The Role of Emotions in Dyadic Negotiation: An Empirical Study

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Abstract

This study examines the effects of performance feedback on negotiator emotions, interpersonal influence, negotiator behavior, and negotiation outcomes. A model based on the role of emotions in dyadic negotiation is proposed that comprises relationships amongst variables before, during, and after negotiation. This model is based on four major elements: namely, cognitive appraisal, emotional specificity, emotional flux, and interpersonal influence, and their influence on negotiator behavior and negotiation outcomes.

A 2 X 4 X 4 (Negotiation Role X Feedback Conditions for the Negotiator X Feedback Conditions for the Counterpart) experimental study was designed to examine the effects of performance feedback during negotiation in a simulation based on an employment contract negotiation. The experiment consisted of two negotiation tasks that were completed sequentially. The emotions of the participants were manipulated after Task 1 by providing them four types of performance feedback in Task 1. These feedbacks were based on two valences (success or failure) and two agency attributes (other locus of responsibility or self locus of responsibility).

Four hundred and fourteen participants from executive and academic programs at a Pakistani university took part in this study. The data were analyzed using general linear models, linear multiple regressions, and Pearson correlational analysis to test: (1) the arousal of negotiator emotions after Task 1 as a result of appraisal of the performance feedback, (2) the influence of negotiator emotions on negotiator behavior during Task 2, (3) the interpersonal influence of counterpart emotions and behavior during Task 2 on

negotiator behavior in Task 2, (4) the effect of negotiator behavior in Task 2 on negotiation outcomes, (5) the effect of negotiation outcomes on post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction.

The results supported the hypothesized relationships in the proposed model. The treatment effect was successful in producing the four factors of emotions: namely, anger, guilt-shame, gratitude, and pride-achievement emotions, corresponding to the four types of performance feedback. The negotiator behavior was predicted by these emotions along with counterpart emotions and behavior according to the proposed model. The negotiation outcomes were related to negotiator and counterpart behaviors. Negotiator satisfaction was the main predictor of post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction, although economic negotiation outcomes played some role as well.

Résumé

Cette étude examine les effets de "feedback" sur la performance sur les émotions du négociateur, l'influence interpersonnelle, le comportement du négociateur, et les résultats de la négociation. Un modèle de base émotionnel pour une négociation dyadique est proposé. Ce modèle comprend les relations entre les variables avant, pendant et après la négociation. Le modèle proposé est basé sur quatre éléments majeurs: la reconnaissance cognitive, la spécificité émotionnelle, le flux émotionnel, et l'influence interpersonnelle, et leur influence sur le comportement du négociateur et les résultats de la négociation.

Une étude expérimentale 2 X 4 X 4 (rôle dans la négociation X condition du feedback pour le négociateur X les conditions du feedback pour la contrepartie) a été conçue pour examiner les effets du feedback de performance pendant une négociation dans une simulation basée sur une négociation de contrat d'emploi. L'expérience consistait en deux négociations accomplies l'une après l'autre. Les émotions des participants étaient manipulées après la tâche 1 en leur fournissant quatre types de feedback des performances sur leurs performances dans la tâche 1. Ces feedback étaient basés sur deux critères (réussite ou échec) et deux attributs d'entremise (locus de responsabilité « autre » ou locus de responsabilité « personnel »).

Quatre cent quatorze participants de programmes exécutifs et académiques dans une université du Pakistan prirent parts dans cette étude. Les données furent analysées en utilisant un modèle linéaire général, multiples régressions générales, et l'analyse corrélationnelle Pearson pour tester: (1) le déclenchement des émotions du négociateur après la tâche 1 résultant d'une évaluation comme feedback de performance ; (2)

l'influence des émotions du négociateur sur le comportement du négociateur pendant la tache 2 ; (3) l'influence interpersonnelle de l'émotion de la contrepartie et de son comportement pendant la tache 2 sur le comportement du négociateur dans la tâche 2 ; (4) les effets du comportement du négociateur dans la tâche 2 sur les résultats de la négociation ; (5) les effets des résultats de la négociation sur les émotions de l'après négociation et le désir d'interaction future.

Les résultats ont supporté les hypothèses du modèle proposé dans cette étude. L'effet de traitement a produit avec succès les quatre facteurs émotionnels, (à savoir) la colère, la culpabilité-honte, la gratitude et la fierté, correspondant aux quatre types des feedback de performance. Le comportement du négociateur a été prédit par ces émotions ainsi que par les émotions et le comportement de la contrepartie selon le modèle proposé. Les résultats de la négociation ont été liés aux comportements du négociateur et de sa contrepartie. La satisfaction du négociateur était le principal élément déterminant des émotions de l'après négociation et du désir pour des interactions futures, bien que le résultat de la négociation économique ait joué un rôle aussi.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

This study analyzes the role of emotions in negotiation. Negotiation is a social process for managing the interdependent goals amongst negotiators (Lewicki et. al., 1994; Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993). The success or failure in reaching goals and the interpersonal interaction process result in the arousal of emotions (Lazarus, 1991a) that influence the negotiation process (Barry & Oliver, 1986). Despite the importance of emotions in negotiation, the subject has received little attention at both the theoretical and the empirical levels of research. This lack of attention to emotions in negotiations may partly be due to the difficulty of studying emotions because of their elusive nature, and partly because cognitivism has dominated the research paradigms in the social sciences for many years (Neale & Bazerman, 1991, 1992). This study will help in increasing the knowledge of the role of emotions in negotiation by focusing on the arousal of emotions and their impact on the negotiation process and outcomes.

Feelings[1] play a major role in influencing behaviors in general (Kelley, 1980; Lazarus, 1991a; Weiner, 1986, 1992) and negotiation behavior in particular (Clark & Isen, 1982; Barry & Oliver, 1996). Numerous researchers have proposed causal relations amongst feelings, thoughts, and behaviors (Abelson, 1983; De Rivera, 1977; Lazarus, 1991a, 1991b; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986 and 1992). According to Bierhoff (1988), "A theory of interpersonal behavior is incomplete without

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[1] Feeling or affect is a generic term used for a whole range of preferences, emotions, and moods (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Researchers differentiate between emotions and moods in terms of pervasiveness and specificity of feelings (Moore & Isen). Emotions are generally more intense, less pervasive, and with a more identifiable cause than moods (Forgas, 1992).

inclusion of the feeling states of the actors". Dyadic negotiation is one such example of interpersonal behavior in which two people interact with each other in an effort to resolve a conflict.

The increased interest in affect in organizational behavior has recently spilled into negotiation research as well (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Neale & Northcraft, 1991). There has been a change of focus in negotiation research towards affect, specifically the role of mood in negotiation. Most of these studies have examined the effects of positive mood on the negotiation process (Baron, 1990; Bies & Tripp, 1995; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990; Kramer, Newton, & Pommerenke, 1993; Tripp & Bies, 1996).

While these empirical studies have enriched the negotiation literature by incorporating mood into a field that was focusing on cognition rather than affect, their objective was not to address emotions such as anger, happiness, disappointment, and gratitude. Since emotion is a more intense and focused form of affect, it is expected to have a greater effect on negotiator's behavior than mood. Allred, Mallozi, Matsui, & Raia (1997) examined the influence of anger and compassion on the negotiator's performance and compared the effects of emotions and moods. Their results confirmed that emotions had a more potent influence on negotiation outcomes than mood because emotions are more intense than moods and they are directed towards an object, while moods are milder and not focused towards any person in particular.

Emotions are now taking a more important position in psychology (Goleman, 1995, p. xi) and other disciplines. Nobel laureate Herbert Simon (1995) has called for an increased emphasis on "affect" for further advancement in cognitive psychology.

According to Lazarus (1991a), emotional arousal is the most important mental activity in humans. Emotions such as joy, happiness, pride, anger, guilt, and anxiety originate in parts of the brain other than those associated with thought, reasoning, and deliberation. These emotional experiences are being acknowledged as important features of our everyday work lives by researchers and practitioners alike, and research activity on emotions is on the rise in organizational behavior literature (Coté & Morgan, 2002; George & Brief, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

While the recent theoretical (for example, Barry & Oliver, 1996; Kumar, 1997) and empirical (for example, Allred, 1996; Allred et al., 1997; Conlon & Hunt, 2002; De Dreu et al., 2002, Thompson & Kim, 2000) research has helped in understanding emotions in negotiations, there are still many unfilled gaps in the negotiation literature. I have addressed some of these shortcomings in the literature by proposing and empirically testing an emotions-based model for dyadic negotiation.

1.2 Research Objectives

Because of the dearth of research on emotions in the negotiation literature at the empirical and the theoretical levels, this research is focused on examining the role of emotions in the negotiation process. The negotiation process entails the interaction process amongst the negotiators, which includes their emotions, cognitions, behaviors, and tactics. Negotiation outcome is the result of the negotiation process, the distribution of the resources amongst the negotiators, and the level of satisfaction with the process and the economic outcome (Thompson, 1990).

The first objective of this research study is to develop and operationalize a comprehensive model of the effects of emotions on negotiation. The proposed model is expected to be comprehensive in terms of the number of relevant variables and factors included in the model. The basic task of this emotions-based model is to find a way to integrate the emotion-eliciting conditions in the environment and the person, the mediating processes such as thoughts, actions, and interpersonal influences, and the negotiation outcomes. In negotiation literature only a limited number of emotions, mostly negative emotions, have been studied (Conlon & Hunt, 2002). Therefore, in this study the emotion measure is based on a broad spectrum of positive and negative emotions. In the negotiation literature, negotiator's behavior is usually operationalized through two types of behaviors, that is, integrative and distributive (Pruitt, 1986; Thompson, 1990). In this study, a broader range of behaviors will be used. Another current limitation in the literature as suggested by Barry & Oliver (1996) is the lack of stage-wise testing of emotions-based models. Therefore, in this study emotions will be measured at different stages.

The second objective of this research is to empirically examine the role of emotions in negotiation by considering how certain causes of emotions elicit specific emotions and how these emotions impact the negotiation process. Emotions are categorized along certain causal criteria because causality has been found to be a persuasive way of examining the effects of emotions (Kelley, 1980; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986 and 1992). Nevertheless, very little research has been done on the effect of causality of emotion on eliciting specific emotions and their impact on negotiation. O'Connor and Arnold (2001) found that negotiators who had previously

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experienced impasse interpreted their performances as unsuccessful, experienced negative emotions, and developed negative perceptions of their counterparts and the negotiation process. Two of the most important causal criteria established in the literature are valence (whether the situation is a success or failure) and agency attribute (whether the emotions are caused by self or the other) (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner 1986). These two causal criteria are used in this study. Two valence states, success and failure, and two attribution states, other locus of responsibility and self-locus of responsibility, are manipulated leading to four appraisal conditions: namely, other-caused failure, self-caused failure, other-caused success, and self-caused success. These appraisal conditions arouse specific emotions that are expected to impact the negotiation process.

The role of the other person is stressed in both the negotiation research (Barry & Oliver, 1996; Neale & Northcraft, 1991) and the emotions research (Kelly & Thibaut, 1978; Lazarus, 1991a; Wiggins, 1979). Therefore, the third objective of this research is to empirically examine the interpersonal influence in the dyadic setting, that is, the effect of the counterpart's emotions and behavior on the emotions and behavior of the negotiator. This is accomplished by designing a 2 X 4 X 4 experimental study. The performance feedback from Task 1 creates four emotional conditions in the participants: namely, anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions. The counterpart in the dyad also experiences a performance feedback that creates one of the four emotional conditions for the counterparts. In this way sixteen types of experimental dyads or thirty-two types of individual conditions were created. Each of these situations is studied to analyze negotiator's behavior and negotiation outcomes.

The fourth objective of this study is to analyze post-negotiation outcomes and to examine the variables that predict post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction. This can be an important contribution because research on post-negotiation outcomes is rare (Thompson, 1990; Barry & Oliver, 1996), although post-negotiation outcomes are expected to have a significant impact on the future relationship with the counterpart. For example, repeat negotiations with the same negotiator in joint ventures or buyer-seller dealings are common business situations, which frequently end up in undesirable consequences because the negotiators have mishandled post negotiation outcomes in the previous negotiation.

For a practitioner, the significance of this research lies in understanding the role of emotions in negotiation to better manage the negotiation process for improved outcomes. First, the study will help in understanding the relationship among the cause of emotions, arousal of specific emotions, and their impact on negotiation. Second, the study will examine the roles of the various emotions in determining negotiator's behavior and negotiation outcomes. The negotiator will realize which emotions should be aroused in the negotiator and the counterpart for a more desirable outcome. Third, the study will examine the role of interpersonal influence; the effects of the counterpart's emotions and behavior on the negotiator. The awareness of these influences will help the negotiator in managing his/her own behavior. Once these issues and relationships have been examined in detail, certain prescriptions about managing one's own emotions and behaviors and the counterpart emotions and behaviors may help the practitioner improve the overall negotiation process, negotiation outcomes, and the post-negotiation outcomes.

1.3 Overall Methodological Setting

A simulation based experimental study will be conducted to test the proposed hypotheses. The participants will take part in a 2 X 4 X 4 experimental design using an employment contract simulation in which an employment contract will be negotiated in two phases, Task 1 and Task 2. Participation in the study will be completely voluntary. The participants will be randomly assigned to the dyads, and to the role of the manager or the job applicant. Each dyad will be unisex to reduce extraneous effects due to the mixed gender negotiation. The emotions of the participants will be manipulated by administering four types of performance feedback related to Task 1, based on two valences (success or failure) and two agency attributes (other-caused and self-caused). The participants are expected to experience one of the four dimensions of emotions: namely, other-caused negative (anger) emotions, self-caused negative (guilt-shame) emotions, other-caused positive (gratitude) emotions, and self-caused positive (pride-achievement) emotions. After receiving the performance feedback of Task 1, the participants will be asked to negotiate Task 2. Their emotions, behaviors, and outcomes will be measured before and after Task 2 negotiation. The time lapsed between the two measures of emotions is expected to be about sixty-five minutes. Structured questions will be used to analyze the dependent variables in the proposed model.

1.4 Organization of the Proposal

This dissertation is organized in the following manner: the next chapter, Chapter 2, reviews the current literature on negotiation and emotions. It also provides details of the various elements and variables used in the proposed model. Chapter 3 describes the

proposed model in detail and develops the hypotheses used to test the model. Chapter 4 provides in-depth details about the participants, experimental design, procedure, questionnaires, measures, and control variables. Chapter 5 discusses a pilot study undertaken to test and modify the measurement instruments used in this research. Chapter 6 presents the results and Chapter 7 presents the discussion of the results. Chapter 8 is the contributions and conclusions chapter, which contains contributions to the literature, managerial implications, a discussion of the limitations of the study, suggestions for the future research, and conclusions. Chapter 8 is followed by a list of references, and a list of tables and figures used in the text. Finally, Appendices A to E present the employment contract simulation, three questionnaires used in this study, and an Ethics Certificate.

2. Theoretical Development

2.1 Negotiation

2.1.1 Description

Negotiation is a process whereby people attempt to settle what each shall give and take or perform and receive in a transaction between them (Rubin & Brown, 1975). A negotiation situation has five characteristics: (i) people believe that they have conflicting interests, (ii) communication is possible, (iii) intermediate solutions or compromises are possible, (iv) parties may make provisional offers and counteroffers, and (v) offers and proposals do not determine outcomes until they are accepted by both the parties (Thompson, 1990).

Conflict is often at the heart of negotiation. It arises when the real or perceived differences amongst actors engender negative emotions (Kolb & Putnam, 1992). The resolution of conflict is important because conflict may produce incompatible behaviors and activities that interfere with achieving objectives (Deutsch, 1973). The dual concern model (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Hall, 1969; Pruitt and Rubin, 1986; Rahim, 1983; Thomas and Kilman, 1978) depicts five conflict resolution styles based on the level of concern for self and the level of concern for the other party as shown in Figure 1.

Rahim (1983) called these five styles integrating, dominating, obliging, avoiding, and compromising. The integrating or collaborative style is based on high concern for the self and the counterpart. It involves openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences in achieving joint objectives. Both the parties are expected to achieve high payoffs by increasing the size of the overall payoff. The dominating or competitive style is based on high concern for self but low concern for the counterpart. Hence one tries to

increase one's own gains even at the cost of the counterpart. The obliging or yielding style comprises low concern for self but high concern for the counterpart. Accordingly, one is willing to lose one's share in order for the counterpart to increase his/her outcome. The compromising style is based on medium level concern for self and the counterpart. The conflict is resolved by taking a middle ground. The outcome is more evenly distributed as compared to dominating or yielding styles of negotiation and the size of the overall payoffs is not as high as the integrative negotiation. The avoiding style is based on low concern for self and the counterpart. Both the parties are not interested in resolving the conflict because of certain reasons such as the conflict issue is too trivial or too emotionally charged to be negotiated.

Rahim's study (1983) presented factorially independent scales to measure the five styles of conflict resolution and to provide evidence for their reliability and validity. He factor analyzed data from a national sample of executives in twenty-five industries and found five independent scales comprising seven items each, called Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (Roci-II). Each scale showed satisfactory reliability and compared favorably with other similar instruments. Roci-II is used as the measure for negotiator's behavior with some modifications to fit this study's particular context. Interestingly, Rahim (1983) study also showed that the social status of the organizational members, boss, subordinates, and peers, and the gender of the respondents affected the styles adopted by the respondents. Respondents were more obliging with their bosses and integrating and compromising with subordinates and peers. Females were more integrating, avoiding, and compromising and less obliging than males in resolving the conflicts.

Most of the research in the negotiation literature is focused on two styles of conflict resolution, integrating and dominating, also referred to as integrative and distributive negotiation styles (Thompson, 1990; Walton & McKersie, 1965). In distributive or fixed-sum negotiations, the parties' interests are perfectly negatively correlated; that is, any outcome that increases one party's outcome decreases the other party's outcome in a fixed-sum fashion. In integrative or variable-sum negotiations, party's interests are neither completely opposed nor completely compatible. The gain of one party does not represent equal sacrifice by the other party. Pruitt (1986) gave the example of a couple in conflict on where to spend their vacation. The husband prefers a cabin in the mountains, while the wife wants to stay in a luxury hotel on the seashore. The husband is primarily concerned with the location, whereas the wife is concerned with the type of accommodation. An integrative agreement is reached when the couple agrees to spend the vacation in a luxury hotel in the mountains. Both the husband's and the wife's interests are satisfied.

The negotiation literature has mostly concentrated on studying structural variables such as negotiator power, deadlines, and integrative potential (for example, Clopton, 1984; Pinkley, Neale, & Bennett, 1994; Thompson, 1990; Lax & Sebenius, 1986; Raiffa, 1982), personality variables such as Machiavellianism, and Perspective-Taking Ability (for example, Fry, 1985; Huber & Neale, 1986), their effects on negotiator's behavior and negotiation outcomes (for example, Greenhalgh, Neslin, & Gilky, 1985; Neale &

Northcraft, 1991; Spector, 1977), negotiator cognition and biases (for example, Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986), and the role of the third party (for example, Tetlock, 1985, 1992). Some researchers have studied the mediating variables such as perceptions, persuasion, information exchange, and communication (for example, Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Neale & Bazerman, 1992; O'Connor, 1997; Thompson & Hastie, 1990). However, very few researchers have proposed frameworks or have done empirical studies in negotiation literature that incorporate emotions as the key variable despite the fact that affect states are fundamental to our understanding of social behavior because they occur so frequently and play an important role in revealing how individuals regard themselves and respond to others (Moore & Isen, 1990).

Neale & Northcraft (1991) alluded to the importance of affect in negotiations especially in the context of escalation of conflicts. Four studies examining positive mood (Baron, 1990; Carnevale and Isen, 1986; Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990; Kramer, Newton, & Pommerenke, 1993) found that positive mood led negotiators to use more cooperative negotiation tactics. Baron (1990) found that participants exposed to pleasant scents set higher goals and made more concessions during face-to-face negotiations. They reported weaker preferences for handling future conflicts through competition and avoidance. Two of these studies (Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Kramer, Newton, & Pommerenke, 1993) also found that negotiators with positive moods discovered agreements that increased joint gains.

Barry & Oliver (1996) proposed a theoretical model for the influence of affect on negotiation process. In their model, they incorporated the changes in affect during the negotiation process by considering affect at three stages of the negotiation process, called

the anticipated affect in the pre-negotiation stage, experienced affect in the negotiation process stage, and post-negotiation affect in the outcome stage. The affect in each stage was influenced directly or indirectly by the affect in the preceding stage. This type of transition in affect is well documented in the emotions literature (Lazarus, 1991a). In this study, the emotional flux, or the continuous reappraisal of emotions as a result of changing circumstances, is captured by measuring negotiator emotions twice, once after Task 1 and once after Task 2. The emotions after Task 1 would be caused by the situation at that time, mainly the type of the performance feedback given to each participant. These emotions are then expected to influence tactics used by the negotiator in Task 2. The negotiator and the counterpart behaviors would then result in negotiation outcomes that give rise to post-negotiation emotions.

While the above-mentioned studies based on mood have added valuable information to the existing literature regarding the role of mood in social situations, they have not addressed emotions. Emotions are expected to influence the negotiation process and outcomes for two main reasons. First, emotions are a more focused and intense form of affect than mood (Ekman, 1984). They are, therefore, expected to have a greater effect on negotiation than the positive mood as indicated by the above-mentioned studies. An empirical study by Allred et al. (1997) found that emotions had more effect on negotiation process and outcomes than moods. They tested the relative strength of the unique variation for emotions and mood by using partial correlational analysis in which they tested the relationship between mood and the other model variables keeping emotions constant. They then ran partial correlational analysis for emotions and other model variables while controlling for mood. The results confirmed that the net effect of

the emotion anger was a stronger predictor of negotiator willingness to work together than mood.

Second, the emotions literature is abound with the effect of emotions on psychological variables, such as communication and information processing (for example, Clore, Schwarz, & Conway, 1994; Schwarz, 1990), social perceptions (for example, Lerner & Keltner, 2000 and 2001), and judgments and choice (for review, Clore, Schwarz, & Conway, 1994; Forgas, 1995; Park et al., 1986; Schwarz & Clore, 1996; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). Since these variables act as important mediating variables in the negotiation process, emotions are expected to affect the negotiation process as well.

The empirical research on emotions in negotiation is limited. Allred et al. (1997) and Butt & Jaeger (2001) conducted empirical studies on negotiator's behavior and negotiation outcomes in 2 X 2 experimental designs with anger and neutral emotions as the conditions for both negotiators in the dyad. Both studies found important links between emotions and negotiator's behavior and outcomes. They found strong support for the source of anger as the key variable in the process. Baron et al. (1990) found support for the incompatible – response hypothesis that is based on producing affect to counter an existing affect in a situation. They demonstrated that inducing an incompatible emotional state such as joy by giving gifts could reduce negotiator's anger. Thompson and Kim (2000) in their empirical study demonstrated that the emotions expressed by the negotiators could influence the ability of the third parties to develop accurate perceptions of the negotiator's interests and intentions. These empirical studies were limited in the types of emotions and the mediating variables incorporated in their frameworks. For

example, Allred et al. (1997) used a combination of two emotions, anger and compassion, and Butt & Jaeger (2001) used a single emotion, anger. This study is based on a larger selection of emotions from the literature (Izard, 1977; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Smith & Lazarus, 1993; Weiner, 1986) that are expected to yield four emotion dimensions by factor analysis based on the valence and the agency attribute.

2.2 Emotions

2.2.1 Description

Many researchers have attempted to define emotion. Some researchers have proposed that the concept of emotion is fuzzy and, therefore, emotion can only be defined by prototypes[2]. Researchers use prototypes frequently for constructs that cannot be defined by a conclusive set of necessary and sufficient features. For example, Shaver et al. (1987) found that when participants were asked to define specific emotions, they could not provide specific definitions but were able to give a rich detail of their emotional experiences. Other researchers have strived for a more precise definition of emotion. Most researchers at present are content with a loose working definition: emotions are valenced reactions to personally significant events, including physiological, behavioral, and cognitive elements and subjective feelings of pleasure or displeasure. Thus emotion is conceived to be a multifaceted phenomenon consisting of physiological activities, behavioral and cognitive processes, and subjective feelings. Researchers have emphasized one aspect or the other or a combination based on their individual research agendas.

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[2] Fehr and Russell (1984) were the first to conduct a prototype analysis of "emotion". Prototype is an abstract image or set of features representing the best and most representative example of the category.

There is a great deal of confusion in the relationship amongst affect, emotion, and mood in the literature (Forgas, 1992). While they all represent some aspect of the feeling state, their individual domains are different in the psychology literature. Affect is a generic term that refers to the wide range of feeling states that people experience (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Affective states vary in intensity and specificity. Emotions are affective states that are relatively high in intensity and are specifically directed towards another person or situation (Izard, 1991; Park et al., 1986), whereas moods refer to the affective states that are less intense, undifferentiated, and arise from a less identifiable cause (Forgas, 1992). Moods are relatively more enduring as compared to emotions (Baron, 1990). Another distinction between emotions and moods is based on the relatively larger effect of emotions on cognitive processes and behaviors while moods do not interfere with these processes but rather provide the affective context for a person's daily experiences (George, 1998). Allred et al. (1997) compared the effects of mood and anger on the negotiation process and outcomes. They found that anger had a much stronger effect on regard for other's interest, accuracy of judgment of other's interest, and joint outcome than mood.

