



universität
wien

MASTERARBEIT / MASTER'S THESIS

Titel der Masterarbeit / Title of the Master's Thesis

„ Correlation between the negotiator's culture and the
strategy of the negotiation “

verfasst von / submitted by

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angestrebter akademischer Grad / in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science (MSc)

Wien, 2021 / Vienna 2021

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme code as it appears on
the student record sheet:

UA 066 914

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt /
degree programme as it appears on
the student record sheet:

Internationale Betriebswirtschaft

Betreut von / Supervisor:

o. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Rudolf Vetschera

Abstract

This thesis is tackling the subject of how different cultures affect international negotiations and more specifically how culture influences the choice of negotiation strategies.

There exists vast research on the effects of culture on the choice of strategy in international negotiations, but very little research has been conducted comparing results from multiple studies regrouping data from eight different cultural regions. The research shows that Business people from China, South-East Asia, the Slavic region, Northern and Southern Europe, the USA, Canada and Latin America react differently in different negotiation settings. This thesis shows the differences and the reasons behind them

A thorough literature review is presented regarding the subject of international negotiation strategies and the impact of culture thereon. A few studies related to the research question are also being analyzed. In a second part, a meta-analysis is being conducted using data from seven studies that have been collected over a period of more than twenty years. Although only a limited number of results are statistically conclusive, this thesis shows how different negotiation strategies are used amongst different cultures. It may also contribute to future research by targeting and answering the questions that researchers should ask themselves to achieve more conclusive results.

Abstrakt

Diese Masterarbeit beschäftigt sich mit der Frage, wie sich unterschiedliche Kulturen auf internationale Verhandlungen auswirken und insbesondere, wie Kultur die Wahl der Verhandlungsstrategie beeinflusst.

Trotz der umfangreichen Forschung zu den Auswirkungen von Kultur auf die Wahl der Strategie in internationalen Verhandlungen wurden nur sehr wenige Untersuchungen zum Vergleich der Ergebnisse mehrerer Studien durchgeführt, in denen Daten aus acht verschiedenen Kulturregionen zusammengefasst wurden. Die Untersuchung zeigt, dass Geschäftsleute aus China, Südostasien, dem slawischen Raum, Nord- und Südeuropa, den USA, Kanada und Lateinamerika in unterschiedlichen Verhandlungssituationen unterschiedlich reagieren. Diese Arbeit zeigt die Unterschiede und die Gründe dafür auf.

Zunächst wird eine gründliche Literaturrecherche zum Thema internationale Verhandlungsstrategien sowie Kultur vorgestellt. Auch einige Studien zu der Forschungsfrage werden analysiert. In einem zweiten Teil wird eine Metaanalyse mit Daten aus sieben Studien durchgeführt, die über einen Zeitraum von mehr als zwanzig Jahren gesammelt wurden. Obwohl nur eine begrenzte Anzahl von Ergebnissen statistisch schlüssig ist, zeigt diese Arbeit, wie unterschiedliche Verhandlungsstrategien in verschiedenen Kulturen verwendet werden. Es ist ebenfalls zu hoffen, dass bei zukünftigen Forschungen diese Arbeit dazu beitragen wird, die Fragestellungen derart zu orientieren, dass schlüssigere Ergebnisse erzielt werden können.

Key words: International negotiations, culture, negotiation strategies

Acknowledgement

Writing this thesis took a long time and would not have been possible without the constant support and encouragement I have received from people around me.

First and foremost, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, o. Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Rudolf Vetschera of the Department of Business Decisions and Analytics of the University of Vienna. The door to professor Vetschera's office was always open and he always took time to answer my many questions and guide my thought-, research-, and writing process either via email or during a skype call if needed. I would like to thank you very much for your help, your advice, feedback, and support over the last months.

I would like to acknowledge my fellow students who were writing their own thesis at the same time as me and who were always helpful and encouraging.

A special thank you goes to my good friend and fellow student Iman Saïd who gave me advice and direction on processes to follow. Another special thank you goes to my best friend Julia Hebbrecht who took time to explain the basics of the "R" program I used for the meta-analysis of this thesis. I also would like to thank my boyfriend Saahil Sharma for helping me set writing goals and holding me accountable. Thank you to all my other friends who constantly sent encouragement my way and asked how my thesis was coming along.

Finally, I would like to express my unfailing gratitude towards my family. Thank you to my father for enabling me to study and pursue my dreams, thank you to both my parents, my step-mother, my brother, and my sister for their continuous support. Each one of you encouraged and pushed me in their own way and I am grateful for all of you.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

Negotiations are an integral part of life. From the youngest age, children start negotiating with their parents in order to receive something they might want. From then on, bargaining never really stops and it gets applied to many more parts of life. It can occur for personal reasons with another individual, in the business world or in politics (Forsyth, 2009). Bargaining is very complex and is unique to every situation. Even when bargaining for the same reason, there are many ways to do it and several possible outcomes. Something as “normal” as buying a car and negotiating the price can be incredibly unique. Depending on your negotiation counterpart, his or her strategy, his or her reactions, your strategy and preparation, things can go many different ways (Graham et.al, 2020).

Negotiations are also an important part of business. Bargaining in business is used in many different situations and is key to a successful business (Michael, 2009). Business negotiations can occur between a company and a supplier (Reimann et al., 2016), it can occur internally when employees have their salary talk (Säve-Söderbergh, 2019) with their managers or it could happen when one company is acquiring another company (Ahammad et al., 2016). Negotiations play a key role in the success of a business, and one needs to prepare properly in order to enhance the chances of a successful negotiation (Micheal, 2009).

Today’s world is more connected than ever, the world exports have risen from one percent of the world’s GDP to thirty one percent between the years 1820 and 2014 (Ghemawat 2016). After a fall of 5,3% in 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, world trade is expected to increase by 8.0% by 2021 (WTO, 2021). Between 2005 and 2013 the international internet bandwidth has multiplied by eight and a half times (Ghemawat 2016). Economic globalization has intensely changed the world and especially the business world since the 1980s. Firms have rapidly branched out internationally thanks to the democratization of the free-market ideology and neoliberal way of thinking that comes with it. With that, markets have become increasingly international and enabled the internationalization of production-, supply- and value chains further. (Djelic, M-L & Quack, S.2018). Between 2007 and 2017 the world export of services has grown from three trillion dollars to over five trillion dollars (Tamer Cavusgil et.al., 2019). The process of globalization has brought a depth of complexity to a field that is not straight forward to begin with. Businesses need to learn about their customer’s needs and their competition to have a chance of being successful. Most importantly businesses need to deal with challenges that arise with operating in a connected and international environment (Tamer Cavusgil et.al., 2019).

Examples of challenges international businesses face are political risks, the complexity of the supply chains and difficulty in communicating easily due to cultural differences. (Reynolds 2017).

As mentioned above, cultural differences are an important challenge, international companies are faced with. A predominant part of business and commercial relations between different countries are face-to-face negotiations (Campbell et al., 1988). This adds another layer of difficulty to the complexity of business negotiations. When taking part in an international negotiation two different cultures are facing each other and this can lead to misunderstandings and miscommunication. Hofstede's cultural dimensions are one way of explaining the challenges that can be faced. An example of how the cultural dimensions play a role in international negotiations could be that in some cultures, it is viewed as a sign of respect to give someone more time and another culture could interpret this as a waste of their time as two cultures can either have a long-term or a short-term orientation to time and planning (Pop-Flanja, 2015).

The problem that is being researched in this thesis involves international negotiations and its challenges. Negotiators are often faced with an added layer of difficulty when negotiating with someone from a different culture. It is important to understand those difficulties in order to be able to choose the right strategy for each individual negotiation. This will enable the negotiator to have the best possible outcome, meaning to achieve the envisaged goals and thus have a better level of satisfaction and reach higher profits.

1.1 Statement of the problem:

The problem that many negotiators face is a lack of understanding of different cultures, and the implications these cultures might have on a negotiator's strategy and thus on the outcome of the negotiation. The problem can be divided into three main areas. The first one would be culture and the differences there can be between various cultures, even cultures that can be considered as similar. The second area is international business negotiations and more specifically, the strategies one can use and what needs to be taken into consideration in order to choose an appropriate strategy. Last but not least, the last area will examine how different cultures influence the choice of negotiation strategy and how different cultures might influence different strategies in different ways.

Culture has many different aspects to it and can be different from country to country, or even from region to region. Experts have studied culture in depth and identified several characteristics that make up one's culture. The best-known dimensions of culture are the six dimensions of the Hofstede Model: "Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, long term versus short term orientation and indulgence versus restraint." (Hofstede, 2011). In addition to that, someone can be part of a so-called high context or low-context culture. Those are two different cultural dimensions that make reference to how much information is explicitly communicated or how important the implicit message is communicated through contextual cues (Hall, 1976 as read in Adair et al., 2004).

Business people can choose from various strategies to conduct their negotiation and work towards their goal for the negotiation, whether it be an economic outcome or relational goal. Each strategy has advantages and disadvantages and should be adapted to each scenario. Each negotiator will have his or her own preference depending on what is at stake. Depending on the situation and on the priorities of each party, negotiators can choose to focus on a relationship or substantive goal. The relationship negotiators have today, and the desired relationship for the future with the negotiation counterpart are important criteria and are often overlooked. If acting in a certain way, choosing a certain strategy, is going to affect the current or future relationship, negotiators need to think about this beforehand in order to achieve the desired outcome. Either a relationship can be deepened which will ensure that there will be collaboration in the future, or it can be affected in a negative way and the negotiator risks compromising any future collaboration. Current relationships can also be abruptly stopped, and this might lead to the failure of the negotiation or the relationship can continue the way it is going or even improve, which will improve chances of conducting a successful negotiation.

In an international business negotiation, the involved parties each bring their cultural background and their cultural specificities with them. The involved business people will need to take into consideration how their culture is going to be perceived by their negotiation partner's culture and vice versa. This will have an effect on how the business person will act and communicate, what risks they will be taking, how formal they will be and ultimately, how they will choose their strategy for the negotiation (Salacuse, 2005). A strategy is going to be decided on factors stated above but also depending on the negotiator's culture. An example for this is that managers from Asia mostly opt for a compromising negotiation strategy and western managers use forcing negotiation styles more often than Asian managers (Wang 2005). In some cases, the choice of the opponents' strategy or negotiation style might be taken the wrong way and

lead to the abandonment of negotiations. This was the case when the managers from the American company Enron negotiated with Indian authorities and lost one of their big contracts due to a culture clash and due to the fact that the wrong strategy was chosen for the particular situation (Salacuse, 2005).

In international negotiations, negotiators will face challenges related to their opponents' culture and the clash between their own culture and the culture of the person they are negotiating with. Those aspects need to be studied carefully by the negotiators in order to increase the chances of achieving a successful negotiation outcome. At the same time, a negotiator's choice of strategy is decisive for the success of a negotiation.

1.2 Background and Need of this study:

Several studies have been conducted trying to answer the research problem of this thesis, but this study is combining information from several studies and gives the reader information gathered from many different countries and gathered over a span of over twenty years. Many studies research the effect of culture on negotiations and more specifically the effect of culture on negotiation strategies or their success. Unfortunately, those studies often use quite different methods which makes it very hard to compare studies between them. The studies that do use the same methods might look at quite different variables than the next one, which again doesn't make it possible to compare studies between them. The few research papers that use the same method and use the same core variables, still might differ in some ways, as some studies look at more or less variables. It is of importance to combine the results of the different studies so as to be able to have more certainty in the results as well as to be able to compare different cultural regions between them.

1.3 Research Question:

The research question that this thesis is addressing and trying to answer is encompassing all the elements stated above. My research question is: "How does the cultural background of a negotiator influence his/her strategy and success in intra-cultural negotiations?"

1.4 Purpose of this study:

The purpose of the study is to find out about the strategies used by business people, especially managers, while they are conducting intra-cultural negotiations. To find out about this, a meta-analysis has been conducted. This will enable a comparison between the chosen strategies from managers from one culture and the strategies, managers from other cultures haven chosen. This study is uncovering crucial information about negotiation strategies that members of specific cultures choose, compared to members from a different culture. This will be of help to managers who are and will be confronted to international negotiations and it will help them achieve their desired outcome. To my knowledge, no research study has conducted a meta-analysis combining as many results from buyer-seller negotiations in different cultures. Furthermore, this thesis includes studies that have been published over a period of 22 years and it regroups the studied countries into cultural regions which makes it easier to find results.

In order to conduct this meta-analysis, data from seven different studies is being used. Those studies have been published between 1988 and 2020. Those studies each look at intra-cultural buyer-seller negotiations conducted in a laboratory setting. Participants are always experienced business people. Specifically, the meta-analysis focuses on the problem-solving approach of negotiators, their interpersonal attraction, their profits and satisfaction.

The expected outcome is to find similarities and differences in the way the managers negotiate within different cultural regions. Furthermore, it would be interesting to find out if and how those differences affect the success of the negotiations in terms of profits and satisfaction.

1.5 Significance to the field:

This thesis is of importance as it will uncover valuable information that international companies and especially the managers working in the companies will be able to use. With the answer to the research question, business people will be able to prepare for their international negotiations in a better way, they will be informed about how members of a specific culture negotiate compared to members of several different cultures. This will allow managers to prepare in a very specific way. They will know more about possible scenarios and behaviors they might use without knowing it and they will learn about their opponents depending on their culture. This will be of value to companies in the short term as they will be able to apply the theoretical knowledge once they acquire it. It will also be of value to them in the longer term as the research will enable them to be more successful in negotiations and that will enhance manager's confidence

and bring them more experience in the field. Consequently, experience and confidence can lead to a multitude of successful international negotiations in the years to come and therefore a more successful business.

For the research literature it is significant as it will enable students and researchers to find information from several studies combined into one. This is going to save a lot of time and also give the person looking for information in this specific field a variety of information about negotiation strategies within different cultures.

Chapter 2 – Definitions

2.1. Culture:

Here are a few selected definitions of culture, they are very different from each other and are examples of the hundreds existing ones. As stated in the Merriam-Webster dictionary, culture is defined the following way: “the characteristic features of everyday existence (such as diversions or a way of life) shared by people in a place or time” (Merriam-Webster. (n.d.)). This definition, and especially “everyday existence” implies that humans are impacted by culture in daily actions. This could be things as simple as their language or food for example. Those actions are different for people in different regions of the world and in different time periods throughout history.

For Geert Hofstede “culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others” (Hofstede, 1980). Culture can also be defined as “a set of beliefs or standards, shared by a group of people, which help the individual decide what is, what can be, how one feels about it, what to do and how to go about doing it” (Goodenough, 1971, in Usunier, 2003 as read in Vetschera, 2019). According to Trompenaars, culture is composed of different layers. On its outset layer culture is: “the product of culture, like the soaring skyscrapers of Manhattan, pillars of private power, with congested public streets between them. These are expressions of deeper values and norms in a society that are not directly visible (values such as upward mobility, “the more-the-better”, status, material success).” In the deeper layers culture is “Values and norms are deeper within the “onion” and are more difficult to identify.” (Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. 2011).

Notwithstanding the many definitions for this single word, some common elements have been identified. Culture is seen as being a construct with multiple levels and it is common to persons being part of a society or a group. Furthermore, culture takes relatively long to form itself and it is stable (Taras, et al. 2009).

2.2 Negotiation:

Negotiation is being defined in various ways by several experts and researchers. One definition is the following: “Negotiation can be defined as a process through which two or more parties interact to create potential agreements intended to provide guidance and regulation to their future behavior” (Sawyer & Guetzkow, 1965). Another definition that seems very straight forward and applicable on a day-to-day level is this one: “Negotiation is a “ubiquitous social activity” that occurs “anytime people cannot achieve their goals without the cooperation of

others” (Thompson, Wang, & Gunia, 2010, p. 492). Negotiations usually involve different issues that must be agreed upon (Martin-Raugh, Kyllonen et.al, 2020).

Those definitions, as well as many others may define negotiations in different words and different levels of difficulty, but they all have a few shared components. A negotiation is only possible if there are at least two persons or two groups that both want different things and have different objectives and who both arrive at a decision together and both seem to always be dependent on each other, which means one cannot achieve their goals without the other or only very difficultly (Vetschera, 2019).

Chapter 3 – Review of the Literature

This thesis is going to be focusing on different ways culture can affect the negotiation strategy chosen by business people and its' effect on the success of said negotiation

Negotiations being an integral and a crucial part of leading businesses in a successful way, it is especially important that participants prepare well for each negotiation whether they are inexperienced or have a lot of experience negotiating with different negotiation counterparts (Michael, 2009). To negotiate with success, a lot of preparation is needed. One party should familiarize oneself with the negotiation counterpart, their company, their culture and their objective. Each party should ask themselves the right questions about their own interest and their counterpart's interests. It is important to know whether both sides are negotiating at the appropriate time, about the right things and whether they are adopting the appropriate approach to the negotiation. Having all this information will help the managers who are negotiating, take decisions on the suitable strategies they are going to be using to conduct the negotiation (Hughes & Ertel, 2020). For managers working for international companies, conducting negotiations often has an international aspect to it. This makes negotiations even more challenging than they already are when conducted between two parties who share the same culture. International negotiations bring a high chance of miscommunication and misunderstanding with them. Culture will play a role in the way business persons choose their strategy to conduct a negotiation (Salacuse, 2005).

For the first part of the review of the literature, there will be a focus on culture in general, its' dimensions and the consequences thereof on business relations. The second part will be a review on different negotiation strategies and their possible outcomes. Lastly, literature regarding the effects of culture on the process of negotiations and especially the choice of strategy, will be reviewed.

3.1 Culture

Like negotiations, culture is part of everyday life. Culture has been and still is the subject of many research studies. Different researchers have divided certain aspects of culture into so-called cultural dimensions. In the two last centuries societies were often ordered on a traditional to modern scale (Hofstede, 2011). Another way of describing culture would be the Group and Grid classification. This classification shows how cultures can be collectivized or individualized, meaning that the effect of the group can either be important or not as important in different

cultures. This classification also underlines the importance of rules in social interactions or the lack thereof. (Douglas 1973). Culture can also be divided into high-context and low-context cultures depending on if the people of the specific culture share information in a highly implicit way or if they are communicating in an explicit way (Hall, 1976). High context cultures heavily rely on implicit information transmission. This is done through “information stored in the central nervous system” (Bluedorn 1988). This means that a message is communicated through the context of the shared information rather than the words themselves. In low-context cultures, the message is communicated through explicit words rather than through the context. Typically, high-context cultures are also polychronic cultures and low-context cultures are monochronic cultures. People belonging to polychronic cultures tend to do several things at the same time, on the other hand, people who belong to monochronic cultures usually focus on one thing at the time (Bluedorn 1988).

Examples of high context cultures are Japan and Arab countries, and German speaking countries are low context cultures.



Figure 1. High/Low context by culture (Hall & Hall, 1990 as cited in Nishimura, S., Nevgi, A., & Tella, S. 2008).

Other, very well-known and accepted dimensions are the Hofstede dimensions. Dimensions are being defined as a part of a culture which can be compared to other cultures by measuring its' relative similarity or difference between the two cultures (Hofstede, 2011). Thanks to data collected in the 1970s from questionnaires filled-in by employees from 50 different countries

working at IBM, Geert Hofstede was able to define the first four of six dimensions. They are dimensions of national culture. Each dimension scores the country on a scale of 0 to 100 (MindTools Content Team, n.d.). The six dimensions are the following:

Power distance is described as the degree of acceptance, of members of the culture who might have a small amount of power, of the fact that power is in fact, distributed in a non-equal way. Cultures with a small power distance do not put special importance to the respect of elders and corruption is not common and if any political scandals happen, the politician is being obliged to end his or her career (Hofstede, 2011). An example of a low power distance culture is Sweden, its' power distance score is 31 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). In large power distance cultures, children are taught obedience by their parents and there is a big difference in incomes between different members of the specific culture (Hofstede, 2021). An example of a high power distance culture is China, its power distance score is 80 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Uncertainty avoidance is described as how tolerant toward ambiguity the culture is. It gives an indication on the level of comfort or discomfort experienced by members of a culture when being put in a new or surprising situation. Cultures that are avoiding uncertainty minimize the discomfort by regulating possible uncomfortable situations and applying laws for example. Countries with a low uncertainty avoidance score thrive in ambiguous and chaotic situations and don't like rules, whether they are written or assumed (Hofstede, 2011). An example of a culture with a weak uncertainty avoidance score is China, its' score is 30 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). On the other hand, cultures with a strong uncertainty avoidance score put a lot of importance on teachers and they are believed to have answers and often members of that culture stay in jobs even if they do not like them (Hofstede, 2011). An example of a culture with a high uncertainty avoidance score is Ghana. Its' score is 65 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Individualism versus collectivism is being described as the importance given to the integration of members of a culture into groups. Members of individualistic cultures are mostly taking care of themselves and members of their direct family whereas members of collectivistic cultures, people are born into close-knit extended family webs that takes care of them. On the other hand, loyalty is expected for this close and protecting network. For example, individualism means that members have a right to privacy, and it is viewed as healthy to speak up (Hofstede, 2011). An example of an individualistic culture is Sweden, with a score of 71 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). Cultures that lean more towards collectivism put a lot of importance on harmony within the group and relationships are more important than accomplishing tasks (Hofstede, 2011). An example for a collectivistic culture is Ghana, with a score of 15 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

The fourth dimension is Masculinity versus femininity and this dimension is about the values allocated to both genders. In some countries, masculinity, which is being defined as assertiveness and competitiveness, is low and there is little difference to values attributed to each gender, in other countries the difference is higher. Femininity is defined as modest and caring. Members of cultures with a low masculinity score find a work-family balance and mothers decide on the number of children they want to have. In cultures with a high masculinity score work prevails over family and fathers are trusted with facts and mothers have the responsibility of dealing with feelings (Hofstede, 2011). A culture with low masculinity is Sweden, its' masculinity score is 5 and a country with high masculinity is China, its' score is 66 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

The next two dimensions have been added and described together with Michael Minkov a few years ago (MindTools Content Team, n.d.)

Long-Term versus short-Term orientation is related to recent economic growth but mostly deals with what different cultures are most influenced by, the past or present and the future. The term long-Term Oriented cultures refers to ordering relationships depending on status, careful budgeting and hard work. For example, their family day-to-day life is regulated by tasks and members cultivate the idea that important events will be happening in the future. On the other hand, short-Term Orientation cultures are being described as the cultures with members who prioritize stability, cherish traditions and return social obligations. Examples of how members of those cultures might act are the fact that members are supposed to feel proud of their country and that they give importance to service to other members of their culture (Hofstede, 2011). Ghana is a culture with very low long-term orientation with a score of 5 and China is an example of a culture with very high long-term orientation with a score of 87 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

The last of Hofstede's cultural dimension is indulgence versus restraint. This dimension is related to happiness and gratification. Indulgent cultures are defined as the ones that allow desires of human nature to be lived and enjoyed. Restraint is defined as the control of the enjoyment of these desires by societal norms that are in place. Cultures with a high indulgence score are cultures in which members put a lot of importance on freedom of speech and where a relatively high number of people say they are very happy. On the other hand, cultures that are restrained and have a low indulgence score, have fewer members who are playing sports and members can feel helpless and feel that they have truly little control over what happens to them (Hofstede, 2011). Sweden is an example of a culture with a high indulgence score of 78 and

China or India are two examples of low indulgence cultures with scores of 24 and 26 respectively (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Even though culture is ever evolving it generally does not undermine the working of the cultural dimensions and is even helpful in understanding those changes and what they imply. There has been evidence that the positioning of countries within the dimensions, that is relative to the other countries, is staying the same since 1980. Events or occurrences that influence the world, such as new technologies, are, in most cases, happening all over the world and hence influence each culture and not just one. Therefore all cultures will change together if they change, their relative positioning will remain the same. This is likely to stay the same for years to come, only a very long period of time or “dramatic outside events” might invalidate the way the dimensions work today (Hofstede, 2011).

Regardless of the research study, culture is always viewed as multi-dimensional and complex. When looking at the different dimensions mentioned above, we can assume, that these are likely to influence one's behaviors and ways of thinking. This, in turn leads to the assumption that negotiators are likely to be influenced by culture when choosing a strategy for their negotiations. Different negotiation strategies will be presented in the following part, before reviewing literature that addresses very similar issues to the research question of this thesis, namely studies that address how culture influences the strategy of negotiations and specifically, the choice of the strategies.

3.2 Negotiation strategies

While conducting any kind of negotiation it is possible to adopt many different strategies. Some of them differ immensely while others are similar to each other. The strategy the negotiator uses must be adopted carefully and is dependent on the situation of the negotiator at the time of the negotiation.

There are single issue or multi-issue negotiations. Single issue negotiations happen when two parties negotiate about a single item, for example they might be negotiating its price. In that case, one party's interests are contrary to the other party's interests. In multiple-issue negotiations there is more than one item to be negotiated about. There are two or more items that need to be negotiated and they might be interrelated (Fatima, Kraus, Wooldridge, 2014).

When negotiating it is possible to be involved in a bilateral negotiation, a multi-bilateral negotiation and a multilateral negotiation. Each party can be one individual person or a team negotiating for themselves or it could be an individual person or a team representing someone else and negotiating on their behalf. Bilateral means that two parties are involved in the negotiation. A multi-bilateral negotiation happens when one party is negotiating with various parties at the same time. Finally, a multilateral negotiation is when there are more than two parties involved and they all negotiate among themselves at the same time. (Vetschera, 2019)

3.2.1 The Dual Concern Model (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1992).

The dual concern model derives from Blake and Mouton's (1982) conflict grid which is based on managers' concern for production versus their concern for people. This model views both concerns as opposing ends of the same dimension rather than seeing them as independent dimensions as the Dual Concern Model does. This strategy is all about measuring the amount of concern the negotiator has about his own outcome and the concern he has about the opposing party's outcome. This can either create a balance between both concerns or in other cases the concerns are very unbalanced. This model views both concerns as independent variables that are seen as weak or strong.

