contextual factors” (such as cultural characteristics, negotiator predispositions) provides a very narrow understanding of negotiations, and typically fails to recognise the social context of the negotiation²²⁸. Theories of negotiation interaction might be one way of gaining greater understanding²²⁹. Indeed, while negotiations arguably occur in a context, negotiations also create their own context, and the fruitfulness of experimental designs can be questioned. Donohue (2004) therefore argues that more interpretive research can be one way of reaching greater understanding about negotiations.

²²² De Dreu, C. & Carnevale, P. 2005. Disparate methods and common findings in the study of negotiations. *International Negotiation*, 10(1):193-203. Wilkenfeld, J. 2004. Reflections on simulation and experimentation in the study of negotiation. *International Negotiation*, 9(3):429-439.

²²³ Harwood, T. 2002. Business negotiations in the context of strategic relationship development. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 20(6):336-348.

²²⁴ Akdere, M. 2003. The action research paradigm: an alternative approach in negotiation. *Systemic Practice and Action Research*, 16(5):339-354.

²²⁵ Friedman, R. 2004. Studying negotiations in context: an ethnographic approach. *International Negotiation*, 9(3):375-384. Putnam, L. 2003. Dialectical tensions and rhetorical tropes in negotiation. *Organization Studies*, 25(1):35-53.

²²⁶ Putnam, L. 2005. Discourse analysis: mucking around with negotiation data. *International Negotiation*, 10(1):17-32.

²²⁷ Donohue, W. 2003. The promise of an interaction-based approach to negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3/4):167-176.

²²⁸ Kumar, R. & Worm, V. 2004. Institutional dynamics and the negotiation process: comparing India and China. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3):304-334.

²²⁹ Donohue, W. 2003. The promise of an interaction-based approach to negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3/4):167-176.

Another important methodological issue concerns the choice of measures for negotiation performance. Clyman and Tripp (2000) explore the literature on negotiations to demonstrate that what researchers measure as good performance may not be what negotiators themselves consider good performance²³⁰. This means that sometimes researchers draw the conclusion that a poor result has been achieved when negotiators are actually quite happy with the outcome. At other times, negotiators are believed to be quite pleased with the result, e.g. when it can be demonstrated objectively that a large share of the negotiation pie has been captured, even if negotiators themselves perceive the outcome to be poor. A way of overcoming this can be to utilise both objective and subjective outcome measures simultaneously.

The choice of research subjects or respondents has also raised some attention. As demonstrated in the first part of this report, much of the research in the negotiation area is experimental in nature, relying primarily on students as research subjects. Similar observations have also been made by others. E.g., Ramsay (2004) notes that the academic negotiation literature is dominated by studies of American undergraduate psychology students²³¹. The rationale for using students is ease of access (since researchers in the area are usually also teachers, who, consequently, have access to large groups of students). There is some discussion whether negotiation behaviour of students accurately reflects negotiation behaviour of “real” negotiators. In fact, the bargaining behaviour of students has been shown to differ significantly from that of professionals (Fouraker and Siegel, 1963, in Zarkada-Fraser et al., 1998), something that applies also to students with some business experience (Zarkada-Fraser et al., 1998). Some scholars, thus, question the validity of experimental findings relying on students as research subjects, even though this approach is established practice.

3.2 Recommendations for future research

Through its courses in business negotiations, *SILF Negotiation Institute* has access to a vast pool of research subjects. This generates a number of potential advantages over most of the research conducted, advantages that should be exploited. Recommendations for research projects below either aim to consolidate existing thinking on business negotiations, extend findings from other cultural settings to the Swedish context, or aim to extend the general knowledge of business negotiations.

- Business people rather than students as research subjects

The most obvious advantage is the possibility to study negotiation behaviour of actual negotiators rather than studying the negotiation behaviour of students. Since relatively extensive background data concerning course participants can be collected, a great deal of those studies reported in part two where students are research subjects, can be repeated using negotiators as research subjects.

- Salespeople and purchasers as research subjects

²³⁰ Clyman, D. & Tripp, T. 2000. Discrepant values and measures of negotiator performance. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 9(4):251-274.

²³¹ Ramsay, J. 2004. Serendipity and the realpolitik of negotiation in supply chains. *Supply Chain Management*, 9(3):219-229.

SILF Negotiation Institute's negotiation courses are aimed both at salespeople and purchasers. This fact should be exploited to identify differences in negotiation aims, behaviours etc. between these groups.