Some emotions are considered to be basic emotions, while others are considered to be blends and mixtures. Basic emotions are the ones which have facial expressions associated with them across cultures. Ekman and Oster (1979) cited happiness, surprise, anger, and fear as examples of basic emotions. Oatley (1988) categorized happiness, sadness, anger, fear, and disgust as basic emotions. Izard (1977) presented a list of ten fundamental emotions: namely, interest-excitement, enjoyment-joy, surprise-startle, distress-anguish, anger-rage, disgust-revulsion, contempt-scorn, fear-terror, shame-

humiliation, and guilt-remorse. Lazarus (1991a) proposed fifteen categories of emotions: namely, anger, fright, anxiety, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy, disgust, as negative emotions and happiness or joy, pride, love, relief, compassion, and hope as positive emotions. In the present study, twenty-three emotions are selected from the above typologies that make up four emotion dimensions: namely, anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions.

2.2.2 Cognitive Appraisal Theory

According to the cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotions, emotional arousal is based on a combination of thought, motivation, and the relationship between the environment and the person. According to cognitive theorists such as Frijda (1987), Lazarus (1991a), Roseman et al. (1990), and Smith & Ellsworth (1985), the arousal of emotions is based on how well we achieve our goals in the context of our beliefs about ourselves and the world we live in. Emotions are aroused by an appraisal of the personal significance or meaning of what is happening to us in a particular encounter. Encounters that are detrimental or harmful to our goal achievement lead to negative emotions such as anger, frustration, and fear, while beneficial encounters that help us in our goal achievement result in positive emotions such as happiness, love, and compassion.

In terms of the cognitive-motivational-relational perspective (Lazarus, 1991a), the emotion arousal process may be conceptualized to comprise three steps. First, the person-environment fit is considered in which the environmental conditions and the person's characteristics interact to produce the person-environment relationship. The environmental conditions include demands, resources, and constraints while the

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important personality variables affecting emotions include motives and beliefs about the self and the world such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and locus of control. Second, the encounter is cognitively appraised in the person-environment context keeping in view its effect on achieving the goal and the possible coping options. Action tendency provides the link between emotions and their physiological response patterns and the coping process alters the person-environment relationship that changes the future emotional states. Finally, aroused emotions and their consequences result in certain outcomes and the motivation to act in a certain manner.

People are often confronted with different forms and levels of harms and benefits to their personal well-beings. Appraisals of these diverse situations result in different types of emotions (Lazarus, 1991a). Each type of harmful or beneficial relationship leads to a distinct negative or positive emotion. This phenomenon that describes the arousal of particular emotions as a result of a specific situation is called emotional specificity (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Roseman, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986, 1992). When the individual appraises the harm or the benefit of a particular situation, each situational appraisal produces a specific emotion and its accompanying action impulses and behavioral orientations. For example, both anxiety and anger are consequences of harmful appraisals of situations but the appraisal in the case of anger involves "a demeaning offense against me and mine" while the appraisal in the case of anxiety involves "facing uncertain, existential threat". Similarly, both happiness and pride are positive emotions and are aroused in positive circumstances. However, the characteristics of the positive circumstances are different at a more micro level. Happiness results when one is "making reasonable progress toward the realization of a

goal" while pride is aroused when "one's ego-identity is enhanced by taking credit for an achievement" (Lazarus and Smith, 1988).

Researchers have described ways of discerning amongst the arousal of emotions in various situations based on various appraisal criteria (Frijda, 1987; Roseman, 1984, 1991; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). For example, Smith & Ellsworth (1985) asked the participants in their study to recall past experiences associated with fifteen emotions and rate their experiences along cognitive appraisal dimensions. They found six cognitive dimensions in emotions: namely, pleasantness, responsibility, certainty, attentional activity, anticipated effort, and situational control, in decreasing order of variance. Roseman (1984, 1991) found that five appraisal dimensions determined which of the thirteen emotions would be experienced in any given situation. These were motivational state, situational state, probability, legitimacy, and agency or locus of responsibility. The appraisal of motivational state referred to whether the motive of an individual to accomplish a task was to seek reward or avoid punishment. Situational state referred to the presence or absence of motivational state. Probability was the certainty of a given outcome. Legitimacy referred to whether the person deserved the outcome. Agency referred to whether the outcome was caused by self, other person, or circumstances.

Lazarus & Smith (1988) described six appraisal criteria that indicated the type of emotion that arises in particular situations; three components were called the primary appraisal criteria and three components were called the secondary appraisal criteria. Primary appraisal was concerned with whether something of relevance to the person's well-being has occurred. Emotional response occurred only if a person had a personal

short term or long term goal at stake such as one's self-esteem or the well-being of a loved one. The three primary appraisal criteria were (1) goal relevance, (2) goal congruence, and (3) the type of ego-involvement. Secondary appraisal was concerned with the coping actions that might prevent or produce additional harm or benefit. The three secondary appraisal components were (1) blame or credit, (2) coping potential, and (3) future expectations.

Bernard Weiner's (1986, 1992) perspective on cognitive appraisal is focused on the causal attribution. An attribution is a causal explanation of an event. Attribution theories are concerned with the cognitive processes and consequences of the processes by which individuals explain the behavior and outcomes of others as well as their own (Martinko, 1995). According to Heider (1958), such an understanding of the basic causal mechanisms is essential for the motivations and the achievements of individuals. Therefore, individuals are frequently involved in discerning amongst the various possible causes of the situations that affect them.

According to Weiner's causal attribution theory of motivation and emotions (1986, 1992) individuals process information about their prior outcomes to arrive at causal attributions. These attributions are believed to affect subjects' expectancies, which, in turn, influence individual's affective states and behaviors. A basic premise of the causal attribution theory of emotions is that the attributions are classified within a limited number of underlying cognitive dimensions. According to Heider (1958), the internal external distinction and the valence are important in understanding the effect of a cause on the achievement. Weiner's research focuses on three dimensions of emotions-related causes: namely, (1) locus of causation which refers to the location of the cause,

internal or external to the person, (2) stability which refers to the temporal nature of the cause, and (3) controllability which refers to the degree of volitional influence over the cause. It is important to examine how the causal dimensions are linked to various emotions. According to Weiner (1986), both the valence and the specific causal dimensions influence the emotions experienced after the attainment or non-attainment of the goals. The locus dimension is linked to self-esteem and pride, the stability dimension is related to hopelessness and resignation, and the controllability dimension is linked to anger, gratitude, pity, and shame.

2.2.3 Emotional Specificity

According to the cognitive theories of emotions (for example, Roseman, 1991; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986 and 1992), specific emotions arise as a result of cognitive evaluation of a situation. There are diverse situations that may be beneficial or harmful to the participants and each particular kind of situation is expected to give rise to specific emotions (Lazarus, 1991a). Smith & Ellsworth (1985) identified six dimensions that best define the patterns of appraisals underlying emotions: certainty, pleasantness, attention activity, control, anticipated effort, and responsibility. In another study, Ellsworth & Smith (1988) asked the participants to think of a situation where they encountered one of the nine appraisal conditions provided by the authors. The results showed that the situations defined by particular appraisals led to a specific emotion or a group of emotions. For example, appraisal of negative valence and human agency led to anger, and guilt.

According to Weiner's (1986) causal attribution perspective on emotions, the causal dimensions define the types of emotions one is likely to encounter in a given situation. The limited number of causal dimensions makes it possible to categorize the types of emotions expected to arise as a result of a particular cause in a parsimonious manner. For example, Weiner predicted that failure and an external locus of responsibility led to anger while failure and an internal locus of responsibility resulted in low self-esteem and self-pity. On the other hand, success and an external locus of responsibility led to gratitude while success and an internal locus of responsibility resulted in high self-esteem and pride.

According to Lazarus & Smith (1988), people appraise a situation and categorize it according to the primary and secondary appraisal components as described in the previous section. A specific combination of the six criteria results in specific emotion. Let us take the example of the arousal of a common negative emotion, anger. Goal relevance, which is the first primary appraisal criterion, is necessary for any emotion to occur. Goal incongruence, which is the second primary criterion, elicits negative emotions, such as, anger, fear, anxiety, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy, or disgust. The third primary appraisal component further differentiates amongst the negative emotions on the basis of preservation or enhancement of self or social esteem. Anger and anxiety are differentiated from each other on the basis of the first secondary appraisal criterion. In anger, there is self-directed, or other-directed blame that is controllable, whereas in anxiety, the threat to the goal is uncontrollable. Blame rather than mere accountability is crucial for anger. Anger results from frustration only when the frustrated person believes that the actions of the person who caused the situation are avoidable,

deliberate, or arbitrary (Averill, 1982). According to several different cognitive appraisal frameworks (Roseman, Spindle, & Jose, 1990; Smith & Lazarus, 1988; Weiner, 1986), one becomes angry when one judges the other person to be responsible for a behavior that negatively affects oneself. If the blame is external, we direct anger at someone or something other than us. If the blame is internal, we experience anger towards ourselves, guilt, or shame. If no one is responsible, then sadness occurs if the loss is irrevocable, and anxiety occurs if the future may entail a threat.

Positive emotions are a necessary component of our everyday lives. Happiness is an example of a positive emotion that is prevalent in our personal and work lives. Synonyms range from joyous and jubilant to content and amused. One possible source of happiness is our reasonable progress toward the realization of our goals (Lazarus, 1991a). For a positive emotion to be aroused, the encounter must be goal relevant and goal congruent according to the first two primary appraisal criteria. The third primary appraisal criterion, the type of ego-involvement, is irrelevant for the arousal of happiness. The first two secondary appraisal criteria, blame and coping potential, are also irrelevant for happiness. According to the third secondary criterion, happiness will continue to exist if the future expectations are positive and the good fortunes are expected to continue. If the future expectations are unfavorable, then happiness is expected to be muted or undetermined.

Table 2 shows the emotions that are elicited as a result of valence and the locus of responsibility according to certain research studies (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Roseman, 1991; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986). These two appraisal dimensions are considered to be the most important dimensions amongst the appraisal

criteria (Heider, 1958; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986), and thus will be the focus of this study. The other-caused failure appraisal situation results in anger and its affiliated emotional adjectives such as frustrated, contempt, disgust, and rage. These anger affiliated emotional adjectives have been used by various researchers to measure anger. For example, Izard (1977) used angry, mad, and enraged, Ellsworth and Smith (1988) used angry, scornful, contemptuous, resentful, disgusted, and frustrated, and Richins (1997) used anger, frustrated, irritated, hostility, and outraged, to measure anger in their studies. Anxiety is evident only in the Scherer (1988) study but not in the other studies. The self-caused failure appraisal situation results in guilt, shame, feelings of regret, and affiliated emotional objectives. The other caused-success situation results in liking, happy, gratitude, and affiliated emotional objectives. The self-caused success situation results in happiness, challenge, pride, confident, and affiliated emotional objectives.

2.2.4 Emotional Flux

Cognitions and emotions are strongly tied together when it comes to study of human behavior; one depends on the other for its cause and consequences. Therefore, emotions may be considered to be both the cause of thought and behavior and a consequence of it. This cause and effect relationship is not a one-time event. In fact, the back and forth movement between emotion and cognition happens repeatedly. This constant reappraisal or readjustment of emotions as a result of reappraisal of the changes in the situation is termed as "emotional flux". According to the contemporary cognitive theorists (Scherer, 1988; Lazarus, 1991a), the arousal of emotions is a dynamic, ongoing

process. The subjects are constantly evaluating and responding to their environments. For example, in the negotiation context, one may start out feeling angry with someone because of a previous negotiation encounter, however, the other person may act benevolently during the course of the current negotiations making one happy, and even compassionate. Thus, theory and empirical research must take into account that the person-environment relationships and their corresponding emotions are processes in transition, making the research on emotions primarily the study of change and flow of cognitions, emotions, and behaviors over time and across situations.

There is a constant interplay between emotions and cognitions during the negotiation process that affects subsequent emotions and cognitions. As emotions change, negotiator's perceptions about the other party and situation change which in turn influences the emotions and behavior of the negotiator. This iteration may continue for a number of times before an agreement is reached. For example, a manager evaluates his/her employee lower than the employee's expectations. The employee thinks that the manager is personally responsible for this unfair allocation of reward. He/she becomes angry. The manager and the employee meet to negotiate the salary adjustment the next day. The manager offers a very low increase in salary. By this time the employee is very angry and he/she asks for salary that is more than normal. Each subsequent interchange between the two negotiators leads to an increase in negative emotions and a more negatively biased perception of the other, resulting in increasingly contentious behavior.

Emotional flux in negotiation is highlighted in a theoretical article by Barry & Oliver (1996). They examined three stages of emotional evolution in negotiation: namely, anticipated affect, experienced affect, and post-negotiation affect. Emotions in the pre-

negotiation stage influenced negotiator's behavior and emotions during the negotiation process, which affected the outcomes and emotions in the post-negotiation phase. Hence, the emotions and behaviors of the negotiators in one phase of negotiation affected the emotions and behaviors in the subsequent phase. Lazarus (1991a) also points to the temporal changes in emotions during an encounter. According to Lazarus, the appraisal of the person environment relationship is the fundamental cause of emotions. This relationship keeps on changing as the person tries to cope with the situation. For example, a person who wants to buy a house may initially feel anxious after discovering that the selling price of a house is beyond his/her budget. However, after spending a few more weeks exploring for houses in the same locality, he/she discovers more houses that are within his/her budget making him/her feel happy and relieved. The emotions change from anxiety to happiness and relief.

Little empirical research has been done on changes in emotions during negotiations. In a rare empirical study of the effect of previous negotiation experience on current negotiation, O'Connor & Arnold (2001) found that the negotiators who had experienced impasses in previous negotiations showed distributive tendencies. They interpreted their previous performances as unsuccessful, experienced negative emotions, and developed negative perceptions of their counterparts and the process. In the future negotiation with the same counterparts, they planned to share less information and behave less cooperatively. O'Connor & Arnold (2001) suggested in their article that "inattention to the temporal aspect of negotiation may be impeding theory development in negotiation".

In this study, emotions are aroused or changed as a result of the performance feedback of Task 1. These emotions are expected to change during the negotiation of Task 2 as a result of the interpersonal influence, self-cognition, and the negotiation dynamics. Therefore, in order to capture the changes in emotions during the negotiation process, emotions are measured before and after the negotiation. Mediating variables that are expected to influence the changes in emotions, such as perceptions about the emotions and behaviors of the counterparts, are also measured in this study.

2.2.5 Comparison of Cognitive Theories of Emotions

There is considerable debate on the type of mediational cognitions that link environmental situation to emotional response. While the focus of this research is not to fully describe the various cognitive theories of emotions, it is useful to compare some important research studies (Frijda, 1987; Roseman, 1984, 1991; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986) to understand and predict the arousal of specific emotions as a result of specific performance feedbacks.

Cognitive theories evaluate how significant an event is for the well-being of a person based on certain defined appraisal criteria. One of the points of contention amongst the cognitive researchers is the types and the number of appraisal criteria that are needed to describe emotions. Table 1 shows the appraisal criteria used by the above-mentioned researchers in their studies. The table shows that the number and the type of appraisal criteria used by each researcher differ. For example, for Smith & Ellsworth (1985), relationships are appraised on the basis of five appraisal criteria: namely, valence or pleasantness, responsibility and control, certainty, attention, and effort. For Roseman

(1991), the situation is defined in terms of (1) an event in which you have or do not have something you want or do not want, and (2) the probability, perceived cause, and the legitimacy of that event. For Weiner (1986), the why, what, and where of the encounter is important in eliciting emotions. The knowledge of the causal dimensions of an event determines the types of emotions that are likely to be experienced.

There is some debate regarding the effectiveness of cognitive perspectives that deal with cognitive appraisal (Lazarus, 1991a; Roseman, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985) and causal attributions (Weiner, 1986, 1992). Cognitive appraisal focuses on the appraisal criteria that help in evaluating the significance of an event to the personal well-being of a person (Lazarus, 1991a). Causal attribution is more limited in its focus and deals with only the perceived causes that have resulted in a particular event. Some researchers have found cognitive appraisal to be a more effective predictor of emotions than causal attribution (Smith et al., 1993; Leon & Hernandez, 1998). However, many researchers treat causality and appraisal as two mediational steps between the situation and the emotions (for example, Lerner & Keltner, 2000). According to Lazarus & Smith (1988), causal appraisal is closer to emotions in the chain of causal linkages than cognitive attribution. Therefore, it seems that the causal attribution and the cognitive appraisal mechanisms are not in a conflict with each other but rather are two steps of the same emotion eliciting mechanism.

Despite the differences amongst the various cognitive studies of emotions, there are a number of points of convergence amongst the cognitive theories. First, all the cognitive theories are based on an evaluation of the situation, which confirms a cognitive level of analysis. Second, at an abstract level, all the theories place valence or

pleasantness of the experience as the most important appraisal criterion. Third, studies show that valence alone is not enough to specify the emotions that will arise in a particular situation. More information is needed to specify which emotion will arise. Roseman et al. (1990) found that valence, locus of responsibility, and certainty were the important dimensions to distinguish amongst the emotions. Legitimacy was not important. Roseman et al. (1990) found convergence of results with Frijda (1987), and Smith & Ellsworth (1985). In Frijda's (1987) study, subjects were asked whether particular appraisals usually led to particular emotions. Three of the seven dimensions corresponded to valence, locus of responsibility, and certainty. These researchers (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Ellsworth & Smith, 1988) collected data on appraisal-emotion relationships in a number of settings, and found consistently that pleasantness, certainty, and agency distinguished amongst the emotions. According to the Smith & Ellsworth's (1985) study, valence and locus of responsibility accounted for over sixty percent of the explained variance.

Most researchers overwhelmingly subscribe to valence and the locus of responsibility as being the most important appraisal criteria. These perspectives assume that people respond to the broad classes of situations defined in terms of valence and the locus of responsibility, such as (1) positive event caused by another person, (2) positive event cause by self, (3) negative event caused by another person, and (4) negative event caused by self. This is why both the valence and the locus of responsibility are chosen in this study to predict the types of emotions that will arise as a result of the performance feedback.

Fourth, a central point of commonality among the various perspectives is their assumption that each class of abstractly defined situations based on the appraisal criteria will give rise to a specific emotional experience. For example, valence alone can only point to positive or negative emotions as a general class of emotions that will arise as a result of success or failure. The emotions will be more specifically defined if the locus of responsibility is specified as well. For example, Roseman (1991), Scherer (1988), Smith & Ellsworth (1985), and Weiner (1986) propose that the four situations mentioned above will elicit pride, liking/gratitude, anger, and regret/shame.

Finally, a point of convergence in these studies is the assumption that affect generates a general orientation to behavior. For example, Roseman (1984) and Lazarus (1991a) specify specific behavioral outcomes that are engendered by each emotion. Joy engenders the goal of sustaining or extending a situation, fear the goal of avoiding or preventing a threatening outcome, and anger the goal of vengeance. Table 3 lists the action tendencies for the emotions that are relevant to this study. Weiner (1986) presents the help that is provided as a consequence of pity for another person or confidence shown as a result of self-pride. Thus, emotions are placed at the cross-section of the response to prior experience and a direction for the future behavior. This shared experience-affect-behavior-outcome view is the basis of the model proposed in this study.

2.3 Interpersonal Influence

Our social behavior is constantly guided by our interpretations of the counterpart's emotions, which reflect the counterpart's intentions. We decode and decipher the counterpart's emotions and react accordingly. In the negotiation context, people interpret

the counterpart's emotions and behaviors and are influenced by their interpretation. The counterpart's emotional reactions contain a lot of information for the negotiator. According to Ekman (1984), the counterpart's emotional reactions convey the following information:

1) The quality and the intensity of the emotions show how the counterpart views the relationship.

2) Emotions show the level of importance of issues for the counterpart.

3) Emotions also convey knowledge about beliefs, attitudes, and aspirations of the counterpart.

4) Emotions provide an insight into how the counterpart is appraising the situation.

The knowledge about the counterpart based on his/her emotions influences the attitude formation and behavior towards him/her. A point to note is that the learnings from the counterpart's emotions are based on the subjective perceptions of the negotiator. These perceptions may not be accurate especially if they are biased by the negotiator's own emotions or past experiences. Secondly these perceptions may also be inaccurate due to misjudgment on the part of the negotiator because of the negotiator's inexperience or hidden emotions of the other person.

The research on interpersonal emotions shows that there are two types of responses to the counterpart's emotions. First is the mimetic response or reciprocal response (Hatfield et al., 1992) where others respond by expressing similar emotions and behavior. Reciprocity is a fundamental principle governing human behavior. Brett, Shapiro, & Lytle (1998) note that the norm of reciprocity is so embedded in human nature that not reciprocating is counter-intuitive. Cialdini (1985) notes that all societies

subscribe to the norm of reciprocity. It is the mutual exchange of similar-in-kind responses among people. Positive action is met with a positive response and negative action is met with a negative response. For example, research on interpersonal responses to anger (Tracey, 1994) has found that one's expression of anger induces similarly hostile and aggressive behavior in others.

Reciprocity is very obvious in negotiation, where reciprocating concessions or escalating conflicts are based on this phenomenon. For example, in negotiation, aggressive behavior is usually met with an aggressive response. A high first offer from one side is commonly met with a high first offer from the other side. Similarly a benevolent concession from one side is commonly expected to be reciprocated with a large reward from the other side. Graham et al. (1994), Pruitt & Kimmel (1977), Rubin & Brown (1975), and Walton & McKersie (1965) are among numerous researchers that have used reciprocity to describe interpersonal behavior in their studies. For example, Pruitt & Kimmel (1977) found in their study that if the negotiators gave more information about their needs and preferences to their counterparts, then their counterparts were likely to reciprocate in a similar way. The expectations of cooperation from the counterpart led to cooperation by the negotiator. On the other hand, if the counterpart was not willing to cooperate, then short-term defensive considerations were expected to take over the long-term cooperative aims and the negotiator would not cooperate with the counterpart as well.

The second type of interpersonal response is the complementary response. According to the interpersonal theory of personality (Carson, 1969; Wiggins, 1979), complementarity is the extent to which the behavior of one participant elicits specific

behavior from the other participant and is viewed as necessary for continued interaction. An anti-complementary interaction results if the second participant does the opposite of what is expected for continued interaction. Anti-complementary interactions are associated with higher relationship stress and are detrimental for the continuation of the relationship. For example, dominating behavior is expected to be met with yielding behavior according to the complementary principle in order to maintain a future relationship. If the response from the counterpart is also dominating as prescribed by the reciprocity response then the relationship is most likely to fall apart.

Complementary responses have been observed for emotions such as anxiety (Menon & Dubé, 1999) and sadness (Tracey, 1994). In a study done by De Dreu et al. (2002), the authors found that although the participants with angry opponents experienced similar emotions, they made lower demands, and larger concessions than the negotiators who had happy opponents. In a similar study by Van Kleef (2003), negotiators made larger concessions to angry opponents than to non-emotional opponents, and they made smaller concessions to happy ones. From a cognitive point of view, this may be explained by the development of a better understanding of the counterpart's point of view because of the other's anger. At an emotional level, this may be explained by arousal of fear resulting in yielding behavior. Hence, if one is facing a counterpart who is friendly, then one is very likely to respond by being friendly as well, a reciprocal response that is socially desirable. However, if one is facing a hostile counterpart, then one may be either hostile based on reciprocity or yielding based on complementarity.

2.4 Negotiator's Behavior

The conflict literature describes five types of conflict resolving styles or behaviors (for example, Rahim, 1983; Thomas & Kilman, 1978) as shown in Figure 1. They are integrating or collaborative, dominating or competitive, obliging or yielding, compromising, and avoiding. In negotiation, the primary paradigm is the collaborative-competitive context of bargaining behaviors exhibited by the negotiators (Clopton, 1984; Pruitt, 1986; Thompson, 1990).

Dominating or competitive behavior involves use of distributive tactics such as threats, promises, and persuasive arguments (Pruitt & Lewis, 1975). It is characterized by aggression, high levels of personal aspirations, and use of inflexible tactics aimed at forcing concessions from the other party. The objective is to get the maximum share of the total outcome even at the expense of the other party.

Integrating or collaborative behavior involves reliance on problem solving orientation, wherein the negotiators are actively trying to establish trust and mutual support. The focus is on seeking an integrative solution that is achieved with open and accurate information exchange, mutual concessions, and mutual respect for each other's interests and goals (Campbell et al., 1988; Fisher, Ury & Patton, 1991). In the integrating context, the negotiator seeks to minimize the use of deleterious influence tactics, such as threats and promises, because the goal is to arrive at a mutually beneficial outcome. Integrating behaviors such as open and accurate exchange of information and discussion of each other's interests lead to recognition of beneficial exchanges of priorities such that the overall size of the joint outcome increases, benefiting both the parties at the same time.

Obliging or yielding behavior is based on a high concern for the other negotiator and a low concern for own self. It is evident in situations where one party sacrifices its interests and concerns while enabling the other party to achieve its interests. This style is effective in situations in which there is little chance of achieving one's own interests, when the outcome is not important, or when satisfying one's own interests may jeopardize one's relationship with the other person.

Compromising behavior is based on a medium level of concern for self and the other negotiator. Both the negotiators agree to compromise by taking a middle ground. The size of the pie is not increased by using problem solving techniques characteristic of integrating behavior. Also, the emphasis in compromising behavior is not on getting the maximum share of the total outcome at the expense of the other party as is characteristic of dominating behavior. The objective is to achieve the middle ground so that both the parties are equally but only partially satisfied.