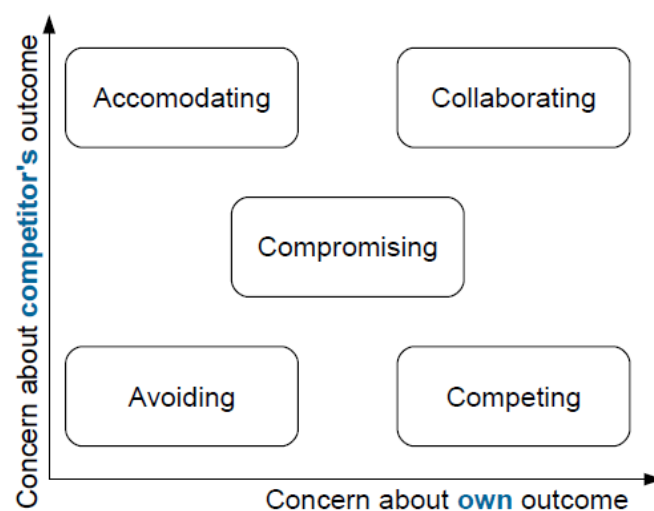


Figure 2 The Dual Concern Model (Vetschera, 2019)

As shown on figure 2 a negotiator who is only or mostly concerned about his own outcome is adopting a 'Competing' strategy. This means that the negotiator is wanting to receive all or

most of the resource that is disputed. This strategy is used by negotiators who need what they are competing for and who are greatly confident. It can also be used if it is necessary to make a choice quickly or if one side wants to impress the other party. The risks of this strategy would be that the relationship between both negotiating parties could suffer heavily. Furthermore, the negotiation risks being ended without an outcome as it can be an aggressive strategy.

A different strategy would be 'Avoiding' negotiation. This strategy is used when the negotiator is not concerned about his nor the competitor's outcome. In this case the conflict is ignored. This strategy is used in case of low confidence from the negotiator or if he is not interested in cooperating. This technique could be good if the negotiator in question has a low power level in the relationship or if the person simply wants to wait as he or she does not have enough information. The risks would be that the conflict does not get resolved and that one might lose the respect of the other party.

The third strategy, 'Accommodating' means the negotiator accepts the other party's conditions and agrees to their demands. This strategy is usually used by negotiators who lack self-confidence and are not very assertive or if the person or the party needs to find a quick solution. If the relationship is highly valued compared to the outcome of the negotiation, then this strategy is also a good solution especially if the accommodating party hopes to be treated the same way in return during the next negotiation. Being accommodating is risky as the party does not communicate their needs and interests which leads to an inefficient result. This means the other party could potentially make poor decisions from their point of view. This strategy also can lead both parties to expect certain untold behaviors in future negotiations.

'Collaborating' is the strategy used by negotiating parties that wish to find a solution that makes each negotiating party happy. It is used by negotiators who are concerned about both parties' outcomes and who are confident while wanting to cooperate. Collaborating is a good idea if both parties are concerned about the outcome and if the negotiators want to create value. It might be risky to adopt such a strategy as trust is a prerequisite for the strategy to be successful. Parties need to communicate honestly with each other and there is a risk of an "information dilemma" (Vetschera, 2019). Information dilemma refers to "information discrepancies" that exist due to lack of trust (Keck, 1987). This strategy also requires time.

Last but not least, the fifth possible strategy of the Dual Concern Model is 'Compromising'. As its name states this strategy calls for compromises. One negotiator gives in to issues regarding one point and stays firm in regard to another point and therefore receives. This is the best strategy to adopt if the negotiator is concerned about both parties' outcomes and is not willing to compete with the opposing side. Often when this strategy is adopted parties have

opposing interests which leads to the fact that quick and good solutions are needed. The risks of this strategy are the fact that finding compromises are a short-term solution and that some value gets lost for both parties (Vetschera, 2019).

As explained, the Dual Concern Model gives different possible strategies a negotiator can adopt depending on his concern for his own and his competitor's outcome. Savage et al. distinguishes between two types of outcome, the substantive, and the relational outcome. This means that in negotiations both parties need to prioritize either the relationship they have with the other party or the substantial outcome that they want and need to achieve through the negotiation (Savage et al., 1989).

The best strategy is determined by the kind of outcome one wants to achieve. A relationship outcome or a substantive outcome. Therefore, it is important to analyze the negotiations context. The relationship with the negotiation counterpart and the desired relationship for the future is important to keep in mind even though it is often overlooked. The desire to have and maintain a good relationship is related to the desire to achieve a good substantive outcome after the negotiation. In most cases, negotiations end up not being a win-win situation nor a win-lose situation but more of a combination of those scenarios (Savage et al., 1989).

Relative power shows how dependent one party is of the other. It is particularly important to understand if the relationship is based on dependence, independence, or interdependence. Dependence meaning that the negotiator does need someone else to reach his goal or get what he wants, independence would be the contrary, the negotiator does not need anyone else but himself to get the things he wants, and interdependence is the fact that both sides depend on each other to reach their goals which does not necessarily mean they work together with others to get what they want although it would be a good idea to do so (Eagletraining, 2019). From this knowledge it is possible to determine how the relationship can be tightened or weakened. The level of conflict can be translated by the way each party perceives the level of "supportiveness or hostility". It is important to understand how each party's interests differ and how big those differences are. Knowing this, it is also possible to determine how the relationship can be tightened or weakened. (Savage et al., 1989)

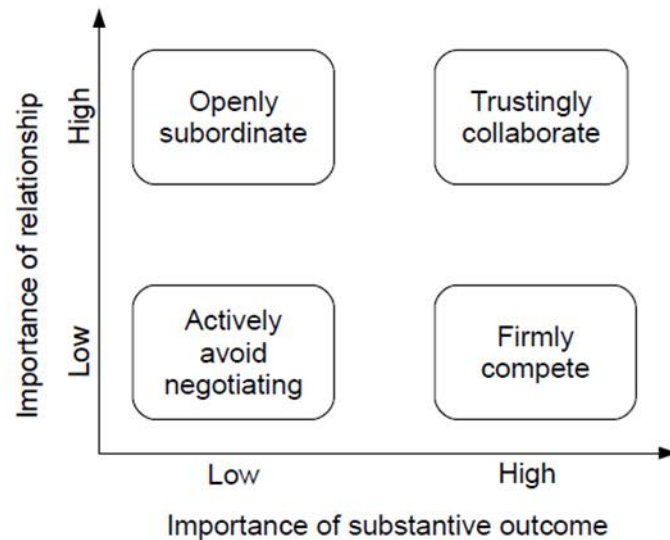


Figure 3 Substantive vs Relational outcome (Vetschera, 2019)

When choosing negotiation strategy, in order to choose a strategy to negotiate, a manager should know if the substantive aspect or the relationship aspect is more important to the organization.

For the first strategy, *trusting collaboration*, the relationship and the substantive outcome are of equal importance to the negotiator. Here collaboration of both negotiating sides is key. The ultimate goal is a win-win situation for both parties as well as the relationship and the substantive outcomes.

The next strategy, *open subordination*, is typically used when the relationship is far more important than the substantive outcome. This strategy makes the most sense in situations in which one side has little substantive outcomes to lose if they give in but can increase their interdependent relationships or weaken adverseness for example.

In the opposite scenario, if the substantive outcome is especially important compared to the relationship with the opposite party, then the strategy that should be used is *firm competition*. In this case it is important to understand that the outcome is likely to be a win-lose one and that the relationship be a neutral one at best in the future.

Finally, there is the *active avoidance* strategy. This strategy should be used in case the substantive outcome nor the relationship are important to the negotiator or his organization. (Savage et al., 1989)

Integrative and distributive strategies are two other possible strategies, negotiators can choose to follow. The wish to keep to and have a good relationship is related to the want to have a good

substantive outcome after the negotiation (Savage et al., 1989). Adopting a distributive strategy would be synonym to divide the resources between the parties and fighting for the biggest part. On the other hand, an integrative strategy would be focusing on mutual collaboration and problem-solving which often leads to more benefits for both negotiating sides (Walton & McKersie, 1965). Integrative negotiation strategies aim to lower hostility, increase supportiveness, or change the dependence or interdependence of one party compared to the opposing party (Savage et al., 1989). Depending on what the negotiator in question values most, the relational or substantive outcome, he will be able to choose between different strategies described earlier. In addition to that, Walton and McKersie (1965) identify two types of negotiation: Integrative and Distributive negotiations. Here too, the negotiator is faced with a choice. He will have to ask himself if he wants to create value or if he wants to get the biggest share of what already exists. An integrative strategy means the goal the negotiator is setting for the negotiation is to create value. A distributive strategy is when the negotiator's goals are to get the biggest part he can get, of what he sees as a "pie of fixed size", this strategy claims value rather than creating value (Vetschera, 2013).

As explained by Walton and McKersie: "Distributive bargaining involves the distribution of scarce resources and is associated with a zero sum, or win-lose' payoff structure. Integrative bargaining, in contrast offers the parties opportunities to mutual problem-solving and variable payoff structure – sometimes referred to as 'win-win' bargaining." (Walton & McKersie, 1965). The integrative strategy views negotiation as a collaboration between parties and an opportunity for everyone involved to win. Mutual cooperation is even increasing total payoffs. This would be similar to the 'Collaborating' strategy mentioned above. On the other hand, the distributive strategy views negotiation as the distribution of assets that are already existing and can't be increased. In this case, each party fights for the biggest share.

Several different aspects go into the choice of negotiation strategy, the negotiator needs to know whether he gives more importance to the substantive or relational outcome and will decide accordingly. Another important aspect he needs to know about, before choosing a strategy is whether he only cares about his own outcome or also about his counterparts' outcome. Furthermore, the negotiator can choose between fighting for the biggest share of an existing value and creating value, together with the other party. Depending on what the negotiator chooses, there are strategies that are adapted to reach his negotiation goal. As discussed, those strategies are influenced by choices made consciously by the negotiator, now the question of how the

negotiator is influenced by culture, when choosing his negotiation strategy, remains. This question has been researched in several articles, three of which will be reviewed in the next pages.

3.3 The effect of culture on the choice of negotiation strategies

Negotiations are done in different ways, depending on which cultural background the negotiators, taking part in the negotiation process, have. Members of cultures that have low masculinity will tend to give importance to the relational aspect of the negotiation and adopt a collectivist approach whereas members from a culture that has a high masculinity score, are more likely to adopt a distributive negotiation strategy and they will have a competitive approach (Michigan State University Online, 2020). How culture influences the negotiation process and hence the chosen negotiation strategy is a subject that has been studied extensively and this part of the thesis is going to review some literature about this topic specifically. Certain questions, such as, “What influence does culture have on different stages of the negotiation?” and “How do members from high versus low context cultures react differently?”, will be answered.

Negotiators from different cultures interact differently at different stages of the negotiation process and sometimes circumstances will be prone to cooperation between members of different cultures. Other times, competitiveness is followed by negotiators. Some behaviors at specific stages of the negotiation process are leading to efficient deals. Through mixed-motive negotiation simulations between members of high-context and low-context cultures it is possible to determine the specific behaviors that lead to desired outcomes (Adair & Brett, 2005).

The purpose of this specific study was to verify the cooperativeness and competitiveness of negotiators from different cultures during different stages of the negotiation. The study investigates the emic and etic behaviors of high-context versus low-context cultures in a negotiation. Emic meaning the examination of psychological occurrences in local cultural terms and etic meaning the comparison between several cultures (Segall et al., 1998 as read in Stankov & Lee, 2009). This is done in a four stage-model, the stages being “relational positioning, identifying the problem, generating solutions and reaching agreement” (Adair & Brett, 2005, p. 34). The authors wanted to study the exchange of information and the exertion of ones’ influence which respectively correspond to integrative and distributive elements of negotiation strategies.

Adair and Brett’s research participants were on one hand a low-context sample, participants from Germany, Sweden, Israel, and the USA. On the other hand, there was a high-context sample consisting of participants from Hong Kong, Japan, Russia, and Thailand. Furthermore, there

was a mixed-context sample made up of two high-context cultures one low-context culture, USA - Hong Kong and Japan - USA.

Each participant was given a role and had an hour and a half to prepare with another participant of their own culture who was given the same role. Negotiation transcripts were coded in order to identify integrative information sharing and distributive influence behaviors. Code used in a previous study was used as well in order to recognize communication that was specific to high-context and low-context cultures. This study was specifically focused on four types of strategic behaviors which are “priority information, offers, affective persuasion, and rational influence” (Adair & Brett, 2005, p. 40). Therefore, the authors selected behavioral codes that were aligned with these strategies. The negotiation was divided into stages by dividing the speaking turns into four which means that the division into stages depended on the number of interactions between the negotiators. To test some hypotheses, repeated-measures multivariate analysis of variance was used, for other hypotheses, hierarchical regression analysis was used.

The results show that, in the first quarter of the negotiation low-context dyads have “higher levels of reciprocal affective persuasion” (Adair & Brett, 2005, p. 42). Both in low-context culture negotiations and mixed-context culture negotiations, structural sequences of affective persuasion and priority information happen, for the most part, in the stage of negotiation. For high-context cultures, the levels stay more constant over the course of the negotiation. Reciprocal priority information was highest in the second stage of all negotiations. In low-context culture negotiations and mixed-context culture negotiations the reciprocal priority information effect was even higher. In high-context culture negotiations, negotiators used more structural sequences of rational influence and offers compared to negotiators in low-context culture negotiations or mixed-context culture negotiations. All culture groups show the highest level of reciprocal offers in the last stage of the negotiations, but they are especially high in high-context culture negotiations. Members of high-context cultures taking part in the negotiation simulations were using complementary information-offer sequences more often compared to low-context culture or mix-context culture negotiators.

To conclude, this study shows that, joint gains across cultures are achieved when structural affective influence-information sequences happen in the first stage of the negotiation, meaning negotiators opting for a competitive strategy at the start of the negotiation to establish power. Joint gains are also achieved when reciprocal priority information sequences happen in the second stage of the negotiation, meaning negotiators opting for a more cooperative strategy in the second part. In low-context culture negotiations as well as mixed-culture negotiations rational persuasion-offers, which are part of a competitive strategy, happened often in the third and

fourth stages of the negotiation process and in high-context culture negotiations it happened often in the third stage of the negotiation but got less often in the fourth stage of the negotiation process. In the fourth stage of the negotiation process a decline in structural rational persuasion-offers happen in an emic setting and in an etic setting the last stage of the negotiation process is characterized by a rise in reciprocal offers, which are part of a more cooperative strategy. The authors have found that high-context culture negotiators communicated in a more flexible way and thus were able to extract information about their counterparts' interests in a direct way but also in a more indirect way, from offers across the entire negotiation. This gives high-context culture negotiators more flexibility on how they implement the cooperative stages of the negotiations as they have the ability to extract information without explicitly showing the other party that they are using a cooperative strategy. In addition to that, for high-context culture negotiators it is less probable to take part in priority information sharing compared to how probable it is to do so for low-context culture negotiators. This means, high-context culture negotiators are more probable to use a competitive negotiation strategy. Another important conclusion from this study is that, in most cases, in mixed-context culture negotiations, negotiators were more likely to adopt low-context culture negotiation patterns, than they were to adopt high-context culture negotiation patterns. This could be due to the higher flexibility of high-context cultures. In mixed-context culture negotiations more information is shared in a direct way in order to generate gains for both parties. These results show that indeed, the choice of negotiation strategy is influenced by the culture a negotiator belongs to. Depending on the stage of the negotiation, the negotiator might be inclined to use a more competitive or cooperative strategy depending on whether he belong to a high-context or a low-context culture.

One limitation of this study is that the negotiation was divided into four equally long parts without verifying if indeed negotiators have indeed spent the exact same time of the negotiation on each stage of the negotiation. This means, it would be important to test this further in future studies or find a different way to divide the negotiations into the same four stages but not taking time as the dividing factor, but rather communication cues for example. Furthermore, the fact, that high-context culture negotiators communicate in a more flexible way in this specific study might come from the fact, that the negotiation setting was a more low-context culture setting and that negotiations happened in English. This study shows how low-context cultures would be at a disadvantage when negotiating with high-context cultures. It will be interesting to see if this statement is going to be confirmed with the research conducted in this thesis. This thesis doesn't consider negotiation stages so it will be good to compare and see how strategy still becomes visible as a whole.

Another interesting question that is being looked at in Adair et al. 2004 is how culture influences joint gains in negotiations and how, depending on the culture, negotiators choose to share information and use power strategies. This is related to the research topic and more specifically the research question of this thesis as it investigates how culture influences the strategy used by members of different cultures and thus how different the outcome of a negotiation can be when it is conducted by members of different cultures (Adair et al., 2004).

This study investigates how culture influences the negotiation strategy to explain results obtained in a different study by Brett et al. (1998). It focusses on differences in information sharing, so an integrative strategy, and the use of distributive strategy. The study focusses on six different countries and thus six cultures, Japan and Russia were classified as high context high power cultures, France and Hong Kong are considered as uncertain cultures and the United States and Brazil are classified as low context and low power cultures by the authors of the study. The average ages of participants varied from 23 years old to 38 years old. All participants were asked to participate in a similar negotiation simulation as participants in the Adair & Brett, (2005) study that is described above in this chapter and had to take part in the “Cartoon” task as well. Here too, participants had three main negotiation issues to bargain about, price of the cartoon episodes, financing and the number of repetitions one episode is allowed to be shown within five years. Both, the negotiator and his counterpart were also aware of the possibility of a future cartoon that could create value for both negotiating parties. All negotiation simulations were intra-cultural, meaning only negotiators from the same culture were asked to negotiate with each other. Each negotiator was assigned a role to take on in the simulation and after an introduction, participants were asked to fill in a survey, asking about information about their cultural values. Then negotiators were put together in pairs with another negotiator who got assigned the same role and they were given one hour to prepare for the negotiation. After that, negotiators were put together with a negotiating counterpart who got assigned a different role, so the negotiation could take place. Each pair were given a time limit of ninety minutes. Negotiations were audiotaped and after the negotiation, each person was asked to fill in a questionnaire about the negotiation outcome, their preparation, and the simulation in general.

In this study the independent variable was culture, and the dependent variables were a result of coding the negotiation transcripts. Coding was done according to study specific criteria which was to categorize information into “direct information-sharing strategies” and “indirect information-sharing strategies” (Adair et al., 2004).

The results are presented in the following table:

USA	Brazil	France	Russia	Japan	Hong Kong
- Direct information sharing - Compare and contrast - React directly - Asked most questions and exchanged most info - Least likely to use power strategy - Maximized joint gains	- More expression of preferences and priorities than US - Achieved medium joint gains	- Not likely to talk about preferences and priorities - Least likely to use power strategy - Achieved medium joint gains	- Not likely to talk about preferences and priorities - High likeliness to share info indirectly (through offers) - Most likely to use power strategies and distributive strategies - Asked least questions and exchanged the least info - Low joint gains	- Not likely to talk about preferences and priorities - High likeliness to share info indirectly (through offers) - Most likely to use power strategies and distributive strategies - Maximized joint gains	- High likeliness to share info indirectly (through offers) - Low joint gains

Table 1.1, results of the Adair and Brett, 2005 study

The study concludes that it is not enough to rely solely on context to get the necessary information to maximize joint gains and it is important to exchange information directly as well. That allows the identification of priorities, at least in negotiations that have integrative potential. One type of direct information sharing is not enough. It is important to not only compare and contrast, which enables direct reactions and recognize trade-offs. Power-based negotiation strategies, so distributive tactics do not necessarily lead to higher joint gains, especially if too little information is exchanged. It will be interesting to see if the results of this thesis suggest the same.

A limitation of this study would be that the participants are too different, regarding the fact, that they already have different cultural backgrounds it could have been beneficial to choose a population that would be more homogenous in terms of age and work experience. In this study, participants from certain cultures are undergrad students, participants from different cultures are MBA students and participants of other cultures are executives. It could easily be that the differences in behaviors or chosen strategies are due to the fact, that the participants are in quite different stages of life or have had much more or much less experience in negotiations compared to others.

It will be interesting to see if this thesis finds similar results as the study conducted by Adair et al. (2004) as the chosen population is less heterogenous and all participants have more than two years of work experience.

Another study is looking at the influence of culture on the process of negotiation in Bangladesh. Zhangwen and Hoque (2017) explore how culture within one country influences the chosen negotiation strategies and thus the outcome of the negotiation.

Entrepreneurs from different countries see Bangladesh as a good opportunity for foreign direct investment due to economic growth in various industries in the country (Zhangwen & Hoque 2017). As a consequence, more and more foreign executives are negotiating with Bangladeshi business people and this brings challenges. This specific study conducted by Zhangwen and Hoque (2017) seeks to understand how Bangladeshi culture influences the chosen negotiation strategies of local business people.

This study was conducted in Bangladesh, in total more than fifty Bangladeshi business executives have participated in the study and answered the survey questions. Most of them had long-term business experience with foreign nationals and on average respondents were 41 years old. The chosen method to choose participants was the convenience sampling method. All participants were asked to answer forty questions in total as part of a semi-structured face to face questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. In the first part, the business people were asked closed and open end questions about their business experience, and the success of their deals. In the second part they were asked questions that the answers to enabled measurement of the cultural dimension and the negotiation strategies that are specific to Bangladeshi culture. In the third part, participants were asked information about themselves.

The results show that the average number of times participants have dealt with international companies was five, and nearly half of the participants have negotiated more than seven times with members of international companies.

The highest rate of successful deals Bangladeshi negotiators reach when negotiating with members of other cultures are with Chinese business people. The culture with the second highest success rate is Germany, then comes India and the UK. Cultures that Bangladeshi executives feel the most comfortable to negotiate with are the UK, the USA, Australia, China and Germany. The reason the authors give for this is that all five countries are countries with relatively high masculinity scores which indicates that members of the culture are success-driven which is also the case for members of the Bangladeshi culture.

Bangladeshi executives mostly see the relationship as the main purpose of a negotiation and 46% of participants see it as the signature of a contract. Nearly six out of ten participants have an integrative attitude towards negotiations and a little over half of the participants perceive negotiations as a collaboration rather than a competition. As Bangladeshi culture scores high on collectivism it is no surprise that three quarters of the executives indicated that in a negotiation, negotiators defend the interests of the group and not individual interests. 84% of Bangladeshi executives opt for a direct communication style.

In conclusion, Bangladeshi executives value long-term relationships, it is also important for them to negotiate about specificities of contracts and trust is an important factor to build strong relationships. This study is one of the first studies which examines negotiations in Bangladesh and specifically the effect of Bangladeshi culture on executives chose for negotiations and it can be of importance for executives from other countries who are doing business with Bangladesh and want to reach the best possible outcome.

On one hand, it is very important that this study was conducted, and it can be of great help for local and international executives, but it would be beneficial to conduct a similar study with a larger panel of participants and a more representative sample. Such a study could be conducted within the ten main industries of the country for example with participants from various companies in each industry and from different geographical locations in the country as well.

This study looks at which cultures are most compatible with the examined culture in terms of successful negotiation outcomes and this thesis is also going to attempt giving answers to this question.

3.4 Chapter Summary

Culture is a part of daily life and influences every aspect of it. Consequently, culture also plays an important role in a business context. Culture is a multi-dimensional construct. Hall (1976) states it can be divided into low-context cultures and high-context cultures for example. Low-context cultures are being described as cultures in which people communicate in a direct way and high-context cultures are being described as cultures in which members rely heavily on the context in which communication takes place to convey information rather than explicitly sharing information. Hofstede identified six different cultural dimensions over the course of several decades; namely, these are power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity versus femininity, long-term versus short-term orientation and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2011). Each of these cultural dimensions are an important part of a specific culture.

There are different possible negotiation strategies. Integrative and distributive strategies are two well-known negotiation tactics that are often referred to in literature. Adopting an integrative strategy means negotiating with the aim to create value and adopting a distributive strategy means wanting to compete for the biggest share or an already existing value (Walton and McKersie, 1965). Other strategies are collaborative or competitive strategies. Those strategies are shown in the Dual Concern Model (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1992). A collaborative strategy aims at making each negotiating party happy and a competitive tactic is aiming at receiving all or

most of the resources that the parties are bargaining about. Choosing whether the negotiator puts more importance on the relationship or on the substantive outcome will also heavily influence the negotiators' strategy and what he or she puts most importance on (Savage et al., 1989). Deciding this will determine if and how future relations and negotiations will happen.

Adair & Brett (2005)	Adair et al. (2004)	Zhangwen & Hoque (2017)
Focus: emic and etic behaviors of high-context vs low-context cultures, Study of elements of integrative and distributive strategies	Focus: Differences in in information sharing (synonym of integrative strategy)	Focus: Bangladeshi executives
Countries: Germany, Sweden, Israel, USA, Hong Kong, Japan, Russia, Thailand	Countries: Japan, Russia, Hong Kong, USA, Brazil	Country: Bangladesh
Conclusions: - Low-context and mixed-context cultures use a competitive strategy in 2nd half of negotiation - High-context cultures use a competitive strategy in 3rd half of negotiation. They have a more flexible communication style >> extract information about counterpart directly and indirectly through offers >> more flexibly on how they implement the cooperative stages of negotiations They are more likely to use a more competitive strategy	Conclusion: -Not enough to only rely on context to get the needed information to maximize joint gains >> important to exchange information directly as well (One type of direct information sharing is not enough) - Distributive strategies don't necessarily lead to higher joint profits especially if too little information is exchanges	Conclusions: -Bangladeshi executives build long-term relationships when they negotiate -60% of participants choose an integrative strategy -Bangladeshi negotiators are members of a culture that scores relatively high in masculinity >> they feel most comfortable negotiating with other parties that share this cultural trait
Limitations: Divides the negotiation into four phases that are only defined by time	Limitations: Participants are chosen from very different work experience and age backgrounds >> very homogenous sample	Limitations: Sample is not very big and might not be representative of the business world in Bangladesh

Table 1.2, *summary of Adair & Brett (2005), Adair et al. (2004), Zhangwen & Hoque (2017)*

This thesis will look at the whole negotiation and try to determine how culture affects the negotiation strategy. It is also using a more homogenous sample than the Adair & Brett (2005) study, with participants that are more similar in terms of business experience and age.