- The Swedish context

Negotiation behaviour is often claimed to be culture-specific (see e.g. 2.2.2), and more than one-third of the articles studied here are, at least to some extent, based on that assumption. At the same time, some cultural contexts are studied at the expense of others. The single most studied context is the U.S., although most of this research does not stress the country culture aspect. The best studied context where the national culture aspect is stressed is China. The Swedish context, though, is nearly absent in research, with only two articles identified where Swedish negotiators (students and managers) constitute the empirical material. It is, therefore, suggested that attempts are made to extend findings from other contexts to the Swedish context. Exactly which of the variables raised in the second part of the report that should be in focus must, of course, be determined in connection with the design of each study.

- Potential areas of study and measures

Compare how negotiators act prior to receiving negotiation training compared to how negotiators negotiate after negotiation training. Employing multiple negotiation scenarios within the same negotiation course provides opportunities to compare how negotiation behaviour changes with training. This also offers a better method of course evaluation than simply asking course participants regarding their perceptions concerning course quality of perceptions regarding improvements in negotiation skills.

Is it possible to teach people to act competitively and cooperatively? As part of the above mentioned area of study, it would also be interesting to see how training should be designed to help improve course participants' competitive and collaborative skills. E.g., can people, through negotiation training, learn assertive behaviour, how to probe and test the other party's limits, etc.?

The connection between purchasing strategy and negotiation strategy/behaviour. If purchasing negotiators ensure that their negotiation strategy (or behaviour) strictly matches their purchasing strategy, does this lead to better outcomes and a more coherent negotiation process? I.e., it would be interesting to explore if coherence between choice of strategy and behaviour can be connected to outcomes.

How easy is it to actually follow planned negotiation strategy? E.g., even if negotiators may devise collaborative plans, do they still tend to act competitively under certain conditions? Factors, both connected to the negotiators and the process, that prevent the implementation of negotiation plans are relevant to identify.

Subjective and objective outcome and process measures. Negotiation scenarios should be employed where both perceived success and more objective success (process and outcome) are measured. As noted previously, negotiators may not necessarily agree with those constructing negotiation scenarios concerning what constitutes successful negotiations.

In addition to studying negotiations using scenarios in an experimental setting, the possibilities of exploiting negotiation course participants in other ways should be explored.

- Real-life negotiations

Many weaknesses of simulated negotiations are reported in the literature, including e.g. simplified bargaining processes with known potential outcomes, clearly defined objectives, limited time frames compared to real life negotiations, small and static delegations that cannot access experts or data outside the scenario material and so on. Studying real life negotiations through observations could generate new insights into the importance and uses of data and experts, the defining and redefining of negotiation objectives and so on that experiments can never achieve. There is an obvious difficulty in involving course participants in research programmes, though. Achieving this requires a great deal of trust between the negotiator and researcher. Quite possibly, negotiation courses can be one venue where such trust can begin to be established.

- The interaction process

Sequential negotiation episodes. Scenarios have one major weakness not discussed above. They tend to assume that a negotiation is a one-time event. In real life, negotiations frequently consist of sequential episodes, which may be separated by days, weeks, months etc. What goes on during negotiations can, thus, partly be understood by what goes on between negotiation sessions. The possibilities of following a negotiating team within the frame of one (or several related) business deals for a longer period of time might, therefore, yield important insights into negotiation processes not achieved through typical scenario experiments. Either a negotiation researcher would be present during sequential negotiations, or negotiators would be asked to keep a protocol of their actions.

Negotiations within established relations. Although there are many studies focusing on the relationships between the negotiation parties, there appears to be an assumption in the negotiation literature that negotiations typically take place between parties previously largely unknown to each other (although there are some exceptions, see e.g. 2.3.3). I.e., the relationship is seen as starting with the negotiation. In real life, there no reason to assume that this is the case. To the contrary, a large portion of negotiations take place within the frame of established relationships, where negotiating is one form of interaction between the parties of the relationship. Relationships are also not static, i.e. they evolve over time, as parties interact and get to know each other. Exploring this dimension would likely further knowledge about real life negotiations and address the lack of congruence between the practice-oriented negotiation literature and the literature on negotiations in an inter-organisational context, where the former is focused on conflict, tactics and distributive bargaining, while the latter – also more limited in number of publications – is focused around cooperation and integrative negotiations²³². To a large extent, this approach also addresses the criticism that negotiation research decontextualises the negotiation.

²³² Ramsay, J. 2004. Serendipity and the realpolitik of negotiation in supply chains. *Supply Chain Management*, 9(3):219-229.

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