The fifth type of behavior, avoiding behavior, is not included in this study. It is based on a low concern for self and a low concern for the other negotiator. The nature of the simulation and the feedbacks is such that this behavior is not a possible option in this simulation.

Lazarus (1991a) stated that in the background of every transaction there were three sets of forces; (1) cultural meanings that shaped individual's beliefs and motives, (2) immediate social pressure exerted by the behavior of the other person involved in the encounter, and (3) a past history of related encounters that taught important lessons. These three phenomena are expected to influence interaction processes and outcomes. Since, this study is a single culture study, the cultural effects stated as Force 1 above are

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expected to be constant in this research. Most of the variance is expected to come from the second and the third forces.

The second force mentioned by Lazarus (1991a) refers to the interpersonal influence exerted by the negotiators on each other (Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977; Rubin & Brown, 1975). Emotions are influenced by two interpersonal variables, perception of the emotions of the other negotiator and the behavior of the other negotiator. The behavior of the other negotiator is defined as integrating, dominating, compromising, and obliging. One's negative emotions towards the counterpart may increase the perceived negative emotions and the dominating or obliging behavior of the counterpart. Whether the counterpart's behavior is dominating or obliging is based on whether the counterpart's response is "reciprocal" (Graham et al., 1994; Hatfield et al., 1992; Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977) or "complementary" (De Dreu et al., 2002; Menon & Dubé, 1999; Tracey, 1994; Wiggins, 1979). One's positive emotions towards the counterpart will increase the perceived positive emotions and the integrating or the obliging behavior of the counterpart. The integrating or the obliging behavior is based on whether the counterpart's response is "reciprocal" (Graham et al., 1994; Hatfield et al., 1992; Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977) or "complementary" (De Dreu et al., 2002; Menon & Dubé, 1999; Tracey, 1994; Wiggins, 1979).

The third force, past history or experience, is a critical factor in determining the current state of affairs. In this study, the past history or experience which is the experimental treatment given in the pre-negotiation phase, is expected to influence the negotiation process significantly. According to a proposition in Barry & Oliver's (1996) study, the positive affect at the start of the negotiation encounter is a positive function of

the level of perceived satisfaction with prior negotiation experience and negotiation outcomes involving the particular opponent. Thus, the emotions experienced after a negotiation affect the emotions experienced by the negotiator at the start of the next negotiation process.

Empirical research in negotiation has shown that positive affect resulted in integrating behavior while negative affect led to dominating behavior. As mentioned earlier, four studies on positive mood (Baron, 1990; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Hollingshead et al., 1990; Kramer et al., 1993) found that positive mood led negotiators to use more integrating or collaborative negotiation tactics and discovered agreements that increased joint gains. There was also empirical evidence that positive affective states influenced creativity in problem solving (Isen, Daubman, & Nowicki, 1987), cognitive organization and categorization (Isen & Daubman, 1984), information encoding and retrieval (Isen, 1985), problem-solving strategies (Isen, Means, Patrick, & Nowicki, 1982), and risk taking (Isen & Patrick, 1983). Negative emotions such as anger had been shown to lower integrating or problem solving behavior in negotiations leading to lower joint outcomes (Allred et al., 1997) and higher distributive outcomes (Butt & Jaeger, 2001).

As discussed earlier, one of the commonalities amongst various researchers dealing with the cognitive theories of emotions is the behavioral orientation arising as a consequence of the emotions elicited during appraisal of a situation (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Lazarus, 1991a; Roseman, 1991; Weiner, 1986). These emotions are expected to prepare the person to cope adaptively with a situation based on his/her appraisal of the situation (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Lazarus, 1991a). For example, anger prepares and

motivates the person to attack and remove an obstacle to achieve the goal. Guilt motivates the person to adhere to personal and social norms, to behave in a responsible manner, and to make reparations for any harm brought about by his/her behavior. Gratitude generates altruistic acts such as wanting to help or repay in kind. Pride enhances one's ego and increases one's self-efficacy. Table 3 shows the action tendencies as a result of various emotions expected in this study.

2.5 Negotiation Outcomes

Negotiation outcomes are the result of the interaction process amongst the negotiators. Negotiations may end in an impasse, that is, the parties fail to reach a mutually acceptable agreement, or in mutual agreement. In the case of a mutual agreement, the results may be measured along two dimensions: namely, economic measures and social-psychological measures (Thompson, 1990). Economic measures focus on the negotiation outcomes while the social-psychological measures focus on both the processes and the outcomes of negotiation and are based on elements and processes of social perception (Thompson & Hastie, 1990).

According to Thomson (1990), "economic measures of performance have been used more extensively than the social psychological measures". It is important to assess both types of outcomes because of their diverse impacts on the negotiators. Therefore, in this study, both the economic and the social psychological outcomes are measured. The two economic outcomes measured in this study are distributive and integrative outcomes, and the social psychological outcome is satisfaction with negotiation (Thompson, 1990).

These variables are considered to be the standard outcome variables measured in the negotiation literature.

Distributive outcome refers to the division of the outcomes between the two negotiators (Lax & Sebenius, 1986). The distributive component reflects the primary motivation of negotiators to maximize their own gains. A fundamental task of the negotiator is to claim as much of the output as possible. In an integrative process, the negotiator's interest is not only to divide the resources but also to identify additional value, benefits, and resources. Typically, negotiators' outcomes are summed to give joint outcomes that are used as measures of integrative bargaining. Integrative agreements allow negotiators to achieve greater utility, avoid potential stalemates, and foster harmonious relation between the parties (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Researchers have identified several criteria for achieving integrative outcomes, such as, identification of the interests of the other party, and logrolling in which negotiators make trade-offs between issues so that each party gets all or most of its preferred outcome while conceding on issues of little importance to itself (Froman & Cohen, 1970).

A number of researchers (Baron, 1990; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990; Kramer, Newton, & Pommerenke, 1993) have found that positive mood increased joint outcomes in negotiations. Barry & Oliver (1996) proposed in their theoretical article that positive affect that was experienced by both the parties should increase the level of joint outcomes in a negotiated settlement. Not many researchers have studied emotions and their effects on the joint or the distributive outcomes. In their study, Allred, Mallozi, Matsui, & Raia (1997) tested whether negotiators who felt high anger and low compassion for each other would (1) have less desire to work with each

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other in the future, (2) achieve fewer joint gains, and (3) successfully claim more value for themselves than negotiators with more positive regard. They found that the first two hypotheses were confirmed but the third hypothesis was not confirmed. Butt & Jaeger (2001) found that high anger resulted in more contentious or dominating behavior and distributive outcomes.

Social-psychological measures such as satisfaction is a critical outcome measure of an exchange relationship and has been linked to performance behaviors in a number of settings (Ruekert & Churchill, 1984). It is especially important because of its implications for repeat negotiations and long-term relationships between the negotiating parties. Unlike economic outcomes that are based on objective data, satisfaction is based on subjective analysis or perception of the situation. Consequently, negotiator's satisfaction may be quite different from economic outcome (Bazerman & Carroll, 1987; Thompson & Hastie, 1990). Negotiator's perceptions may not only be different from the economic analysis but may also differ from the perceptions of the other party as well. One negotiator may be satisfied with the outcome or the process while the other negotiator may be unhappy because of his/her level of outcome or perhaps because of the tactics used by the other party during negotiation.

Post-negotiation outcomes are at the juncture of a just concluded negotiation and the future negotiation. They serve the role of recording one's experiences in negotiation and in applying them to new and similar situations (Kelly & Thibaut, 1978). Some researchers have done empirical research on post-negotiation outcomes (for example, Allred et al., 1997; O'Connor & Arnold, 2001) but a lot more remains to be done in this particular area of negotiation (Barry & Oliver, 1996).

The next chapter presents the emotions-based model for dyadic negotiation. The model describes the process through which emotions are generated and they influence negotiator's behavior and outcomes. The interpersonal effects of the other negotiator are also discussed in the model. The presentation of the model is followed by the development of the hypotheses.

3. Proposed Model and Hypotheses

3.1 Proposed Model Description

According to the theories and ideas proposed by Abelson (1983), de Rivera (1977), Roseman et al. (1990), Weiner (1986, 1992), and Lazarus (1991a), affect provides a fitting link between the stimulus and the response. The situation-cognition-affect-behavior model common to all of these authors suggests the implicit functional theme that runs through their writings. They all point to the assumption that affect is generated by the evaluation of a particular situation and that it generates a general orientation or direction for subsequent behavior. This shared view of affect, both as a response to prior experiences and as a stimulus to the subsequent behaviors, clearly locates affect at the intersection of the situation, thought, and action. For example, Weiner (1986) views this locus of affect explicitly as a consequence to events and their causal attributions, and as an antecedent to subsequent actions and outcomes. For Lazarus (1991a), the cognitive appraisal of a situation leads to specific affects that result in a coping action or behavior. Figure 2 is a conceptual model proposed in this study that attempts to capture this very position of affect in the think-feel-act paradigm.

Place Figure 2 here

Four elements are important in the development of the proposed theoretical model: namely, cognitive appraisal, emotional specificity, emotional flux, and interpersonal influence. These concepts have been discussed in Chapter 2.

The cognitive appraisal or evaluation of the situation (Lazarus, 1991a; Roseman et al., 1990) and the interpersonal influence of the emotions and the behaviors of the counterpart (Allred et al., 1997; De Dreu et al., 2002) arouse negotiator emotions. In the beginning of the negotiation when the negotiator has not yet met the counterpart, the elicited emotions are solely based upon the evaluation of the situation and the past experiences of the negotiator. However, once the negotiation starts, the emotions and the behaviors of the counterpart begin to influence the emotions and the behaviors of the negotiator. Kelly & Thibaut (1978) describe this as the "situation X self X partner space within which a relationship exists". Any change in this "space" results in a corresponding change in the emotions and behaviors of the negotiator. These emotions and behaviors result in the negotiation outcomes that again influence the emotions and behaviors of the negotiator for the next negotiation.

The emotions elicited during negotiation are specific to the situation faced by the negotiator, that is, specific emotions are elicited as a result of a particular situation (Lazarus, 1991a; Roseman et al., 1990; Weiner, 1986). There are different levels of harms and benefits to the personal well being of the negotiator and these diverse appraisals result in different type of emotions such as anger, guilt, gratitude, or pride. This phenomenon is called emotional specificity. Researchers have proposed different criteria for discerning amongst the arousal of different emotions in various situations (Frijda, 1986; Roseman, 1984; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

In Figure 2, the negotiation process starts with the arousal of emotions that translates to behavior and then results in emotions. This cause and effect relationship between emotion and behavior is not a one-time event but happens continuously during

the negotiation. In reality, it is not possible to discern between the beginning and the end of this continuous relationship between emotion and behavior. This phenomenon has been described in Chapter 2 as emotional flux (Lazarus, 1991a). For the purpose of empirical testing, emotions are measured twice during this study.

Figure 3 presents the emotions-based negotiation model proposed in this research for testing the theoretical model empirically. The empirical model proposed in this study consists of multi-step cause and effect relationships starting with the treatment given to the participants. It incorporates mediating variables between the emotion eliciting situation and the negotiation outcomes, including negotiator emotions, counterpart emotions, counterpart behavior, and negotiator behavior. It shows operational variables in each general group of variables. For example, negotiator behavior is shown as integrating, dominating, yielding, and compromising. Negotiation outcomes are represented by distributive outcome, joint outcome, and negotiator satisfaction. The last set of variables, post-negotiation outcomes, consists of post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction.

Place Figure 3 here

In Figure 3, the negotiation process begins with the arousal of emotions based on the cognitive appraisal of the experimental treatment, the performance feedback of Task 1. In the performance feedback for Task 1 the valence (success or failure) and the locus of responsibility (self or other) are crossed with each other to produce four types of feedback for each role, the employer and the job candidate. Roseman et al. (1990)

concluded in their study that most of the cognitive researchers agree on three major appraisals of situations: namely, valence, locus of responsibility, and certainty. In this study, the first two appraisals are varied while the third is kept constant. The valence and the locus of responsibility are chosen as the key model variables because these two characteristics have been shown to account for the largest explained variance amongst the appraisal criteria (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

The performance feedback in Task 1 is evaluated by the individuals leading to four types of emotions based on valence and locus of responsibility; other-caused negative emotions, self-caused negative emotions, other-caused positive emotions, and self-caused positive emotions. The expected emotions are anger, guilt-shame, gratitude, and pride-achievement (Lazarus, 1991a; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Roseman et al., 1990; Weiner, 1986). Once the negotiation for Task 2 starts, negotiator emotions along with the counterpart emotions and behavior predict negotiator behavior. Each negotiator emotion has a specific action tendency or behavioral orientation (Lazarus, 1991a) that determines the kind of behavior expected from the negotiator. Counterpart emotions (Kelly & Thibaut, 1978; De Dreu et al., 2002) and behavior (Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977; Wiggins, 1979; Tracey, 1994) have a profound impact on negotiator behavior. Negotiator behavior may be integrating, dominating, yielding, or compromising. Negotiator and counterpart behaviors determine negotiation outcomes, which consist of joint outcomes, distributive outcomes, and negotiator satisfaction (Thompson, 1990; Barry & Oliver 1996). Negotiation outcomes predict post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction with the counterpart.

The next section presents the development of the hypotheses.

3.2 Development of Hypotheses

3.2.1 Treatment Related Hypotheses

Cognitive appraisal is the process by which we assign causes or motives to explain people's behaviors. Appraisal theorists have found that one becomes angry when one judges the other party to be responsible for a behavior that affects one negatively (Smith & Lazarus, 1993; Weiner, 1986 and 1992); one is happy when one finds that one has made progress towards one's negotiation goals (Lazarus, 1991a). In appraising other's behavior, an important goal is to determine the valence and the cause of the event. For example, one type of attribution is the level of controllability of the event by the self, the other person, or the situation. If an employee believed that his/her supervisor gave him/her an unfairly low evaluation because of circumstances beyond the supervisor's control such as company policy, he/she might experience less anger than if he/she believed that the supervisor was in complete control of how he/she wanted to evaluate the employees, and was therefore, personally responsible for the poor evaluation. Therefore, control is an important issue in the arousal of anger. In a study done by Allred et al. (1997), judgment of responsibility was operationalized by multiplying two factors; how negative an effect the other party's behavior had on one and how responsible the other party was perceived to be for that behavior. They found that higher responsibility was related to more anger in the participants towards the other negotiator.

In this study, four types of performance feedback are administered to the participants after Task 1 based on valence, success or failure, and locus of responsibility,

self-locus or other-locus. According to many researchers (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1980; Lazarus, 1991a; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986), valence alone is not important and the internal-external locus of responsibility is the most important causal dimension. Smith & Ellsworth's (1985) study showed that the valence and the locus of responsibility accounted for the highest explained variance amongst the appraisal criteria. All four performance feedbacks in this study are high on controllability, that is, either the negotiator himself/herself or the other negotiator was in control, and therefore, personally responsible for the outcomes.

The negotiators in the other-caused failure condition receive a feedback that they have lower outcomes than the industry standards and that this low outcome is because of the tactics employed by the counterpart. The negotiators in the self-caused failure condition receive a feedback that they have lower outcomes than the industry standards and that this low outcome is because of their personal inability and lack of effort. The negotiators in the other-caused success condition receive a feedback that they have higher outcomes than the industry standards and that this high outcome is because of the tactics employed by the other negotiator. The negotiators in the self-caused success condition receive a feedback that they have higher outcomes than the industry standards and that this high outcome is because of their own ability and hard work.

Based on the implications of the cognitive theories (for example, Roseman, 1990; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986) and as shown in Table 2, each feedback is expected to elicit certain emotions. It is expected that the negotiators that appraise the other party to be responsible for causing their low outcomes will experience high levels of other-caused negative emotions. They are expected to be angry, furious,

frustrated, outraged, and hostile with the counterpart. The negotiators that appraise self to be responsible for causing their low outcomes will experience high levels of self-caused negative emotions. They will be angry, guilty, ashamed, embarrassed, and regretful due to their own actions. The negotiators that appraise the counterpart to be responsible for causing their high outcomes will experience high levels of other-caused positive emotions. They will be happy, likeness, thankful, obliged, and appreciative due to the counterpart. The negotiators that appraise self to be responsible for causing their high outcomes will experience high levels of self-caused positive emotions. They are expected to be pleased, satisfied, proud, feeling competent and confident due to self. In this study, other-caused negative emotions, self-caused negative emotions, other-caused positive emotions, and self-caused positive emotions are named anger, guilt-shame, gratitude, and pride-achievement emotions respectively for the sake of simplicity and convenience. The above discussion leads to the following hypotheses.

H1: In response to the four experimental conditions based on valence and agency attributes, participants will experience emotions comprising four factors: namely, anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions.

H2a: Participants who are given the other-caused failure feedback will experience the anger emotions. They will be angry, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile, and upset due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in other three treatments.

H2b: Participants who are given the self-caused failure feedback will experience the guilt-shame emotions. They are expected to be angry, guilty, regretful, ashamed, and embarrassed, with self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.

H2c: Participants who are given the other-caused success feedback will experience the gratitude emotions. They will be happy, likeness, thankful, obliged, and appreciative, and grateful due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.

H2d: Participants who are given the self-caused success feedback will experience the pride-achievement emotions. They are expected to be pleased, satisfied, proud, confident, feeling competent, and self-admiration due to self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.

3.2.2 Negotiator Behavior Related Hypotheses

Negotiator Behavior can be categorized in a number of ways but this study examines four types of behaviors, integrating, dominating, yielding, and compromising that are commonly referred to in negotiation research (for example, Lewicki et al., 1994; Rahim, 1983).

Affect states influence negotiators' choices amongst the available behavioral options. Researchers believe that emotions trigger responses, physiological, psychological, and behavioral, that enable them to deal with the encounter (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991a; Levenson, 1994). Barry & Oliver (1996) proposed that negotiators with positive affect were more likely to adopt a cooperative motivational orientation than neutral affect negotiators. The negotiator's mood has been shown to effect negotiator behavior in a number of studies. For example, Carnevale & Isen (1986) found that subjects in positive mood condition used fewer contentious tactics and displayed a greater number of problem solving behaviors. According to Baron (1990), participants in

positive moods set higher monetary goals and made more concessions to the counterpart during negotiation. Hollingshead & Carnevale (1990) found that the subjects who received a small gift prior to negotiation made more concessions and integrative offers than subjects who received no gift. Although there is a lack of evidence regarding effects of emotions, it is proposed that the effect of positive emotion will be in a similar direction as positive mood and perhaps even stronger because emotions are more intense and directed than moods (Allred et al., 1997).

Support for the obverse hypothesis that negative emotion such as anger increases competitive behavior is more tenuous because of lack of empirical evidence regarding negative emotions in the negotiation literature. Allred et al. (1997) were unable to confirm their hypothesis that negotiators in the negative emotional state will have lower regard for the other's interests. Barry & Oliver refrained from making any predictions about the effect of negative affect on negotiator behavior. Butt & Jaeger (2001) found that negotiators in the anger-anger dyadic group exhibited more intimidation tactics then the negotiators with neutral emotions. In the emotions literature related to coping behavior, Folkman & Lazarus (1990) in their six-month study of emotions and coping among a community sample, found that anger experiences were positively correlated with confrontive coping strategies (such as being aggressive towards the other person) and planful problem solving (such as getting the other person to change his/her mind).

Integrative behavior is based on the concern for both sides, and the confidence and ability to reach integrative outcomes. Negotiator pride-achievement emotions lead to a positive view of the counterpart and the confidence of achieving an integrative outcome. It is expected that positive emotions of pride-achievement will predict

integrative behavior. Dominating behavior is based on concern for self without concern for the counterpart. It consists of aggressive behavior to the counterpart with little or no concessions. Negotiator anger emotions create the tendency to take revenge or repress the counterpart. Therefore, negotiator anger emotions are expected to predict negotiator dominating behavior. Yielding behavior is based on little concern for self but high concern for the counterpart. It consists of letting the counterpart win at one's own expense. Feelings of gratitude lead to altruistic acts (Lazarus, 1991a). Therefore, negotiator gratitude emotions are expected to predict yielding behavior. Compromising behavior is based on medium concern for self and the counterpart. Feelings of embarrassment and guilt forces people to come to an agreement quickly by taking a middle ground because one wants to end the negotiations as quickly as possible and relieve the negative situation. Therefore, guilt-shame emotions are expected to predict compromising behavior. This discussion leads to the following hypotheses.

H3a: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by negotiator pride-achievement emotions.

H4a: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by negotiator anger emotions.

H5a: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by negotiator gratitude emotions.

H6a: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by negotiator guilt-shame emotions.

Negotiator behavior will also be affected by how the negotiator perceives the counterpart's behavior. In negotiations, reciprocity is the norm. The negotiator is

expected to reciprocate counterpart behavior, that is, cooperative behavior is met with cooperativeness and competitive behavior is met with competitiveness, also called the mimetic response (Graham et al., 1994; Hatfield et al., 1992; Pruitt & Kimmel, 1977). In a comparative culture study of eleven countries, Graham et al.(1994) found that the problem solving approach was reciprocated by counterparts in eight out of eleven countries. Putnam & Jones (1982) found that in a simulated labor/management negotiation, all dyads reciprocated integrative communication, and impasse dyads also reciprocated offensive and defensive tactics. People reciprocated in an intensified and negative way to behaviors they perceive as threatening, devaluing, or insulting. Putnam & Wilson (1989) reported that all dyads reciprocated integrative tactics in a teacher-school board negotiation. Weingart, Prietula, Hyder, & Genovese (1998) found that negotiators responded in kind to both distributive and integrative behaviors. Brett, Shapiro, & Lytle (1998) noted that the norm of reciprocity was so embedded in human nature that not reciprocating was counter-intuitive.

Exceptions to reciprocity are evident in certain situations. For example, a negotiator may yield rather than become competitive when facing a fiercely competitive negotiator. This type of response is called "complementary response" (De Dreu et al., 2002; Tracey, 1994). If the negotiator perceives the other negotiator to have integrating behavior, he/she will also use cooperative tactics (such as show high concern for the welfare of self and other). However, if the negotiator perceives the other negotiator to have dominating behavior, he/she may use dominating tactics (reciprocal response) or obliging tactics (complementary response). In this study, reciprocity is considered to be the prime mechanism in interpersonal relationship. Nevertheless, dominant behavior is

also hypothesized to predict yielding behavior and vice versa based on the complementary response (Tracey, 1994; Wiggins, 1979).

Counterpart positive emotions and integrative behavior create a collaborative atmosphere during negotiations. The negotiator reciprocates in a similar manner by using integrative behavior (Hypotheses 3b and 3c). Counterpart negative emotions and distributive behavior create a contentious environment during negotiation. The negotiator reciprocates in a similar manner by resorting to distributive behavior (Hypotheses 4b and 4c). Counterpart yielding behavior gives rise to negotiator dominating behavior as well because the negotiator sees an opportunity to increase his/her distributive gains easily (Hypothesis 4d). Counterpart positive emotions are related to negotiator yielding behavior because the negotiator feels gratitude towards the counterpart (Hypothesis 5b). Counterpart dominating behavior brings about a complementary response from the negotiator. Instead of reciprocating with a dominating behavior, the negotiator finds it more appropriate to yield and not create further confrontation (Hypothesis 5c). Finally, negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions (Hypothesis 6a) and counterpart dominating behavior (Hypothesis 6d) because the negotiator would like to finish the negotiations as quickly as possible. Negotiator compromising behavior is also related to counterpart compromising behavior (Hypothesis 6c) and counterpart yielding behavior (Hypothesis 6e) based on reciprocity. This discussion leads to the following hypotheses.

H3b: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.

H3c: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.

H4b: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.

H4c: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.

H4d: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.

H5b: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.

H5c: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.

H6b: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.

H6c: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.

H6d: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.

H6e: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.

3.2.3 Negotiation Outcomes Related Hypotheses

Three negotiation outcomes (Thompson, 1990), distributive outcome, joint outcome, and negotiator satisfaction, are analyzed in this section. Thompson (1990) distinguished between these three types of outcomes. Based on her description, two of the outcomes, distributive outcome and joint outcome, were economic in nature while the third outcome, negotiator satisfaction, was social psychological in nature.

Distributive outcome is the share of the total points claimed by one negotiator. According to previous research (e.g. Thompson, 1990, Spector, 1977), negotiators use competitive tactics such as threats and forced persuasion to increase their distributive outcomes. Negotiator competitive behavior results in high distributive outcomes only if the other negotiator yields his/her own interests. However, if the other negotiator also

uses competitive tactics, it reduces negotiator distributive outcome. Therefore, it is important to relate negotiator distributive outcome to the dominating and yielding behaviors of both the negotiators.

Negotiator dominating behavior is based on persuasion, threats, and lack of concessions to the counterpart. Such behavior gets more for the negotiator and less for the counterpart. Thus, negotiator distributive outcome is increased as a result of negotiator dominating behavior (Hypothesis 7a). Negotiator yielding behavior by definition will give up larger share of the payoff to the counterpart without getting much in return. Therefore, negotiator yielding behavior results in less distributive outcome (Hypothesis 7b). If the counterpart displays dominating behavior during the negotiation, then negotiator distributive outcome is expected to decrease as a result of the dominating behavior (Hypothesis 7c). If the counterpart displays yielding behavior during the negotiation, then negotiator distributive outcome is expected to increase (Hypothesis 7d). The following hypotheses are based on this discussion.

H7a: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by negotiator dominating behavior.

H7b: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.

H7c: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by counterpart dominating behavior.

H7d: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.