This thesis is exploring how culture influences negotiation strategies in eight different cultural regions and 17 different countries. Furthermore, it is studying a homogenous group of participants who each have at least two years of business experience.

Chapter 4 – Methods

Negotiations can go many ways depending on several factors, and it might be very difficult to predict the outcome of a negotiation. The negotiation style which a negotiator chooses might depend on his opponent, or he might attempt to adopt a certain negotiation strategy but the way one negotiates is often influenced by behaviors one has learned (Program on Negotiation, 2021). We can assume, this means that negotiations will be influenced by the negotiators' culture. This brings us back to the research question of this thesis being related to the ways culture has an influence on the strategy and the success of negotiations. To answer this question as well as possible, an empirical data analysis and more precisely a meta-analysis has been conducted for this thesis. Data from seven different studies has been used for the meta-analysis to be conducted. Each study looked at negotiation simulations with experienced business people from various cultures. The different studies were realized over a span of more than twenty years. They will be described more precisely later in this chapter. The aim of the meta-analysis was to show a relation between culture and the choice of strategy when taking part in negotiations. The analysis considers and compares four variables across eight cultural regions. The variables that are being compared are individual profits, satisfaction, problem-solving approach and negotiator's attractiveness. Individual profits, satisfaction, and negotiator's attractiveness are outcomes and only problem-solving approach already corresponds to a strategy. So that all four variables can be linked to strategies they are being associated with certain behaviors that belong to different types of negotiation strategies later in the thesis, more specifically in part "4.3 Intervention, Materials & Measurement Instruments" as all variables are being explained in more detail then. The eight cultural regions are: Southern Europe, Northern Europe, Slavic region, USA, China, South America, Canada and South-East Asia.

4.1 Setting

First, the plan was to conduct interviews and collect data firsthand in companies from a few European cultures but different circumstances, such as the occurrence of the Corona virus pandemic has made us rethink the study approach and it was decided to focus on existing literature and conduct a meta-analysis.

A Meta-Analysis can be defined as an "analysis of analyses" (Glass 1976, as read in Harrer et al, 2021). One definition of a meta-analysis is "Meta-analysis is a statistical tool for estimating

the mean and variance of underlying population effects from a collection of empirical studies addressing ostensibly the same research question” (Field & Gillett, 2010). It means studies are being analyzed and, assessed in order for the findings to be synthesized. Results from several studies are combined in a quantitative manner. In order to be able to conduct a meta-analysis it is necessary that the studies used for it all measure the same and in the same way, meaning they use the same design (Harrer et. al, 2021).

The specific approach to meta-analysis used for this thesis would be the Hedges and Olkin approach. This approach calculates effect sizes from independent studies. In this approach, homogeneity is examined, and this approach uses both the random effects model as well as the fixed effects model (Ankem, 2005). Those models help to try and find a “true” effect size that is present in all studies that are being used for the analysis. They do this based on the results that are being observed. The fixed-effects model supposes all studies used for the analysis have the same effect size and it presumes that the only reason why the effect sizes might not be the same is a sampling error. The random-effects model often showcases reality behind the used data in a more accurate way. This models supposes that studies have a variety of effect sizes due to sampling error but that there is also another reason behind the differences. Each study is considered to be an independent draw and does not stem from one single population ((Harrer et. al, 2021).

To select the literature, it was important to choose existing studies that each used the same method of data collection so that they were relatively easy to compare between themselves. After carefully selecting the studies and reviewing each one of them to make sure they all met the criteria, the data was then extracted, organized, and put into tables and a meta-analysis was conducted in the “R” software. The process of sieving the different studies and making sure, they all met the necessary criteria took a few months and from a total of 34 studies that were initially selected, only seven were selected to be part of the meta-analysis. Some studies that didn’t make it into the final seven were either not looking at the same variables that this thesis is analyzing, others didn’t use the same methodology and instead of getting data through negotiation simulations and surveys, only surveys were used or business people were interviewed which didn’t enable the data to be compared. All seven studies were found either on Google Scholar, ProQuest, Scopus or the online library of the University of Vienna; Usearch. For the meta-analysis, RStudio was used and more specifically, the packages Meta and Metafor.

4.2 Sample/Participants

The participants partaking in the different studies that have been used for this thesis are experienced business people and they were chosen by the authors of the studies as part of a purposive sample and were considered representative to the authors. In some cases, participants took part in the study as part of management programs or management seminars for example, others were MBA students, or they were taking graduate business courses. All participants volunteered to take part in the negotiation simulation, and all had a minimum of two years of full-time work experience and were at least 24 years of age. Participants were selected because they are from different countries and thus have different cultures.

This study collected data from 2301 participants in total. On average, participants were 33,7 years old. In four out of the seven studies, participants had an average of seven or more years of work experience. More detailed information is available in table 1 and for study specific details, all necessary information is available in the studies (Graham, Evenko, & Rajan, 1992, Graham, Mintu, & Rodgers, 1994, Graham, Mahdavi & Fatehi-Rad, 2020, Adler, N. J., Brahm & Graham, 1992, Graham & Mintu-Wimsat, 1997, Adler & Graham, 1989, Graham et al.,1988).

Study	Age	Experience	Culture
Graham 1997	Average of 34 years of age, 338 participants	All had at least 8 years of business experience	USA, Japan, Brazil, Spain
Adler 1989	32,6 years of age on average, 462 participants	At least 2 years of experience but average of 9,3 years	USA, Japan, Canada
Graham 2020	Average over 30, 131 participants	At least 2 years of experience but average of 7 years	Norway, Philippines, China, Hong Kong, Czech Republic
Graham 1988	Average age of 33,7 years, 272 participants	At least two years of business experience	China, Japan, South Korea, USA
Graham 1994	Average age is 34,8 years, 700 participants	At least 2 years of experience but average of 11,5 years	Canada, Taiwan, France, Germany, Mexico, Russia, South Korea, Spain, UK, USA
Graham 1992	Average age of 34,5 years, 216 participants	Minimum 2 years of work experience	Russia, USA
Adler 1992	Average 32,8 years, 182 participants	minimum 2 years of work experience	China, USA

Table 2, *information about study participants*

Participants were organized into eight different cultural regions the following way:

Southern Europe (SE): Spain & France with a total of 104 participants

Northern Europe (NE): Germany, Norway & UK with a total of 208 participants

Slavic region (SL): Czech Republic & Russia with a total of 214 participants

USA (USA) with a total of 908 participants

China (CH): China, Hong Kong & Taiwan with a total of 364 participants

Latin America (LA): Brazil & Mexico with a total of 138 participants

Canada (CA): Anglophone & francophone with a total of 296 participants

South East Asia (SEASIA): Japan, Philippines & South Korea with a total of 404 participants

This organization has been chosen in order to facilitate comparison between different countries. Furthermore, the different cultures within the cultural regions are cultures that are not too different from each other and have many similarities even if they have some differences.

Both cultures within the SE cultural group are considered high-context cultures (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). Both countries are scoring 86 in Hofstede's Uncertainty Avoidance dimension of culture (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Their scores in the Indulgence dimension are 48 for France and 44 for Spain and France scores 43 in the dimension Masculinity and Spain scores 42. The scores for Individualism are the furthest apart out of the six dimensions, France's score is 71 and Spain's is 51 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

The three countries, Norway, the UK and Germany, that make up the NE cultural group are low-context cultures (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). The three countries have very similar scores in the Power Distance dimension; Germany and the UK score 35 and Norway scores 31. On the other hand, all other dimensions score relatively differently. The dimension with the biggest differences is Long Term Orientation where Norway scores 35, the UK scores 51 and Germany scores 83 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Slavic countries are both low-context cultures that share similarities with high-context cultures as they are considered low-context cultures that are close to the border to high-context culture (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). Russia and the Czech Republic both share similar Indulgence scores. Their scores are 20 and 29, respectively. This is the only dimension where both countries share similar scores. Power Distance is the dimension in which both countries are most different, they score 93 and 57 respectively (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

The United States of America is a low-context culture country (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003) and is a country with a high Individualism score of 91 and a low Long Term Orientation score of 26 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Canadians are part of a low-context culture (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). Canadians have an Individualism score of 80, an Indulgence score of 68, a Power Distance score of 39, a Masculinity score of 52, an Uncertainty Avoidance score of 48 and a Long Term Orientation score of 36 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). Participants from the USA and from Canada have not been put together despite their cultural similarities as it would have made for one cultural region to be nearly as big as all the others combined in terms of number of participants.

The cultural region CH is a high-context culture (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). All three cultures are relatively similar in most of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Individualism is the dimension in which all three countries share the most similar score. China has a score of 20, Hong Kong's score is 25 and Taiwan's score is 17. All three countries also have high Long-Term Orientation and high Power Distance

scores. Taiwan sets itself apart the most in the Indulgence dimension as its' score is 49 and Hong Kong's score is 17 and China's score is 24 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Both Brazilians and Mexicans are members of high-context cultures (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). Both countries score high in Hofstede's Uncertainty Avoidance dimension with respective scores of 76 and 82. Both countries score low in the Individualism dimension with respective scores of 38 and 30. Brazil and Mexico both have relatively high Power Distance scores and relatively low Long Term Orientation scores. Their Indulgence scores are both high but also quite different as Brazil has a score of 59 and Mexico has a high score of 97 (Hofstede Insights, n.d.).

Japan is a very high-context culture and South Korea as well as other South East Asian countries are too, but Japan is considered the highest of them (Morden 1999; Usunier 2000; Katabe & Helsen, 2001, as read in Waarts, 2003). When comparing the three countries with Hofstede's cultural dimensions, the dimension in which they are most similar is Indulgence. Japan and the Philippines have a score of 42 and South Korea has a score of 29. The dimension that is most different would be the Masculinity dimension. Japan has a score of 95, the Philippines have a score of 64 and South Korea's score is 39. All three countries score relatively low in the Individualism dimension.

4.3 Intervention, Materials & Measurement Instruments

This thesis used data that was collected by researchers, and which already existed. The data is taken from seven different studies, as stated above.

All participants took part in a negotiation simulation developed in 1966 by Kelley in which they had to bargain about the price of three different products. Every participant was given a fifteen-minute time slot to prepare for the negotiation by reading an instruction sheet. Negotiators taking the role of the buyer had a different sheet than negotiators taking on the role of the seller. They all received information about profits for each product depending on the price given to the different products. This sheet also differed depending on the role they were allocated for the negotiation simulation. In the preparation time, participants had the opportunity to think of strategies to use for negotiating. Once the negotiation started, negotiators were asked to sit in front of each other at a desk, they were also given some final information about how to conduct the negotiation and then it was on to them to negotiate and try to reach an agreement within the one-hour time limit that was set for the negotiation simulation. After, participants were asked to answer post-negotiation questionnaires. This was the process in all seven studies that have

been used to conduct the meta-analysis. The variables that have been analyzed were individual profits, satisfaction, problem solving approach and negotiator's attractiveness.

Individual profits corresponded to the levels of profits achieved by each party at the end of the negotiation simulation. Problem solving approach and Satisfaction were both measured data from the negotiators' questionnaire as well as the counterpart's questionnaire. Negotiator's attractiveness was measured using the counterpart's rating of the negotiator in the questionnaire.

Individual profit is one of the variables that was used in all studies to measure the negotiation outcome and it specifically measured the economic outcome. One can assume that the economic outcome of negotiations is indirectly linked to the strategies that are being used by negotiators. Negotiators choosing between a substantive or relational strategy are more likely to reach higher profits in negotiations when their strategy is a trustingly collaborative or firmly competing one compared to an openly subordinate one. When looking at the dual concern model, negotiators who are more concerned about the competitor's outcome are less likely to reach high profits when using an accommodating strategy compared to a negotiator using a collaborative strategy. At the same time, a negotiator who is more concerned about his own outcome is more likely to reach higher profits than a negotiator who is more concerned about his competitor's outcome. Furthermore, negotiators who are using an avoiding strategy are not likely to achieve a high profit either.

Satisfaction is the second variable used to measure the negotiation outcome; this variable measured a more relational outcome as well as the satisfaction, or dissatisfaction about the economic outcome. Satisfaction was measured with the help of questions the negotiator answered in the questionnaire after the negotiation simulation. Depending on the study, participants answered between one and four questions to measure their level of satisfaction, which means, one to four items were used to measure each participant's satisfaction.

One can assume that the satisfaction outcome of negotiations is indirectly linked to the strategies that are being used by negotiators. As the satisfaction variable also measures how satisfied a negotiator is about the achieved profit of the negotiation this variable is related to the link between the negotiator's strategy and the economic outcome for the negotiator. In addition to that, when looking at the satisfaction about the relational outcome, negotiators using strategies showcasing the importance they give to the relationship between the negotiators are more likely to be satisfied about the achieved relational goals compared to someone using a more substantive strategy. The strategies that could bring most satisfaction in the relational aspect are the openly subordinate or trustingly collaborative strategies. When looking at the dual concern

model, a negotiator who is concerned about the competitor's outcomes might increase his or her chances of developing a stronger relationship with said competitor and thus be more satisfied about the relational outcome. Using a collaborative strategy could also increase those chances as the negotiator is concerned about his or her own outcome as well as the competitor's outcome.

Problem-solving approach (hereafter PSA) was measured using data from negotiators that assessed their own problem-solving approach. In some studies negotiators assessed their negotiating counterpart's PSA as well. In the cases in which data was used both, from the negotiator and his counterpart, the data was then combined to form one PSA value per person. The questions from the questionnaire were all answerable on a five-point Likert-scale that had "solving a mutual problem" as the highest answer possible on one end and "self-interested" that corresponded to the number one, on the other end. Other questions could have "honest" or "deceptive" on either end for example. PSA is defined as an equal term as integrative bargaining and it is used to determine how willing each negotiator is to give away information and receive information from his counterpart so both of the parties can reach the best possible outcome (Graham, Mahdavi, Fatehi-Rad, 2020). PSA is a set of behaviors that are used in negotiations that suggest a cooperative strategy and emphasize information exchange (Adler, Brahm, Graham, 1992). Depending on the study, participants answered a different number of questions to measure the level of PSA of each person. Between three and eight items were used to measure the final level of PSA of each participant.

Negotiator's attractiveness is a relational construct that is being measured through questions from the questionnaire as well. This variable studies the level of comfort between both negotiators. Negotiator's attractiveness can have a positive influence on the level of satisfaction of negotiators (Graham, Mintu-Wimsat, 1997). Negotiators were asked to rate their negotiation partner's attractiveness by answering three questions that were using a five-point Likert-scale. This variable was measured through three items in all seven studies used for the meta-analysis.

One can assume that the Negotiator's attractiveness outcome of negotiations is indirectly linked to the strategies that are being used by negotiators. As mentioned above, this variable is heavily influenced by the satisfaction variable and thus by the strategies that are indirectly linked to the satisfaction variable.

The following table shows how many questions were asked per variable and per study. This gives a more accurate depiction of the number of items measured in each study.

Graham 1997	Individual profits	satisfaction (Single item)	PSA (3 items)	Negotiator's attractiveness (interpersonal attractiveness of their respective negotiators)
Adler 1989	Individual profits	satisfaction (4 items range, single item for Japanese)	PSA (5 item, 3 items for Japanese participants)	Interpersonal attraction (negotiator's rating of attractiveness of partner 3 items range)
Graham 2020	Individual profits	satisfaction (4 items)	PSA (3 items)	Negotiator's attractiveness (3 items)
Graham 1988	Negotiator's profits	Partner's satisfaction (4 items, single item for Japanese)	PSA (8 items, or 6 item scale for Japanese participants)	Interpersonal attraction (3 items)
Graham 1994	Individual profits	satisfaction (4 items)	PSA (4 item scale)	Negotiator's attractiveness (3 items)
Graham 1992	Negotiator's profits	Partner's satisfaction (4 items)	PSA (8 items, correlation between sums of the negotiator's 4 and partner's 4 items)	Interpersonal attraction (3 items range)
Adler 1992	Negotiator's profits	Partner's satisfaction (4 items)	PSA (6 item scale)	Interpersonal attraction (3 items range)

Table3, *information on variables per study and measured items per variable*

4.4 Methods

With the data collected from the different studies, it was possible to build 16 tables to compare data from different cultural regions and from different studies. The cultural regions that were able to be compared were:

China with Northern Europe

China with the Slavic Region

China with the USA

Northern Europe with South-East Asia

South-East Asia with the Slavic Region

The Slavic Region with Northern Europe

The USA with Canada

The USA with the Slavic Region

China with South-East Asia

Southern Europe with Latin America

Southern Europe with South-East Asia

South-East Asia with Canada

South-East Asia with Latin America

The USA with South America

The USA with South-East Asia

The USA with Southern Europa.

The tables were built in a way that one table compared all four variables between two cultural regions from two to four different studies.

Here is an example of a table:

Author	NCh	M1Ch	SD1Ch	M2Ch	SD2Ch	M3Ch	SD3Ch	M4Ch	SD4Ch	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA
Graham 1988	52	43	10,4	3,63	0,7	3,55	0,39	11,6	2	78	45,55	9,3	3,83	0,9	3,59	0,63	11,8	1,95
Graham 1994	92	44,15	9,65	3,78	0,81	2,84	0,56	12,05	2,1	40	42,4	11,1	3,425	0,725	2,73	0,675	11,6	1,9
Graham 2020	180	44,525	11,25	3,66	0,86	3,6	0,87	11,725	2,4	160	44,37	10,43	3,74	0,76	3,42	0,79	12,23	1,93

Table 4, *example of excel table to be run in “R”*

All tables can be seen in the appendixes; appendix 3 to 18.

As a reference:

N stands for the number of participants of the specific cultural region, per study.

M1 stands for the mean of the individual profits of the studied cultural region.

SD1 stands for the standard deviation of the individual profits of the studied cultural region.

M2 stands for the mean of the satisfaction variable of the studied cultural region.

SD2 stands for the standard deviation of the satisfaction variable of the studied cultural region.

M3 stands for the mean of the PSA variable of the studied cultural region.

SD3 stands for the standard deviation of the PSA variable of the studied cultural region.

M4 stands for the mean of the attractiveness variable of the studied cultural region.

SD4 stands for the standard deviation of the attractiveness variable of the studied cultural region.

In appendix 1, a questionnaire used in one study can be seen for more details about the questions the negotiators were asked to answer. More details about the negotiation simulation instructions can be seen in appendix 2.

The data has been taken from the studies directly in most cases. Number of participants, mean differences and standard deviations have all be calculated in the different studies and were simply copied into the tables for this thesis. Depending on how many countries the specific cultural regions included or how many countries of the region were included in a specific study, the data were added to each other and divided by the number of data that was added. In case of the satisfaction and PSA variables, the data was also divided by the number of items used for each variable depending on the study. Here are a few examples to explain how the data was measured:

For example, the value 180 for NCh for Graham 2020 from table 3 was calculated with the number of Taiwanese participants, Hong Kong Chinese participants, and participants from the two Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou: $=40+44+44+52$.

The value 44,53 for M1Ch for Graham 2020 was calculated with the mean difference values of individual profits of those four cultures (Taiwanese, Hong Kong, Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou). The sum of the four values was then divided by the number of cultures used from the study which is four in this case: $=(46.1+42.9+46.9+42.2)/4$.

The values were not weighed by the number of participants in each country or city as what this thesis is looking at is the cultural region in general and not the countries individually.

As written in table 2, some studies measured variables with a different number of items and some studies even had a different way of measuring items depending on the culture of the participants. This was the case in two studies that measured satisfaction and PSA with less items for Japanese participants compared to the number of items used for the other cultures the studies were focusing on.

The same calculation principle was applied for the other variables in the table except for the M2, SD2, M3 and SD3 values. Those values were calculated the same way at first and on top of that, the sum was divided by the number of items used for the satisfaction or PSA variable used in the specific study. Some examples are portrayed below.

The value 3,66 for M2Ch for Graham 2020 was calculated with the mean difference values of the satisfaction variable of those four cultures (Taiwanese, Hong Kong, Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou). The sum of the four values was then divided by the number of cultures used from the study which is four in this case. This is then divided by four again as the number of items used for the satisfaction variable in this study is four: $=((16.1+14.2+14.2+14.1)/4)/4$.

The value 0,86 for SD2Ch for Graham 2020 was calculated with the standard deviation values of the satisfaction variable for those four cultures (Taiwanese, Hong Kong, Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou). The sum of the four values was then divided by the number of cultures

used from the study which is four in this case. This is then divided by four again as the number of items used for the satisfaction variable in this study is four: $=((3.3+3.9+3.3+3.2)/4)/4$. This is possible as all values are very similar.

The value 3,6 for M3Ch for Graham 2020 was calculated with the mean difference values of the PSA variable of those four cultures (Taiwanese, Hong Kong, Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou). The sum of the four values was then divided by the number of cultures used from the study which is four in this case. This is then divided by three again as the number of items used for the PSA variable in this study is three: $=((12.4+10.7+9.8+10.3)/4)/3$.

The value 0,87 for SD3Ch for Graham 2020 was calculated with the standard deviation values of the PSA variable for those four cultures (Taiwanese, Hong Kong, Chinese cities of Tianjin and Guangzhou). The sum of the four values was then divided by the number of cultures used from the study which is four in this case. This is then divided by three again as the number of items used for the satisfaction variable in this study is three: $=((3.3+3.9+3.3+3.2)/4)/3$.

To analyze the data, the tables were uploaded to the software program R and the “metafor” function was used. This had to be done one variable at the time and allowed a comparison between both cultures. This way, results showed if there was a significant difference in the negotiation strategy or outcome of the members of both cultural regions that were being compared in each table. This means, in order to compare all four variables from one table, each variable had to be run, one by one, leading to a total of 64 calculations. To explain this, for example in the comparison between the cultural regions USA and Latin America, first the joint profits were compared, after that, satisfaction levels were compared, later the values of the PSA from the USA and from LA were compared, and finally the negotiator’s attractiveness values were compared.

To finish and be able to interpret the results in an easier way, forest plots were drawn by the software as well. This was done through the “meta::forest” function. This was done for all four variables in each table as well. Appendix 19 shows all the necessary code for R.

Chapter 5 – Results

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of each meta-analysis will be presented in the form of four forest plots per table. Each forest plot compares one of the four variables: profits, satisfaction, PSA, and negotiator's attractiveness, between the two cultural regions of the specific table. Each forest plot used data from the different studies of the tables. Some looked at two, others at three and a few looked at four different studies. Thanks to the results it should be possible to answer the question that is being researched in this thesis. All results aim at helping to find answers to the question how different cultures influence the negotiation strategy used by negotiators and how it influences the success or outcome of the negotiation process.

5.2 Presentation of the results

The first table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions China and Northern Europe. As a reminder, China encompassed data from China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan and Northern Europe used data from Germany, Norway, and the UK.