Based on the dual concern model (Rahim, 1983; Thomas & Kilman, 1978), parties will achieve a high level of joint outcome when both parties show high concern for each other. Carnevale & Isen (1986) found that the positive affect negotiating pairs

reached significantly higher joint profit agreements than lower affect negotiators. Allred et al. (1997) found that high compassion and low anger resulted in a more accurate understanding of other's interests, which increased joint outcome. These results indicate that positive emotions improve the use of collaborative tactics such as creative problem solving (Isen et al., 1987), concession making (Baron, 1990), and constructive communication, which increases joint outcome. However, a high joint outcome is only achievable if both the negotiators join hands in trying to understand each other's interests and mutually exchanging priorities. This means that the hypothesis for the joint outcome must refer to the integrating behaviors of both the negotiators in the dyad.

H8: Joint Outcome is predicted by the additive combination of negotiator and counterpart integrating behaviors.

Being able to achieve a cordial relationship with the other party is important (Greenhalgh & Kramer, 1990; Kramer & Messick, 1995). Negotiator satisfaction depends on how well one feels about the relationship with the other negotiator, the negotiation process, and negotiation outcomes. If the negotiator yields during negotiation, he/she will feel negatively about the negotiation and thus less satisfied (Hypothesis 9a). On the other hand, if the counterpart uses integrative tactics such as regard for the negotiator's interests, the relationship between the negotiators will become better, leading to a higher negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 9b). If the counterpart uses dominating behavior comprising of negative tactics, the negotiator will feel less satisfied (Hypothesis 9c). If the counterpart yields or compromises to the negotiator's demands during negotiation, the

negotiator will feel more positive about his negotiation abilities and thus higher satisfaction (Hypotheses 9d and 9e). If the negotiator is able to get a higher outcome for self (Hypothesis 9f) and for both the parties (Hypothesis 9g), negotiator satisfaction will increase. The above analysis leads to the following hypotheses.

H9a: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.

H9b: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.

H9c: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted negatively by counterpart dominating behavior.

H9d: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.

H9e: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.

H9f: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by distributive outcome.

H9g: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by joint outcome.

3.2.4 Post-Negotiation Outcomes Related Hypotheses

Post-negotiation emotions are expected to be predicted by how satisfied the negotiator is with the negotiation process and outcomes: the higher the negotiator satisfaction, the higher the positive emotions and the lower the negative emotions. Therefore, negotiator satisfaction will predict positive emotions, gratitude and pride-achievement, positively, and, negative emotions, anger and guilt-shame, negatively.

H10a: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.

H11a: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.

H12a: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.

H13a: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.

According to the theoretical model proposed by Barry & Oliver (1996), the outcomes obtained by the individuals will influence the levels of post-negotiation positive affect. In another study of negotiators experiencing distributive spirals, O'Connor & Arnold (2001) proposed and found that negotiators that could not come to an agreement experienced negative emotions. In this study, the hypotheses of the above-mentioned studies for post-negotiation positive and negative emotions are combined. Negotiator negative emotions are expected to be predicted negatively by distributive outcome. The higher distributive outcome is expected to lead to lower anger emotions (Hypothesis 10b) and lower guilt-shame emotions (Hypothesis 11b). Negotiator positive emotions are expected to be predicted by joint outcome. Higher joint outcome are expected to result in higher gratitude emotions (Hypothesis 12b) and higher pride-achievement emotions (Hypothesis 13b).

H10b: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.

H11b: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.

H12b: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted positively by joint outcome.

H13b: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by joint outcome.

The desire for future interaction with the other negotiator depends on how the negotiator feels about and how satisfied the negotiator is with the negotiation process and outcomes. Not many research studies in the negotiation literature have focused on post negotiation outcomes. According to the theoretical model presented by Barry & Oliver (1996), the economic outcomes and the post-negotiation affect will predict the desire for future interaction. Allred et al. (1997) found in their study on negotiation that the negotiators who felt high anger and low compassion had less desire to work with each other in the future. Hypothesis 14a refers to negotiator satisfaction and hypothesis 14b refers to negotiation economic outcomes. Hypothesis 14c and 14d are based on negotiator post-negotiation emotions.

H14a: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted positively by negotiator satisfaction.

H14b: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted positively by negotiator economic outcomes.

H14c: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted negatively by negotiator negative emotions.

H14d: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted by negotiator positive emotions.

Having presented the hypothesized relationships based on the proposed model, it is important to discuss the applicability of this model to the data collected in Pakistan. Research in the area of cross-cultural management has shown that the management theories developed in the Western cultures, mostly in America, may not be applicable in other cultures (Adler, 1983, 1984; Jaeger, 1990). The negotiation model developed in this study is based on theories and measures developed in the American context. Is this model applicable in the cultural context found in a university in Pakistan? The answer to this question is yes for the following reasons.

(1) The relationships proposed in the model arise from culture free arguments. The constructs and relationships are quite universal in nature. The relationships are expected to hold regardless of cultural values. Russell, Lewicka, & Niit (1989) found in their study that the understanding of emotional experiences was indeed universal. The emotions measured in this study are basic emotions that are expected to be present in all cultures (Ekman & Oster, 1984; Izard, 1977). Some researchers, however, disagree with this conclusion. For example, Markus & Kitayama (1991) discern between self-caused emotions and other-caused emotions, observing that individualistic cultures exhibit higher self-caused emotions such as anger while collectivistic cultures are more tuned to the other-caused emotions such as shame. Similarly integrative behavior is expected to be higher in collectivistic cultures than individualistic cultures (Lituchy, 1997). According to

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Hofstede's framework (1980, 1991), culture consists of four dimensions: namely, individualism-collectivism, power distance, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. His study shows that the Pakistan and U.S. cultures differed along these dimensions as well[3]. Acknowledging that these cultural differences do exist, the proposed relationships in this study are expected to hold although the effect sizes may vary by culture.

(2) A comment on the distinct characteristics of the sample used in this study is useful at this point. The participants in this study were the executive trainees and students in a private university in Pakistan. These participants represent a specific segment of Pakistan that is highly educated, have done their schooling in the English medium schools where the curriculum in very similar to the schools in the U. S., and are heavily influenced by the Western ways. The medium of instruction at the university is English and the curriculum is similar to that in the U.S. universities. The student body has admission test scores comparable to universities in the U.S. For example, the average Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) score for the incoming undergraduate class in 2002 was 1270 for SAT 1 and 660 for SAT II (writing). The average GMAT score for the entering MBA students in 2002 was 550. This indicates the probable similarity of the Pakistani sample used in this study to a sample from North America. It also indicates that the participants had the required skills to comprehend and complete the questionnaires used in this study.

(3) The results of the pilot study (Chapter 5) and the full scale study (Chapter 6) further support the assumption in this study that the proposed relationships could be confirmed with the Pakistani sample. The pilot study results show that the emotions and the

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[3] In the Hofstede study (1991), the U.S. is ranked 1 while Pakistan is ranked 47/48 on the Individualism Index. The U.S. is ranked 38 and Pakistan 32 on the Power Distance Index. The U.S. is 15 and Pakistan 25/26 on the Masculinity Index. On Uncertainty Avoidance Index, the U.S. is 43 while Pakistan is 24/25. The ranking is based on fifty countries.

behavior measures have good psychometric properties and the experimental manipulation is successful. Similarly, the full-scale study results show that the measures are applicable to the Pakistani sample, the experimental manipulation is successful, and most of the relationships hypothesized in the proposed model are confirmed.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Participants and Experimental Design

The research study was based on a 2 X 4 X 4 (Roles X Feedback for the Negotiator X Feedback for the Counterpart) experimental design. Four hundred and fourteen participants from the executive training, graduate, and undergraduate programs in a private university in Pakistan participated on a voluntary basis in an experimental study based on an employment contract simulation. The data were collected in Pakistan because of the accessibility to the participants since the researcher teaches in the MBA and the executive training programs in the above-mentioned university.

Whether the Pakistan sample was appropriate in testing the proposed model was carefully considered and found suitable for a number of reasons explained in Chapter 3 and briefly reviewed here. First, the relationships in the proposed model are based on culture free arguments and the constructs used in the model are universal. Second, the participants in this sample belong to a global business culture that is the product of similar education and training worldwide. Finally, any doubts regarding the suitability of the sample are removed with the results of the pilot study presented in Chapter 5 and full-scale study results shown in Chapter 6. They clearly show the suitability of the measures and support for the proposed model.

The simulation comprised negotiating the terms of an employment contract between the human resource manager of a company, Sunbeam Corporation, and the job applicant, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan. This study was based on a randomized block design where the participants were divided into gender-based blocks because

gender is expected to effect the negotiation behavior (Rubin & Brown, 1975; Thompson, 1990). Participants in each gender-based block were randomly distributed into dyads, and were randomly assigned to the role of either the human resource manager or the job candidate. Negotiators in each dyad also belonged to the same sample type, that is, executive participants negotiated with executives and MBA students negotiated with MBA students to control for any effects of the differences due to different sample types. Care was also taken to have a close to equal proportion of male and female dyads in each treatment and a close to equal proportion of same sample type dyads in each treatment.

All the simulation sessions took place after the participants had completed a regular class session. At the end of their class session, the potential participants were requested to stay on for a five-minute announcement by the researcher. In the announcement, the researcher requested the participants to take part in an employment contract simulation that would approximately take ninety minutes to complete. They were told that their participation was completely voluntary. They were encouraged to stay because the exercise would be useful in improving their negotiation skills. The MBA and the undergraduate students were also told that the exercise might also help them in improving their chances of a better contract with their potential employers.

The simulation was carried out in eleven sessions comprising seven sessions with the executives, two sessions with the MBA students, and two sessions with the undergraduate students. In the executives sessions, two hundred and fourteen participants completed the simulation while only three people declined to participate in the simulation. In the MBA sessions, one hundred and eight students participated and only one student declined to participate in the simulation. In the undergraduate sessions,

ninety-two students participated and only eight students declined to participate in the simulation. Three questionnaires were filled out by each participant during the course of the simulation. The researcher was present along with one research assistant in all the sessions. The researcher's main responsibility was to make announcements, answer queries, and distribute the role information handouts and performance feedback. The research assistant was responsible for ensuring that all the questions in the questionnaires had been answered before collecting the questionnaires. The research assistant was well trained in answering queries and checking completed questionnaires for any unanswered questions.

Table 8 shows the demographics of the overall sample and the demographics based on gender, negotiation role, and sample type. They are discussed in detail in the results section. The overall sample consisted of participants with an average age of 30.36 years, education of 15.90 years, and work experience of 6.95 years.

The experimental design for the study was a 2 X 4 X 4 (roles X treatments for negotiator X treatments for counterpart) experimental design. The experiment was divided into two tasks. Task 1 comprised negotiating one employment contract issue, the company paid vacation time. After Task 1 was completed, four types of performance feedback were administered to the negotiators such that the participants made four different evaluations of their performances in Task 1. Each performance feedback acted as an experimental treatment. One fourth of the employers and one fourth of the job candidates were told that they did not do well because of the tactics used by the other person. These participants were expected to experience other-caused negative (anger) emotions. One fourth of the employers and one fourth of the job candidates were told that

they did not do well because of personal lack of ability and effort. These participants were expected to experience self-caused negative (guilt-shame) emotions. One fourth of the employers and one fourth of the job candidates were told that they did well because of tactics used by the other person. These participants were expected to experience other-caused positive (gratitude) emotions. One fourth of the employers and one fourth of the job candidates were told that they did well because of their personal ability and effort. These participants were expected to experience self-caused positive (pride-achievement) emotions.

The objective of the experimental design used in this study was to create all the combinations of emotions in participants for a comprehensive study of the effects of emotions on negotiation process and outcomes. Sixteen types of treatment groups or thirty-two types of individual conditions were made based on the two roles and the four treatment conditions for each role. Participants were randomly assigned to each dyad and dyads were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions so that the extraneous variables such as age, personality characteristics, and work experience were distributed randomly. In addition, each dyad was kept unisex and both the participants belonged to the same sample group.

4.2 Procedure

Before the start of the simulation, participants were asked to fill out Questionnaire Number 1 (Appendix B) which was used to collect participants' demographics and information on the control variables including familiarity with the other negotiator, and demographic factors such as age, gender, work experience, and education.

The employment contract simulation used in this research was developed for this study (with guidance from Allred et al., 1997) and is presented in Appendix A. Special care was taken to depict the real life local conditions. Information was collected from the human resource managers of various companies, students presently enrolled in the university, recent graduates who had gone through the recruitment process, and the university placement office. Issues were formulated and points assigned according to the priorities of the two roles. The simulation was tested in the classroom setting a number of times and then finally in the pilot study. The pilot study was conducted with forty-two participants enrolled in a MBA course at the university. After completing the simulation in the pilot study, the participants were asked if they felt that the simulation was realistic using five questions shown at the end of Questionnaire Number 3. The level of realism was 4.24 based on a five point Likert-type scale, where 1 represented not very realistic and 5 represented very realistic. Some participants reported that they were unclear about the rationale behind the allocation of points to the transport issue. As a result, some changes were made to the point structure and the performance feedback to better serve the purpose of this simulation. These modifications are discussed in Chapter 5.

Participants role played negotiations for employment contracts. Each dyad consisted of a human resource manager of a company called Sunbeam Corporation and a job candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan, who was a recent graduate of a local university. Both the human resource manager and the job candidate were given written instructions concerning their roles. They were told that the employment contract negotiation comprised of two sequential tasks. In Task 1, they negotiated the vacation time provided by the company. They had to choose one of the five options. Each choice

represented certain points. The objective in Task 1 was for each person in the dyad to obtain at least forty points. The allocation of the points was designed such that there was only one solution that gave forty points to each negotiator: namely, "6 weeks in winter". All the other options gave less than forty points to one of the two negotiators. The objective of designing this particular point structure was for the participants to reach the obvious, optimum solution for both negotiators quickly with the least emotional stress. Task 1 was completed in twenty minutes.

After completing Task 1, the participants were given performance feedback about their respective performances in Task 1. Negotiators that were assigned to the other based-negative feedback were told that they had done much poorer than the industry standards. It was stressed in their feedback that the tactics used by the other negotiators were directly responsible for their poor performances. These negotiators were expected to experience high levels of other-caused negative emotions: namely, being angry, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile, and upset with the counterpart. Negotiators that were assigned to the self-caused negative feedback were told that they had performed much poorer than industry standards and the poor performance was due to their personal lack of abilities and efforts. These negotiators were expected to experience self-caused negative emotions: namely, being angry, guilty, regretful, ashamed, and embarrassed. Negotiators that were assigned to the other-caused positive feedback were told that they had done much better than industry standards. It was stressed in their performance feedback that the tactics used by the other negotiators were directly responsible for their good performances. These negotiators were expected to experience high levels of other-caused positive emotions: namely, happiness, likeness, thankful, obliged, appreciative,

and grateful. Negotiators that were assigned to the self-caused positive performance feedback were told that they had done much better than the industry standards and their good performances were due to their personal abilities and efforts. These negotiators were expected to experience high levels of self based-positive emotions: namely, being pleased, satisfied, proud, confident, and feeling competent, and self-admiration. Note that in all the four performance feedback conditions, the importance of the success and the failure and the personal responsibility of the self or the other person were stressed so as to elicit strong emotions from the participants.

Immediately after receiving the performance feedback after Task 1, participants were asked to fill Questionnaire Number 2 (Appendix C). In this questionnaire, they were asked to indicate their appraisal of the situation and to rank their levels of emotions after Task 1 on a five-point scale. The participants were requested not to communicate with anyone from the time they completed negotiating Task 1 till they started negotiating Task 2 because the performance feedback was not based on the actual performance of the participants, which was likely to become obvious if they were to share information before the start of the next task. The participants were asked about the level of realism in five questions on a five point Likert-type scale at the end of Questionnaire Number 3. Items included statements such as, "do you think the situation described in this exercise is likely to occur in real life", and "is your behavior representative of how you would negotiate in such a situation in real life". The average score for realism for the five questions where 1 is very unrealistic and 5 is very realistic was 4.31, which appears to be a satisfactory score for this study.

After completing Questionnaire Number 2, participants were asked to read the instructions for Task 2 and to start negotiating Task 2. The participants were told that their assessment was primarily based on the results of Task 2. The time lapsed between the administration of the performance feedback after Task 1 and the beginning of negotiation in Task 2 was about thirty minutes. Task 2 was a mixed motive situation with four issues: namely, salary, insurance company, company transport, and the start date of the employment. Each issue had five options with corresponding points according to the priorities of the negotiator role. The objective of each negotiator in the dyad was to maximize his/her own points.

There were three types of issues in Task 2; integrative, distributive, and congruent. The insurance company and the company transport were the integrative issues. The participants could optimize their points by learning about the interests of the other negotiator and exchanging priorities with each other. In this simulation, the company transport was more important for the job applicant because he/she had no transport, lived ten kilometers from the potential workplace, and most of the colleagues received transport from their employers. The company transport issue was not that important for the human resource manager because the cost of giving transport to the employees was low and it was an industry norm to provide transport to the employees. These differences in the priorities were reflected in the allocation of the points for the transport issue where the highest points for the job applicant were 425 and the highest points for the human resource manager were 175. The situation was reversed for the health insurance company issue. Here the importance of this issue was high for the human resource manager because of the large insurance bill and the different discount

rates offered by the different insurance companies as compared to the importance of this issue to the job candidate who was close to indifferent to the selection of a particular insurance company because all the four insurance companies mentioned in the information had good market reputations. These differences in the priorities for the company and the job applicant were reflected in the allocation of the points for the insurance company issue where the highest points for the job applicant were 175 and the highest points for the human resource manager were 425. Given the difference in priorities in the two issues, company transport and insurance companies, the job candidate should opt for a better company transport while the human resource manager should opt for an insurance company more favorable to him/her, in order to maximize the points for both the parties.

The salary was a purely distributive issue as the point values were equal and in opposite directions for the two negotiators. The points ranged from zero to five hundred for both the roles in opposite directions. The salaries used in this simulation were reflective of the local conditions. The start date was a congruent issue as the increase in point values were equal and in the same direction for both the roles. Subjects were given forty minutes to complete the negotiations and were then asked to fill out Questionnaire Number 3 (Appendix D), which measured various variables during and after the negotiation of Task 2. These variables included negotiator behavior, counterpart behavior, and counterpart emotions during Task 2, and post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction after Task 2.

Low external validity, demand characteristics, and experimenter expectancy effects were among the main methodological problems faced in previous experimental

studies of similar nature (Orne, 1962; Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1969). Therefore, it was important to achieve a high level of realism for the participants in this study so that they were genuinely involved in the negotiation and the simulation closely depicted the real life situation clearly. A number of steps and precautions were taken in the preparation of this simulation and its implementation. First, the issues used in the simulation were as close to reality as possible based on the actual conditions in Lahore, Pakistan. For example, the salary figures and the preferences for insurance companies were quite realistic based on the discussions with several companies and potential job applicants. Second, the complexity in the simulation was realistic enough to make the participants genuinely involved in the simulation as if it was a real life situation. The complexity of the situation also reduced the demand characteristics of the simulation. Third, the details of the situation in this simulation were depicted vividly so that the participants had a good picture of the situation. Fourth, the performance feedback was given in such a manner that it appeared genuine and directly related to the performance of each negotiator. Fifth, the simulation and the questionnaires were tested at a pilot scale before the full-scale study to ensure that the demand characteristics and the experimenter expectancy effects were reduced significantly. The administrators of the simulation were trained to state the directions while maintaining a non-biased composure. Finally, the participants were told in the beginning of this exercise that this simulation might help them in developing the negotiation skills important for doing well in their job interviews. Therefore, they should treat this simulation realistically.

To check the level of realism achieved in this simulation, the participants were asked five questions at the end of the simulation. For example, "do you think the situation

described in this exercise is likely to occur in real life", and "is your behavior in this negotiation representative of how you would negotiate in such a situation in real life?". The average score in the pilot study was 4.24 and the full-scale study was 4.31 on a Likert-type scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates very unrealistic and 5 indicates very realistic, clearly showing that the participants took the simulation seriously and that they were genuinely involved in the negotiation.

4.3 Questionnaires

Questionnaire Number 1 (Appendix B) measured the control variables before the start of the simulation. Control variables included age, gender, negotiator role, sample type, education level, work experience, and familiarity with the counterpart.

After completing Questionnaire Number 1, participants were asked to read the directions and start negotiating Task 1. Task 1 was completed in twenty minutes. After the completion of the negotiations for Task 1, a performance feedback was given to each participant. Questionnaire Number 2 (Appendix C) was then distributed. Participants indicated the settlement they reached in Task 1 and the corresponding number of points achieved. Questionnaire Number 2 measured the levels of emotions after Task 1 with a list of twenty-three adjectives on a five point Likert-type scale. Once Questionnaire Number 2 was completed, the participants were asked to read the directions for Task 2 and start negotiating Task 2.

Task 2 was completed in forty minutes. After the completion of Task 2, Questionnaire Number 3 (Appendix D) was distributed. The time lapsed between Questionnaire Number 2 and Questionnaire Number 3 was about sixty-five minutes.

Participants indicated the settlement they reached on each of the four issues in Task 2 and the corresponding number of points achieved. Questionnaire Number 3 measured negotiator behavior, counterpart behavior, and counterpart emotions during Task 2. It also measured the post-negotiation emotions experienced by the negotiator and the negotiator's desire for future interaction. The last section of the questionnaire measured the level of realism achieved during the negotiation.

4.4 Measures

A pilot study was conducted (see Chapter 5 for details) before the full-scale study to examine the suitability of the emotions and behavior measures because these measures had been modified from the literature and because they were being used in a non-Western culture. The pilot study results presented in Tables 5a and 5b and discussed later in Chapter 5 show that the psychometric properties of the measures were appropriate. However, certain modifications had to be made in the measures to improve the clarity of some of the items for the participants. The measures and their modifications are discussed below.

Emotions Measure

The measurement of subjective emotions has traditionally been done in the psychology and management literatures by rating the presence and the intensity of emotions using emotion related adjectives or scenarios (Izard, 1977; Roseman et al., 1990). Izard's differential emotions scale (1977), measures ten basic emotions, interest, enjoyment, surprise, distress, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame, and guilt, with thirty

emotion adjectives. The instructions ask individuals to rate on a five-point Likert scale the extent to which each word described the way he/she felt at the present time. Roseman et al. (1990) measure eighteen emotions on an 11-point scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 10 (very intensely).

A similar scale was built in this study based on twenty-three items adopted from the literature. A review of the literature (Lazarus, 1991a; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986) indicated that four dimensions of emotions could arise as a result of valence and agency, namely, other-caused failure (anger) emotions, self-caused failure (guilt-shame) emotions, other-caused success (gratitude) emotions, and self-caused success (pride-achievement) emotions. Table 2 shows which emotions are expected to constitute each dimension based on the literature (Lazarus, 1991a; Richins, 1997; Roseman et al., 1990; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

The other-caused negative emotions called "anger emotions" in this study were measured with five items using Richins (1997) scale except for irritation, which was replaced with furious (Lazarus, 1991a). In the pilot study, the items used were angry, discomfort, furious, frustrated, outraged, and hostile. Discomfort was added to capture the milder aspect of the emotion. However, many participants were unsure of the meaning of discomfort so in the full-scale study discomfort was replaced with upset. The items for the full-scale study were angry, upset, furious, frustrated, outraged, and hostile with the counterpart.

The self-caused negative emotions were called "guilt-shame emotions" in this study. Smith and Ellsworth (1985) and Ellsworth and Smith (1988) used two items, guilt and ashamed, and Scherer (1988) used three items, shame, embarrassment, and guilty

feelings to measure this dimension. Roseman et al. (1990) also included regret in the measure. In the pilot study, the items used for the guilt-shame emotions were guilty, ashamed, embarrassed, and jealousy. Jealousy had a low factor loading, therefore, it was replaced with regretful. Angry with self was included in this dimension so that the other-directed anger that is felt in the other-caused negative emotions was differentiated from the self-directed anger that is felt in the self-caused negative situation. In the full-scale study, the guilt-shame emotions were measured with five items angry, guilty, regretful, ashamed, and embarrassed with self.

The other-caused positive emotions were called "gratitude emotions" in this study. In the pilot study, gratitude emotions were measured with thankful, gratitude, compassion, and appreciative. Happiness and likeness were also added because these emotions accompany gratitude as shown in Table 2. Participants had trouble with understanding the meanings of gratitude and compassion. Therefore, gratitude and compassion were replaced with grateful and obliged. In the full-scale study, the gratitude emotions were measured with happiness, likeness, thankful, grateful, obliged, and appreciative of the counterpart.

The self-caused positive emotions were called "pride-achievement emotions" in this study. In the pilot and the full-scale study, pride-achievement emotions were measured with proud, confident, self-admiration, and feeling competent due to self. Pleased and satisfied were added because these emotions accompany pride as shown in Table 2.