With the results of the meta-analysis, the following function was used: `forest(m.ChNe1.raw)`. It produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

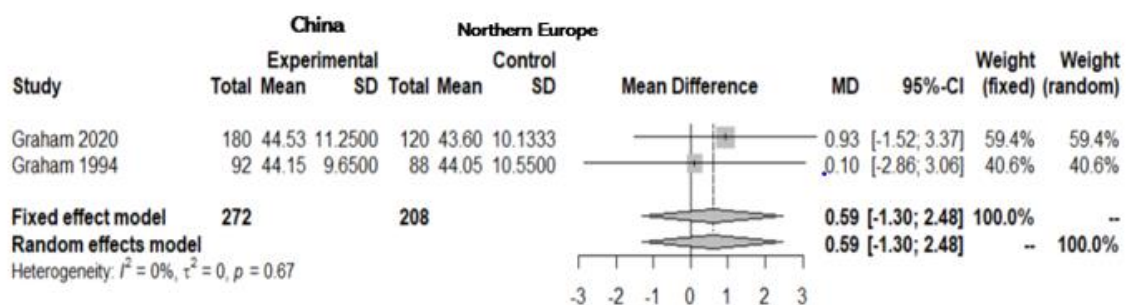


Table 5, forest plot ChNe profits

For the satisfaction variable this function was used forest(m.ChNe2.raw):

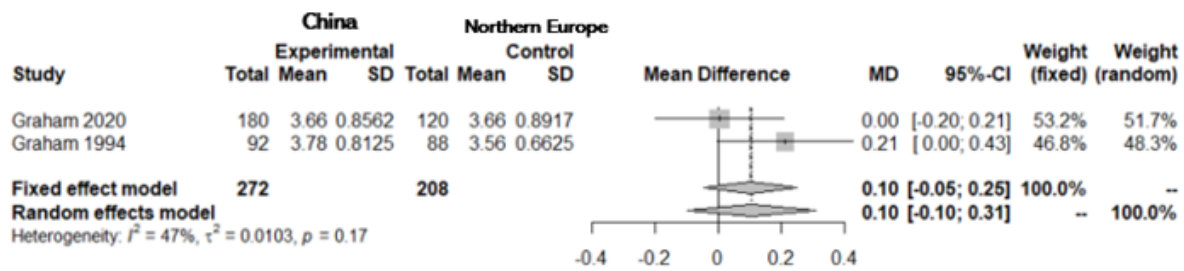


Table 6, forest plot ChNe satisfaction

For PSA, the following function was used: forest(m.ChNe3.raw)

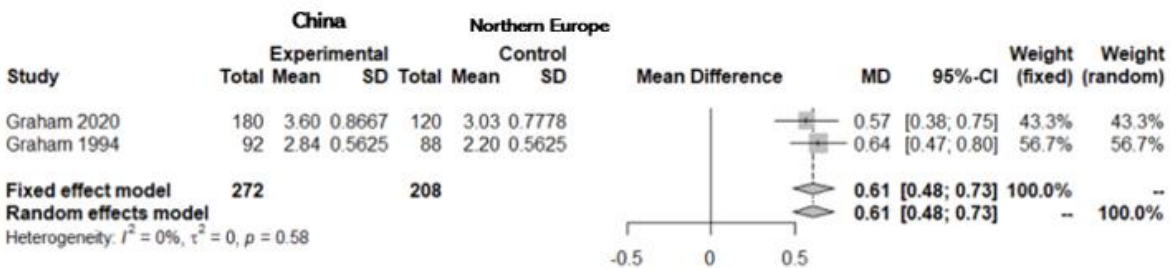


Table 7, ChNe forest plot PSA

And finally, for negotiator's attractiveness this function was used: forest(m.ChNe4.raw)

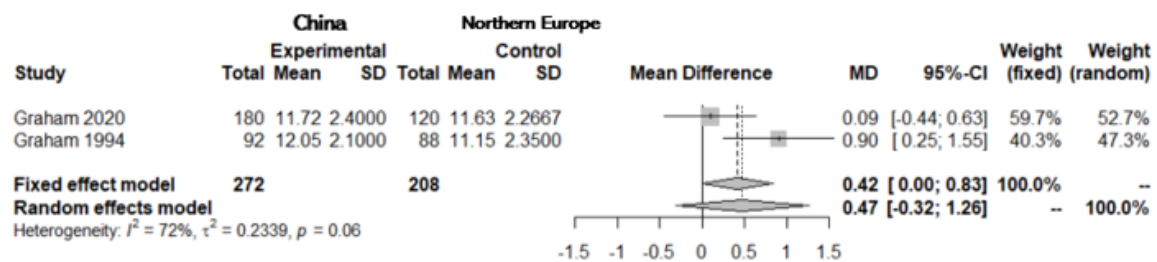


Table 8, ChNe forest plot Negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the horizontal lines both cross the vertical line of null effect which indicates that the null value is one possible value within the confidence interval and can therefore be the true value (Cantley, 2016). The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are relatively big and spread out which shows that the confidence interval is big. For the satisfaction variable the results were not statistically significant for the

same reasons as the profits results. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive as both studies' confidence intervals are narrow and lie to the right of the line of null effect and the diamonds averaging both studies are fairly small. The fact they lie to the right of the line of null effect favors the cultural group Northern Europe (Starmer, 2020). The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% which shows that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance and not anything else (Cantley, 2016). The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals 0.58 and is much bigger than 0,05 showing that we can be confident that the heterogeneity between both studies is insignificant meaning that both studies are not too different from each other as the value is much higher than 0.05. This is good as it makes it easy to summarize both studies and compare them (Sandercock, 2011). The forest plot for the last variable, negotiator's attractiveness, shows that the results of the first study are statistically inconclusive. The results of the second study show a relatively wide confidence interval but as it does not pass through the line of null effect, the results favor the group Ne again. Furthermore, in the fixed effect model, the result of the meta-analysis also shows this effect

The second table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions China and the Slavic cultural region. As a reminder, the Slavic region looked at data from the Czech Republic and Russia.

With the results of the meta-analysis the following function: `forest(m.ChSl1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

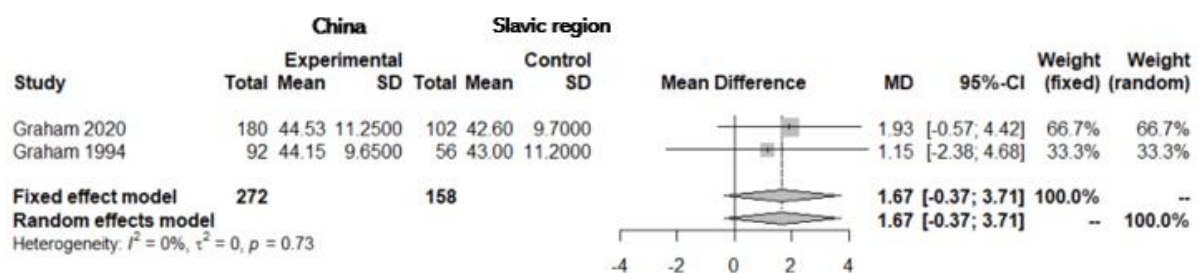


Table 9, *ChSl forest plot profits*

The function forest(m.ChSl2.raw) produced the forest plot for the satisfaction results.

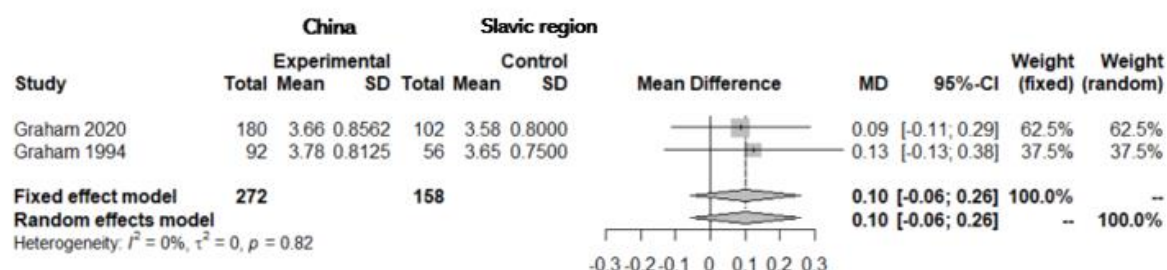


Table 10, ChSl forest plot satisfaction

This function forest(m.ChSl3.raw) was used for the forest plot showing the results of the third variable, PSA.

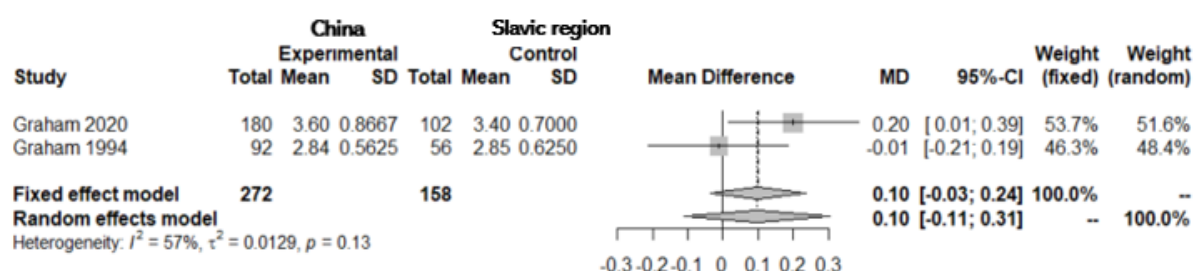


Table 11, ChSl forest plot PSA

And last but not least, the function forest(m.ChSl4.raw) was used to produce the forest plot for the results of the fourth variable, negotiator's attractiveness.

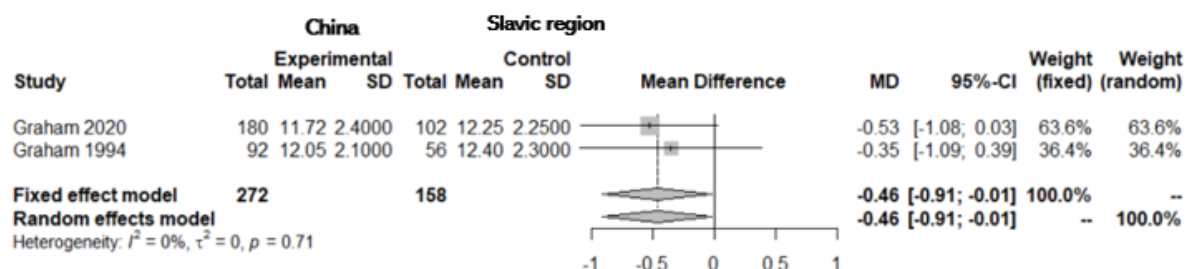


Table 12, ChSl forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable show that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the horizontal lines both cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are relatively big and spread out which shows that the confidence interval is big. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. That being said, both studies' results seem to lean to the right which indicates results favor the Slavic cultural region. For the satisfaction variable the results were not

statistically significant for the same reasons as the profits results and results also are leaning towards the right which indicates results favor the Slavic cultural group. For the PSA variable, results were more conclusive for one of the studies. Here, the 95% confidence interval from Graham 2020 is relatively wide but does not pass the line of null effect and the square is bigger than the one from the second study, meaning the first study weighs more than the second one. This line lies to the right which indicates that results favor the Slavic region. This confidence interval passes through the line of null effect which makes results from the second study inconclusive. The diamonds both pass through the line of null effect as well. The forest plot for the last variable, negotiator's attractiveness, shows that for both studies, the confidence intervals also pass through the line of null effect but in this case they seem to lean to the left side, meaning the results are favoring China. In this case the diamonds are spread relatively wide but they do not pass the line of null effect which translates statistical significance. The effect size of the first study is bigger than the one from the second study.

On the other hand, the p values for the test of heterogeneity equal 0.73, 0.82, 0.13 and 0.71 in the first; second, third and fourth forest plots respectively which is much bigger than 0.05. Those values being bigger than 0.05 show that the studies are homogenous enough to draw conclusions based on the studies (Sandercock, 2011). The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plots for the two first variables and for the last variable which shows that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance and not anything else (Cantley, 2016). For the PSA variable, the I^2 equals 57% indicating a relatively important heterogeneity which means differences in the results of both sources might be due to calculation errors and not only chance.

The third table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions China and the USA.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.ChUSA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

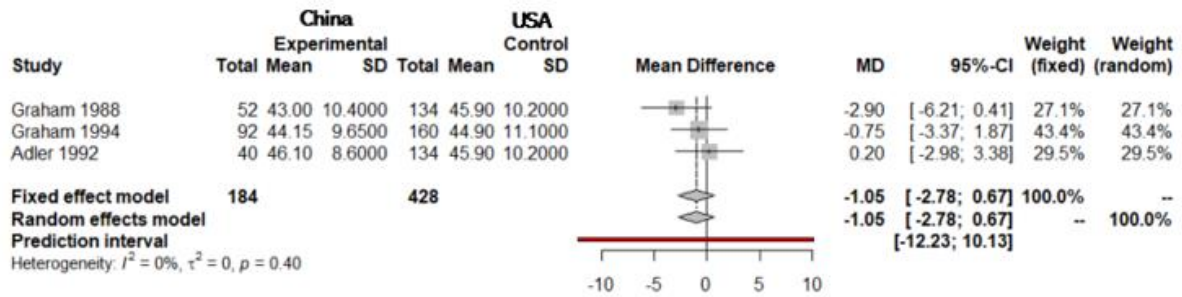


Table 13, *ChUSA forest plot profits*

For the second variable, the function forest(m.ChUSA2.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the satisfaction variable.

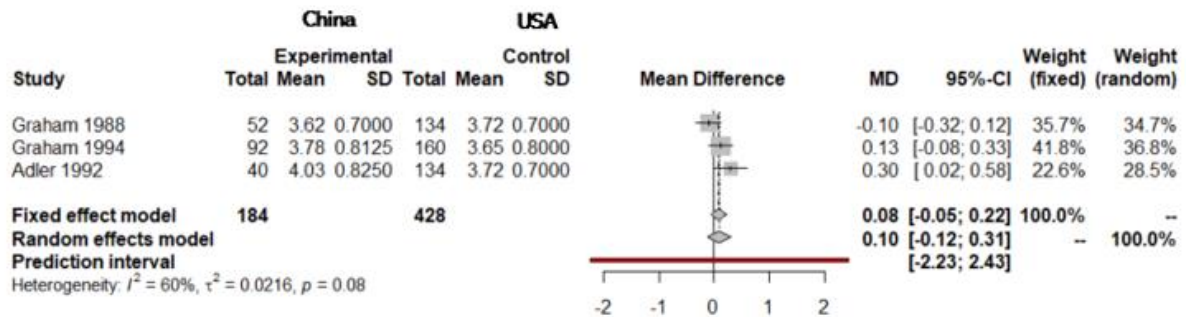


Table 14, *ChUSA forest plot satisfaction*

To produce the forest plot for the PSA variable the function forest(m.ChUSA3.raw) was used.

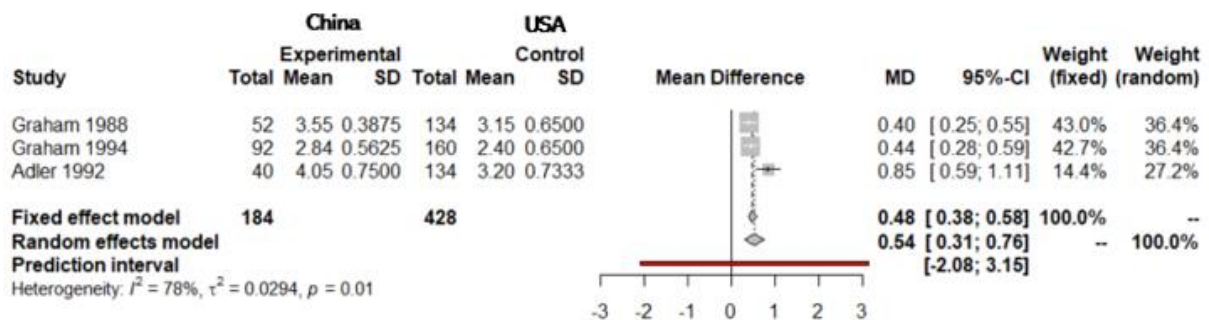


Table 15, *ChUSA forest plot PSA*

Last but not least, the function forest(m.ChUSA4.raw) was used to produce the forest plot for the negotiator's attractiveness variable.

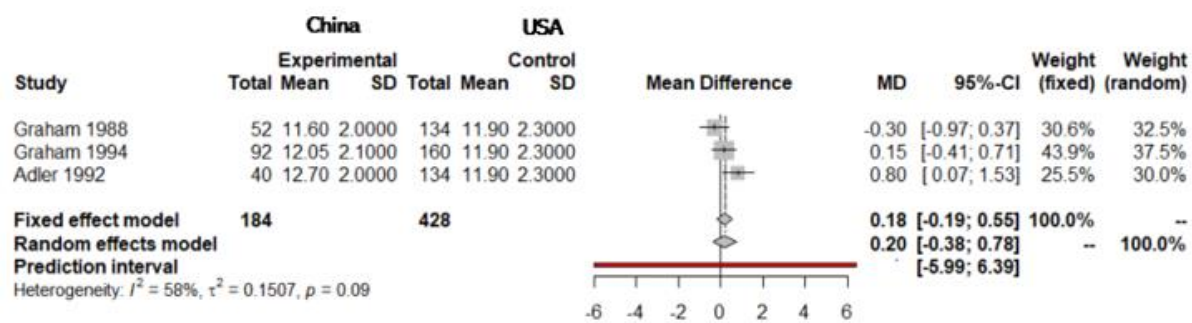


Table 16, *ChUSA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness*

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from the three studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the horizontal lines all cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average the three studies together are relatively small which shows that the confidence interval is relatively small. Nevertheless, both pass the line of null effect. Two studies' results, Graham 1988 and Graham 1994, seem to lean to the left which indicates results favor China. On the other hand, the confidence interval of the last study, Adler 1992, leans to the right indicating results favor the USA. For the satisfaction variable the results were not statistically significant for the first two studies for same reasons as the profits results but the confidence interval of the last study, Adler 1992, does not pass the line of null effect and is relatively narrow. In this case, results of the two last studies are leaning towards the right which indicates results favor the USA and results from the first study lean towards the left which would indicate the contrary, results seem to favor China. Here, the confidence intervals are very narrow. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive for all three studies. Here, the 95% confident intervals are very narrow and do not pass the line of null effect. The squares are biggest for the first two studies meaning those studies weigh more than the third one. Those lines lie to the right which indicates that results favor the USA. The forest plot for the last variable, negotiator's attractiveness, shows that for the two first studies, the confidence intervals also pass through the line of null effect and the confidence interval with the results of the third study is statistically significant as it does not pass the line of null effect. For this study, results lean towards the right which indicate that the meta-analysis favor the USA. In this case the diamonds are relatively narrow, but they do pass the line of null effect which means it is insignificant.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plot for the individual profit variable indicating that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. This is different for the forest plots for the last three variables, for satisfaction, I^2 equals 60%, for PSA I^2 equals 78% and for negotiator's attractiveness I^2 equals 58%. All three numbers are very high and indicate that the differences in results from different studies are likely to be attributed to calculation errors. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals 0.01 the third forest plot which is smaller than 0.05, which in turn is not good in this case. This means that both studies are too heterogenous and not comparable. For the satisfaction variable and negotiator's attractiveness variable the p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.08 and 0.09 which are both slightly over 0.05 indicating a positive effect and showing that both studies are homogenous enough to enable a combined comparison (Sandercock, 2011).

The fourth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions Northern Europe and South-East Asia. As a reminder, the South-East Asia region encompasses data from Japan, the Philippines and South Korea.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.NESEASIA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

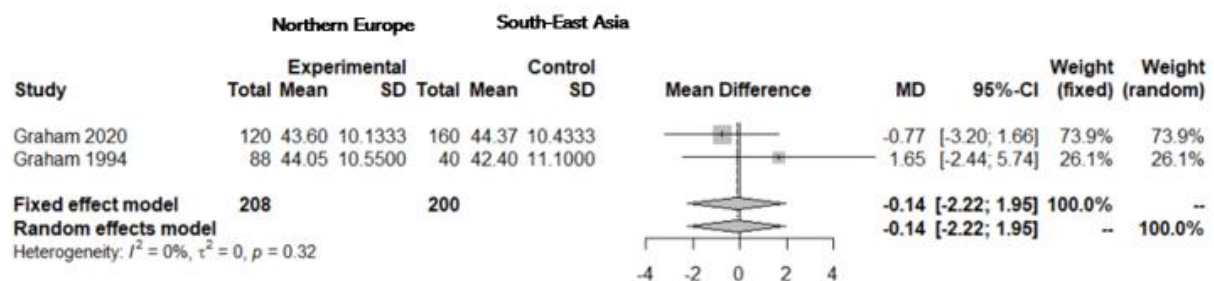


Table 17, *NeSEASIA forest plot profits*

For the second variable, the function `forest(m.NESEASIA2.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot for the satisfaction variable.

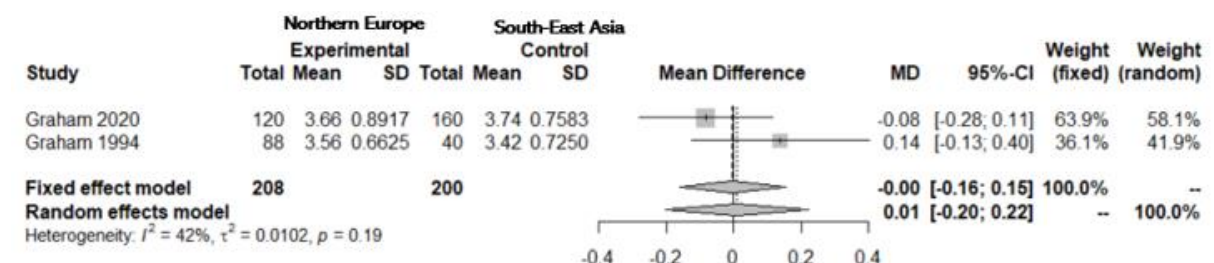


Table 18, *NeSEASIA forest plot satisfaction*

For problem solving approach the following function was used to produce the forest plot:
forest(m.NESEASIA3.raw)

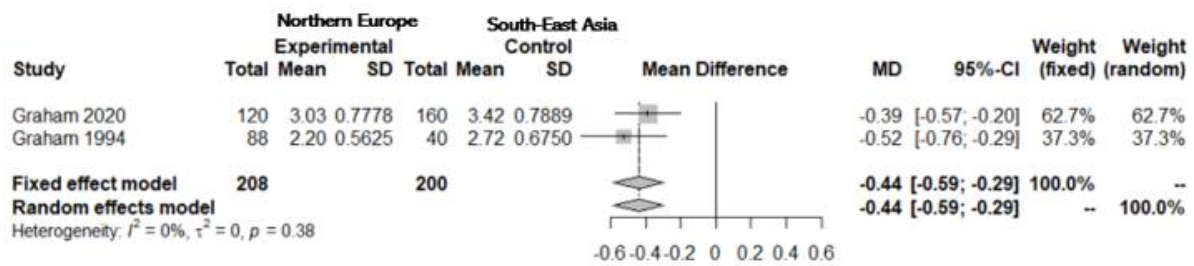


Table 19, *NeSEASIA forest plot PSA*

For the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used:
forest(m.NESEASIA4.raw)

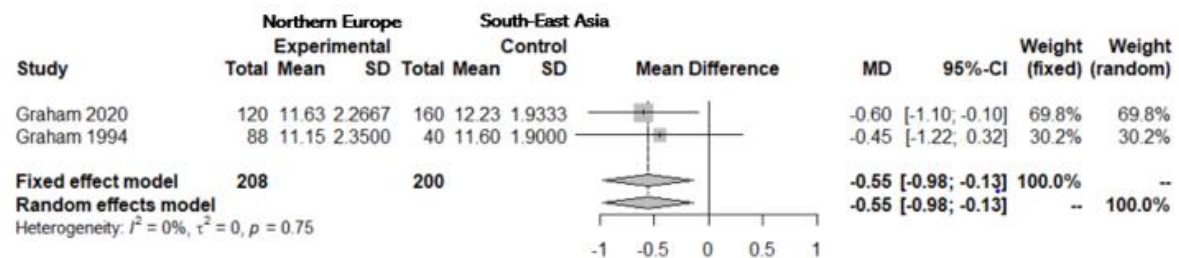


Table 20, *NeSEASIA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness*

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines both cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average the two studies together are very spread out and big which shows that the confidence interval is very large. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. The results from both studies are leaning in different directions, confidence interval from Graham 2020 is mainly to the left of the line of null effect and the confidence interval of Graham 1994 is mainly to the right of the vertical line. The results of Graham 2020 favor NE and results from Graham 1994 favor SEASIA. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either. Here, results of the first study are leaning towards the left again which indicates results favor NE and results from the second study lean towards the right which would indicate the contrary, results seem to favor SEASIA. Here, the confidence intervals are both wide, but the confidence interval of the second study is the widest. Both confidence intervals pass through the line of null effect. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive for both studies. Here, the 95% confident intervals are narrow and do not pass the line of null effect. The square is biggest for the first study,

showing the first study is more important than the second study. The confidence intervals lie to the left which indicates that results favor NE. Furthermore, the diamonds are narrow which indicates statistical significance. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence interval of the first study does not pass the line of null effect which is a sign of statistical significance but the confidence interval line of the second study does pass the vertical line. For this study, results lean towards the left which indicates that the meta-analysis favors NE. In this case the diamonds are relatively wide, but they do not pass the line of null effect which is another sign of statistical significance.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plot for the individual profit variable, as well as the plot for the PSA and the negotiator's attractiveness variables indicating that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. This is different for the forest plot for the satisfaction variable. In that case, I^2 equals 42%. This is high and indicates that the differences in results from different studies are likely to be attributed to calculation errors. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals 0.32 the first forest plot, 0.19 for the second plot, 0.38 for the third plot and 0.75 for the fourth plot. Those values are all bigger than 0.05 which means the studies are not too different from each other and enable a comparison. (Sandercock, 2011).

The fifth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions South-East Asia and the Slavic region.

With the results of the meta-analysis the following function was used: forest(m.SEA-SIASL1.raw) and produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

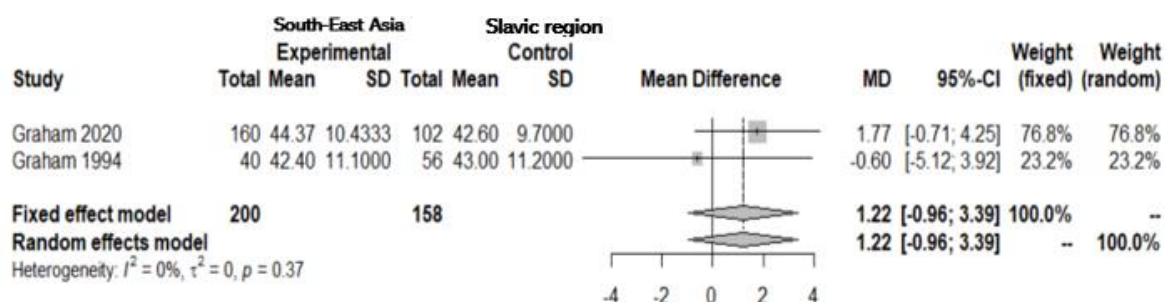


Table 21, SEASIASI forest plot profits

For the second variable, the following function was used: forest(m.SEASIASL2.raw) and produced the forest plot for the satisfaction variable.

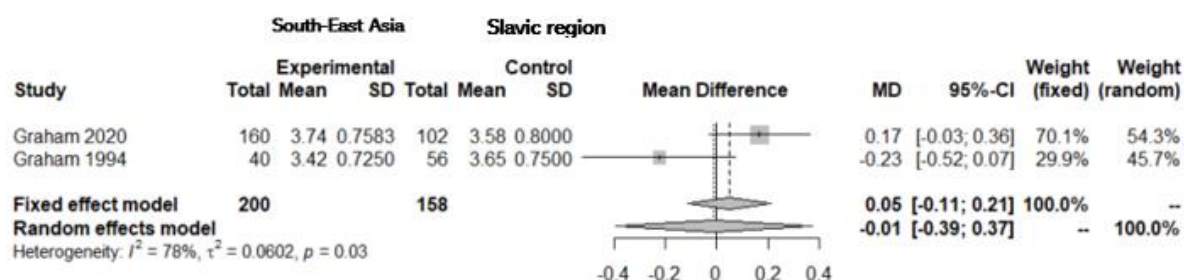


Table 22, SEASIASI forest plot satisfaction

For the third variable, the following function forest(m.SEASIASL3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

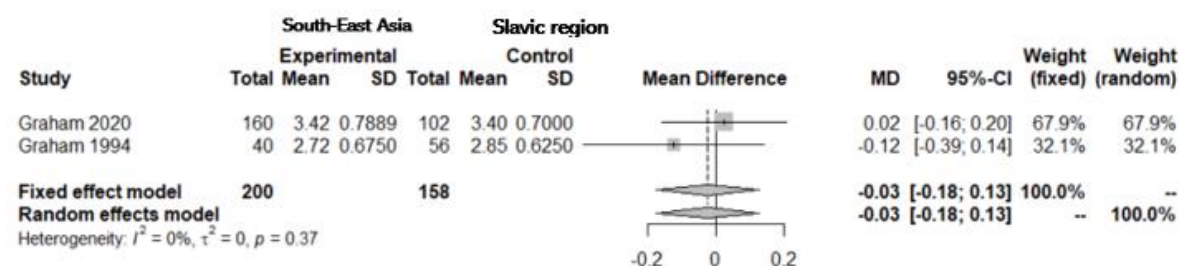


Table 23, SEASIASI forest plot PSA

For the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.SEASIASL4.raw)

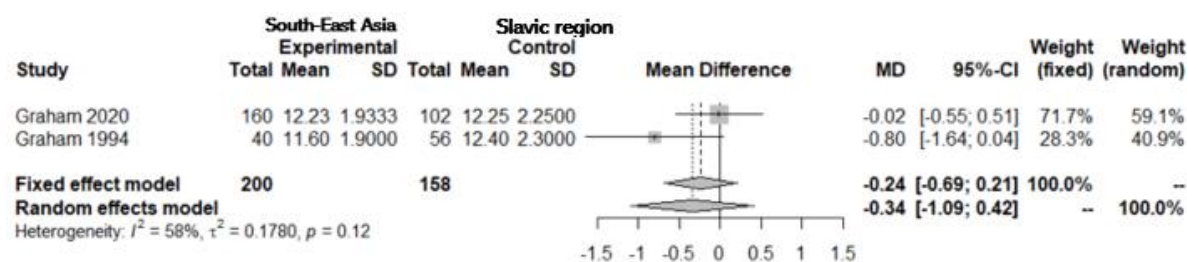


Table 24, SEASIASI forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines both cross the vertical line of null effect. The confidence interval of the second study, Graham 1994, is unusually big which shows even more statistical insignificance. The diamonds which combine and

average the two studies together are very spread out and big which shows that the confidence interval is very large. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. The results from both studies are leaning in different directions, confidence interval from Graham 2020 is mainly to the right of the line of null effect and the confidence interval of Graham 1994 is mainly to the left of the vertical line. The results of Graham 2020 favor the Slavic region and results from Graham 1994 favor SEASIA. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either. Here, results of the first study are leaning towards the right which indicates results favor SL and results from the second study lean towards the left which would indicate the contrary, results seem to favor SEASIA. Here, the confidence for Graham 2020 is relatively narrow but it passes the line of null effect, as does the confidence interval of Graham 1994, which is slightly wider. The diamond, for the random effects model is very wide compared to the diamond of the fixed effect model. For the PSA variable, results were not more conclusive for either of the studies. Here, the 95% confident interval of the first study is relatively narrow but passes the line of null effect, as does the confidence interval of the second study. This line is also very wide. The confidence interval of the first study lies to the right which indicates that results favor SL and the confidence interval of the second study lies to the left, which means results favor SEASIA. Furthermore, the diamonds are wide and pass the line of null effect. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect again which shows that these results are statistically insignificant once more. For this study, results lean towards the left which indicate that the meta-analysis favors SEASIA. In this case the diamonds are relatively wide and pass the line of null effect.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plot for the individual profit variable, as well as the plot for the PSA variables indicating that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. This is different for the forest plots for the satisfaction and negotiator's attractiveness variables. In that case, I^2 equals 78% and 58% respectively. This is high and indicates that the differences in results from different studies are likely to be attributed to calculation errors. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals 0.37 for the first forest plot, 0.37 for the third plot, and 0.12 for the fourth plot. Those three values are bigger or much bigger than 0.05 which indicates that in the case of the profits, PSA and the negotiator's attractiveness the studies are similar enough to be used together. However, the p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.03 in the forest plot of the satisfaction variable. This value is smaller than 0.05. For this variable the studies are too diverse to enable a summarized conclusion (Sandercock, 2011).

The sixth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions of the Slavic regions and Northern Europe.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function forest(m.SlNE1.raw) was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the profits variable:

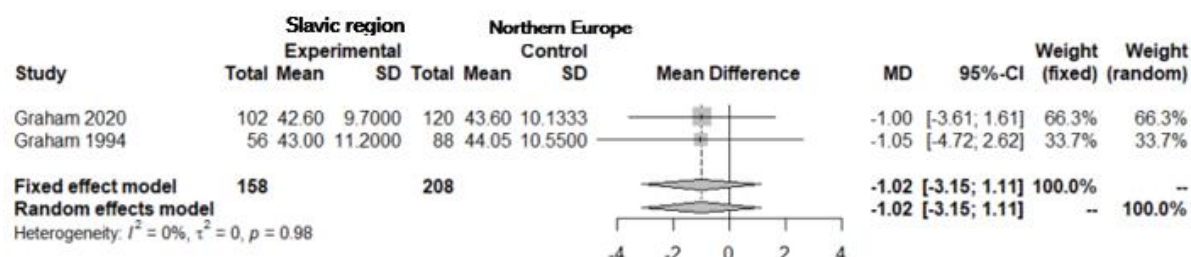


Table 25, *SlNe forest plot profits*

For the second variable, the function forest(m.SlNE2.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the satisfaction variable.

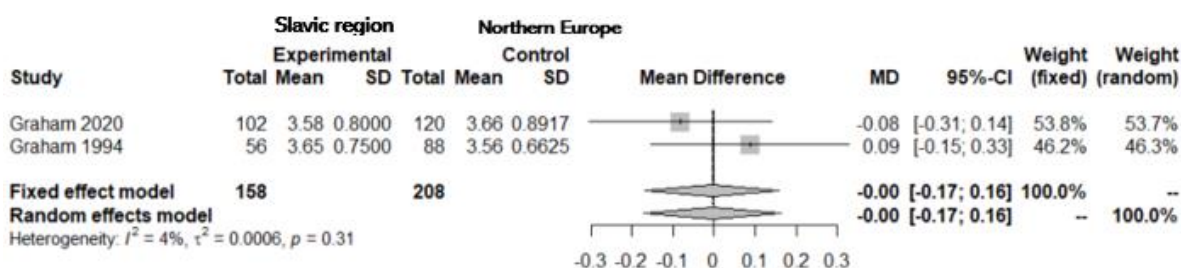


Table 26, *SlNe forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, PSA, the following function was used:

forest(m.SlNE3.raw)

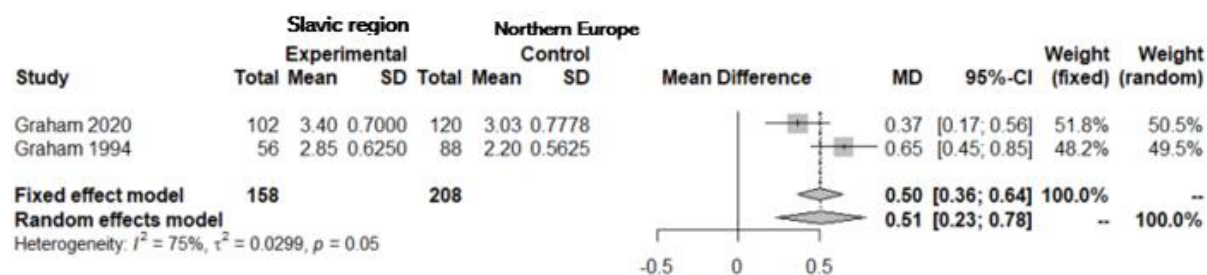


Table 27, *SlNe forest plot PSA*

And last but not least, for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.SlNe4.raw)

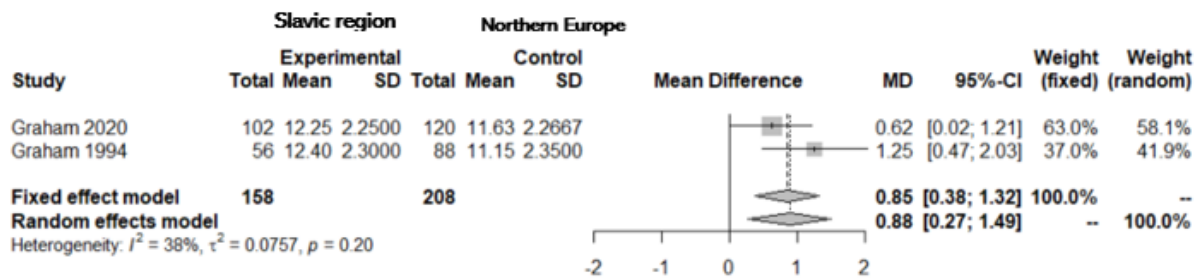


Table 28, *SlNe forest plot negotiator's attractiveness*

The forest plot looking at the profits variable show that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines both cross the vertical line of null effect. In addition to that, the confident intervals are both big. The diamonds which combine and average the two studies together are very spread out which shows that the confidence interval is large. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. The results from both studies are leaning towards the left of null effect showing that the results favor SL. The confidence interval for the first study is slightly smaller than for the second study. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either. Here, results of the first study are leaning towards the left which indicates results favor SL and results from the second study lean towards the right which would indicate the contrary, results seem to favor NE. Here, the confidence intervals are both wide. Both confidence intervals pass through the line of null effect. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive for both studies. Here, the 95% confident intervals are narrow and do not pass the line of null effect. The square is biggest for the first study, giving slightly more importance to that study. The confidence intervals lie to the right which indicates that results favor NE. Furthermore, the diamonds are relatively narrow which indicates statistical significance. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence intervals of both studies do not pass the line of null effect which is a sign of statistical significance. Both confidence intervals are a little wide and the effect size of the first study, Graham 2020, is smaller than the one for the second study, Graham 1994. For this study, results lean towards the right which indicates that the meta-analysis favors NE. In this case the diamonds are relatively narrow, and they do not pass the line of null effect which is another sign of statistical significance.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plot for the individual profit variable, in the plot for the PSA I^2 equals 4% indicating that any difference in the results from the different studies

is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. This is different for the forest plot for the PSA variable. In that case, I^2 equals 75%. This is high and indicates that the differences in results from different studies are likely to be attributed to calculation errors. For the last variable, I^2 equals 38% which is a moderate heterogeneity level. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals 0.98 for the first forest plot, 0,31 for the second plot, 0.5 for the third plot and 0.20 for the fourth plot. All four values are equal or bigger than 0.05 which indicates that data from all four studies are similar enough to be able to be summarized together (Sandercock, 2011).

The seventh table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions USA and Canada. As a reminder, the cultural region Canada uses data from both, English speaking Canadians and francophone Canadians.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.USACA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

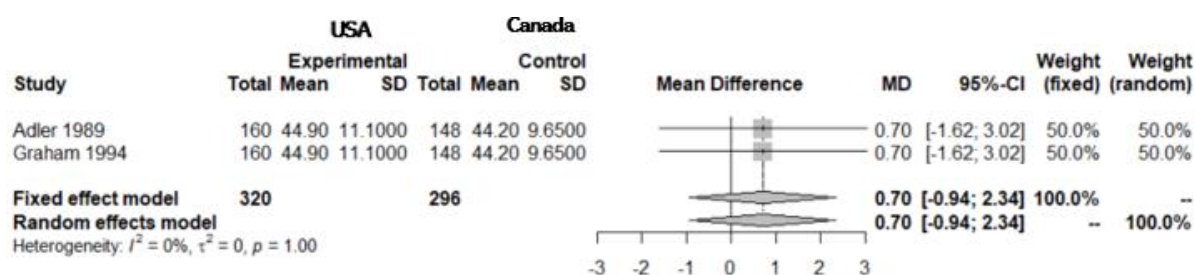


Table 29, *USACA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: `forest(m.USACA2.raw)`

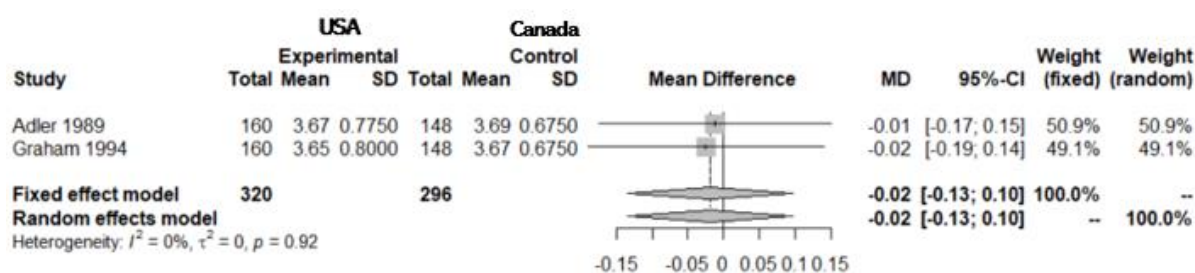


Table 30, *USACA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.USACA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

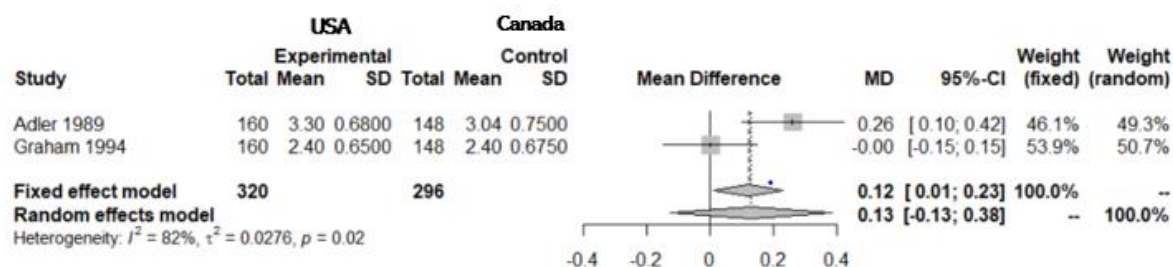


Table 31, USACA forest plot PSA

And last but not least, for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.USACA4.raw)

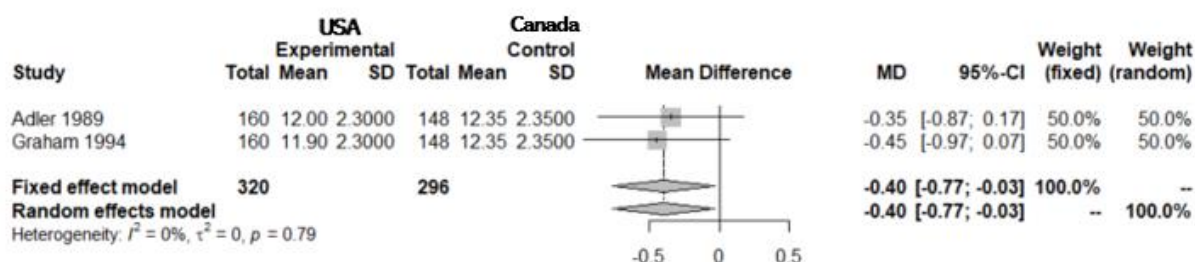


Table 32, USACA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines both cross the vertical line of null effect and both the confident intervals are big. The diamonds which combine and average the two studies together are very spread out which shows that the confidence interval is large. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. The results from both studies are leaning towards the right of null effect showing that the results favor Canada. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either. Here, results of both studies are leaning towards the left which indicates results favor the USA. Here, the confidence intervals are both wide. Both confidence intervals pass through the line of null effect. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive for the first study, Adler 1989 but not the second study, Graham 1994. Both 95% confident intervals are narrow but the confidence interval of the second study passes the line of null effect. The confidence interval of the first study lies to the right which indicates that results favor Canada. The diamond of the fixed effect model is relatively narrow and does not pass the line of null effect which shows statistical

significance. However, the diamond of the random effects model passes the line of null effect and is very wide. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect which shows results are not statistically significant. Both confidence intervals are relatively wide. For this study, results lean towards the left which indicates that the meta-analysis favors USA.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the plot for the individual profit variable, in the plot for the satisfaction as well as in the plot for the negotiator's attractiveness variable. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. I^2 equals 82% in the PSA variable forest plot indicating that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by an error in calculations rather than chance. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 1 in the first forest plot, 0,92 in the second plot, 0.79 for the fourth plot. All three values are much bigger than 0.05 which indicates that in those cases the studies are homogenous enough to be put together and analyzed as one. However, for the PSA variable p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.02 which is smaller than 0.05, meaning that in this case the studies differ too much in order to summarize results (Sandercock, 2011).

The eight table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions USA and the Slavic region.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.USASl1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

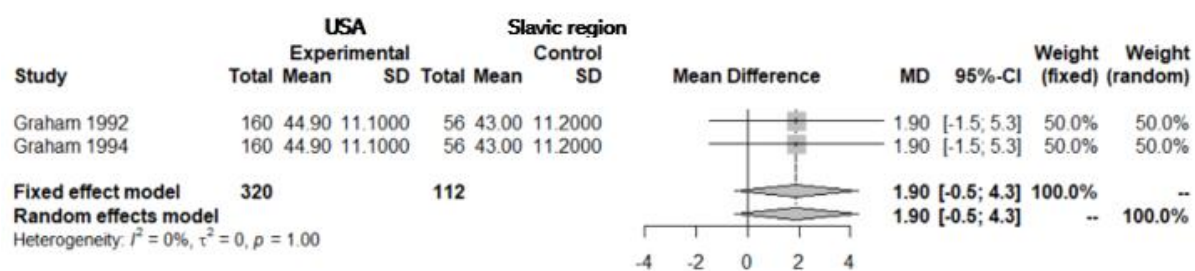


Table 33, *USASl forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.USASl2.raw)

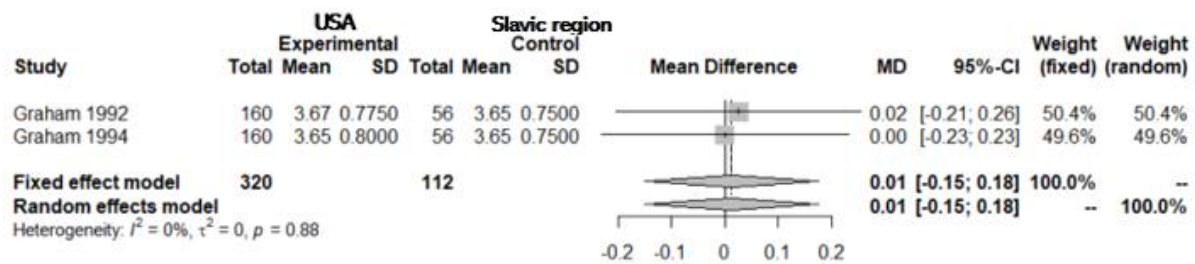


Table 34, USASl forest plot satisfaction

For the third variable, the function forest(m.USASl3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

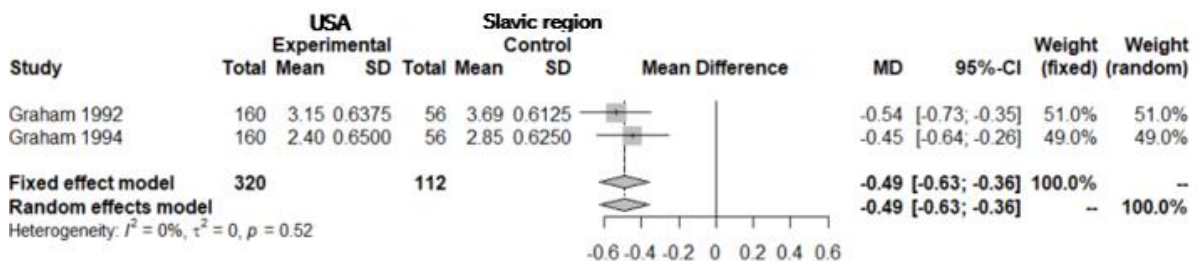


Table 35, USASl forest plot PSA

And for the last variable, negotiator's attractiveness, the following function was used: forest(m.USASl4.raw)

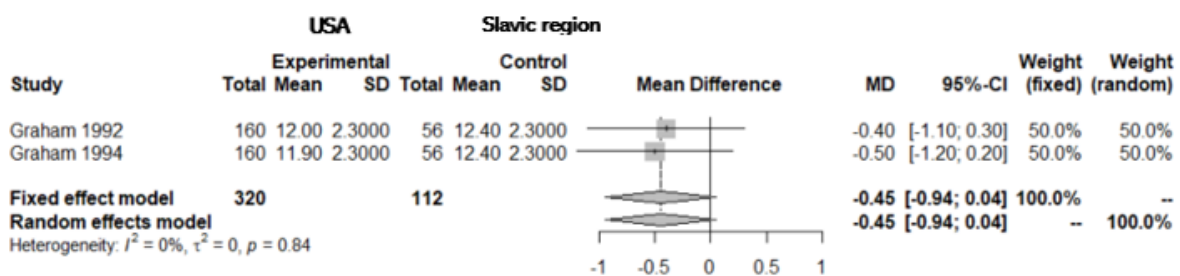


Table 36, USASl forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines both cross the vertical line of null effect and both confident intervals are big. The diamonds which combine and average the two studies together are very spread out which shows that the confidence interval is large. Furthermore, both pass the line of null effect. The results from both studies are leaning towards the right of null effect showing that the results favor SL. The results of the

meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either. Here, results of the first study, Graham 1992 is leaning towards the right which indicates results favor the SL. The confidence interval of the second study, Graham 1994, does not lean to any side. Both confidence intervals pass through the line of null effect. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive. Both 95% confident intervals are narrow and do not pass the line of null effect. The confidence intervals of both studies lie to the left which indicates that results favor the USA. The diamonds do not pass the line of null effect and are both narrow which shows statistical significance. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect which shows results are not statistically significant. Both lines lean towards the left which indicates that the meta-analysis favors the USA.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 0% in the four plots. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 1 in the first forest plot, 0.88 for the second plot, 0,52 for the third plot and 0.84 for the fourth plot. All values are much bigger than 0.05 which means the studies are homogenous enough (Sandercock, 2011).