Negotiator Behavior Measure

Four types of negotiator behaviors were hypothesized to be part of the proposed model: namely, integrating, dominating, yielding, and compromising. These four behaviors were measured using scales developed for this study based on the negotiator behavior scales from Rahim (1983), Putnam & Wilson (1982), and De Dreu & Van Vianen (2001). Integrating behavior scale consisted of four items and was operationalized with a Likert-type five-point scale. Items included three items adapted from the De Dreu scale, for example, "discussed the issues to work out mutually acceptable solution" and "cooperate with the counterpart to better understand each other's views and positions". One item was adapted from the Rahim scale, "exchanged accurate information with my counterpart to solve the problem together". Dominating behavior consisted of four items on a five-point scale. Items included three items adapted from the De Dreu scale, for example, "put pressure on my counterpart to accept my demands", and "showed aggression to my counterpart". One item was adapted from Rahim's scale, "persuaded the counterpart to decide in my favor". Yielding behavior consisted of three items on a five-point scale adapted from the Rahim's scale. Items included "gave up my own interests', and "let the other side win at my expense". Compromising behavior was measured with three items on the five-point likert scale adapted from the Rahim's scale. Items included "I tried to find a middle ground for resolving the conflict", and "I reduced our differences by gaining some and losing some".

The behavior measure was tested in a pilot study conducted in Pakistan to ensure the applicability of the measure in the Pakistani culture (see Chapter 5 for complete results). During the debriefing session after the pilot study, some participants complained

about the lack of clarity or relevance of certain items. These items were identified and examined with the help of other faculty members to improve their clarity for the participants. Based on the results of the pilot study, certain items in the behavior measure were reworded for the full-scale study to clarify their meanings to the participants. The item "stood my ground" was changed to "gave little or no concession to my counterpart". The item "tried to persuade the other negotiator to give up much without getting much in return" was modified to "tried to persuade my counterpart to give into my demands without getting much in return". The item "gave up my interest" was changed to "gave up my interest to satisfy the wishes of my counterpart". The item "my winning was not important" was reworded to "I accommodated the wishes of my counterpart".

Negotiation and Post-Negotiation Outcomes Measures

The distributive and joint outcomes were calculated from Task 2 agreement forms. The distributive outcome was the points obtained by the negotiator divided by the total number of points obtained by the dyad. The integrative outcome was the sum of points obtained by both the negotiators in the dyad.

Negotiator satisfaction was measured with ten satisfaction related statements on a five-point scale. Four statements measured satisfaction with the relationship, three statements measured satisfaction with the process, and three statements measured satisfaction with the outcome. Examples of the items for negotiator satisfaction with relationship included "in general, I am quite satisfied with my relationship with my counterpart" and "overall, my counterpart is a good person to negotiate with". Examples of items for negotiator satisfaction with the process included "I am satisfied with the

negotiation process" and "the process was fair to me". Examples of items for negotiator satisfaction with the outcome included "I am satisfied with the outcome of the negotiation" and "I am pleased with what I received".

The post negotiation emotions were measured the same way as the emotions at the beginning of Task 2. Desire for future interaction was measured with two items on a five-point scale "prefer to negotiate with this negotiator again" and "will be pleased to negotiate with the same negotiator again".

The realism for this study was assessed with five questions on a five-point scale. Two items were based on the realism of the situation, for example, "do you think the situation described in this exercise is likely to occur in real life". Three items checked whether the participants were genuinely involved in the simulation, for example, "did you get genuinely involved in the negotiation process" and "is your behavior in this negotiation representative of how you would negotiate in such a situation in real life".

4.4 Control Variables

In this study, seven variables were controlled for their effects on the negotiation model: namely, age, gender, negotiator role, sample type (executive, graduate, and undergraduate), level of education, work experience, and familiarity with the counterpart. These variables have been shown to influence negotiator behavior and negotiation outcomes and they have also been shown to affect the kinds and forms of emotions experienced in interpersonal encounters, such as, gender (Heilman & Stopeck, 1985; Maskowitz, 1993; Rubin & Brown, 1975; Thompson, 1990). According to Rahim (1983), females were more integrating, avoiding, and compromising, and less yielding than

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males. The study also distinguished amongst the behaviors of the negotiators based on status: boss, peers, and the subordinates. The results showed that respondents were more yielding than their bosses and they used integrating and compromising behaviors with their subordinates and peers. Allred et al. (1997) also found distinct differences between the negotiation behaviors of the employer and the employee. The authors concluded by saying that the employer's emotional regard (anger minus compassion) played a more prominent role in achieving joint outcomes than the employee's emotional regard.

According to the literature on power and negotiations, the two negotiator roles have different expectations from each other and therefore they experience different intensities of emotions (Graham et al., 1994; Putnam & Jones, 1982; Rahim, 1983; Rubin & Brown, 1975). For example, the employer may experience more anger if he/she is slighted than the job candidate because of the norms or expectations in such relationships. In Putnam & Jones (1982), students assigned to either the labor or the management role practiced different negotiation strategies. In Graham et al. (1994), cross-cultural study of eleven cultures, the researchers found that the buyers achieved higher profits than the sellers in eight of the eleven cultures.

The Pearson correlational analysis (Tables 9a and 9b) done in this study confirmed the need to control for gender, negotiator role, sample size, age, education, and work experience of the participants. It clearly showed that a number of model variables were significantly correlated to the control variables. Therefore, it was considered important to measure and control these variables in the present study. These findings are discussed in more detail in the results section.

In this study, the dyads consisted of the same gender and same sample group, because dyads of opposite gender and different sample groups create confounding factors that influence the negotiation process. It was ensured that there were equal numbers of dyads based on sex and sample groups in each experimental condition so that the results were not biased. Age, level of education, and work experience were continuous variables measured in years. Gender, negotiator role, and familiarity were each measured with an indicator variable that had a value of 0 or 1 denoting a state of the variable. Gender might be male or female, negotiator role might be the human resource manager at the company or the job applicant, and the participant might or might not be familiar with the counterpart. Sample type was represented by two indicator variables in order to represent each of the three types of samples used in this study: company executives, MBA students, and undergraduate students.

5. Pilot Study

Description

In this research, the pilot study was done for a number of reasons, (1) to test the psychometric properties of the measures used in this study for emotions and negotiator behavior, (2) to assess the success of the experimental treatment and determine the level of the elicited emotions, and (3) to examine and correct any simulation related issues such as the point structure, level of realism, and administration of instructions.

The pilot study was conducted to test the psychometric properties of the measures because the sample was drawn from a university in Pakistan while the measures had been developed in Western cultures. International management researchers (for example, Adler, 1983, 1984) have called for reassessment of measures before they can be used in a culture different from the one where they were developed. The pilot study also helped in testing the experimental manipulation. The success of the full-scale study depended on how effective the experimental manipulation was in terms of types and levels of the emotions elicited. Finally, the simulation had to be conducted in a manner that did not create any bias or confusion in the participants. The pilot study was a good opportunity to test the contents and the administration of the simulation.

The pilot study consisted of running the employment contract simulation with 42 students enrolled in a MBA negotiation course in a private university in Lahore, Pakistan. The participants were randomly assigned to the role of either the job applicant or the human resource manager. They were randomly assigned to the four

experimental treatments such that the four experimental treatments of the job applicants and the four experimental treatments of the human resource manager completely crossed to produce sixteen types of dyads. Each dyad was unisex and had the same level of education. The procedure and the questionnaires were employed as explained in the previous section for the full-scale study.

All 42 participants completed the simulation and responded to all the questions in the three questionnaires. The data were used to check the factors and reliabilities of the measures employed in the questionnaires (Table 5a), to assess the success of the experimental manipulation by comparing the means of appraisals and emotions after Task 1 (Table 5b), and to note issues related to the simulation's content and administration.

The results in Table 5a show that all the emotions and negotiator behavior measures yielded factors by factor analysis as expected theoretically. The most significant result was that the negotiator emotions after Task 1 and Task 2 yielded four factors corresponding to the four dimensions of emotions as discussed in the theory section. Factor 1 comprised thankful, gratitude, compassion, appreciative, happiness and likeness. Factor 2 consisted of angry, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile, and discomfort. Factor 3 comprised guilty, ashamed, embarrassed, and jealous. Factor 4 consisted of proud, confident, self-admiration, feeling competent, pleased, and satisfied. Jealous with a factor loading of 0.58 was the only item with a factor loading less than 0.60. The overall reliabilities of all the emotions factors were high, ranging from 0.75 to 0.94.

As shown in Table 5a, the negotiator behavior measure yielded three factors as expected theoretically. The fourth factor, compromising behavior, was not included in the pilot study and was added later for the full-scale study. The reliabilities of integrating behavior and dominating behavior were 0.76 and 0.75, which are reasonably high. Obliging behavior had a comparatively low reliability of 0.58. Appropriate changes are recommended later in this chapter to improve the reliabilities in the full-scale study.

Table 5b shows the means of the four factors of emotions after Task 1. Factor 1 consisted of emotion items for gratitude emotion. The means of the participants with gratitude emotions (3.20) and pride emotions (2.74) were the highest. They were not significantly different from each other but were significantly different from the means of the other two emotions, anger and guilt-shame. Factor 2 consisted of emotion items for anger emotions. The mean of the participants with the other-caused feedback was the highest (3.26) and was significantly different from the means of the other three feedbacks, as expected theoretically. Factor 3 comprised guilt-shame emotions. The means of participants with the self-caused failure feedback (2.53) and the other-caused failure feedback (2.33) were the highest and were not significantly different from each other. Factor 4 comprised proud-achievement emotions. The means were not significantly different from each other and the overall F-statistic was not significant either. Perhaps this was due to the confusion in the participants regarding whether the emotions referred to self or the counterpart. For example, proud may refer to proud due to self or proud due to the counterpart, unless specified.

As a result of the pilot study, some changes were made in the full-scale study. They are discussed below.

Emotions Measure

Items for this measure were modified by adding the word "myself" or "counterpart" to each item to clarify the direction of the emotions for the participants. Certain items were removed because the participants were not sure of their meanings or they did not load on the theoretically correct factor. Some items were replaced with synonyms and more items were added for further improvement of the scale. Discomfort was replaced with upset, jealous was replaced with regretful, and angry with self, and compassion and gratitude with grateful and obliged.

Negotiator Behavior Measure

Three items for the compromising behavior dimension were added because this dimension was not included in the pilot study. Some items were reworded for more clarity because the participants had reported confusion in understanding these items. The item "stood my ground" was reworded to "gave little or no concession to my counterpart". The item "tried to persuade the other negotiator to give up much without getting much in return" was changed to "tried to persuade my counterpart to give into my demands without getting much in return". The item "gave up my interest" was reworded to "gave up my interest to satisfy the wishes of my counterpart". The item "my winning was not important" was modified to "I accommodated the wishes of my counterpart".

Counterpart Behavior Measure

Modifications in counterpart behavior measure were made corresponding to the changes mentioned in the "Negotiator Behavior Measure"; the word "counterpart" was added in all the items for clarification.

6. Results

The primary objective of this study was to empirically test the proposed model shown in Figure 3. To achieve this objective, data were collected using an employment contract simulation written for this study. Four hundred and fourteen executive trainees and students took part in the simulation. The data was collected with three questionnaires. The first questionnaire was completed at the beginning of the simulation, the second questionnaire was completed after the performance feedback for Task 1 had been distributed to the participants, and the third questionnaire was filled after Task 2 was completed.

The first step in the data analysis was to test the psychometric properties of the emotions (Table 6) and behavior (Table 7) measures by using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The procedure was expected to result in theoretically suitable factors with data on factor loadings and factor reliabilities. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation results in maximum extraction of variance such that the factor loadings are high on one factor and low on all other factors (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). This step was necessary because the measures in the literature were modified to fit the negotiation context of this study and therefore the factorial validity and reliabilities needed to be established before the items could be grouped for further analysis.

The second step in the data analysis was to tabulate the descriptive statistics of the model variables and factors (Table 8), and the inter-item correlations (Tables 9a and 9b). Three one-way ANOVAs were conducted with gender, negotiator role, and the sample

type as the independent variables, to examine the effects of these control variables on the model variables. The inter-item correlations were important in examining the relationships amongst theoretically related constructs and the possibility of multi-collinearity.

The third step was to analyze the effects of the experimental treatment with one-way ANOVAs and the multivariate general linear models to see if the experimental treatments produced the desired arousal of emotions for each treatment level (Table 10). Finally, the relationships shown in Figure 3 were tested using linear multiple regression models (Tables 11, 12, 13, and 14). Linear multiple regression analysis is a commonly accepted method of analyzing the relationships between two or more independent variables and one dependent variable in the presence of control variables (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Principal Component Factor Analysis

The multi-item measures used in this study were factor analyzed to confirm that the underlying dimensions could be separated into conceptually meaningful independent variables as predicted by the literature. Principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was used for extracting factors. Rotation of factors was useful in obtaining a factor structure that was characterized by (a) each item having a high loading on one factor only, (b) each factor having high loadings for some items only, and (c) rotation leading to a more even distribution of variances amongst the factors. Varimax rotation in particular was used to produce maximum variances of the factors. This was accomplished

by rotation such that it resulted in high loadings for some of the indicators on a given factor and low loadings of the same indicators for all the other factors.

The results in Table 6 and Table 7 show high factor loadings on the theoretically correct factors (minimum values were 0.61 for emotions and 0.64 for behavior) and low factor loadings on other factors (maximum values were 0.27 for emotions and 0.36 for behavior) indicating that the factors represented distinct constructs. The only exception was an emotion item "angry with myself" that had a factor loading of 0.61 on the guilt-shame factor and a loading of 0.45 on the anger factor.

Table 6 shows the results of the principle component analysis with varimax rotation for emotion items. The measure consisted of twenty-three emotions measured on a five point Likert-type scale. The negotiator emotions were measured twice, once before and once after Task 2 was completed. The counterpart emotions were measured once after Task 2. The data of the three measures of emotions were combined for the purpose of principle component analysis with varimax rotation. The analysis resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The four factors together accounted for 69.88% of the total variance in the emotion items. The first factor, gratitude emotions, comprised six items with loadings ranging from 0.86 to 0.75. The items were obliged, thankful, appreciative, grateful, likeness, and happy. The second factor, anger emotions, comprised six items with loadings ranging from 0.87 to 0.64. The items were furious, outraged, angry, frustrated, hostile, and upset. The third factor, pride-achievement emotions, consisted of six items with loadings ranging from 0.83 to 0.73. The items were pleased,

satisfied, proud, confident, self-competent, and self-admiration. The fourth and final factor, guilt-

shame emotions, consisted of five items with loadings ranging from 0.86 to 0.61. The items were ashamed, embarrassed, guilty, regretful, and angry with myself. The results in Table 6 support Hypothesis 1, which predicted four factors of emotions and the types of emotions in each factor.

Table 7 shows the results of the principle component analysis with varimax rotation for the behavior measure. Two types of behavior measures were used for Task 2, one for the negotiator behavior and the other for the counterpart behavior. The two measures were similar except for the references to the negotiator or the counterpart in the respective measures. The data of the two measures were combined for conducting the principle component analysis. The measure consisted of fourteen behavior-related statements. The analysis resulted in four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The four behavior factors accounted for 66.97% of the total variance in the behavior statements. The integrating, compromising, dominating, and yielding behaviors consisted of four items (factor loadings 0.83 to 0.71), three items (factor loadings 0.82 to 0.76), four items (factor loadings 0.78 to 0.64), and three items (factor loadings 0.85 to 0.67) respectively.

The negotiator satisfaction measure consisted of ten statements regarding negotiator's satisfaction with the negotiation. The principle components analysis of the data showed that the measure consisted of one general factor that accounted for 87% of the total variance in the satisfaction statements.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 8 shows the means, standard deviations, and the reliabilities of the model variables. The table was divided into four data sets: namely, the overall sample, gender based sample, negotiation role based sample, and sample type based sample. The overall analysis included all the participants together regardless of gender, role, or sample type. The gender, role, and sample type based analysis compared the data on the basis of gender, negotiator role, and the sample type respectively. A one-way ANOVA was conducted for each model variable with gender, negotiator role, and sample type as the independent variables to detect any significant effects due to gender, negotiator role, or sample type.

The overall descriptive data comprised means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the relevant measures. The reliabilities of all the measures were high, ranging from 0.92 to 0.68. The average age of the participants was 30.36 years with an average education of 15.90 years and an average work experience of 6.95 years.

The gender based descriptive data consists of means and standard deviations of the model variables for each gender. There were a total of 106 females and 308 males in the sample. The males were older than females, with more years of education and work experience. The negotiation role based descriptive data consisted of means and standard deviations of the model variables for each negotiation role, the human resource manager of the company, and the job candidate. There were a total of 207 participants in each role. The means of age, education, and work experience were higher for the job applicant than the human resource manager but none of these differences were significant. There were three sample types in this data set: namely, company executives, MBA students, and

undergraduate students comprising 214, 108, and 92 participants respectively. The executives were mostly managers in the private sector with an average age of 36.10 years, 16.14 years of education, and 11.68 years of work experience. The MBA students were on average 26.30 years of age, with an average of 16.08 years of education and 3.10 years of work experience. The undergraduates were on average 21.76 years old, 15.12 years of education, and 0.44 years of work experience.

One-way ANOVA for each of the three variables, gender, negotiation role, and sample type shows that these variables significantly affected the means of several model variables (Table 8). For example, the anger emotions had significantly different means for males and females, the two roles, and the three sample types. Due to the significant effects of the gender, negotiation role, and the sample types on the model variables, they were included as covariates in the experimental manipulation check and as control variables in all the regression models.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for all the twenty-five variables in this model. Tables 9a and 9b show the results with the level of significance for the correlations. Performance feedback was represented by two variables, PF1 and PF2. PF1 had two values, where 1 represented success and 0 represented failure. PF2 had two values, where 1 represented self-caused outcome and 0 represented other-caused outcome.

According to the results in Table 9a, all the correlations for the model variables and their directions were as expected according to the proposed model, except for the

lack of correlation between (a) the negotiator compromising behavior and the negotiator emotions, and (b) the joint outcome and the integrating behavior. The inter-correlations amongst the four factors of negotiator emotions, negotiator behavior, and post-negotiation emotions were in the theoretically predicted directions. The PCA discussed earlier showed that each factor tapped distinct constructs. For example, integrating behavior was significantly negatively correlated to dominating behavior with a correlation coefficient of 0.19 showing that the two behaviors moved in opposite directions as expected.

Multicollinearity is the extent to which independent variables are correlated to each other. It is usually caused by poor model specification and measurement related issues and is one of the concerns of empirical studies with multiple variables. Multicollinearity in this study was assessed by first examining the levels of the significant correlation in the Pearson correlation matrix and then analyzing the tolerance values of the independent variables in all the regression equations. A high Pearson correlation coefficient would create some concern about the independent identity of the two variables in question. The levels of the correlation coefficients were not generally high enough to cause alarm. However a few coefficients were relatively high. For example, counterpart anger emotions and counterpart guilt-shame emotions had a coefficient of 0.63. Similarly, counterpart integrating behavior and counterpart compromising behavior also had a coefficient of 0.63. The tolerance values for all the regression models were tabulated. They ranged between 0.55 and 0.93 indicating that multicollinearity was not a major concern in this study.

Table 9b shows the Pearson correlation coefficients between the control variables and the process variables. In this study, seven control variables were used; namely, role, age, gender, sample type, education, work experience, and familiarity with counterpart. Since the sample type has three possible values, it is represented by two variables, C4 and C5. The results show that all the control variables influenced the process variables. Therefore, it was prudent to control for their effects in this study. Gender affected the highest number of process variables followed by work experience and role. Education and Familiarity had impact on the least number of process variables.

Manipulation Check

The experimental manipulation was carried out by administering four types of performance feedback after Task 1. Each participant received one of the four performance feedbacks. Treatments 1, 2, 3, and 4 informed participants of failure caused by the counterpart, failure caused by self, success caused by the counterpart, and success caused by self respectively. A multivariate general linear model (GLM) was used for comparison of means of negotiator emotions after the feedback was administered instead of the one-way ANOVA because (a) the GLM allowed the inclusion of continuous covariates, which the one-way ANOVA did not, (b) the GLM allowed the analysis of all four dependent variables in one step, and (c) the GLM had the provision of using the Bonferroni t-tests to pinpoint the highest mean statistically among the four means associated with the four treatments. Performance feedback was the independent variable and gender, negotiation role, and sample type were the covariates in the general linear

model because these variables have been shown to affect negotiator emotions as shown in Table 8.

Table 10 shows the results of the comparison of means. The results supported Hypothesis 2a, 2b, 2c, and 2d. According to Hypothesis 2a, 2b, 2c, and 2d, Treatments 1, 2, 3, and 4 aroused anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions. The highest mean of 2.46 for the anger emotions corresponded to Treatment 1, 2.25 for the guilt-shame emotions corresponded to Treatment 2, 2.91 for the gratitude emotions corresponded to Treatment 3, and 2.93 for pride-achievement emotions corresponded to Treatment 4. The significant model F-statistic showed that at least one mean was significantly different from the other three means but it did not indicate whether one of the means was statistically the highest mean amongst the four treatments. The Bonferroni t-test tested two means at a time to see if they were significantly different from each other. Thus, the expected highest mean was tested against the other three means individually by the Bonferroni t-test analysis to conclude that the specific means mentioned above were significantly higher than each of the other three means.

The four means corresponding to each treatment were also analyzed (row wise) to see if the specific means were statistically higher than the other three means within their own treatment. The Bonferroni t-test analysis showed that the anger emotions mean was the highest in Treatment 1, the guilt-shame emotions mean was the highest in Treatment 2, the gratitude emotions mean was the highest in Treatment 3, and finally the pride-achievement mean was the highest in Treatment 4 as expected theoretically.

Twelve linear regression models were used to test the relationships hypothesized in the model. Each regression model had seven control variables: namely, age, gender, negotiation role, sample types, education level, work experience, and familiarity with the counterpart.

Negotiator Behavior

Table 11 shows the four linear regression models used to analyze the prediction of negotiator behaviors by the negotiator emotions, counterpart emotions, and counterpart behavior. The four types of negotiator behaviors, integrating, dominating, yielding, and compromising, were the dependent variables, and negotiator emotions, counterpart emotions, and counterpart behavior were the independent variables.

The first regression model with the negotiator integrating behavior as the dependent variable showed that the counterpart gratitude emotions (Hypothesis 3b), counterpart pride-achievement emotions (Hypothesis 3b), and counterpart integrating behavior (Hypothesis 3c) were significantly related to the negotiator integrating behavior. Hypothesis 3a based on the relationship between negotiator pride-achievement emotions and integrating behavior was not supported. The regression model had an overall significant model F-statistic and a R squared equal to 0.38.

The second regression model with negotiator dominating behavior as the dependent variable showed that the negotiator anger emotions (Hypothesis 4a), counterpart guilt-shame emotions (Hypothesis 4b), counterpart dominating behavior (Hypothesis 4c), and counterpart yielding behavior (Hypothesis 4d) were significantly

related to negotiator dominating behavior. The regression model had a significant model F-statistic and a R squared equal to 0.37.

The third regression model with negotiator yielding behavior as the dependent variable showed that negotiator gratitude emotions (Hypothesis 5a), counterpart gratitude emotions (Hypothesis 5b), counterpart pride-achievement emotions (Hypothesis 5b), and counterpart dominating behavior (Hypothesis 5c) were significant predictors of negotiator dominating behavior. The regression model had a significant model F-statistic and a R squared equal to 0.23.

The fourth regression model with negotiator compromising behavior as the dependent variable showed significant relationships with counterpart compromising behavior (Hypothesis 6c), counterpart dominating behavior (Hypothesis 6d), and counterpart yielding behavior (Hypothesis 6e). Hypotheses 6a, and 6b were not supported. The regression model had an overall significant model F-statistic and a R squared equal to 0.43.

Negotiation Outcomes

Table 12 shows three linear regression models for analyzing the prediction of negotiation outcomes. The first regression model with distributive outcome as the dependent variable showed significant positive relationships with negotiator dominating behavior (Hypothesis 7a), negative relationship with negotiator yielding behavior (Hypothesis 7b), negative relationship with counterpart dominating behavior (Hypothesis 7c), and positive relationship with counterpart yielding behavior (Hypothesis 7d). The R squared value was 0.28 with a significant model F-statistic.

The second regression model with joint outcome as the independent variable showed a significant positive relationship with the combined compromising behaviors of the two negotiators in the dyad instead of the combined integrating behaviors as postulated by Hypothesis 8. The behaviors of the two negotiators in the dyad were summed because the joint outcomes is a sum of the outcomes of both the negotiators and, therefore, behaviors of both the negotiators would be more appropriate predictors of the joint outcome as compared to the individual behaviors. The R squared value was .08 with a significant model F-statistic.

The third regression model with negotiator's satisfaction as the dependent variable showed significant negative relationship with the negotiator's yielding behavior (Hypothesis 9a). Counterpart integrating behavior (Hypothesis 9b), counterpart yielding behavior (Hypothesis 9d), and counterpart compromising behavior (Hypothesis 9e) positively predicted negotiator's satisfaction. Counterpart dominating behavior negatively predicted negotiator's satisfaction (Hypothesis 9c). Hypothesis 9f and Hypothesis 9g were based on the prediction of negotiator's satisfaction by the distributive outcome and the joint outcome. Hypothesis 9f was supported but Hypothesis 9g was not supported. The R squared value was 0.54 with a significant model F-statistic.

Post-Negotiation Outcomes

Two post negotiation outcomes were analyzed in this study, negotiator post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction. The post-negotiation emotions were examined with four regression models as shown in Table 13. Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions

were the four dependent variables and negotiator satisfaction, distributive outcome, and joint outcome were the three dependent variables.

Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions were negatively related to negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 10a). They were not predicted by the distributive outcome as expected according to Hypothesis 10b. Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions were negatively related to negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 11a) and they were positively predicted by the distributive outcome (Hypothesis 11b). Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions were associated with negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 12a) and they were related to the joint outcome (Hypothesis 12b). Finally, negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions were related to negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 13a). They were not predicted by the joint outcome as shown by Hypothesis 13b. The R squared values for the anger, guilt-shame, gratitude, and pride-achievement emotions were .24, .21, .29, and .27 respectively with significant model F-statistics.

Desire for future interaction was analyzed with one regression model as shown in Table 14. Negotiation outcomes and negotiator post-negotiation emotions were the dependent variables. Desire for future interaction was significantly positively predicted by negotiator satisfaction (Hypothesis 14a). Desire for future interaction was significantly negatively predicted by negotiator post-negotiation negative emotions (Hypothesis 14c) and significantly positively related to negotiator post-negotiation positive emotions (Hypothesis 14d). Hypothesis 14b regarding the relationship with economic negotiation outcomes was not supported. The R squared value was 0.53 with an overall model significant F-statistic.

Table 15 presents a summary of the results showing the hypotheses that were supported and the ones that were not supported.

7. Discussion

The main objective of this study was to present and empirically test a negotiation model that described the role of emotions in a negotiation encounter. The underlying motivation for this effort was based in the frequently expressed observation that the topic of emotions in negotiation was both important and under-researched (Allred et al., 1997; Barry & Oliver, 1996; Neale & Bazerman, 1991; Neale & Northcraft, 1991; Thompson & Kim, 2000).

Proposed Emotions-Based Model

The fundamental assumption in this study was that the twenty-three emotions measured in this study would reduce to four factors, each factor corresponding to one of the four treatments given to the participants. Another important assumption in this study was that the experimental manipulation would be successful. According to the cognitive appraisal theorists (Lazarus 1991a, Roseman et al., 1990; Weiner, 1986), specific emotions are elicited as a result of specific appraisals of the situation. Table 3 shows the situations that were expected to elicit specific emotions. For example, anger would be aroused as a result of failure caused by another person. The four types of performance feedback given to the participants constitute the four emotion eliciting situations. Therefore, each emotion factor was expected to have the highest mean corresponding to the relevant treatment. The anger emotions mean was expected to be the highest for Treatment 1, the guilt-shame emotions mean for Treatment 2, the gratitude emotions mean for Treatment 3, and the pride-achievement mean for Treatment 4.

The principal component analysis with varimax rotation, Table 6, shows that the emotions were reduced to four independent factors named anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions. These four factors had the highest statistically significant means corresponding to Treatments 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively, indicating that the experimental manipulation was successful in eliciting specific emotions as a result of each type of performance feedback.

The key relationship in this study was the relationship between negotiator emotions and negotiator behavior. Each type of emotion elicited as a result of the performance feedback is expected to generate specific behavior corresponding to its action tendency (Frijda, 1986; Kelly and Thibaut, 1978; Lazarus, 1991a), which is the urge or readiness for action due to the aroused emotion. Table 3 shows the action tendencies for the four types of emotions elicited in this study. For example, angry individuals have the orientation to attack the agent held blameworthy for the offense (Averill, 1980).

In the proposed model, the emotion and the behavior constructs occurred sequentially, that is, negotiator emotions were aroused as a consequence of the performance feedback after Task 1 while negotiator behavior was exhibited during Task 2. According to a suggestion made by Barry & Oliver (1996), the measurements of emotions and behaviors were made in stages to accommodate the sequential occurrence of variables. Negotiator emotions were measured approximately sixty-five minutes earlier than negotiator behavior. Thus, the relationship between negotiator emotions and negotiator behavior was longitudinal rather than cross-sectional, which lent credence to the cause and effect relationship between the two constructs.

Negotiator Emotions

The research on the effect of emotions on negotiator behavior in the negotiation literature is limited. Most of the research has been focused on a limited number of emotions (Conlon & Hunt, 2002), especially anger and happiness (for example, Allred et al., 1997; De Dreu et al., 2002; Van Kleef et al., 2003). Rarely have researchers studied emotions such as guilt, shame, gratitude, and pride. This study investigated the effects of these emotions on negotiation.

As shown in Table 11, negotiator anger emotions increased negotiator dominating behavior, negotiator guilt-shame emotions decreased negotiator integrative behavior, negotiator gratitude emotions increased negotiator yielding behavior, and negotiator pride-achievement emotions decreased negotiator yielding behavior. Thus, the results show that it is important for the counterpart to realize that not only is the valence of the emotions important but also the specific type of negative or positive emotions is critical (Heider, 1958; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986, 1992) for predicting negotiator's behavior and, therefore, negotiation outcomes. For example, negotiator gratitude emotions led to a yielding negotiator while negotiator pride-achievement emotions led to a decrease in the yielding behavior. Similarly negotiator anger emotions increased negotiator dominating behavior whereas negotiator guilt-shame emotions reduced negotiator integrating behavior.

The above findings show that each emotion factor has a specific antecedent, performance feedback, and each emotion has a specific consequent, negotiator behavior, as expected in accordance with the literature on emotions (Abelson, 1983; de Rivera, 1977; Roseman et al, 1990; Weiner, 1986). This finding is also supported by an

observation made by Smith & Ellsworth (1985) that valence alone is not enough to categorize emotions and that agency attribute is the most important appraisal criterion to categorize emotions. Thus, during negotiations, it is important for the negotiator to control and influence the causal attributions of the situations, especially agency, so that the counterpart would feel only those emotions that were beneficial to the negotiator.

As shown in Table 11, negotiator positive emotions did not increase the integrating behavior of the negotiator. Research on moods has shown that positive mood leads to integrating behavior (Baron, 1990; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990). It was expected that since emotions are more intense and focused than mood, they will have a stronger effect in the same direction. One possible reason for this deviation from expectations may be that emotions are specific in their actions, that is, happiness has a specific antecedent and consequences as compared to pride-achievement or gratitude. Perhaps, the two positive emotions included in this study do not have the same impact as positive mood. It is possible that other positive emotions such as happiness or excitement may have impacts similar to positive mood. More studies need to be done to understand the variations in influences of different positive emotions before this question can be addressed in more detail.

Interpersonal Influence

There are two types of interpersonal effects in the proposed model, the interpersonal effects of counterpart emotions and counterpart behaviors on negotiator behavior. The hypotheses developed for these relationships in Chapter 3 were based on two possible mechanisms: namely, reciprocal response (Brett et al., 1998; Cialdini, 1985) and

complementary response (Tracey, 1994; Wiggins, 1979). First, interpersonal effects of counterpart emotions are discussed followed by the interpersonal effects of counterpart behavior.

Table 11 shows that counterpart guilt-shame emotions increased negotiator dominating behavior, counterpart gratitude emotions increased negotiator integrating and yielding behaviors, and counterpart pride-achievement emotions made the negotiator more integrating, yielding, and compromising, but less dominating. These findings are in accordance with the reciprocal response, which is considered to be a norm in negotiation interaction (Allred et al, 1997; Graham et al., 1994). Some research studies have found that anger results in higher concession making and yielding behavior from the counterpart (for example, De Dreu et al. 2002; Van Kleef et al., 2003). Non-reciprocal response is usually attributed to individual differences, more careful evaluation of the situation, self-interest, or arousal of fear. However, the results of this study clearly favor the reciprocal response mechanism when considering the effects of counterpart emotions on negotiator behavior.

An important point to note here is that in this study counterpart emotions and behaviors were not the actual emotions and behaviors of the counterpart but were the emotions and behaviors of the counterpart as perceived by the negotiator. Therefore, the real challenge for negotiators is that while negotiators may not feel the relevant emotions, they must make his/her counterparts perceive that he/she is exhibiting the emotions and behaviors required to elicit the desired behavior from the counterpart.

Now let us consider the effect of counterpart behavior on negotiator behavior. Table 11 shows that counterpart integrating behavior produces the best outcome for both

the negotiators, that is, integrating behaviors exhibited by both negotiators. Counterpart compromising behavior leads to negotiator compromising and integrating behaviors. Thus, for the counterpart, integrating and compromising behaviors are the best options. A dominating behavior by the counterpart results in dominating or yielding behavior of the negotiator as explained by the reciprocal and the complementary responses respectively. The regression coefficient for the reciprocal response (dominating behavior) is higher than the complementary response (yielding behavior) indicating that the reciprocal response is stronger than the complementary response. Therefore, counterpart dominating behavior is a high-risk option for the counterpart because of the high regression coefficient predicting negotiator dominating behavior. Counterpart yielding behavior leads to negotiator dominating behavior. The hypothesis that predicts negotiator yielding behavior in response to counterpart yielding behavior is not supported. Thus, the results indicate that integrating behavior leads to a reciprocal response, yielding behavior leads to a complementary response, and dominating behavior leads to both reciprocal and complementary responses although the reciprocal response is stronger. More research is needed in the area of interpersonal behavior in negotiation to understand the reasons and conditions for particular responses.

Overall, the results suggest that one has the capability of predicting and even influencing the behaviors of counterparts through one's own emotions and behaviors. This leads to certain important managerial implications, which will be laid out later in Chapter 8, Contributions and Conclusions.

Negotiation Outcomes

As shown in Table 12, distributive outcome was positively predicted by negotiator dominating behavior and negatively predicted by negotiator yielding behavior and counterpart dominating behavior. However, this route to success may not be desirable because while dominating behavior may increase the distributive outcome, it may also decrease counterpart satisfaction with the negotiation. According to researchers (for example, Ruekart & Churchill, 1984; Thompson, 1990), the social psychological outcome is as important as the economic outcome, therefore, one needs to be careful in achieving a high distributive outcome at the cost of counterpart satisfaction.

Another regression model, which included an independent variable based on the difference between the dominating behaviors of the two negotiators in a dyad, showed significant effect on the distributive outcome (t = 3.099, p<.002). Thus, a higher negotiator dominating behavior above counterpart dominating behavior would result in a higher distributive outcome for the negotiator. Other researchers have found similar effects in their studies (Lax and Sebenius, 1986; Lewicki, Litterer, Saunders, and Minton, 1994; Walton and McKersie, 1965).

Negotiator satisfaction was influenced much more strongly by counterpart behavior than by the negotiator's own behavior as shown in Table 12. All the four counterpart behaviors were significantly linked with negotiator satisfaction, whereas only one type of negotiator behavior was linked to negotiator satisfaction. This gives a clear signal that the interpersonal interaction with the counterpart plays a critical role in determining negotiator satisfaction, which is an important variable for post-negotiation emotions and the continuation of a relationship with the counterpart. An examination of

the negotiation economic outcomes shows that only distributive outcome predicted negotiator satisfaction and that not as strongly as counterpart behavior. This not only indicates that counterpart behavior is a strong determinant of negotiator satisfaction but also that negotiator satisfaction is a stronger function of the negotiation process than the economic negotiation outcomes.

Post-Negotiation Outcomes

Post-negotiation outcomes are at the juncture of the just concluded negotiation and the future negotiation with the same counterpart or other counterparts. Barry & Oliver (1996) call post-negotiation outcomes a "virtually unexplored area" in negotiation. The affect related post-negotiation outcomes determine the initial emotions of the next encounter. Therefore, one needs to pay more attention to post-negotiation outcomes in negotiations.

Allred et al. (1997) found that negotiators who felt high anger and low compassion had less desire to work with each other in the future. O'Connor & Arnold (2001) found that negotiators who impasse experience negative emotions, develop negative perceptions about their counterparts, and are less willing to work with their counterparts in the future. The results in Table 13 and 14 add to this line of research. Table 14 shows that post-negotiation anger and guilt-shame emotions were negatively related and post-negotiation gratitude emotions were positively related to desire for future interaction, thus extending the knowledge about post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction. Table 13 and Table 14 also show that negotiator satisfaction was a stronger predictor of post-negotiation emotions and desire for future interaction than economic negotiation outcomes, a clear indication that the negotiation process is more

important in the future relationship of the two negotiators. These results are specially crucial in those situations where future interaction with the counterpart is important such as the repeated buyer seller negotiations, joint ventures, or business-government negotiations.

8. Contributions and Conclusions

8.1 Contributions to the Literature

Researchers have called for the inclusion of emotions in negotiation models (Neale & Northcraft, 1991). While some researchers have proposed theoretical models (for example, Barry & Oliver, 1996), empirical testing has been limited in terms of the inclusion and operationalization of the model variables. The development and the testing of a comprehensive emotions-based model was a key contribution of this research. The model described the antecedent of emotions, mediating variables including specific emotions, negotiator behavior, and interpersonal influence, and negotiation outcomes.

Negotiation affect related research has mostly concentrated on negative emotions (for a review, see Conlon & Hunt, 2002) or positive moods (for example Baron, 1990; Isen et al., 1987). Few studies have incorporated a wide range of emotions in a single study. Not including a variety of emotions in one study has translated to an incomplete picture of the participants' feelings. In this study, twenty-three emotions were measured including eleven negative emotions and twelve positive emotions. Using a diverse spectrum of emotions depicted a fuller range of participants' feelings.

In concluding their paper, Barry & Oliver (1996) commented that empirical tests of affect-based model are best done in stages because affect in negotiation is continuously changing as an antecedent and a consequence of changes in the situation. A contribution of this study was the stage wise testing of the model. Data were collected in three stages, thus, separating emotions, behaviors, and outcomes longitudinally. In this study, emotions were measured after Task 1 was completed and behavior and outcomes

were measured after Task 2 was completed. The measurements at two different times during the experiment improved the claim of the direction of causality between the emotions and the behavior. It also provided the opportunity to measure emotions twice and examine the effects of changes in emotions before and after Task 2.

Many researchers have studied the role of causal appraisal dimensions in eliciting emotions in a social context (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman et al., 1990; Scherer, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986). They have unanimously identified valence and responsibility as the most important appraisal dimensions. In negotiation, however, most of the focus has been on outcome-based emotions and not agent-based emotions, especially positive emotions (for a review, see Kumar, 1997). The contribution of this study was to examine the effects of the valence and the agency attribute on emotions in negotiation including the types of emotions elicited and their effects on negotiation process and outcomes.

The agency attribute helped in differentiating amongst the negative emotions such as anger and guilt-shame, and amongst the positive emotions such as gratitude and pride-achievement. All four dimensions of emotions clearly had distinct antecedents and consequences in terms of their impacts on negotiator behavior.

Inclusion of post-negotiation outcomes: namely, post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction, was an important contribution of this study. Barry & Oliver (1986) called the role of negotiation process and outcomes on future events a "virtually unexplored research area of outcome consequences" and little research has been done in this area since. The negotiation literature has ignored post negotiation outcomes that are instrumental in the successful implementation of the negotiation

agreement (for example joint venture agreements) and the future relationship between the two parties (for example repeated buyer seller negotiations). An interesting finding in this study was that negotiator satisfaction and not economic outcomes was the more important predictor of post-negotiation outcomes, which has important managerial implications.

8.2 Managerial Implications

Negotiator Emotions

The key managerial implication of this study is that the understanding of the valence and causality of emotions and its implications for managers are critical for successful negotiations. In this study, specific emotions are aroused as a consequence of the causal appraisal dimensions, valence and agency. These specific emotions have different influences on the negotiation process and outcomes. The type of positive emotions (for example, gratitude and pride-achievement emotions) and the type of negative emotions (for example, anger and guilt-shame emotions) predict different negotiator behaviors, negotiation outcomes, and post-negotiation outcomes. For example, gratitude emotions predict negotiator yielding behavior in the positive direction while pride-achievement emotions predict negotiator yielding behavior in the negative direction. Anger emotions are related to negotiator dominating behavior while guilt-shame emotions are related to negotiator integrating behavior. Since emotions are antecedents of the negotiator behavior, which then determines negotiation and post-negotiation outcomes, an effective negotiator would want to influence the type of emotions felt by him/herself and the counterpart in order to impact behaviors during negotiation.

One way to control the arousal of emotions would be to control the attributions associated to various events before and during the negotiation because attributions lead to the arousal of emotions and ultimately result in specific behaviors (Kelly & Thibaut, 1979). For example, negotiators may want to create feelings of altruism in their counterparts by making them happy and grateful. They may also want to convince their counterparts that the locus of causality of a harmful event may not lie with him/her.

Interpersonal Influence

This study shows that counterpart emotions and counterpart behaviors have many significant relationships with the negotiator behavior and negotiation outcomes. The managerial implication of this finding is that the negotiator should exhibit gratitude emotions to elicit counterpart integrating and yielding behaviors, and show pride-achievement emotions to elicit counterpart integrating, yielding, or compromising behavior. Negotiators should use integrating and compromising behaviors because they result in counterpart integrating and compromising behaviors, high levels of joint outcomes and counterpart satisfaction. However, if the negotiator uses dominating behavior to increase his/her own distributive outcome, it may result in counterpart dominating or yielding behaviors, and low counterpart satisfaction.

Negotiator Behavior

The results in Table 11 have some managerial implications regarding how to go about eliciting certain counterpart behaviors. If one wants the counterpart to be integrative, then one should make the counterpart feel less guilt-shame emotions, lead the

counterpart to perceive one to have gratitude and pride-achievement emotions, and integrating or compromising behavior. If one wants the other negotiator to yield, then one should make the other negotiator feel more gratitude emotions and less pride-achievement emotions, convince the other negotiator to perceive one to have gratitude or pride-achievement emotions, and dominating behavior. If one wants the counterpart to have dominating behavior, then one should make the counterpart feel anger emotions, let the counterpart perceive one to have guilt-shame emotions, and dominating or yielding behavior. Finally, if one wants the other negotiator to behave in a compromising manner, then one should make the other negotiator perceive one to have pride-achievement emotions, and dominating or compromising behavior.

Negotiation Outcomes

The negotiator's aim is to maximize one or more of the negotiation outcomes, negotiator satisfaction, distributive outcome, and joint outcome. Based on the findings of this study, one may be able to draw prescriptive inferences regarding the three outcomes. The prescriptions mentioned below refer to these three outcomes and are based on Table 11 and Table 12.

1) Negotiator satisfaction

Negotiator satisfaction is a key predictor of post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction, therefore, achieving a high negotiator satisfaction will result in a high influence on both the post-negotiation outcomes. A high negotiator satisfaction could be achieved if (a) the counterpart lets the negotiator win by yielding, (b) the

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counterpart reduces his/her own dominating behavior by controlling his/her anger, (c) the counterpart increases his/her own integrative behavior by increasing pride-achievement emotions and reducing guilt-shame emotions, or (d) the counterpart increases his/her own compromising behavior.

2) Distributive Outcome

If a high negotiator distributive outcome is desirable then the negotiator should (a) become more dominating usually with increased anger emotions, (b) reduce his/her gratitude emotions to become less yielding, (c) reduce counterpart anger emotions to make him/her less dominating, or (d) increase counterpart gratitude emotions to make him/her more yielding.

3) Joint Outcome

If a high joint outcome is the main objective of the negotiator then (a) both the negotiators must exhibit integrative behaviors by increasing pride-achievement and gratitude emotions, and (b) reducing guilt-shame emotions.

Post-Negotiation Outcomes

Post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction are extremely important variables (Barry & Oliver, 1996; O'Connor & Arnold, 2001) from a practitioner's point of view. The success of many negotiations depend upon the post-negotiation outcomes, especially the ones in which the relationship between the negotiators continues beyond the negotiation itself, for example, joint venture

negotiations, or repeat buyer-seller negotiations. The post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction are strongly predicted by negotiator satisfaction and not the economic outcomes. This finding gives a clear signal to the negotiator. Since negotiator satisfaction is influenced by counterpart behavior in this study and negotiator satisfaction is a very critical condition for the continuing relationship with the negotiator, the counterpart needs to be more integrating, yielding, or compromising, but not dominating for a high negotiator satisfaction.

8.3 Limitations of the Study

Social science experiments done in the classroom or laboratory settings generally have limitations due to external validity, self report questionnaires, and cross-sectional data collection. An additional potential limitation is the generalizability of the results of this study since the study was carried out in one culture.

External validity examines the extent to which an observed relationship can be generalized to and across different measures, persons, settings, and times. Campbell & Stanley (1963) listed four factors that jeopardized external validity in experiments: namely, reactive effect of testing, interactive effects of selection biases, reactive effects of experimental arrangements, and multiple treatment interference. In the context of this study, some possible issues with regard to generalizability arise because (i) the affect-behavior-outcome findings in the classroom settings were not fully transferable to a real life negotiation, (ii) the interpersonal relationship and the emotions created during the simulation could be regarded as artificial, (iii) the information regarding the situation was given to the participants in the form of instructions or role information on paper, (iv) the

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negotiation outcomes did not affect the actual well-being of the participants, and (v) the classroom setting might have resulted in demand characteristics and experimenter expectancy effects (Orne, 1962; Pedhazur & Schemelkin, 1991).

These shortcomings were partially handled in this study by achieving a high level of realism for the participants by (i) a realistic depiction of the local conditions and incorporating information collected from the local sources, (ii) a vivid and detailed picture of the role being played by each participant, (iii) training of the researcher in conducting the simulation so that there was no misleading information or cue regarding the role play and the questionnaires, (iv) creating interest and a sense of purpose in the participants regarding the simulation, and (v) including participants from both corporate and student populations.

Self-report questionnaires and cross-sectional data create an uncertainty regarding the causality between variables. This problem was partially addressed in this study by measuring model variables at three different times. The most important implication was that negotiator emotions were longitudinally separated from negotiator behavior, negotiation outcomes, and post-negotiation outcomes. However, the findings could have been made more meaningful by having more frequent measures and using alternate forms of measurements such as third party observations or physiological techniques of measuring emotions.

An important result in this study was that the effect of negotiator satisfaction on post-negotiation outcomes was much stronger than economic outcomes. This may be due to the artificial situation created by negotiating in a simulation rather than a real life setting. Participants in a simulation may be more concerned about interpersonal

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interaction, which is real, than about the economic outcomes that are not real. In real life situations, economic outcomes may have more importance for the negotiators than interpersonal interactions. In this study, this limitation was countered to some extent by making the simulation complex, vivid, and realistic. However, more research is needed to compare the effects of negotiator satisfaction and economic outcomes.

The generalizability of the results from this study to other cultures may have limitations because the data were collected in one culture, Pakistan, whose cultural characteristics may be different from many other cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). However, this limitation to generalizability in this study was handled by (i) developing the proposed model and hypotheses using culture free arguments, (ii) using constructs and relationships that are expected to hold universally although the absolute values of the constructs may differ according to cultural values, (iii) including MBA students and multinational executives in the sample who have work styles similar to corresponding people in other cultures. This shared global business culture is based on similar education and on the job training globally, (iv) using measures that showed good psychometric properties in the pilot test and the full-scale study, and (v) finding support for most of the hypotheses in the proposed model.

The above paragraph refers to culture free arguments because cognitive appraisal theory, which is the basis of the proposed model, has been found to be valid in many cultures (Lazarus, 1991a, Weiner, 1986). Therefore, the situation-affect-behavior relationship proposed in this study is expected to hold universally. In addition, the constructs and their measures used in this study have been validated in many cultures

(Ekman, 1984; Rahim, 1983). These facts give credence to the culture free argument and thus lends to generalizability to other cultures.

Some researchers (for example, Markus & Kitayama, 1991) have proposed that certain emotions may be more readily experienced in some cultures and not in others. For example, self-based emotions such as gratitude and guilt may be more prominent in the Eastern cultures and anger and pride may be higher in Western societies. Nevertheless, it appears that while particular emotions may be stronger in one culture and weaker in another, the relationships proposed in the model in this study will still hold across cultures. Only the regression coefficients would vary.

8.4 Suggestions For Future Research

As presented in the results section, two control variables used in this study, gender and negotiator role, had significant correlations with a number of model variables and were significant in many regression models. The negotiation literature also provides evidence that these variables influence negotiation process and outcomes (for example, Rahim, 1983; Rubin & Brown, 1975; Thompson, 1990). In addition, work experience was also found to be an effective variable. Further research in this area would reveal the role of these variables in the emotions-based model.

This study and the emotion literature stress the importance of the dynamic nature of emotions, and the continuous interplay between emotions and behaviors in social encounters (Barry & Oliver, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Weiner, 1986). One of the strengths of this study was the time lapse between the measurement of the negotiator emotions and negotiator behavior, outcomes, and post-negotiation emotions. Such time lag between the

measurements strengthens the argument for a causal linkage amongst the variables and also shows the changes in emotions during and after negotiations. An important extension of this study would be to have more frequent repeated measures of emotions and behaviors during the negotiation so that the link between emotion and behavior is more clearly established.

This study is amongst the first few that have addressed post-negotiation outcomes. As mentioned earlier, these variables are critical for the implementation of negotiation agreements and conclusion of future agreements. This study examined post-negotiation emotions and the desire for future interaction. One step forward would be to investigate these variables further by examining their effects on future negotiations. Another would be to increase the scope of inquiry to include other variables and issues such as compliance, constituency's acceptance of the outcome, and organizational rewards for negotiation performance.

The model developed in this study was limited to dyadic negotiation. Many negotiations take place with more than two parties directly involved in the negotiation or with parties that are constituencies and bystanders. It would be useful to examine the role of these parties on the emotions in the negotiation process.

Multiple regression analysis is a common and convenient way of analyzing relationships between a dependent variable and more than one independent variables. In this study multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships proposed in the model at an individual level of analysis. The data in this study has a hierarchical nested structure in a dyad. This type of data is best analyzed at the multiple level of analysis using techniques such as hierarchical multiple model (HLM) (Bryk & Raudenbush,

1992). Reducing multiple level data to a single level of analysis may lead to over-simplification. For example, negotiator behavior may be shaped by dyad-level dynamics (for example, aggregated level of anger or integrative behavior) in addition to individual-level processes such as own emotion or behavior. Thus multilevel phenomenon cannot be completely represented at an individual or an aggregated level. It is proposed that a future study may include multilevel variables and analysis for better results.