The ninth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions China and South East Asia.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function forest(m.ChSEASIA1.raw) was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

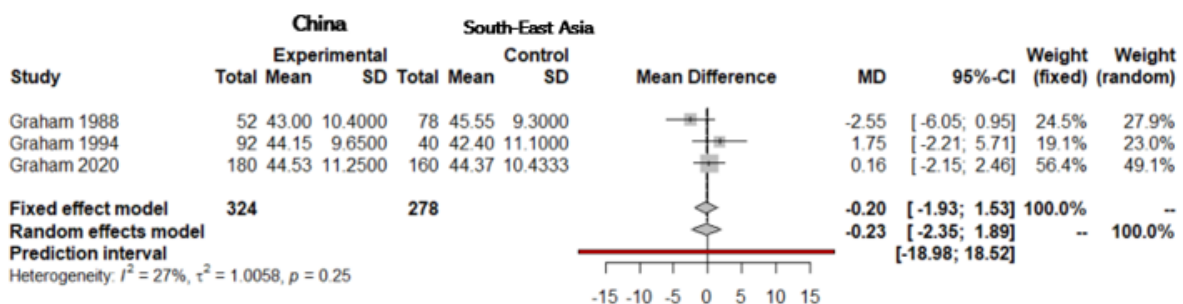


Table 37, ChSEASIA forest plot profits

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.ChSEASIA2.raw)

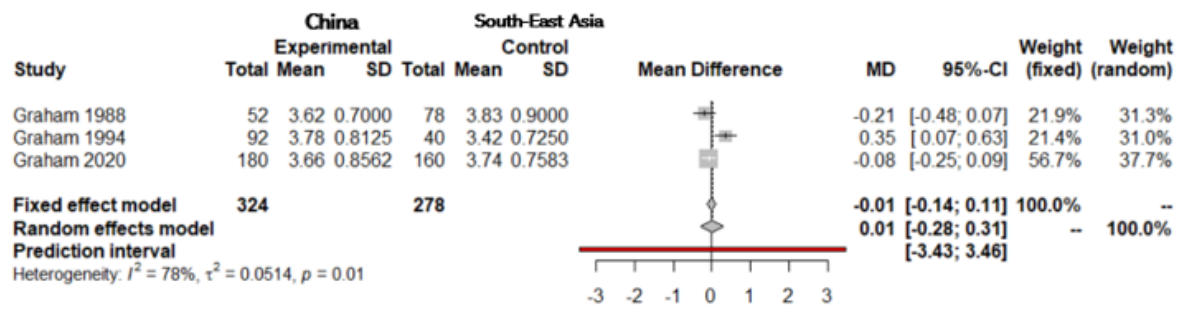


Table 38, *ChSEASIA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.ChSEASIA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

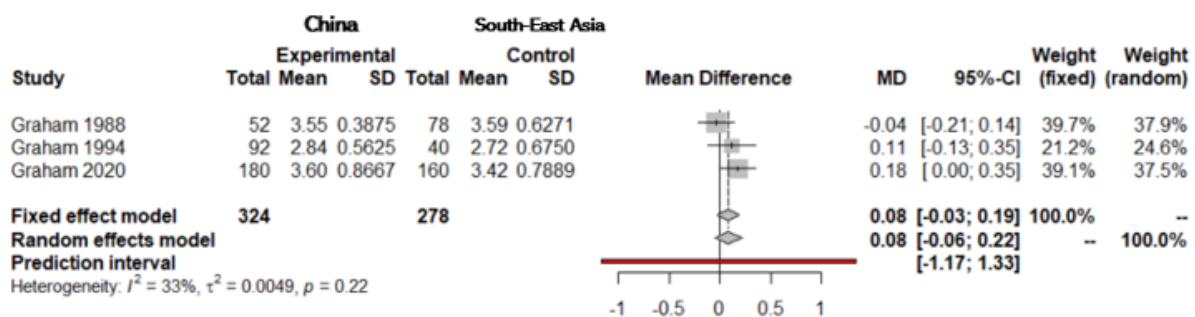


Table 39, *ChSEASIA forest plot PSA*

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.ChSEASIA4.raw)

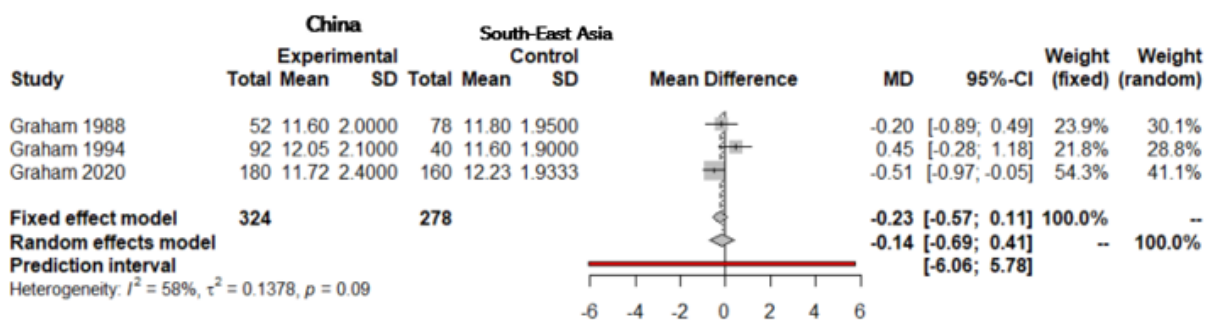


Table 40, *ChSEASIA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness*

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from the three studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average the three studies together are narrow but pass the line of null effect. The results from the first study, Graham 1988, are leaning towards the left of null effect showing that the results favor China. The other two confidence

intervals corresponding to the studies Graham 1994 and Graham 2020 are leaning to the right of the line of null effect which favors SEASIA. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were not statistically significant either for study one or study three as they both pass the line of null effect. The confidence interval of study two however does not pass the line of null effect. That being said, the effect size of the second study is the largest of all three. All three confidence intervals are very narrow, as are the diamonds that both pass the line of null effect as well. Here, results of the first and third study are leaning towards the left which indicates results favor China. The confidence interval of the second study leans to the right, favoring SEASIA. For the PSA variable, results were not conclusive either. All three 95% confident intervals are narrow but pass the line of null effect. The confidence intervals of the studies two and three lie to the right which indicates that results favor the SEASIA. On the other hand, the confidence interval of the first study slightly lies to the left, indicating that the results favor China. The diamonds pass the line of null effect as well. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence intervals of all three studies pass the line of null effect which shows results are not statistically significant. The lines of the studies number one and three are leaning towards the left, favoring China but the line of study two leans to the right, indicating results favor SEASIA.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals 27% in the first plot and 33% in the third plot which could both be seen as not important. The second plot has an I^2 value of 78% and the fourth plot has an I^2 value of 58% which are considered as substantial heterogeneity values. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by an error in calculations rather than chance for the plots number two and four. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.25 in the first forest plot, 0.22 for the third plot and 0.09 for the fourth plot. This means that for those three variables, the studies are similar enough to be able to enable a summarized conclusion. The p value for the test of heterogeneity for the satisfaction variable equals to 0.01 which in turn is smaller than 0.05, meaning in that case both studies are too heterogenous to enable a summarized conclusion (Sandercock, 2011).

The tenth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions Southern Europe and Latin America. As a reminder, the cultural region SE used data from France and Spain and the LA region encompasses data from Brazil and Mexico.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.SELA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

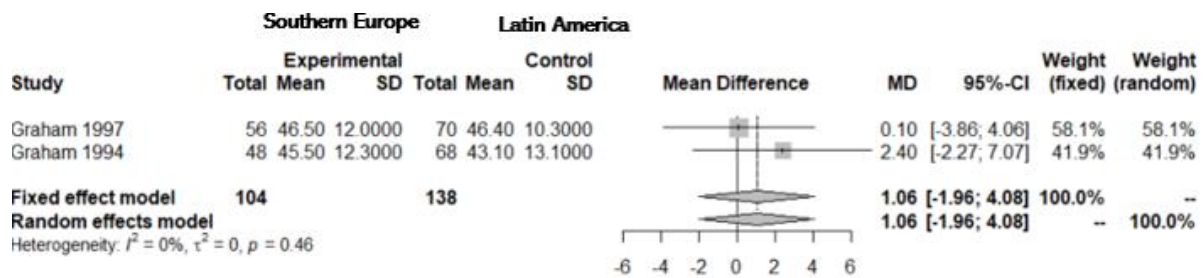


Table 41, *SeLA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.SELA2.raw)

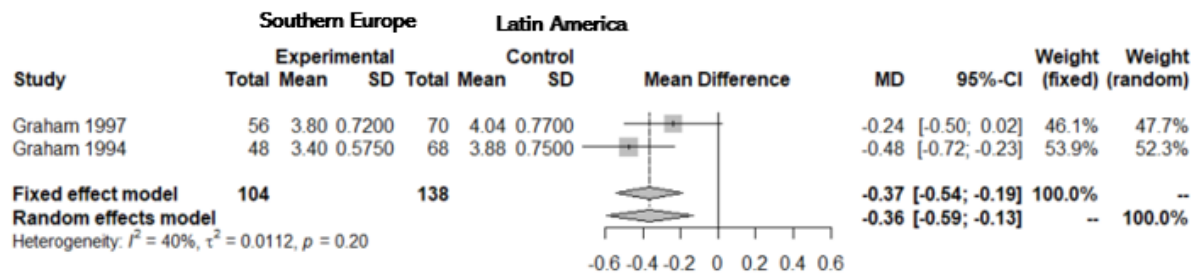


Table 42, *SeLA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.SELA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

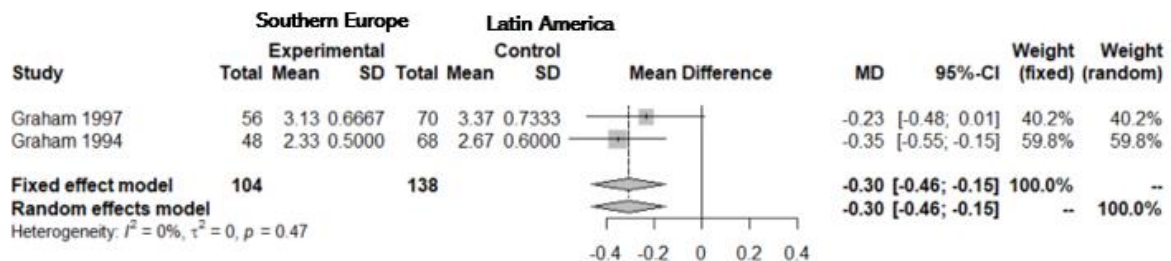


Table 43, *SeLA forest plot PSA*

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.SELA4.raw)

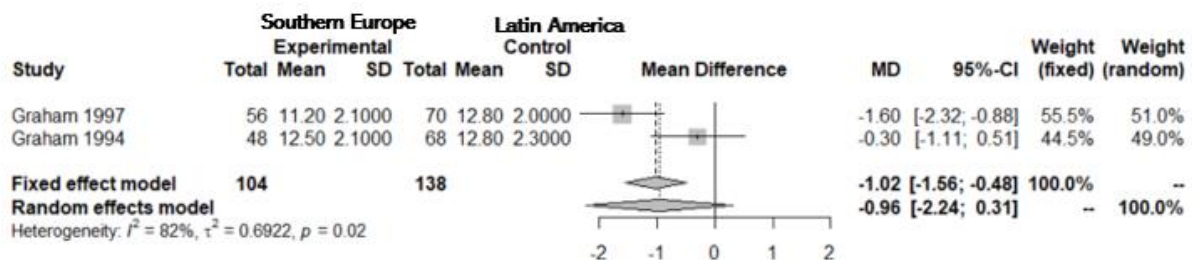


Table 44, *SELA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness*

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are wide and pass the line of null effect. The results are leaning towards the right of the null effect line showing that the results favor LA. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were partially statistically significant. The confidence interval of the first study, Graham 1997, passes the line of null effect which makes these results insignificant. However, the confidence interval of study two, Graham 1994, does not pass the line of null effect nor do either of the diamonds. The effect size is biggest in study two. In this case, results lean to the left, indicating results favor SE. For the PSA variable, results were conclusive for study two as well. The confidence interval of study one, passes the line of null effect but the confidence interval of study two does not. Here too, the effect size of the second study is bigger compared to the first. Both confidence intervals mostly lie to the left of the line of null effect, indicating that results favor SE. The diamonds are relatively wide but do not pass the line of null effect in this case. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence of the first study does not pass the line of null effect, but the confidence interval of the second study does, which shows results are partially statistically significant. Both confidence intervals are leaning towards the left, favoring SE. The diamonds do not pass the line of null effect either.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the first and third forest plots which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the forest plot number two, I^2 equals to 40% which could still be seen as a moderate amount of heterogeneity. The fourth forest plots' I^2 value equals to 82% which is considered as substantial heterogeneity values. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by an error in calculations rather than chance. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.46 in the first forest plot, 0.20 in the second plot and - 0,46 in the third plot. All three values are bigger than 0.05 which indicates that all data for all four variables are similar enough to make it possible to put results from both studies together and analyze results together (Sandercock, 2011). The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.02 in the fourth forest plot. This value being smaller than 0.05 indicates that the studies used in this meta-analysis are too heterogenous for the negotiator's attractiveness variable and don't enable a comparison (Sandercock, 2011).

The eleventh table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions Southern Europe and South-East Asia.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function forest(m.SESEASIA1.raw) was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

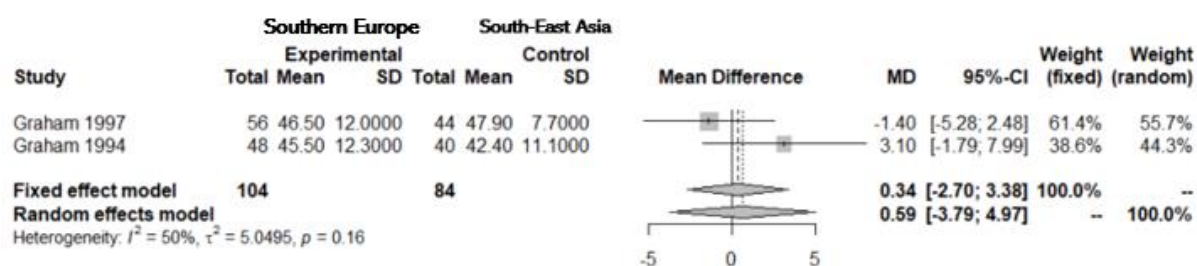


Table 45, *SeSEASIA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.SESEASIA2.raw)

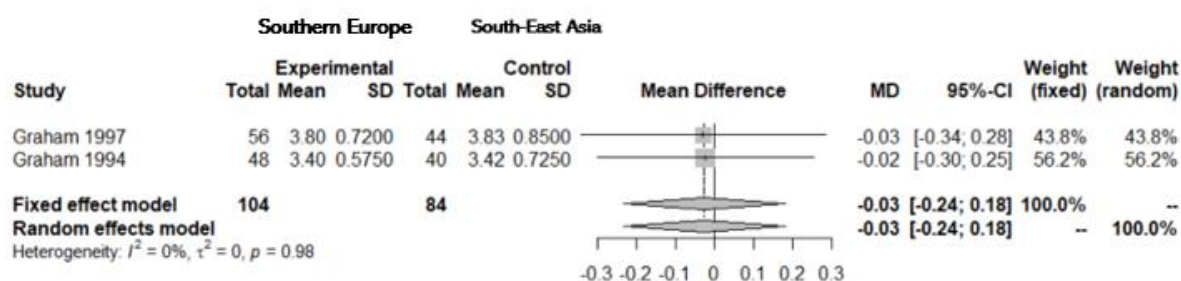


Table 46, *SeSEASIA forest pot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.SESEASIA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable.

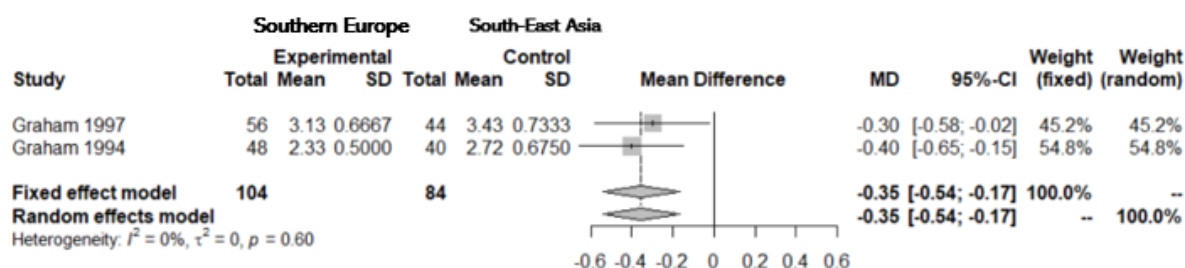


Table 47, *SeSEASIA forest plot PSA*

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used:
forest(m.SESEASIA4.raw)

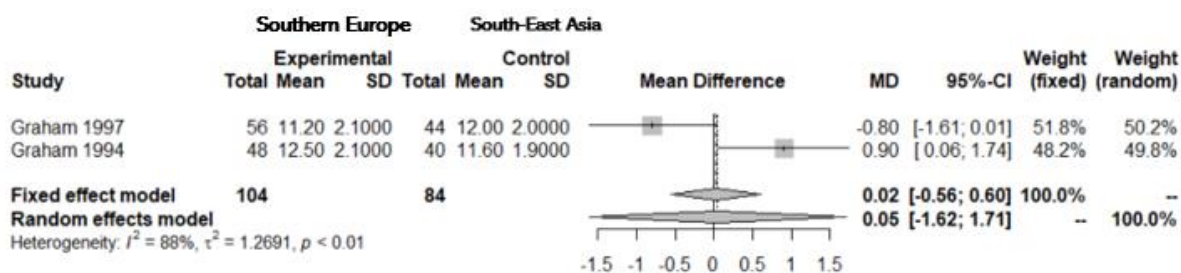


Table 48, SeSEASIA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from both studies concerning both regions were not statistically significant as the confidence interval lines cross the vertical line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are very wide and pass the line of null effect. The results of the first study, Graham 1997, are leaning towards the left of the null effect line showing that the results favor SE and the results of the second study, Graham 1994, are leaning towards the right, favoring SEASIA. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable are statistically insignificant as well. The confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect which makes these results insignificant. The diamonds are also very wide in this case. Both confidence intervals slightly lean towards the left, favoring SE. For the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive. The confidence intervals do not pass the line of null effect. The effect size of the second study is bigger compared to the first. Both confidence intervals lie to the left of the line of null effect, indicating that results favor SE. The diamonds are relatively narrow and do not pass the line of null effect in this case. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence interval of the first study does pass the line of null effect, but the confidence interval of the second study does not, which shows results are partially statistically significant. Both confidence intervals are leaning in opposite directions, the confidence interval of the first study leans towards the left favoring SE and the confidence interval of the second study leans towards the right, favoring SEASIA. The diamonds pass the line of null effect, and the random effects model diamond is very wide.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the second and third forest plots which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the forest plot number one, I^2 equals to 50% which could still be seen as a moderate amount of heterogeneity. The fourth forest plots' I^2 value equals to 88% which is

considered as a substantial heterogeneity value. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by an error in calculations rather than chance. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.16 in the first forest plot, and 0.98 in the second plot and 0.60 in the third plot. The three values are bigger than 0,05 which means both studies are similar enough. On the other hand, p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to -0.01 for the fourth forest plot. In this case the value is smaller than 0.05 which indicates that both studies are too heterogenous to enable a combined analysis (Sandercock, 2011).

The twelfth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions South-East Asia and Canada.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.SEASIACA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

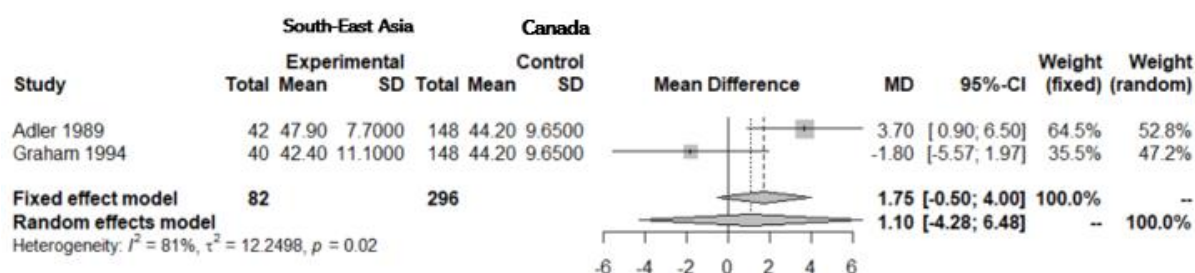


Table 49, *SEASIACA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: `forest(m.SEASIACA2.raw)`

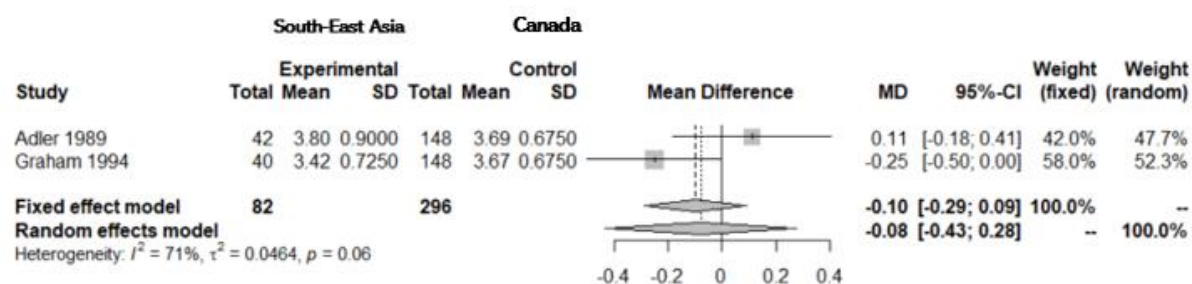


Table 50, *SEASIACA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.SEASIACA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable

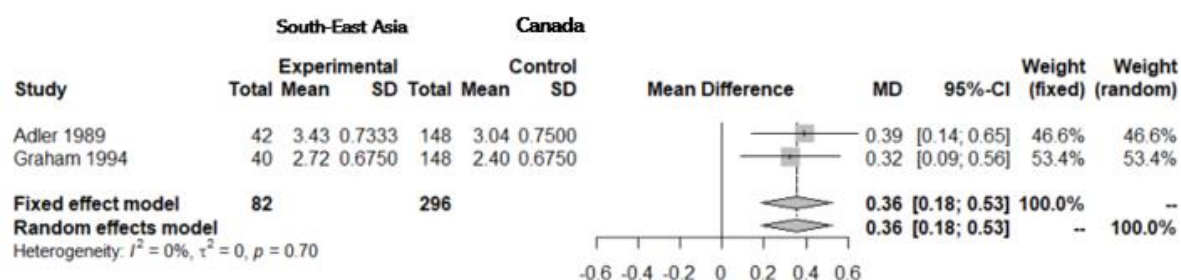


Table 51, SEASIACA forest plot PSA

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used:
forest(m.SEASIACA4.raw)

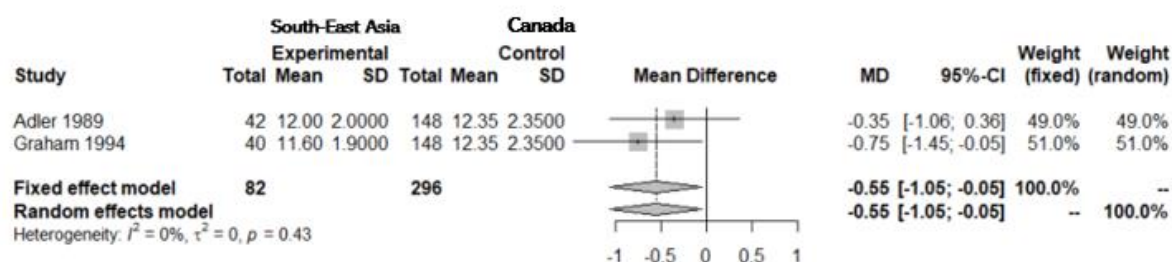


Table 52, SEASIACA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results from the second study, Graham 1994, was not statistically significant as the confidence interval crosses the vertical line of null effect but the results of the first study, Adler 1989, are significant as it does not cross the line of null effect. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are wide, especially the diamond of the random effects model, and pass the line of null effect. The results of the first study are leaning towards the right of the null effect line showing that the results favor CA and the results of the second study are leaning towards the left, favoring SEASIA. The square of the first study is bigger than the square of the second study, meaning that the first study is more important in this analysis. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable are statistically insignificant. The confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect which makes these results insignificant. The diamonds are very wide in this case as well. The confidence interval of the first study leans to the right, indicating results favor CA and the confidence interval of the second study leans towards the left, favoring SEASIA. For

the PSA variable, results were much more conclusive. The confidence intervals do not pass the line of null effect. Both confidence intervals lie to the right of the line of null effect, indicating that results favor CA. The diamonds are relatively narrow and do not pass the line of null effect in this case. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results show that the confidence interval of the second study does pass the line of null effect, but the confidence interval of the first study does not, which shows results are partially statistically significant. Both confidence intervals are leaning to the left of the line of null effect, showing that results favor SEASIA. The diamonds do not pass the line of null effect, but both are relatively wide.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the third and fourth forest plots which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the forest plot number one, I^2 equals to 81% and the second forest plots' I^2 value equals to 71% which are considered as substantial heterogeneity values. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by an error in calculations rather than chance. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.06 in the second forest plot, to 0.70 in the third forest plot, 0.43 in the fourth plot. Those values are bigger than 0.05 which means that for all three variables both studies are similar enough which enables an estimate of overall effect from those studies (Sandercock, 2011). The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.02 in the second forest plot. This value is smaller than 0.05 which indicates that both studies are too heterogenous to enable a combined comparison (Sandercock, 2011).

The thirteenth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions South-East Asia and Latin America.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.SEASIALA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

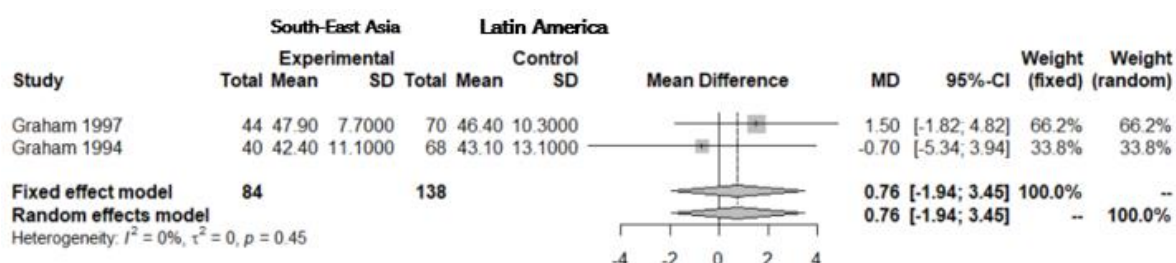


Table 53, SEASIALA forest plot profits

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.SEASIALA2.raw)

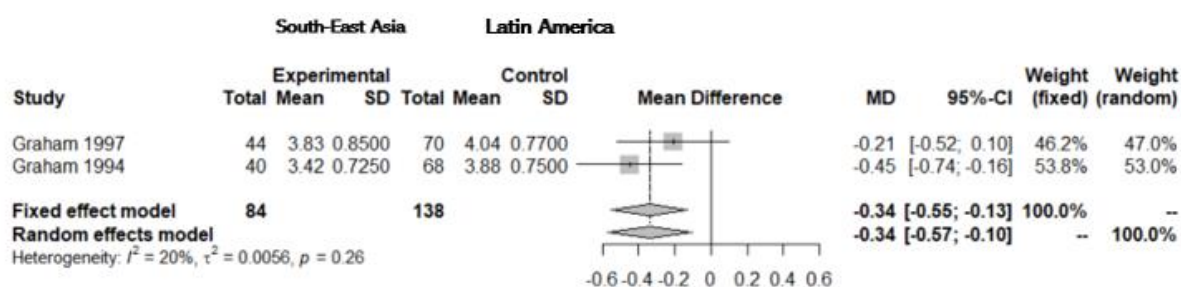


Table 54, SEASIALA forest plot satisfaction

For the third variable, the function forest(m.SEASIALA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable

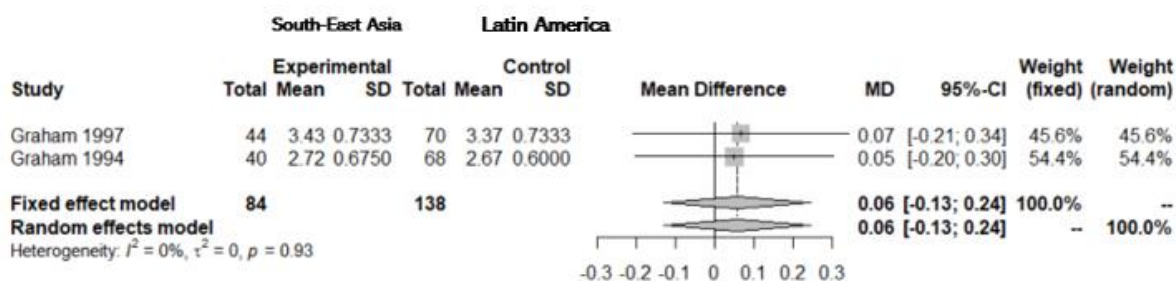


Table 55, SEASIALA forest plot PSA

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.SEASIALA4.raw)

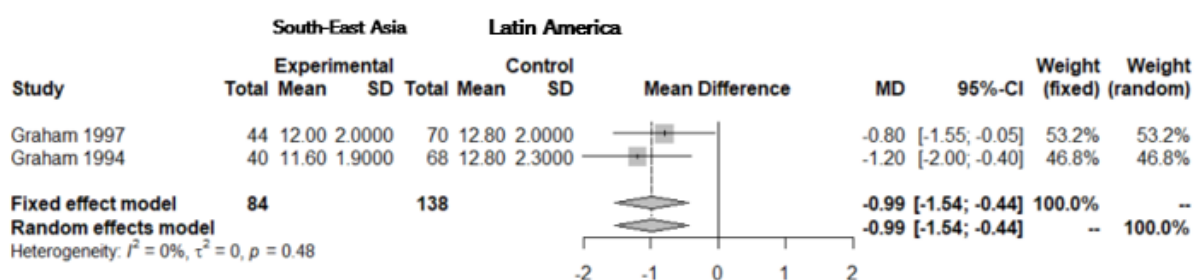


Table 56, SEASIALA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results were not statistically significant as the confidence intervals of both studies cross the vertical line of null effect but the results of the first study, Graham 1997, lean towards the right, indicating results favor LA and the confidence interval of the second study, Graham 1994, lean towards the left, favoring SEASIA. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are very wide and pass the line of null effect. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable are partially statistically

significant. The confidence interval of the first study passes the line of null effect which makes these results insignificant. The confidence intervals of the second study does not pass the line of null effect which shows statistical significance. The square of the second study is slightly bigger than the one of the first study which gives this study some more importance. The diamonds do not pass the line of null effect showing some statistical significance as well. Both confidence intervals lean to the left, indicating results favor SEASIA. For the PSA variable, results were not conclusive. The confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect. Both confidence intervals lie slightly to the right of the line of null effect, indicating that results favor LA. The diamonds are very wide and pass the line of null effect. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results are much more conclusive. Neither of the confidence intervals pass the line of null effect, nor do the diamonds. Both confidence intervals are leaning to the left of the line of null effect, showing that results favor SEASIA. The square of the first study is bigger than the one of the second study which gives the first study a little more importance in this study.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the first, third and fourth forest plots which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the second plot, I^2 equals to 20% which is considered as a low heterogeneity value. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is likely to be caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.45 in the first forest plot, 0.26 in the second plot, 0.93 in the third plot and 0.48 in the fourth plot. All four values are bigger than 0.05 which indicates that for all four variables the studies are homogenous enough for the data of the studies to be put together and analyzed as one (Sandercock, 2011).

The fourteenth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural of the USA and Latin America.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.USALA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

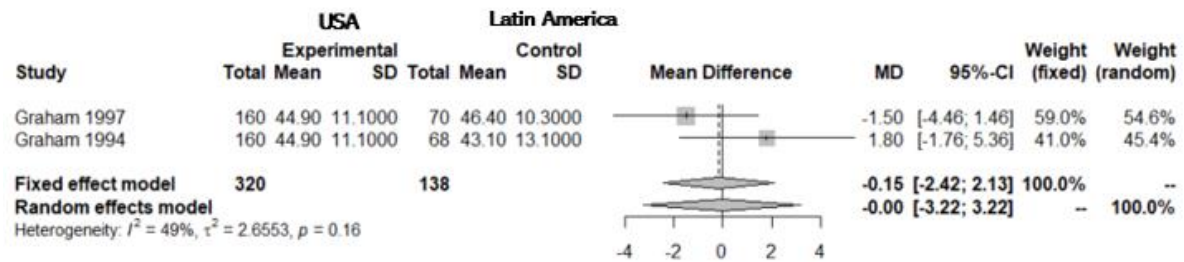


Table 57, *USALA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.USALA2.raw)

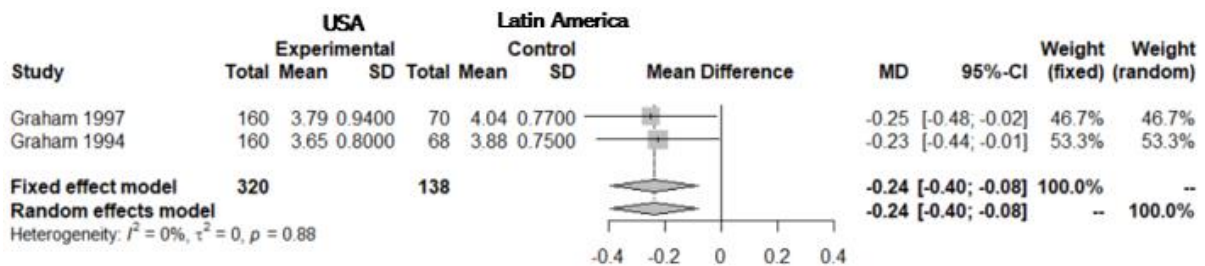


Table 58, *USALA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.USALA3.raw) was used and produced the produced the forest plot for the PSA variable

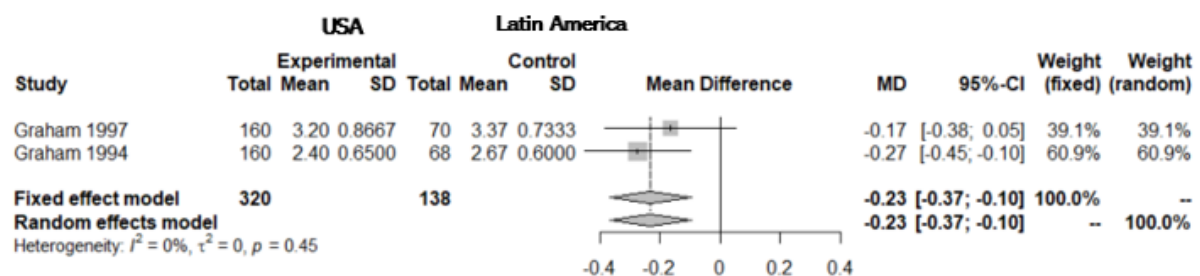


Table 59, *USALA forest plot PSA*

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used:
forest(m.USALA4.raw)

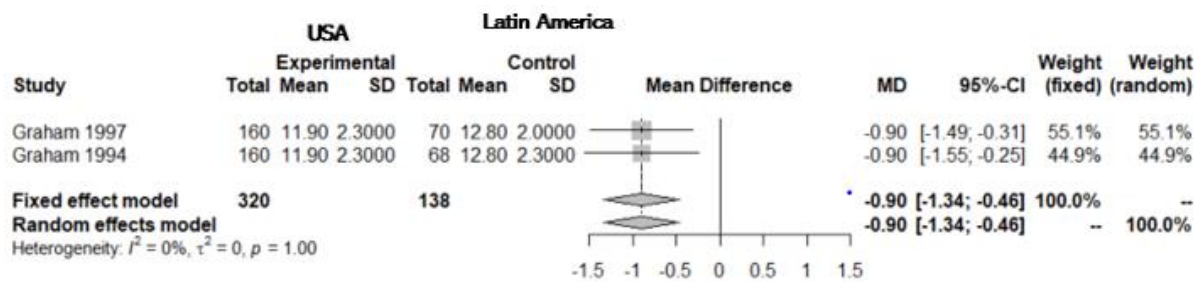


Table 60, USALA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable show that results were not statistically significant as the confidence intervals of both studies cross the vertical line of null effect but the results of the first study, Graham 1997, lean towards the left, indicating results favor the USA and the confidence interval of the second study, Graham 1994, leans towards the right, favoring LA. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are very wide, especially the random effects model diamond and pass the line of null effect. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable were significant. The confidence intervals of either study do not pass the line of null effect which makes these results significant. Even though the diamonds are relatively wide, they do not pass the line of null effect showing some statistical significance as well. Both confidence intervals lean to the left, indicating results favor the USA. For the PSA variable, results were partially conclusive. The confidence interval of the first study passes the line of null effect and the confidence interval of the second study does not. Both confidence intervals lie slightly to the left of the line of null effect, indicating that results favor the USA. The diamonds are relatively narrow and do not pass the line of null effect which means the overall result is significant. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results are much more conclusive. Neither of the confidence intervals pass the line of null effect, nor do the diamonds. Both confidence intervals are leaning to the left of the line of null effect, showing that results favor the USA. The square of the first study is bigger than the one of the second study which shows that in this analysis, the first study weighs more.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the second, third and fourth forest plots which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the first plot, I^2 equals to 49% which is considered as a moderate heterogeneity value. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies

is likely to be caused by chance or an error in calculations. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.16 in the first forest plot, 0.88 in the second plot, 0.45 in the third plot and 1 in the fourth plot. All four values are bigger than 0.05 which means that both studies are similar enough to make a summarized conclusion based on the studies (Sandercock, 2011).

The fifteenth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions of the USA and South-East Asia.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.USASEASIA1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

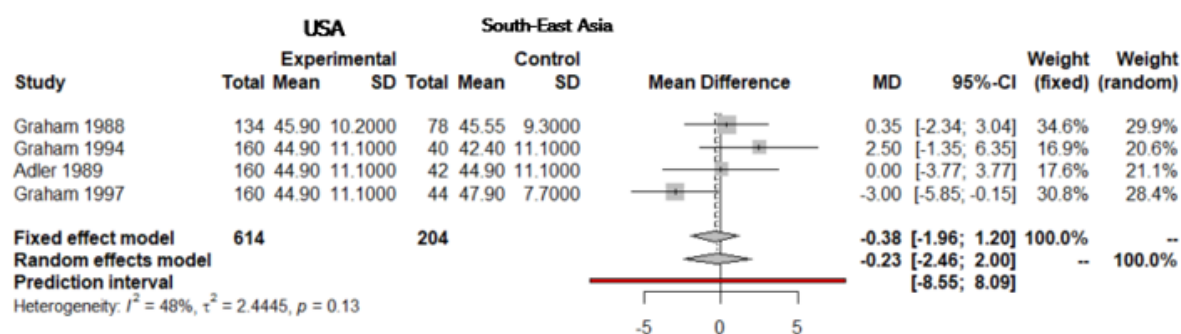


Table 61, *USASEASIA forest plot profits*

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: `forest(m.USASEASIA2.raw)`

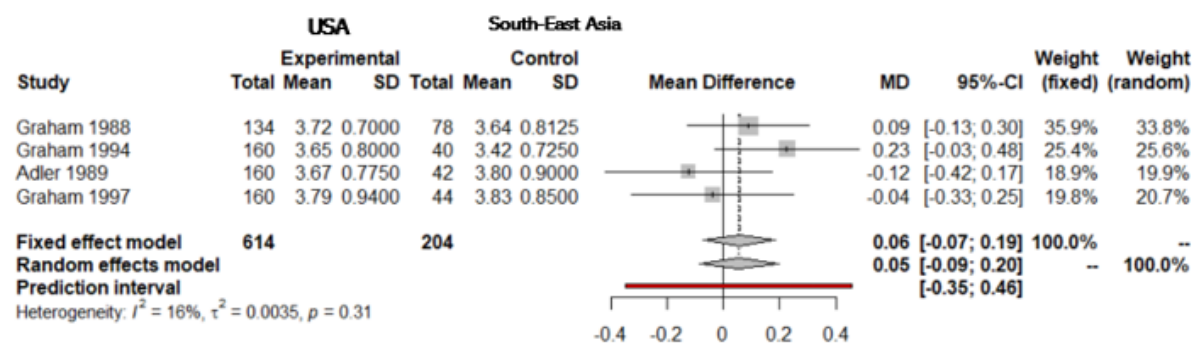


Table 62, *USASEASIA forest plot satisfaction*

For the third variable, the function forest(m.USASEASIA3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable

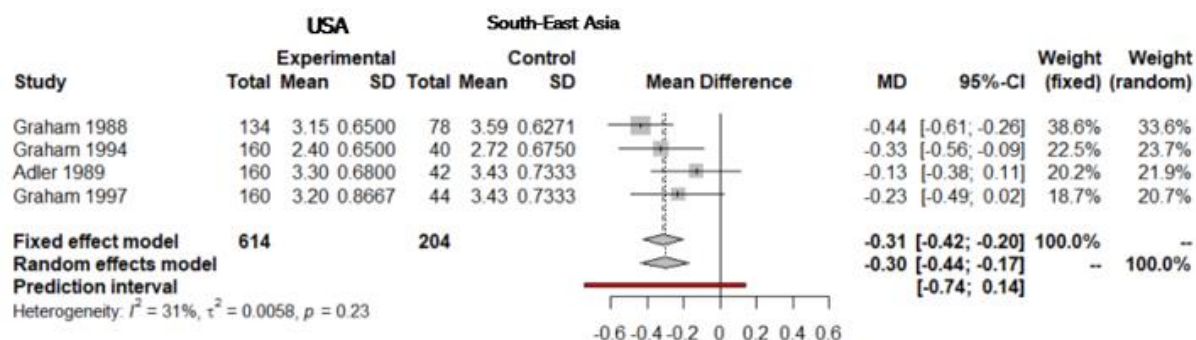


Table 63, USASEASIA forest plot PSA

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used:
forest(m.USASEASIA4.raw)

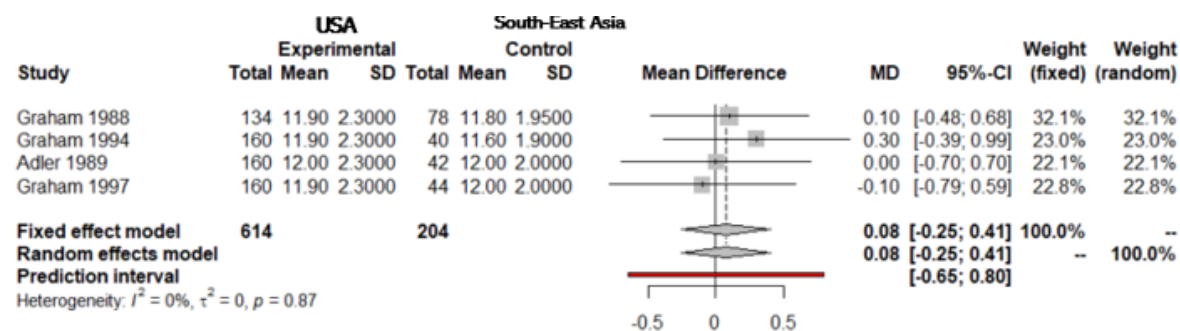


Table 64, USASEASIA forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results were not statistically significant for the most part. The confidence intervals of the three first studies, Graham 1988, Graham 1994 and Adler 1989 cross the vertical line of null effect but the confidence interval of the fourth study, Graham 1997, does not cross the vertical line. The confidence intervals of all the first three studies lean towards the right, indicating results favor SEASIA and the confidence interval of the second last study leans towards the left, favoring the USA. The diamonds which combine and average all four studies together are relatively narrow, but both pass the line of null effect. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable are not statistically significant. The confidence intervals of all four studies pass the line of null effect. The diamonds are relatively wide, and both pass the line of null effect showing no statistical significance either. The first two confidence intervals lean to the right, indicating results favor SEASIA and the last two confidence intervals lean to the left of the line of null effect, favoring the USA. For the PSA variable, results were partially conclusive but the overall results which can be seen

when looking at the diamonds is clear and conclusive and favoring the USA. The confidence interval of the first two studies do not pass the line of null effect and the confidence intervals of the last two studies do. All four confidence intervals lie to the left of the vertical line, indicating results favor the USA. The diamonds are relatively narrow and do not pass the line of null effect. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results are much less conclusive. All the confidence intervals pass the line of null effect and so do the wide diamonds. The first two confidence intervals are leaning to the right of the line of null effect, showing that results favor SEASIA. The confidence interval of the last study slightly leans towards the left, favoring the USA and the confidence interval of the third study lies exactly in the middle, not favoring any cultural region over the other.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 16% in the second forest plot and to 0% in the fourth forest plot which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is likely caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the first plot, I^2 equals to 48% and in the third plot it equals 31%. Both values are considered as moderate heterogeneity values. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is likely to be caused by chance or an error in calculations. The p values for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.13 in the first forest plot, 0.31 in the second plot, 0.23 in the third plot and 0.78 in the fourth plot. All four values are bigger than 0.05 which means that all four studies are homogenous enough to enable a common conclusion (Sandercock, 2011).

The sixteenth table that was run through R was the table comparing the cultural regions of the USA and Southern Europe.

With the results of the meta-analysis the function `forest(m.USASE1.raw)` was used and produced the forest plot with the results for the individual profits variable:

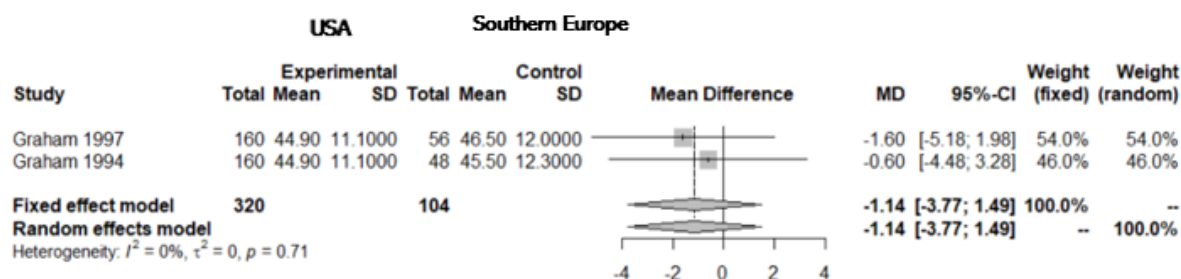


Table 65, USASe forest plot profits

For the satisfaction variable the following function was used: forest(m.USASE2.raw)

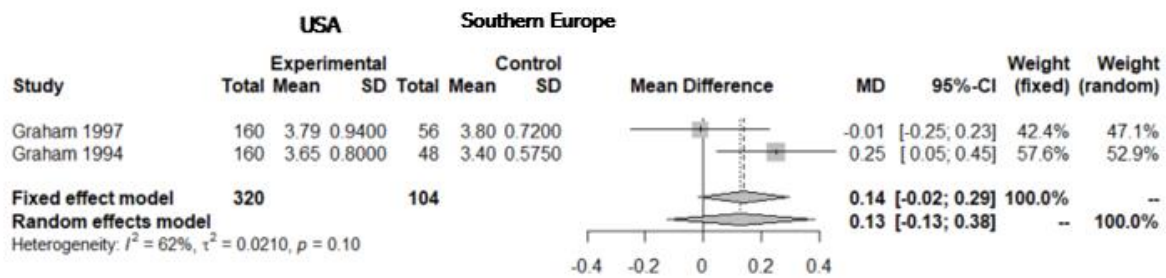


Table 66, USASe forest plot satisfaction

For the third variable, the function forest(m.USASE3.raw) was used and produced the forest plot for the PSA variable

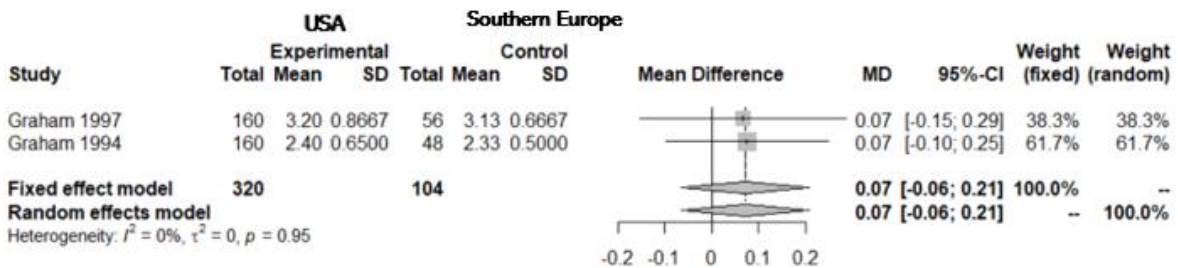


Table 67, USASe forest plot PSA

And for the last variable; negotiator's attractiveness; the following function was used: forest(m.USASE4.raw)

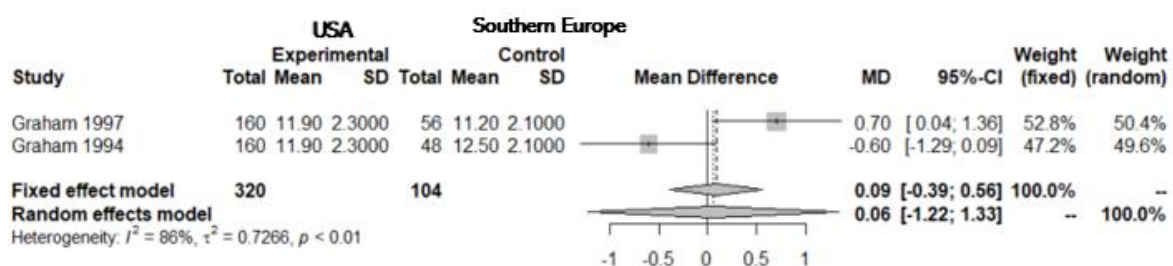


Table 68, USASe forest plot negotiator's attractiveness

The forest plot looking at the profits variable shows that results were not statistically significant. The confidence intervals of both studies cross the vertical line of null effect. The confidence intervals of both studies lean towards the left, indicating results favor the USA. The diamonds which combine and average both studies together are very wide and pass the line of null effect. The results of the meta-analysis for the satisfaction variable are partially statistically significant.

The confidence interval of the first study, Graham 1997, passes the line of null effect but the confidence interval of the second study, Graham 1994, does not pass the line of null effect. The diamonds are relatively wide, and both pass the line of null effect. The first confidence interval leans to the left very slightly, indicating results favor the USA and the second confidence interval leans to the right of the line of null effect, favoring SE. For the PSA variable, results were not conclusive. The confidence intervals of both studies pass the line of null effect. Both confidence intervals lie to the right of the vertical line, indicating results favor SE. The diamonds are relatively wide and do pass the line of null effect. For the variable negotiator's attractiveness, results are partially conclusive. The first confidence interval does not pass the line of null effect, but the confidence interval of the second study does and so do the diamonds. Here, the diamond of the random effects model is extremely wide. The first confidence interval is leaning to the right of the line of null effect, showing that results favor SE. The confidence interval of the second study leans towards the left, favoring the USA.

The heterogeneity value I^2 equals to 0% in the first and third plot which indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is likely caused by chance rather than an error in calculations. For the second plot, I^2 equals to 62% and in the fourth plot it equals to 96%. Both values are considered as substantial heterogeneity values. This indicates that any difference in the results from the different studies is caused not by chance but rather an error in calculations. The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.71 in the first forest plot, 0.10 in the second plot, and 0.95 in the third plot and 0.09 in the fourth plot. All three values are bigger than 0.05 which indicates that the studies are not too heterogenous and this makes a summarized conclusion possible (Sandercock, 2011). The p value for the test of heterogeneity equals to 0.01 in the first forest plot which is smaller than 0.05, indicating that the studies are too heterogenous to enable a combined comparison (Sandercock, 2011).

5.3 Conclusion

As a conclusion, it can be said that unfortunately very few results are statistically significant and the meta-analyses that do not have either of the confidence intervals pass the line of null effect are very few. Those results can be seen in tables 69 to 72. Most significant results were shown with the PSA variable. In most cases it has been shown that the p values for the test of heterogeneity show enough homogeneity between the studies, and for most variables to make it possible to summarize results and thus it was possible to derive an estimate of overall effect from the studies that have been used in each case (Sandercock, 2011). The results that are

statistically the most significant, or do not have the confidence intervals cross the line of null effect will be summed up and it will be attempted to interpret them in chapter five.

Chapter 6 – Discussion

People who belong to one culture share different characteristics that might be vastly different to the characteristics that people from another culture share. Culture is multidimensional and this can sometimes lead to misunderstandings. In international negotiations, when two parties from different cultures negotiate together, these misunderstandings are likely to happen, and they can lead to an unsuccessful negotiation. Both negotiating parties will have a strategic advantage once they gather some information on their counterparts' culture and how the opposing party might operate while negotiating. With this information in mind, negotiators can choose to use several different negotiation strategies that might work for some cultures but not others. The choice of this strategy depends on many different factors, including ones' goals for the negotiation whether they are relational or substantive for example, ones' experience or the relationship one wants to build or maintain with the opposing negotiator. Of course, ones' culture will also influence the chosen negotiation strategy and so will the culture of the opposing party. The interesting question is, in what ways does culture influence the negotiation strategy? And how are different cultures influencing strategies in different ways?

The purpose of this study was to research about strategies that managers are choosing in intra-cultural negotiation settings and to compare these between themselves. In order to do this, a meta-analysis was conducted: seven studies that were published in a span of 22 years have been identified. Each study focused on buyer-seller negotiations conducted in a laboratory setting between two businesspeople from the same culture. Specifically, the meta-analysis focuses on the problem-solving approach of negotiators, their interpersonal attraction, their profits, and satisfaction. This study design was chosen to find similarities and differences in the way the managers negotiate within different cultural regions. In addition to that, it should give information on how those differences affect the success of the negotiations in terms of profits and satisfaction.