8.5 Conclusions

This study has extended knowledge about the role of emotions in negotiation. A model based on emotions in negotiation was proposed. The model was tested empirically with data from a negotiation simulation. The results showed that negotiator emotions and interpersonal influences were important predictors of negotiator behavior and outcomes. Four dimensions of emotions: namely, anger, guilt-shame, gratitude, and pride-achievement, influenced negotiator behavior. Each type of emotion had distinct antecedents and consequences. The results also showed that interpersonal effects of counterpart emotions and behaviors were important predictors of negotiator behaviors. The model was extended to include post-negotiation outcomes because these outcomes were expected to influence future negotiations. The managerial implications suggested managing self and other emotions such that the desirable emotions are increased and the undesirable emotions are curbed for effective negotiation behaviors and outcomes.

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10. Figures and Tables

Figure 1
Dual Concern Model
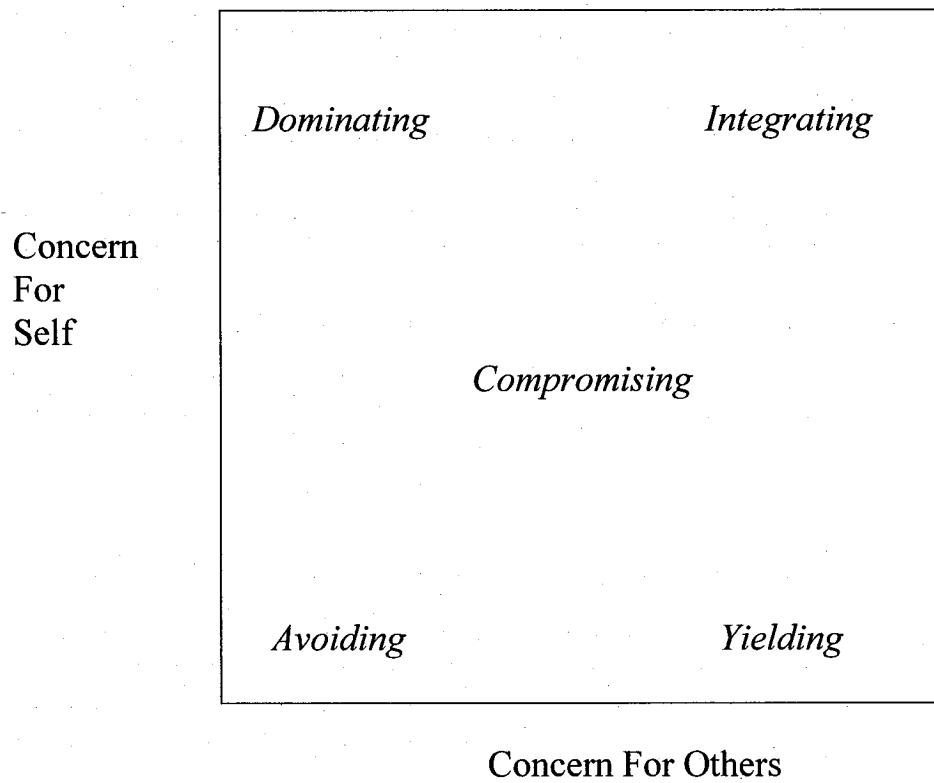
Concern
For
Self

Dominating	*Integrating*
Compromising	
Avoiding	*Yielding*

Concern For Others

Figure 2
Emotions-Based Negotiation Conceptual Model

Treatment   Negotiation Phase   Post Negotiation Phase
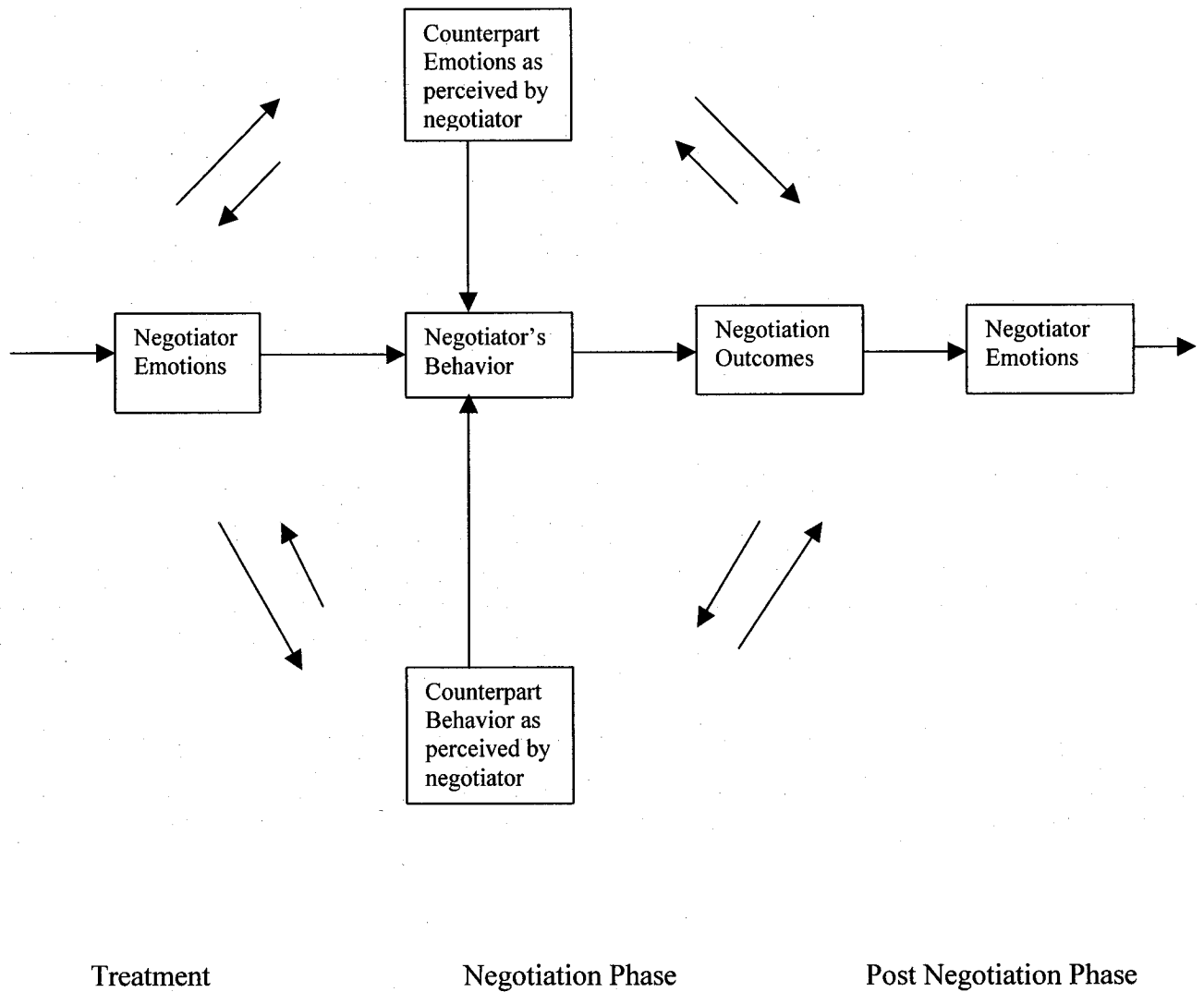
Figure 3
Emotions-Based Negotiation Empirical Model

Negative-Other Caused
Negative-Self Caused
Positive-Other Caused
Positive-Self Caused

Counterpart
Emotions

H1, H2

Performance Feedback Task 1	Negotiator Emotions	Negotiator Behavior	Negotiation Outcomes	Negotiator Emotions	Desire for Future Intr.

H10-13   H14

Failure-Other Caused   Negative-Other Caused   Integrating (H3)   Distributive Outcome (H7)
Failure-Self Caused   Negative-Self Caused   Dominating (H4)   Joint Outcome (H8)
Success-Other Caused   Positive-Other Caused   Yielding (H5)   Negotiator Satisfaction (H9)
Success-Self Caused   Positive-Self Caused   Compromising (H6)

Counterpart
Behavior

Integrating
Dominating
Yielding
Compromising

Negotiation Task 1   Negotiation Task 2   Post Negotiation

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Table 1
Cognitive Appraisal Dimensions

Cognitive Appraisal Dimensions	Smith and Ellsworth, 1985	Weiner, 1986	Roseman, 1990	Scherer, 1988
Pleasantness/ Valence	X	X	X	X
Causality including Locus of Responsibility/ Control	X, Situational Control	X	X Control	X Control
Anticipated Effort	X			
Attentional Activity/ Novelty	X			X
Certainty/ Probability	X		X	
Goal relevance				X
Legitimacy			X	X

Table 2
Emotions Elicited by Valence and Responsibility

Emotions Elicited

Appraisal Dimensions	*Smith and Ellsworth (1985); Ellsworth and Smith (1988)*	*Weiner, 1986*	*Roseman et al., 1990*	*Scherer, 1988*
Other-Caused Failure	Anger, Contempt, Disgust, Frustration	Disturbed, Concerned, Dissatisfied, Upset, Dismayed	Anger	Anger, Rage, Fear, Anxiety, Despair, Contempt
Self-Caused Failure	Shame, Guilt, Embarrassment	Concerned, Lousy, Regretful, Troubled	Shame, Guilt, Regret	Shame, Guilt
Other-Caused Success	Interest	Pleased, Happy, Appreciative, Satisfied, Gratitude	Liking	
Self-Caused Success	Pride, Happiness, Challenge	Pleased, Happy, Contented, Proud, Satisfied, Confident, Competent	Pride	Pride

Table 3
EMOTIONS IN THIS STUDY

Appraisal Dimensions	Emotion	Items	Core Relational Meaning	Action Tendency
Other-Caused Failure	Anger with Other	Angry Upset Furious Frustrated Outraged Hostile	Anger: Demeaning offence against me and mine	Anger: Attack and take revenge or repress to preserve self, and social relationship
Self-Caused Failure	Guilt	Guilty Regretful	Guilt: Generated when we believe we have done something immoral	Guilt: Make reparation, atone, externalize harm
	Shame	Ashamed Embarrassed	Shame: Failure to live up to an ego-ideal	Shame: Seek social support, want to hide, redouble efforts to live up to the ideal
	Anger with Self	Angry		
Other-Caused Success	Gratitude	Thankful Grateful Obliged Appreciative	Gratitude: Generated to regulate human response to altruistic acts (Lazarus, 1991a)	Gratitude: Reach out and want to help, repay in kind
	Liking	Liking	Liking: Intimacy in the absence of passion	Liking: Urge to have psychological intimacy, good relations
	Happy	Happy	Happy: Making reasonable progress towards a goal	Share positive outcomes with others
Self-Caused Success	Pride	Proud Confident Feeling Competent Self-Admiration	Pride: Enhances one's ego-identity by taking credit for an achievement	Pride: Expansiveness and urge to point to success publicly, increased self-confidence
	Happy	Pleased Satisfied		

Table 4
SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

A. Treatment Related Hypotheses

H1: In response to the four experimental conditions based on valence and agency attributes, participants will experience emotions comprising four factors: namely, anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions.
H2a: Participants who are given the other-caused failure feedback will experience the anger emotions. They will be angry, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile, and upset due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.
H2b: Participants who are given the self-caused failure feedback will experience guilt-shame emotions. They are expected to be angry, guilty, regretful, ashamed, and embarrassed, with self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.
H2c: Participants who are given the other-caused success feedback will experience the gratitude emotions. They will be happy, likeness, thankful, obliged, and appreciative, and grateful due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.
H2d: Participants who are given the self-caused success feedback will experience the pride-achievement emotions. They are expected to be pleased, satisfied, proud, confident, feeling competent, and self-admiration due to self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.

B. Negotiator Behavior Related Hypotheses

H3a: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by negotiator pride-achievement emotions.
H3b: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.
H3c: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.
H4a: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by negotiator anger emotions.
H4b: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.

H4c: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.
H4d: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.
H5a: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by negotiator gratitude emotions.
H5b: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.
H5c: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.
H6a: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by negotiator guilt-shame emotions.
H6b: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.
H6c: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.
H6d: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.
H6e: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.

C. Negotiation Outcomes Related Hypotheses

H7a: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by negotiator dominating behavior.
H7b: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.
H7c: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by counterpart dominating behavior.
H7d: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.
H8: Joint Outcome is predicted by the additive combination of negotiator and counterpart integrating behaviors.
H9a: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.
H9b: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.
H9c: Negotiator satisfaction is negatively predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.
H9d: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.
H9e: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.

H9f: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by distributive outcome.

H9g: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by joint outcome.

D. Post Negotiation Related Hypotheses

H10a: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.
H10b: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.
H11a: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.
H11b: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.
H12a: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.
H12b: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted positively by joint outcome.
H13a: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.
H13b: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by joint outcome.
H14a: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted by negotiator satisfaction.
H14b: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted positively by negotiator economic outcomes.
H14c: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted negatively by negotiator negative emotions.
H14d: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted by negotiator positive emotions.

Table 5a
Factor Analysis and Reliabilities (Pilot Study)

Variables	Factors	Items	Item Types	Reliability
Emotion Task1	Gratitude	6	thankful, gratitude, compassion, appreciative, happiness, likeness	0.94
	Anger	6	angry, discomforted, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile	0.89
	Guilt-Shame	4	guilty, ashamed, embarrassed, jealous	0.89
	Pride-Achievement	6	Proud, confident, self-admiration, feeling competent, pleased, satisfied	0.75
Behavior Self Task2	F1	4	1,2,3,4	0.76
	F2	3	5,6,7,8	0.75
	F3	3	9,10,11	0.58
Satisfaction	F1	6	1,2,3,4,8,9	0.87
	F2	5	4,5,6,7,10	0.89
Renegotiate	F1	2	1,2	0.95
Realism	F1	2	1,2	0.85
	F2	2	3,4	0.57

Table 5b
Experimental Manipulation Check (Pilot Study)
Comparison of Means of Negotiator Emotions

Treatments	Emotion Factor1 (Gratitude Emotions)	Emotion Factor2 (Anger Emotions)	Emotion Factor3 (Guilt-Shame Emotions)	Emotion Factor4 (Pride-Achievement Emotions)
Treatment1 Other- Caused Failure	1.91	3.26	2.33	2.10
Treatment 2 Self- Caused Failure	1.96	2.14	2.53	1.95
Treatment3 Other-Caused Success	3.20	1.81	1.37	1.61
Treatment Self- Caused Success	2.74	1.84	1.22	2.38
F-Statistic	0.005	0.000	0.008	0.271

Table 6
Principal Component Factor Analysis
Negotiator Emotions

Variables	Factor 1 Other-Caused Success (Gratitude Emotion)	Factor 2 Other-Caused Failure (Anger Emotions)	Factor 3 Self-Caused Success (Pride-Achievement Emotions)	Factor 4 Self-Caused Failure (Guilt-Shame Emotions)
Percent of Variance Explained	18.58	18.48	18.05	14.77
Obliged of counterpart	.86	-.007	.12	-.03
Thankful of counterpart	.85	-.11	.22	-.08
Appreciative of counterpart	.80	-.11	.25	-.03
Grateful of counterpart	.78	-.001	.18	.002
Likeness of counterpart	.77	-.21	.21	.019
Happy due to counterpart	.75	-.17	.27	-.04
Furious with counterpart	-.10	.87	-.07	.18
Outraged with counterpart	-.04	.85	.009	.22
Angry with counterpart	-.19	.83	-.13	.13
Frustrated with counterpart	-.19	.80	-.11	.19
Hostile with counterpart	.09	.73	-.02	.19
Upset with counterpart	-.15	.64	-.03	.17
Pleased of myself	.26	-.14	.83	-.16
Satisfied with myself	.22	-.14	.83	-.20
Proud of myself	.19	-.04	.81	-.12
Confident of myself	.10	-.08	.77	-.18
Feeling self-competent	.26	-.05	.75	-.07
Admiration of myself	.23	-.04	.73	-.04
Ashamed of myself	.02	.19	-.14	.86
Embarrassed of myself	.003	.22	-.14	.84
Guilty of myself	-.03	.20	-.13	.82
Regretful of my acts	-.04	.20	-.13	.77
Angry with myself	-.10	.43	-.20	.61

Table 7
Principal Component Analysis
Negotiator Behavior

Variables	Factor 1 Integrating Behavior	Factor 2 Compromising Behavior	Factor 3 Dominating Behavior	Factor 4 Yielding Behavior
Percent of Variance Explained	20.24	17.16	15.97	13.60
Cooperated with my counterpart to better understand each others views and positions	.83	.26	-.10	.03
Discussed the issues openly with my counterpart to work out a mutually acceptable solution	.83	.20	-.01	-.05
Exchanged accurate information with my counterpart to solve the problem together	.79	.15	-.14	.11
Tried to settle the issues based on the interests of both the parties	.71	.36	-.21	.04
I reduced our differences by gaining some and losing some	.23	.82	-.04	.07
I tried to find a middle ground for resolving the conflict	.31	.81	-.09	.07
I negotiated to find a compromise agreeable to both the sides	.35	.76	-.12	.02
Put pressure on my counterpart to accept my demand	-.12	.13	.78	-.08
Showed aggression to my counterpart	-.14	-.008	.75	.03
Tried to persuade my counterpart to give in to my demands without getting much in return	-.09	-.16	.73	.06
Gave little or no concession to my counterpart	.005	-.32	.64	.11
I let my counterpart win at my expense	-.005	-.10	.09	.85
Gave up my interests to satisfy the interests of my counterpart	-.01	.01	.10	.82
I accommodated the wishes of my counterpart	.14	.30	-.13	.67

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics
Mean, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Variables and Factors

	Overall Sample Mean (SD) Reliability N = 414		Gender Mean (SD)		Role Mean (SD)		Sample Type Mean (SD)		
Variables	Mean	Reliab-ility	Female N=106	Male n=308	Co. n=207	Job Applicant n=207	Executives n=214	MBA Studen tn=108	Under Graduate n=92
Age	30.36 (9.02)	-	25.41 (7.22)	32.06 (8.96)***	30.43 (8.89)	30.39 (9.18)	36.10 (8.67)	26.30 (3.62)	21.76 (2.50)***
Education	15.90 (1.18)	-	15.43 (1.03)	16.06 (1.18)***	15.86 (1.15)	15.93 (1.20)	16.14 (1.21)	16.08 (1.10)	15.12 (.81)***
Work Experience	6.95 (7.78)	-	3.08 (5.24)	8.28 (8.07)***	6.80 (7.48)	7.09 (8.10)	11.68 (8.00)	3.10 (3.03)	.44 (1.28)***
Emotion Anger	1.88 (.94)	.91	1.743 (.77)	1.94 (.99)***	1.78 (.84)	1.99 (1.02)*	1.81 (.86)	2.17 (1.11)	1.73 (.84)***
Emotion Guilt-Shame	1.74 (.82)	.89	1.70 (.81)	1.75 (.82)	1.76 (.86)	1.72 (.77)	1.64 (.73)	1.81 (.83)	1.87 (.97)*
Emotion Gratitude	2.28 (.93)	.94	2.01 (.85)	2.37 (.94)**	2.34 (.93)	2.22 (.93)	2.37 (.95)	2.27 (.89)	2.10 (.89)
Emotion Pride-Achievement	2.38 (.79)	.92	2.06 (.75)	2.48 (.78)***	2.32 (.80)	2.42 (.78)	2.50 (.80)	2.33 (.75)	2.14 (.77)***
Post-Negotiation Anger	1.49 (.65)	.88	1.32 (.50)	1.54 (.68)**	1.42 (.61)	1.55 (.67)*	1.47 (.62)	1.59 (.71)	1.41 (.61)
Post-Negotiation Guilt-Shame	1.35 (.55)	.86	1.29 (.60)	1.37 (.53)	1.36 (.59)	1.34 (.50)	1.33 (.53)	1.41 (.56)	1.33 (.57)
Post-Negotiation Gratitude	2.68 (.88)	.91	2.40 (.74)	2.78 (.91)***	2.62 (.89)	2.74 (.87)	2.75 (.96)	2.72 (.80)	2.46 (.75)**
Post-Negotiation Pride-Achievement	3.30 (.83)	.88	3.04 (.80)	3.39 (.81)***	3.24 (.83)	3.36 (.82)	3.36 (.81)	3.31 (.81)	3.14 (.85)
CP Emotion Anger	1.58 (.73)	.89	1.39 (.61)	1.64 (.76)**	1.60 (.79)	1.56 (.67)	1.57 (.72)	1.61 (.72)	1.55 (.76)
CP Emotion Guilt-Shame	1.50 (.67)	.89	1.32 (.51)	1.56 (.71)**	1.48 (.70)	1.51 (.65)	1.45 (.66)	1.59 (.65)	1.48 (.72)

Variables	Overall Sample Mean (SD)		Gender Mean (SD)		Role Mean (SD)		Sample Type Mean (SD)		
	Mean	Reliab-ility	Female	Male	Company	Job Appl	Executives	MBA Student	Under Grad.
CP Emotion Gratitude	2.76 (.81)	.88	2.38 (.77)	2.89 (.78)***	2.77 (.87)	2.75 (.75)	2.87 (.82)	2.84 (.73)	2.42 (.78)***
CP Emotion Pride-Achievement	3.30 (.74)	.88	2.95 (.78)	3.18 (.72)**	3.15 (.75)	3.10 (.74)	3.20 (.75)	3.15 (.71)	2.90 (.74)**
Nego Behavior Integrating	3.84 (.79)	.81	3.93 (.73)	3.81 (.81)	3.87 (.80)	3.80 (.77)	3.88 (.77)	3.88 (.81)	3.68 (.78)
Nego Behavior Dominating	2.35 (.76)	.68	2.10 (.68)	2.43 (.76)***	2.25 (.72)	2.44 (.78)**	2.38 (.78)	2.37 (.77)	2.23 (.68)
Nego Behavior Yielding	2.26 (.78)	.71	2.19 (.76)	2.29 (.78)	2.28 (.78)	2.25 (.77)	2.23 (.82)	2.35 (.69)	2.23 (.76)
Nego Behavior Compromise	3.76 (.83)	.82	3.89 (.74)	3.71 (.86)	3.84 (.83)	3.67 (.83)*	3.70 (.85)	3.92 (.79)	3.69 (.82)
CP Nego Behavior Integrating	3.37 (.90)	.88	3.50 (.85)	3.32 (.91)	3.36 (.92)	3.38 (.88)	3.38 (.91)	3.43 (.88)	3.29 (.91)
CP Nego Behavior Dominating	2.37 (.83)	.76	2.22 (.82)	2.43 (.83)*	2.35 (.88)	2.40 (.78)	2.34 (.80)	2.37 (.87)	2.45 (.85)
CP Nego Behavior Yielding	2.29 (.76)	.69	2.06 (.72)	2.37 (.76)***	2.22 (.80)	2.36 (.71)	2.25 (.74)	2.39 (.78)	2.26 (.77)
CP Nego Behavior Compromise	3.43 (.87)	.85	3.52 (.81)	3.39 (.89)	3.47 (.88)	3.39 (.86)	3.34 (.87)	3.64 (.81)	3.37 (.88)*
Dist Outcome	.49 (.08)	-	.50 (.09)	.49 (.08)	.46 (.08)	.54 (.08)***	.50 (.10)	.50 (.07)	.50 (.07)
Joint Outcome	1742.4 (91.24)	-	1729.3 (85.74)	1747 (92.77)	1742.4 (91.35)	1742.4 (91.35)	1729.3 (92.5)	1775.4 (87.93)	1733.*** (83.2)
Negotiator Satisfaction	36.87 (7.23)	.95	36.70 (7.29)	36.94 (7.21)	37.24 (7.46)	36.51 (6.99)	37.16 (6.98)	36.82 (7.77)	36.26 (7.16)
Future Interaction	7.03 (2.06)	.89	6.91 (1.97)	7.08 (2.09)	7.12 (2.09)	6.95 (2.03)	7.06 (2.08)	7.23 (2.13)	6.74 (1.92)

Standard Deviations are in parenthesis *p<.05, p<.01, p<.001, Gender (1=Female, 0=Male), Role (1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Candidate), Sample1 (1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates), Sample 2 (0=Executives, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates)

Table 9a
Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1Feedback1	1.00																									
2Feedback2	.007	1.00																								
3Nego Anger Emotions	-.30 ***	-.17 ***	1.00																							
4Nego Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.38 ***	.12 *	.39 **	1.00																						
5Nego Gratitude Emotions	.35 ***	-.12 *	-.32 **	-.20 **	1.00																					
6Nego Pride-Achieve Emotions	.41 ***	.15 ***	-.26 **	-.42 **	.40 **	1.00																				
7Counterp Anger Emotions	-.02	.02	.32 **	.25 **	-.05	-.01	1.00																			
8Counterp Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.01	.03	.29 **	.26 **	-.05	-.04	.63 **	1.00																		
9Counterp Gratitude Emotions	.09	-.02	.07	.02	.37 **	.25 **	-.07	-.01	1.00																	
10Counterp Pride-Achieve Emotions	.07	-.01	.06	.05	.25 **	.25 **	.02	-.10 *	.53 **	1.00																
11Counterp Integrating Behavior	.03	-.04	-.12 *	-.13 **	.23 **	.04	-.37 **	-.31 **	.28 **	.22 **	1.00															
12Counterp Dominating Behavior	-.004	-.03	.30 **	.24 **	-.16 **	-.05	.48 **	.30 **	-.13 *	-.02	-.36 **	1.00														

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
13 Counterp Yielding Behavior	.05	.06	.15**	.05	.14**	.05	.04	.09	.19**	.03	.22**	.03	1.00													
14 Counterp Compromising Behavior	.05	-.02	-.11*	-.17**	.20**	.09*	-.29**	-.27**	.17**	.15**	.63**	-.33**	.21**	1.00												
15 Nego Integrating Behavior	.03	-.06	-.04	-.12*	.16**	.03	-.20**	-.19**	.27**	.27**	.56**	-.17**	.04	.40**	1.00											
16 Negot Dominating Behavior	-.08	-.01	.31**	.17**	.08	.03	.32**	.32**	.004	.09	-.17**	.47**	.28**	-.10*	-.19**	1.00										
17 Nego Yielding Behavior	-.01	-.03	.18**	.11*	.12**	-.01	.25**	.22**	.19**	.17**	.12*	.32**	.10*	-.15**	.01	.06	1.00									
18 Nego Compromis Behavior	.04	-.04	-.03	-.06	.08	.01	.16**	.24**	.10	.29**	.33**	-.04	.05	.53**	.48**	-.13*	.08	1.00								
19 Distributive Outcome	-.11*	.01	.09	-.04	-.12*	.04	-.11*	.02	-.04	.07	-.10*	.10*	.17**	.07	-.005	.16**	-.23**	.02	1.00							
20 Joint Outcome	.03	-.05	.02	.08	-.10*	-.03	-.03	-.02	.07	.11*	.07	-.03	.14**	.13*	.009	-.02	.01	.10*	.00	1.00						
21 Nego Satisfaction	.07	.03	-.28**	-.22**	.28**	.22**	.38**	.29**	.23**	.15**	.61**	-.44**	.26**	.57**	.37**	-.14**	30**	.29**	.21**	.11*	1.00					
22 Post-Nego Anger Emotions	-.04	.01	.46**	.29**	-.08	-.05	.60**	.49**	.05	.06	-.30**	.42**	.005	-.27**	-.19**	.32**	.27**	-.11*	-.09	-.02	-.45**	1.00				
23 Post-Nego Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.08	.01	.25**	.38**	.002	.12*	.35**	.38**	.09	.08	-.15**	.28**	.04	-.27**	.16**	.16**	.29**	.19**	.22**	.09	.41**	.50**	1.00			
24 Post-Nego Gratitude Emotions	.05	.08	.01	-.02	.45**	.22**	-.17**	-.15**	.47**	.32**	.41**	-.24**	.35**	.34**	.30**	.08	-.004	.13**	.15**	.17**	.49**	-.25**	-.12*	1.00		
25 Post-Nego Pride-Achieve Emotions	.08	.05	.04	-.12*	.13**	.44**	-.02	.07	.29**	.31**	.24**	-.10*	.25**	.26**	.20**	.14**	-.18**	.10*	.19**	.10*	.47**	-.15**	.31**	-.46**	1.00	
26 Desire For Future Interaction	.04	.02	.19**	.11*	.30**	.15**	.35**	.16**	.27**	.12*	.51**	-.38**	.25**	.50**	.31**	.09	-.23**	.19**	.16**	.13**	.70**	-.38**	.22**	.49**	.36**	1.00

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2 tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2 tailed).
Feedback 1 represents 1=success, 0=failure. Feedback 2 represents 1 = self-caused, 0 = other-caused.