Summing up the most significant results of the 16 conducted meta-analyses it can be said that when comparing China and Northern Europe, when it comes to the PSA variable, results favor NE, meaning that participants who are part of the NE cultural region are more likely to adopt an integrative negotiation strategy compared to participants who are part of the Chinese cultural group. When comparing members of the cultural region USA and China, participants from the USA are more likely to choose an integrative negotiation strategy compared to members of the cultural region China. When comparing the USA with the Slavic region, participants from the

USA are also more likely to use integrative bargaining strategies compared to participants from the Slavic region. In addition to that, participants from NE are also more likely to choose an integrative negotiation strategy compared to participants from the Slavic region. Negotiators from the cultural region SEASIA are less likely to use integrative negotiation strategies compared to negotiators from the USA. Participants from SE are more likely to use integrative negotiation strategies compared to participants from SEASIA. But on the other hand, when compared to Canada, participants from SEASIA are more likely to choose integrative negotiation strategies than participants from Canada are. Cultures that have high PSA, namely the USA, CA, NE and SE all are either low context cultures or cultures that share some aspects of low-context cultures. Furthermore, all four cultural regions have high individualism scores. The regions that have low PSA, namely SEASIA, SL and CH all are high context cultures or culture that share some aspects of high context cultures. Additionally, all three regions have a low Indulgence score.

When it comes to the negotiator's attractiveness variable, participants from SEASIA are more likely to be found attractive by their negotiation counterparts than participants from Latin America are. Furthermore, participants from the USA are more likely to be found attractive by their negotiation counterpart after the negotiation process compared to participants from Latin America. And finally, participants from NE are more likely to be found attractive by their negotiation counterpart than participants from the Slavic region are.

Lastly, looking at the satisfaction variable, participants from NE are more likely to be more satisfied with the negotiation compared to participants from SEASIA and participants from the USA are more likely to feel satisfied with the negotiation process than participants from Latin America are.

No significant conclusions can be made about the individual profits variable.

This table is showing the most statistically significant results for each variable and enables to have a visual representation of the results. In the following tables X means there is no statistical significance to be able to conclude anything, the symbol “^” means there is statistical significance in favor of the country above the arrow or in other words, the country of the column. The symbol “<” means there is statistical significance in favor of the country to the left of the arrow or in other words, the country of the row. In case of statistical significance, the values next to

the arrows correspond to the effect sizes, showing how different the cultures are when it comes to the specific variable. The larger the number, the more different the cultures are from each other, and the more the negotiators of the culture are either achieving high profits, using a problem-solving approach, are satisfied with the negotiation or are finding their competitor attractive.

Profits	China	Canada	USA	SEASIA	SL	NE	SE	LA
China			X		X	X		
Canada			X					
USA								
SEASIA	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
SL			X			X		
NE								
SE			X					
LA			X				X	

Table 69; Results for the profits variable

Satisfaction	China	Canada	USA	SEASIA	SL	NE	SE	LA
China			X		X	X		
Canada			X					
USA								
SEASIA	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
SL			X			X		
NE								
SE			X					
LA			[^] -0.24				X	

Table 70; Results for the satisfaction variable

PSA	China	Canada	USA	SEASIA	SL	NE	SE	LA
China			[^] 0.48		X	[^] 0.61		
Canada			X					
USA								
SEASIA	X	[^] 0.36	[^] -0.31		X	[^] -0.44	[^] -0.35	X
SL			[^] -0.45			[^] 0.50		
NE								
SE			X					
LA			X				X	

Table 71; Results for the PSA variable

Negotiator's attractiveness	China	Canada	USA	SEASIA	SL	NE	SE	LA
China			X		X	X		
Canada			X					
USA								
SEASIA	X	X	X		X	X	X	< -0.99
SL			X			^ 0.85		
NE								
SE			X					
LA			^ -0.90				X	

Table 72; *Results for the negotiator's attractiveness variable*

6.1 Discussion

Results showed that the variable that set itself apart the most and gave the most significant results was the problem-solving approach variable. This variable indicates whether participants choose an integrative or a distributive strategy as PSA is used as a synonym for an integrative negotiation strategy in all studies that were used in the meta-analysis. Both NE and the USA are the cultural regions that choose integrative negotiation strategies the most. It would be of interest to conduct a meta-analysis comparing those two regions together to see which region is most likely to use integrative bargaining techniques between these two cultures. When looking at negotiations conducted by participants from the cultural regions SEASIA and comparing it to negotiations with participants from the group USA, SEASIA participants are less likely to use integrative negotiation strategies and when comparing it to negotiations with participants from the group CA, participants from CA are more likely to use integrative negotiation strategies than SEASIA participants are. Again, it would be of interest to conduct another meta-analysis comparing the USA and CA using data that give answers that are statistically more significant as the data used here unfortunately are not significant.

Even though this variable was the most significant out of all four, giving some answers about a good variety of cultural regions, for a few of the meta-analyses the results were statistically insignificant even for the PSA variable. This means that it was not possible to draw conclusions using the data from the studies used in this specific study. For example, it is not possible to say with confidence, that China is either more or less likely to use integrative negotiation strategies compared to the cultural group South-East Asia. This could be due to the fact that the data is not strong enough or it could be due to the fact that both groups are likely to use integrative

negotiation strategies but that there is no big difference between those two groups, and it cannot be shown properly in the forest plot. Another possibility might be, that the members of the cultural groups are too culturally different and heterogenous between themselves and therefore results cannot be shown in a significant way. This might be an explanation, especially as China encompasses participants from Hong Kong and Taiwan but also several other different places and China is a noticeably big country. Even though some cultural aspects might be shared between many participants maybe some cultural aspects that affect the PSA are quite different between some participants of the cultural group China. The same could be hypothesized about the cultural group SEASIA as this group encompasses participants from the Philippines, Japan, and South Korea. These three countries might be culturally too different between themselves to find a common ground when it comes to PSA even though in some cases results were more significant when it came to comparing PSA between SEASIA and another cultural region. Both regions being in Asia it is also possible to think that they are both too similar to be able to clearly say one region is more likely to use integrative negotiation strategies than the other region is.

The variable negotiator's attractiveness is the variable that gave the second most results that are somewhat significant. Participants from Latin America are less likely to find their negotiating counterpart attractive compared to participants from SEASIA or the USA. A possible explanation for this might be that both, Mexico and Brazil, score high in Hofstede's' uncertainty avoidance dimension (Hofstede Insights, n.d). Possibly this makes negotiations and conflicts unpleasant for participants from this cultural region and therefore increases the chances they will not find their negotiating counterpart attractive. On the other hand, this dimension also scores high for participants from the cultural region SEASIA.

When looking at the satisfaction variable, only two meta-analyses give somewhat conclusive results. One of them being that participants from the USA are more likely to be satisfied with the negotiation process than participants from Latin America. This shows a correlation between negotiator's attractiveness and satisfaction, the same way some of the studies used for the meta-analyses predicted in their research.

As no conclusive result can be made about the profits variable one can only speculate about reasons why that may be. This is a good place to try to find explanations why there are no results for this particular variable but also why there are so few results for the other three variables as

well. In many cases, even though the confidence intervals do not cross the line of null effect, either the heterogeneity value is high or in some cases much too high or the p value is much bigger than 0,05. If the p value is bigger than 0,05 it means that the values are not too heterogeneous and this makes a summarized conclusion possible and if the heterogeneity value is too big it means that the results from the different studies used may be caused by a calculation error rather than by chance meaning that the data is not usable. The fact that several cultures are put together into cultural groups might make the data too heterogeneous as the participants have too much of a cultural difference even though they might seem similar. This might affect the p value as it could make it harder to detect differences between two groups as data within one group is already quite different. One reason why results are statistically insignificant in most cases here might be that in some cases it was not possible to ensure a perfect translation equivalence depending on the different languages (Graham, Mintu & Rogers, 1994). An explanation why the profits variable did not give any significant result might be because the cultural regions that have been compared to each other are not so different in attained profits, though this explanation seems very improbable. Another reason could be the differences within each country that compounds each cultural group which makes it impossible for the meta-analysis to conclude any results with certainty.

Unfortunately, the research question “how does the cultural background of a negotiator influence his/her strategy and success in intra-cultural negotiations?” is very hard or even impossible to answer with the finding of this thesis alone as only very few conclusions can be drawn and even these results are not necessarily significant. The PSA variable is the one that showed the most relevant results which enabled to answer the research question partially as this variable is also the only one that really represents strategy. The question was especially focused on the choice of negotiation strategy and the PSA variable gave information about the negotiation strategy being integrative or rather distributive. However, even having some answers regarding the differences in the behavior of the negotiators, the meta-analysis wasn't able to provide many answers regarding the consequences of such strategies in international negotiations. No real connection can be made between different cultures' strategies and their success in negotiations as there are no clear results when it comes to the profits variable which is the main indicator for success in a negotiation. The other indicator, satisfaction, does not give many more answers. The few results that could give some answer to the research question cannot be put in relation to the answers that the PSA variable gave. For example, according to the meta-analysis, participants from NE are more likely to be satisfied with the negotiation process when compared to

how satisfied participants from SEASIA are but when comparing those two cultural groups, no somewhat significant conclusion can be drawn when it comes to the PSA variable making it impossible to link those two variables together in the comparison between the behaviors of these specific participants.

6.2 Limitations

It was decided upon, that this thesis was going to be literature-based research. At first it was thought, that conducting interviews and being able to conduct primary research was going to be possible but due to the Covid-19 pandemic it was decided together with the students and the supervisor, that it was best to conduct secondary research and more specifically, a meta-analysis. This meant, using research that had been conducted with a slightly different purpose. By conducting primary research, it might have been possible to ask the research group more specific questions and get a broader range of answers to the research question. Choosing variables from the existing studies was somewhat restricting as there wasn't an infinite pool to choose from. Many studies research a similar problem but most use different methods, which make it exceedingly difficult to compare results between them. The ones that use the same methods also vary between them and choosing variables that are present in all those studies was a challenge. Nevertheless, conducting secondary research has made a comparison between more cultures possible than it would probably have been possible had I conducted my own research.

Limitations of this thesis include the fact that the data used was secondary data and researchers designed their data sampling and measurement methods according to their needs and their research purpose. The fact that so many cultures were sampled in the seven different studies is definitely an advantage as it looks at many cultures from around the world but for this specific study it has made it complicated as cultures had to be put into cultural groups in order to organize the data in a more manageable way. This has possibly led to insignificant results and cultural groups that are too heterogenous. This way data from one culture was often mixed with data from one or two other cultures and results speak for the group but it is possible that the cultures would show more significant results individually or results could also be slightly different than what results of the cultural groups suggest about the individual cultures. In this thesis the data from individual cultures may not have been used in a way that maximized its' potential. Another limiting aspect is the fact that, depending on the study or the culture, some variables were measured with a different number of items, making the measurement very complicated and meaning

that some data had more depth behind it compared to data from a different study. For example, as mentioned in Chapter 3 for the satisfaction variable, some studies used a single item, other studies used four items and a few studies even used either a single item or four items depending on the culture they were collecting data for, to measure the level of satisfaction of participants. This makes some of the collected data more complex and complete than other data but nevertheless both types of data are used in the same way as equals. Even though all data has been adjusted so that the meta-analysis could be run in a smooth and proper manner, the complexity of the data used, depending on the study and the culture is still different and might bring different results if all studies had used the exact same measurement method.

6.3 Recommendations for future research

For future research, if conducting a meta-analysis with the same or a similar dataset it would be ideal, even if it would take more time and effort, to keep the data from individual studies as it is and not combine different countries into cultural groups. Another aspect would be to choose data that has been collected in the exact same way for the same variable within and across studies in order to avoid any difference in complexity of data when referring to that variable. It might be easier and more accurate to focus on a few cultures instead of comparing them all together. Of course, this would probably mean collecting more data which is going to be very time consuming. On the other hand, collecting one's own data could ensure that all variables are measured the same way across all cultures. Another recommendation would be to find data that would make it possible to compare all cultural groups or even all cultures used with all others from the studies. This would also be very time consuming and would necessitate collecting additional data but, in that way, it could be possible to reach more specific conclusions. For example, as mentioned above in this chapter, it would be interesting to compare NE and the USA as both are cultural regions that are more likely to use integrative negotiation strategies than other regions, but as they have not been compared with each other it is not possible to reach the conclusion which of the two would be the most likely to use such strategies.

6.4 Conclusions

To conclude this masters' thesis, it is possible to say that no conclusion can be made with certainty about the research question as results are not conclusive enough. Nevertheless, it can be said, that conducting this research is possibly making future research easier by providing

information about mistakes that have been made here and by suggesting different approaches or possible ways of avoiding making these mistakes. In this case it means conducting the analysis on all countries the researcher wants to focus on, even if that may mean looking at less cultures at a time, or if possible, collecting new data and making sure that all variables are measured the same way across cultures.

For managers the results of this thesis confirm that negotiations are a complex process that is approached very differently by members of different cultures. Even though the results of this research are not conclusive, they have shown that even if a negotiator has a very similar culture to ones' personal culture, ones' counterpart might still use an entirely different approach and strategy to negotiation or react in very different ways than expected. This conclusion can be made on the basis of the assumption that results were not conclusive enough because for a lot of cultural groups, cultures that were too different have been put together which has led to differing and contradicting results within one group. This implies that before negotiating with someone from a different culture, managers should always prepare well in advance and learn about the specific culture of their negotiation counterpart rather than learning about generalities about culture of the continent he or she is from.

Appendix

Appendix 1, Questionnaire negotiators were asked to fill in after the negotiation simulation (Graham, Mintu, Rogers, 1994)

Appendix B Measures	
Partner's Satisfaction	
1. If an agreement was reached, how satisfied were you with that agreement? <i>satisfied</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>dissatisfied</i>	Attractiveness of Negotiator
2. How satisfied are you with the agreement relative to your pregame expectations? <i>satisfied</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>dissatisfied</i>	1. How comfortable did you feel with the particular person with whom you were paired? <i>comfortable</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>uncomfortable</i>
3. How satisfied were you with your individual profit level? <i>satisfied</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>dissatisfied</i>	2. How interested were you in the person with whom you were paired? <i>interested</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>uninterested</i>
4. How satisfied were you with your performance during the game? <i>satisfied</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>dissatisfied</i>	3. How interested would you be in seeing the person with whom you were paired again? <i>interested</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>uninterested</i>
	Problem-solving Approach (PSA)
	1. Were you more interested in solving your mutual problem, or more self-interested? <i>solving mutual problem</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>self-interested</i>
	Rate your own bargaining strategies on the following scales:
	2. <i>accommodating</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>exploitative</i>
	3. <i>honest</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>deceptive</i>
	4. <i>unbiased</i> 5 4 3 2 1 <i>biased</i>

Appendix 2, details of negotiation simulation instructions (Adler, Graham, 1989)

- Each participant was allowed 15 minutes to read the written instructions (i.e., either a buyer or seller position sheet and appropriate payoff matrix) and plan negotiation strategies. Questions of clarification were answered during this time.
- At the end of the fifteen-minute preparation period, the participants were seated across from one another at a table, given final verbal instructions, and left alone. A small sample of the negotiations was videotaped for detailed analysis; and those results are in part reported in Graham [1985a].
- The final instructions consisted in part of the following statements: "The game usually takes about thirty minutes to complete." "There is a one-hour time limit." "Once you have reached an agreement, do not discuss the game further until you have completed the post-game questionnaire."
- When an agreement was reached or when one hour had elapsed the participants were given the post-game questionnaire.

Appendix 3, Table comparing CH-NE

Author	NCh	M1Ch	SD1Ch	M2Ch	SD2Ch	M3Ch	SD3Ch	M4Ch	SD4Ch	NNE	M1NE	SD1NE	M2NE	SD2NE	M3NE	SD3NE	M4NE	SD4NE
Graham 2020	180	44,525	11,25	3,66	0,86	3,6	0,87	11,725	2,4	120	43,6	10,1	3,66	0,89	3,03	0,78	11,63	2,27
Graham 1994	92	44,15	9,65	3,78	0,81	2,84	0,56	12,05	2,1	88	44,05	10,55	3,56	0,66	2,2	0,56	11,15	2,35

Appendix 4, Table comparing CH-SL

Author	NCh	M1Ch	SD1Ch	M2Ch	SD2Ch	M3Ch	SD3Ch	M4Ch	SD4Ch	NSL	M1SL	SD1SL	M2SL	SD2SL	M3SL	SD3SL	M4SL	SD4SL
Graham 2020	180	44,525	11,25	3,66	0,86	3,6	0,87	11,725	2,4	102	42,6	9,7	3,58	0,8	3,4	0,7	12,25	2,25
Graham 1994	92	44,15	9,65	3,78	0,81	2,84	0,56	12,05	2,1	56	43	11,2	3,65	0,75	2,85	0,63	12,4	2,3

Appendix 5, Table comparing CH-USA

Author	NCh	M1Ch	SD1Ch	M2Ch	SD2Ch	M3Ch	SD3Ch	M4Ch	SD4Ch	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA
Graham 1988	52	43	10,4	3,63	0,7	3,55	0,39	11,6	2	134	45,9	10,2	3,73	0,7	3,15	0,65	11,9	2,3
Graham 1994	92	44,15	9,65	3,78	0,81	2,84	0,56	12,05	2,1	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3
Adler 1992	40	46,1	8,6	4,03	0,83	4,05	0,75	12,7	2	134	45,9	10,2	3,73	0,7	3,2	0,73	11,9	2,3

Appendix 6, Table comparing NE-SEASIA

Author	NNE	M1NE	SD1NE	M2NE	SD2NE	M3NE	SD3NE	M4NE	SD4NE	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA
Graham 2020	120	43,6	10,1	3,7	0,9	3,03	0,78	11,63	2,27	160	44,37	10,43	3,74	0,76	3,42	0,79	12,23	1,93
Graham 1994	88	44,05	10,55	3,56	0,66	2,2	0,56	11,15	2,35	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9

Appendix 7, Table comparing SEASIA-SL

Author	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA	NSL	M1SL	SD1SL	M2SL	SD2SL	M3SL	SD3SL	M4SL	SD4SL
Graham 2020	160	44,37	10,43	3,74	0,76	3,42	0,79	12,23	1,93	102	42,6	9,7	3,58	0,8	3,4	0,7	12,25	2,25
Graham 1994	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9	56	43	11,2	3,65	0,75	2,85	0,63	12,4	2,3

Appendix 8, Table comparing SL-NE

Author	NSL	M1SL	SD1SL	M2SL	SD2SL	M3SL	SD3SL	M4SL	SD4SL	NNE	M1NE	SD1NE	M2NE	SD2NE	M3NE	SD3NE	M4NE	SD4NE
Graham 2020	102	42,6	9,7	3,58	0,8	3,4	0,7	12,25	2,25	120	43,6	10,1	3,7	0,9	3,03	0,78	11,63	2,27
Graham 1994	56	43	11,2	3,65	0,75	2,85	0,63	12,4	2,3	88	44,05	10,55	3,56	0,66	2,2	0,56	11,15	2,35

Appendix 9, Table comparing USA-CA

Author	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA	NCA	M1CA	SD1CA	M2CA	SD2CA	M3CA	SD3CA	M4CA	SD4CA
Adler 1989	160	44,9	11,1	3,68	0,78	3,3	0,68	12	2,3	148	44,2	9,65	3,69	0,68	3,04	0,75	12,35	2,35
Graham 1994	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3	148	44,2	9,65	3,68	0,68	2,4	0,68	12,35	2,35

Appendix 10, Table comparing USA-SL

Author	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA	NSL	M1SL	SD1SL	M2SL	SD2SL	M3SL	SD3SL	M4SL	SD4SL
Graham 1992	160	44,90	11,10	3,68	0,78	3,15	0,64	12,00	2,30	56	43	11,2	3,65	0,75	3,69	0,61	12,4	2,3
Graham 1994	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3	56	43	11,2	3,65	0,75	2,85	0,63	12,4	2,3

Appendix 11, Table comparing CH-SEASIA

Author	NCh	M1Ch	SD1Ch	M2Ch	SD2Ch	M3Ch	SD3Ch	M4Ch	SD4Ch	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA
Graham 1988	52	43	10,4	3,63	0,7	3,55	0,39	11,6	2	78	45,55	9,3	3,83	0,9	3,59	0,63	11,8	1,95
Graham 1994	92	44,15	9,65	3,78	0,81	2,84	0,56	12,05	2,1	40	42,4	11,1	3,425	0,725	2,73	0,675	11,6	1,9
Graham 2020	180	44,525	11,25	3,66	0,86	3,6	0,87	11,725	2,4	160	44,37	10,43	3,74	0,76	3,42	0,79	12,23	1,93

Appendix 12, Table comparing SE-LA

Author	NSE	M1SE	SD1SE	M2SE	SD2SE	M3SE	SD3SE	M4SE	SD4SE	NLA	M1LA	SD1LA	M2LA	SD2LA	M3LA	SD3LA	M4LA	SD4LA
Graham 1997	56	46,5	12	3,8	0,72	3,13	0,67	11,2	2,1	70	46,4	10,3	4,04	0,77	3,37	0,73	12,8	2
Graham 1994	48	45,5	12,3	3,4	0,58	2,33	0,5	12,5	2,1	68	43,1	13,1	3,88	0,75	2,68	0,6	12,8	2,3

Appendix 13, Table comparing SE-SEASIA

Author	NSE	M1SE	SD1SE	M2SE	SD2SE	M3SE	SD3SE	M4SE	SD4SE	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA
Graham 1997	56	46,5	12	3,8	0,72	3,13	0,67	11,2	2,1	44	47,9	7,7	3,8	0,85	3,43	0,73	12	2
Graham 1994	48	45,5	12,3	3,4	0,58	2,33	0,5	12,5	2,1	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9

Appendix 14, Table comparing SEASIA-CA

Author	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA	NCA	M1CA	SD1CA	M2CA	SD2CA	M3CA	SD3CA	M4CA	SD4CA
Adler 1989	42	47,9	7,7	3,8	0,9	3,43	0,73	12	2	148	44,2	9,65	3,69	0,68	3,04	0,75	12,35	2,35
Graham 1994	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9	148	44,2	9,65	3,68	0,68	2,4	0,68	12,35	2,35

Appendix 15, Table comparing SEASIA-LA

Author	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA	NLA	M1LA	SD1LA	M2LA	SD2LA	M3LA	SD3LA	M4LA	SD4LA
Graham 1997	44	47,9	7,7	3,83	0,85	3,4	0,7	12	2	70	46,4	10,3	4,04	0,77	3,37	0,73	12,8	2
Graham 1994	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9	68	43,1	13,1	3,88	0,75	2,68	0,6	12,8	2,3

Appendix 16, Table comparing USA-LA

Author	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA	NLA	M1LA	SD1LA	M2LA	SD2LA	M3LA	SD3LA	M4LA	SD4LA
Graham 1997	160	44,9	11,1	3,79	0,94	3,2	0,87	11,9	2,3	70	46,4	10,3	4,04	0,77	3,37	0,73	12,8	2
Graham 1994	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3	68	43,1	13,1	3,88	0,75	2,68	0,6	12,8	2,3

Appendix 17, Table comparing USA-SEASIA

Author	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA	NSEASIA	M1SEASIA	SD1SEASIA	M2SEASIA	SD2SEASIA	M3SEASIA	SD3SEASIA	M4SEASIA	SD4SEASIA
Graham 1988	134	45,9	10,2	3,73	0,7	3,15	0,65	11,9	2,3	78	45,55	9,3	3,64	0,81	3,59	0,63	11,8	1,95
Graham 1994	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3	40	42,4	11,1	3,43	0,73	2,73	0,68	11,6	1,9
Adler 1989	160	44,9	11,1	3,68	0,78	3,3	0,68	12	2,3	42	44,9	11,1	3,8	0,9	3,43	0,73	12	2
Graham 1997	160	44,9	11,1	3,79	0,94	3,2	0,87	11,9	2,3	44	47,9	7,7	3,83	0,85	3,43	0,73	12	2

Appendix 18, Table comparing USA-SE

Author	NUSA	M1USA	SD1USA	M2USA	SD2USA	M3USA	SD3USA	M4USA	SD4USA	NSE	M1SE	SD1SE	M2SE	SD2SE	M3SE	SD3SE	M4SE	SD4SE
Graham 1997	160	44,9	11,1	3,79	0,94	3,2	0,87	11,9	2,3	56	46,5	12	3,8	0,72	3,13	0,67	11,2	2,1
Graham 1994	160	44,9	11,1	3,65	0,8	2,4	0,65	11,9	2,3	48	45,5	12,3	3,4	0,58	2,33	0,5	12,5	2,1

Appendix 18, R code

```
#USA_LA
```

```
#individual profits
```

```
m.USALA1.raw <- metacont(NUSA,
                           M1USA,
                           SD1USA,
                           NLA,
                           M1LA,
                           SD1LA,
                           data=USA_LA,
                           studlab=paste(Author),
                           comb.fixed = TRUE,
                           comb.random = TRUE,
                           prediction=TRUE,
                           sm="MD")
```

```
m.USALA1.raw
```

```
#Satisfaction
```

```
m.USALA2.raw <- metacont(NUSA,
                           M2USA,
                           SD2USA,
                           NLA,
                           M2LA,
                           SD2LA,
                           data=USA_LA,
```

```

studlab=paste(Author),
comb.fixed = TRUE,
comb.random = TRUE,
prediction=TRUE,
sm="MD")
m.USALA2.raw

```

#PSA

```

m.USALA3.raw <- metacont(NUSA,
M3ULA,
SD3ULA,
NLA,
M3LA,
SD3LA,
data=USA_LA,
studlab=paste(Author),
comb.fixed = TRUE,
comb.random = TRUE,
prediction=TRUE,
sm="MD")
m.USALA3.raw

```

#Interpersonal attraction

```

m.USALA4.raw <- metacont(NUSA,
M4ULA,
SD4ULA,
NLA,
M4LA,
SD4LA,
data=USA_LA,
studlab=paste(Author),
comb.fixed = TRUE,
comb.random = TRUE,
prediction=TRUE,

```

```
sm="MD")  
m.USALA4.raw  
  
#USALA  
#Individual profits  
forest(m.USASA1.raw)  
#Satisfaction  
forest(m.USALA2.raw)  
#PSA  
forest(m.USALA3.raw)  
#Negotiator's attractiveness  
forest(m.USALA4.raw)
```

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