Table 9b
Pearson Correlation Coefficients
(Control Variables)

Variables	Control Variables							
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
C1Role	1.0							
C2Age	.01	1.0						
C3Gender	.00	-.32***	1.0					
C4Sample1	.00	.66***	-.21**	1.0				
C5Sample2	.00	-.27**	-.10*	-.62***	1.0			
C6Education	-.03	.29**	-.23**	.21**	.09	1.0		
C7WorkExp	-.02	.95***	-.29**	.63***	-.29**	.25**	1.0	
C8Familiarity	.00	-.41***	.09	-.63***	.64***	-.07	-.40***	1.0
1Feedback1	.03	-.05	-.15**	.04	-.02	.0	-.07	.01
2Feedback2	-.02	-.00	-.09	.002	-.004	-.04	-.01	-.09
3Nego Anger Emotions	-.11*	-.11*	-.10*	-.08	.18**	.02	-.12*	.10*
4Nego Guilt-Shame Emotions	.03	-.10*	-.03	-.13*	.06	-.09	-.09	.07
5Nego Gratitude Emotions	.06	.12*	-.17**	.10*	-.01	.08	.10*	-.003
6Nego Pride-Achieve Emotions	-.06	.15**	-.23**	.16**	-.03	.07	.16**	-.04
7Counterp Anger Emotions	.03	-.06	-.15**	-.01	.03	-.02	-.07	-.002
8Counterp Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.03	-.003	-.16**	-.07	.08	.03	-.02	.07
9Counterp Gratitude Emotions	.02	.15**	-.27**	.14**	.06	.14**	.13**	-.02
10Counterp Pride-Achieve Emotions	.04	.12*	-.14**	.11*	.02	.13*	.11*	-.02
11Counterp Integrating Behavior	-.01	.07	.09	.01	.04	-.02	.06	-.03
12Counterp Dominating Behavior	-.03	-.06	-.11*	-.04	-.003	-.06	-.05	.001
13Counterp Yielding Behavior	-.10	-.01	-.18**	-.05	.08	.03	-.02	.03
14Counterp Compromising Behavior	.05	-.09	.07	-.10*	.15**	.06	-.11*	.06
15Nego Integrating Behavior	.05	.07	.07	.06	.03	.03	.05	-.07
16Negot Dominating Behavior	-.13**	.01	-.19**	.05	.02	-.004	.01	.01
17Nego Yielding Behavior	.02	-.03	-.06	-.04	.07	-.05	-.0	.08
18Nego Compromis Behavior	.11*	-.09	.09	-.07	.11*	.02	-.10*	-.03
19Distributive Outcome	-.43***	-.002	.00	.001	-.004	.04	-.003	-.01

Continued from previous page

Variables	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
20Joint Outcome	.00	-.09	-.09	-.15**	.22**	.03	-.10*	.19**
21Nego Satisfaction	.05	.06	-.01	.04	-.004	-.004	.05	-.03
22Post-Nego Anger Emotions	-.10*	-.05	-.15**	-.03	.09	.08	-.06	.10*
23Post-Nego Guilt-Shame Emotions	.01	-.03	-.06	-.04	.06	-.01	-.02	.07
24Post-Nego Gratitude Emotions	-.07	.14**	-.18**	.09	.03	.07	.13**	-.07
25Post-Nego Pride-Achieve Emotions	-.07	.08	-.19**	.08	.01	.02	.08	-.01
26Desire For Future Interaction	.04	.05	-.04	.01	.06	.07	.03	-.02

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2 tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2 tailed).
Negotiation Role represents 1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Applicant.
Gender represents 1=Female, 0=Male.
Sample 1 represents 1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates.
Sample 2 represents 0=Executive, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates.
Familiarity represents 1=Familiar, 0=Not Familiar.
Feedback 1represents 1=success, 0=failure. Feedback 2 represents 1 = self-caused, 0 = other-caused.

Table 10
Treatment Effect
Comparison of Means of Negotiator Emotions

Treatment	*Anger Emotions* *Means (SD)*	*Guilt-Shame Emotions* *Means (SD)*	*Gratitude Emotions* *Means (SD)*	*Pride-Achievement Emotions* *Means (SD)*
Treatment 1 *Other-Caused Failure* *(n=115)*	2.46* (.08)	1.87 (.07)	1.92 (.08)	2.08 (.07)
Treatment 2 *Self-Caused Failure* *(n=98)*	1.83 (.09)	2.25* (.07)	2.06 (.08)	2.08 (.07)
Treatment 3 *Other-Caused Success* *(n=106)*	1.60 (.08)	1.41 (.07)	2.91* (.08)	2.48 (.07)
Treatment 4 *Self-Caused Success* *(n=93)*	1.56 (.09)	1.40 (.08)	2.26 (.09)	2.93* (.07)
F (3, 406)	25.70	30.35	29.27	33.05
Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000

Evaluated at covariates appeared in the model Gender=.26, Negotiation Role=.50, Sample1=.52, Sample2=.26
Numbers in parentheses indicate Standard Error
* Highest mean for the particular emotion as indicated by Bonferroni t-test analysis at 0.05 significance level

Table 11
Regression Analysis
Predicting Negotiator Behavior by Negotiator Emotions, Counterpart Emotions, and Counterpart Behavior

Predictors	Negotiator Behavior Integrating Beta coeff.	Negotiator Behavior Dominating Beta coeff.	Negotiator Behavior Yielding Beta coeff.	Negotiator Behavior Compromising Beta coeff.
Constant (unstd. Coeff.)	1.54**	1.14	1.56*	1.73**
Control Variables				
Age	.04	-.15	-.02	-.05
Gender	.07	-.06	.07	.05
Role	.03	-.09*	.03	.07
Sample 1	.04	.19*	.007	-.001
Sample2	.08	.03	.04	.16**
Education	.006	-.03	-.07	-.01
Work Experience	-.04	.13	.003	-.004
Familiarity	-.09	.07	.04	-.18***
Negotiator Emotions				
Anger Emotions	.03	.11*	.08	.01
Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.11*	.02	-.08	-.03
Gratitude Emotions	.02	-.01	.16***	.01
Pride-Achievement Emotions	-.09	.03	-.12*	-.08
Counterpart Emotions				
Counterpart Anger Emotions	-.01	.01	.03	-.03
Counterpart Guilt-Shame Emotions	.01	.13*	.10	-.07
Counterpart Gratitude Emotions	.11*	.03	.18**	-.07
Counterpart Pride-Achievement Emotions	.11*	-.12*	.11*	.28***

Counterpart Behavior				
Counterpart Behavior Integrating	.47***	-.06	-.07	.01
Counterpart Behavior Dominating	.09	.40***	.27***	.19***
Counterpart Behavior Yielding	-.10*	.22***	.06	-.14***
Counterpart Behavior Compromising	.11*	.11	-.08	.54***
R Square	.38	.37	.23	.43
F (20, 388)	11.86	11.52	5.60	14.56
Significance	.000	.000	.000	.000

***p<0.001
** p<0.01
* p<0.05
Gender (1=Female, 0=Male), Role (1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Candidate), Sample1 (1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates), Sample 2 (0=Executives, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates)

Table 12
Regression Analysis
Predicting Negotiation Outcomes by Negotiator Behavior and Counterpart Behavior

Predictors	*Distributive Outcome*	*Joint Outcome*	*Negotiator Satisfaction*
	Beta coeff.	*Beta coeff.*	*Beta coeff.*
Constant (unstd. Coeff)	.48***	1690.47***	18.34**
Control Variables			
Age	.10	-.04	-.004
Gender	.02	-.09	-.08
Role	-.40***	-.01	.10**
Sample 1	-.01	.003	.04
Sample2	-.03	.12	-.08
Education	.02	.007	-.07
Work Experience	-.12	-.007	.04
Familiarity	.02	.09	.06
Negotiator Behavior			
Negotiator Behavior Integrating	-.04	-	.06
Negotiator Behavior Dominating	.17**	-	-.02
Negotiator Behavior Yielding	-.21***	-	-.18***
Negotiator Behavior Compromising	.11	-	.07
Counterpart Behavior			
Counterpart Behavior Integrating	.06	-	.28***
Counterpart Behavior Dominating	-.13*	-	-.19***
Counterpart Behavior Yielding	.13**	-	.15***
Counterpart Behavior Compromising	-.08	-	.21***

Combined Dyad Behavior			
Integrating	-	-.05	-
Dominating	-	-.06	-
Yielding	-	.08	-
Compromising	-	.14*	-
Negotiation Economic Outcomes			
Distributive Outcome	-	-	.13***
Joint Outcome	-	-	.04
R Square	.28	.08	.54
F	9.55 (16, 390)	2.87 (12, 394)	20.31 (18, 388)
Significance	.000	.001	.000

***p<0.001
** p<0.01
* p<0.05
Gender (1=Female, 0=Male), Role (1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Candidate), Sample1 (1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates), Sample 2 (0=Executives, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates)

Table 13
Regression Analysis
Predicting Negotiator Post-Negotiation Emotions by Negotiator
Satisfaction and Economic Negotiation Outcomes

Predictors	Anger Emotions	Guilt-Shame Emotions	Gratitude Emotions	Pride-Achievement Emotions
	Beta coeff.	Beta coeff.	Beta coeff.	Beta coeff.
Constant (unstd. Coeff)	2.90***	3.98***	-1.41	1.20
Control Variables				
Age	.04	-.07	.04	-.05
Gender	-.17***	-.08	-.14	-.18***
Role	-.09	-.02	-.09	-.06
Sample 1	.08	.04	.01**	.09
Sample 2	.04	.04	.06	.001
Education	.05	-.03	.003	-.04
Work Experience	-.12	.06	.02	.13
Familiarity	.09	.07	-.07	.06
Negotiator Satisfaction				
Satisfaction	-.42***	-.39***	.46***	.44***
Negotiator Outcomes				
Distributive Outcome	-.05	-.14**	.02	.07
Joint Outcome	-.03	-.07	.11**	.04
R Square	.24	.21	.29	.27
F (11, 397)	11.45	9.87	14.71	13.22
Significance	.000	.000	.000	.000

***p<0.001
** p<0.01
* p<0.05
Gender (1=Female, 0=Male), Role (1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Candidate), Sample1
(1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates), Sample 2 (0=Executives, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates)

Table 14
Regression Analysis
Predicting Desire for Future Interaction by Negotiation Outcomes
and Post-Negotiation Emotions

Predictors	Future Interaction Beta coeff.
Constant (unstd. Coeff)	-4.85*
Control Variables	
Age	.07
Gender	.02
Role	.02
Sample 1	-.004
Sample2	.07
Education	.07
Work Experience	-.11
Familiarity	-.06
Negotiation Outcomes	
Distributive Outcome	.04
Joint Outcome	.05
Negotiator Satisfaction	.60***
Negotiator Post-Negotiation Emotions	
Post-Negotiation Anger Emotions	-.13**
Post-Negotiation Guilt-Shame Emotions	-.13**
Post-Negotiation Gratitude Emotions	.16***
Post-Negotiation Pride-Achievement Emotions	.08
R Square	.53
F (15, 391)	29.79
Significance	.000

***p<0.001, ** p<0.01, ***p<0.05
Gender (1=Female, 0=Male), Role (1=Human Resource Manager, 0=Job Candidate), Sample1
(1=Executive, 0=MBA, 0=Undergraduates), Sample 2 (0=Executives, 1=MBA, 0=Undergraduates)

Table 15
Summary of Results

A. Treatment Related Hypotheses

	Findings
H1: In response to the four experimental conditions based on valence and agency attributes, participants will experience emotions comprising four factors: namely, anger emotions, guilt-shame emotions, gratitude emotions, and pride-achievement emotions.	Supported
H2a: Participants who are given the other-caused failure feedback will experience the anger emotions. They will be angry, furious, frustrated, outraged, hostile, and upset due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.	Supported
H2b: Participants who are given the self-caused failure feedback will experience the guilt-shame emotions. They are expected to be angry, guilty, regretful, ashamed, and embarrassed, with self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.	Supported
H2c: Participants who are given the other-caused success feedback will experience the gratitude emotions. They will be happy, likeness, thankful, obliged, and appreciative, and grateful due to the counterpart to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.	Supported
H2d: Participants who are given the self-caused success feedback will experience the pride-achievement emotions. They are expected to be pleased, satisfied, proud, confident, feeling competent, and self-admiration due to self to a greater extent than participants in the other three treatments.	Supported

B. Negotiator Behavior Related Hypotheses

H3a: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by negotiator pride-achievement emotions.	Not Supported
H3b: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.	Supported
H3c: Negotiator integrating behavior is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.	Supported

H4a: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by negotiator anger emotions.	Supported
H4b: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.	Supported
H4c: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.	Supported
H4d: Negotiator dominating behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.	Supported
H5a: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by negotiator gratitude emotions.	Supported
H5b: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart positive emotions.	Supported
H5c: Negotiator yielding behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.	Supported
H6a: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by negotiator guilt-shame emotions.	Not Supported
H6b: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart negative emotions.	Not Supported
H6c: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.	Supported
H6d: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.	Supported
H6e: Negotiator compromising behavior is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.	Supported

C. Negotiation Outcomes Related Hypotheses

H7a: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by negotiator dominating behavior.	Supported
H7b: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.	Supported
H7c: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted negatively by counterpart dominating behavior.	Supported
H7d: Negotiator distributive outcome is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.	Supported
H8: Joint Outcome is predicted by the additive combination of negotiator and counterpart integrating behaviors.	Not Supported
H9a: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted negatively by negotiator yielding behavior.	Supported
H9b: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart integrating behavior.	Supported

H9c: Negotiator satisfaction is negatively predicted by counterpart dominating behavior.	Supported
H9d: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart yielding behavior.	Supported
H9e: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by counterpart compromising behavior.	Supported
H9f: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by distributive outcome.	Supported
H9g: Negotiator satisfaction is predicted by joint outcome.	Not Supported

D. Post Negotiation Related Hypotheses

H10a: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.	Supported
H10b: Negotiator post-negotiation anger emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.	Not Supported
H11a: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted negatively by negotiator satisfaction.	Supported
H11b: Negotiator post-negotiation guilt-shame emotions are predicted by distributive outcome.	Supported
H12a: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.	Supported
H12b: Negotiator post-negotiation gratitude emotions are predicted positively by joint outcome.	Supported
H13a: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by negotiator satisfaction.	Supported
H13b: Negotiator post-negotiation pride-achievement emotions are predicted by joint outcome.	Not Supported
H14a: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted by negotiator satisfaction.	Supported
H14b: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted positively by negotiator economic outcomes.	Not Supported
H14c: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted negatively by negotiator negative emotions.	Supported
H14d: Negotiator desire for future interaction with the counterpart is predicted by negotiator positive emotions	Supported

11. Appendices

Appendix A

Employment Contract Simulation

Employment Contract Negotiation
Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina khan

I.   Situation

You have applied for a job in a large multinational pharmaceutical company called Sunbeam Corporation and are very keen to work for the company. You have been trying to get a job in this company for quite some time because it has one of the best work environments in the country. The prospective job provides opportunity for an illustrious career.

After several tests and interviews, Sunbeam Corporation short-listed you for the job but your appointment depends on the successful negotiation of the terms of employment. The terms of employment are long-term so they are not negotiated very often. Also, due to a tight job market, it is very difficult to move from one company to another. Therefore, it is in your best interest to get the best possible deal now rather than to count on changes in the terms of employment in the future.

The human resource manager at the Sunbeam Corporation has invited you to negotiate the terms of employment.

II.   Directions

The purpose of this simulation is to examine the negotiation behaviors of the participants. In each negotiating pair, one person has the role of the human resource manager at the Sunbeam Corporation (Employer) and the other person has the role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan. Your role is that of the job candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan, and you will negotiate the terms of employment with the Human Resource Manager of the Sunbeam Corporation. Your performance is based on how many points you earn in the negotiation.

In this negotiation exercise, you will complete two separate negotiation tasks.

Both the tasks are based on negotiating the terms of employment, however, the issues

negotiated in each task are different. In Task 1, you will negotiate one issue, the

"Vacation Time", and in Task 2 you will negotiate four issues, Annual Salary, Health

Insurance Company, Company transport, and Start Date. You and your counterpart will

have twenty minutes to complete Task 1 and forty minutes to complete Task 2.

Task 1.   Negotiate the **Vacation Time** provided by the company.

Task 2.   Negotiate four other terms of employment: **Annual Salary,
               Health Insurance Company, Company Transport**, and **Start
               Date**

The negotiation exercise consists of the following steps:

• Complete Questionnaire Number 1	10 Minutes
• Read Situation Directions	10 Minutes
• Read Task 1	15 Minutes
• Negotiate Task 1 & Submit Agreement Form (Task 1)	20 Minutes
• Read "Feedback on Task 1	5 Minutes
• Fill Questionnaire Number 2 (Task 1)	10 Minutes
• Read Task 2	15 Minutes
• Negotiate Task 2 & Submit Agreement Form (Task 2)	40 Minutes
• Fill Questionnaire Number 3 (Task 2)	10 Minute

Employment Contract Negotiation
Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation

I.   Situation

      You are the human resource manager at the Sunbeam Corporation, a large multinational pharmaceutical company. Your company has an immediate job opening for a manager. Mr. Amir Khan's resume fulfills the requirements for the job opening. After many tests and interviews, your boss short-listed Mr. Amir Khan for the job and he is very keen that Mr. Khan should work for this company because of his excellent credentials. It is extremely important for the company to fill the job at the earliest, but Mr. Amir Khan's appointment depends on successful negotiation of the terms of employment. You have been asked by your boss to settle the terms of employment with Mr. Amir Khan.

      The terms of employment are long term so they are not negotiated very often. Also, it is very difficult to replace managers at Sunbeam Corporation because of the company's human resource policies. Therefore, it is in the company's best interest to get the best possible deal now rather than to count on changes in the terms of employment in the future.

II.   Directions

      The purpose of this simulation is to examine the behaviors of the participants during negotiation. In each negotiating pair, one person has the role of the human resource manager at the Sunbeam Corporation (Employer) and the other person has the role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan. Your role is that of the human resource manager in the Sunbeam Corporation, and you will negotiate the terms of employment with the job candidate, Mr. Amir Khan. Your performance is based on how many points you earn in the negotiation.

In this negotiation exercise, you will complete two separate negotiation tasks. Both the tasks are based on negotiating the terms of employment, however, the issues negotiated in each task are different. In Task 1, you will negotiate one issue, the "vacation time", and in Task 2 you will negotiate four issues, Annual Salary, Health Insurance Company, Company Transport, and Start Date. You and your counterpart will have twenty minutes to complete Task 1 and forty minutes to complete Task 2.

Task 1.   Negotiate the **Vacation Time** provided by the company.

Task 2.   Negotiate four other terms of employment: **Annual Salary, Health Insurance Company, Company Transport**, and **Start Date**

The negotiation exercise consists of the following steps:

- Complete Questionnaire Number 1   10 Minutes

- Read Situation Directions   10 Minutes

- Read Task 1   15 Minutes

- Negotiate Task 1 & Submit Agreement Form (Task 1)   20 Minutes

- Read "Feedback on Task 1"   5 Minutes

- Fill Questionnaire Number 2 (Task 1)   10 Minutes

- Read Task 2   15 Minutes

- Negotiate Task 2 & Submit Agreement Four (Task 2)   40 Minutes

- Fill Questionnaire Number 3 (Task 2)   10 Minutes

Employment Contract Negotiation
Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan

Task 1

In Task 1, you will negotiate the number of weeks of company paid "vacation time". You can take two, four, or six weeks of vacation time. The four or six weeks of vacation time may either be taken in summer or winter. Your preference is to take your vacation time in summer because your whole family can go to the hill resort with you in the summers but not in the winters. However, you know that the management at Sunbeam Corporation will prefer to give you the vacation time in winter because in the winter months the company experiences a significant seasonal drop in sales and requires few employees to manage it's operations.

Your preference for settlement is given by the points table below. While you must try to get the maximum points, you <u>must</u> get at least 40 points in this negotiation.

Paid Vacation Time (Number of Weeks)

Vacation Time	2 weeks in Winter or Summer	4 weeks in Winter	6 weeks in Winter	4 Weeks in Summer	6 Weeks in Summer
Points	0	15	45	75	100

(You have twenty minutes to negotiate Task 1. The points allocated to different preferences are not to be discussed with the other negotiator. The purpose of the Points Table is to provide a guideline to you for negotiations.)

Employment Contract Negotiation
Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation

Task 1

In Task 1, you will negotiate the number of weeks of company paid "vacation time" to Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan. The possible time period is two, four, or six weeks of vacation time. The four or six weeks of vacation time may be taken in summer or winter. The management at Sunbeam Corporation prefers to give employees the vacation time in winter because in the winter months the company experiences a significant seasonal drop in sales and requires fewer employees to manage it's operations. However, you know that most of the employees like to take their vacations in summers when their whole families are able go to the hill resort for a break.

Your preference for settlement is given by the points table below. While you must try to get the maximum points, you <u>must</u> get at least 40 points in the negotiation.

Paid Vacation (Number of Weeks)

Vacation Time	6 weeks in Summer	4 weeks in Summer	6 weeks in Winter	4 Weeks in Winter	2 Weeks in Winter or Summer
Points	0	15	45	75	100

(You have twenty minutes to negotiate Task 1. The points allocated to different preferences are not to be discussed with the other negotiator. The purpose of the Points Table is to provide a guideline to you for negotiation.)

Employment Contract Negotiation
Agreement Form

Task 1

Group No. _____

Please Circle the Settlement Reached Between The Two Negotiators:

Vacation Time	6 Weeks in Summer	4 Weeks in Summer	6 weeks in Winters	4 weeks in Winters	2 weeks in winter or Summer

Sunbeam Corporation
Negotiator's Role

Amir Khan or Amina Khan
Negotiator's Role

_____
Name

_____
Name

_____
Roll No.

_____
Roll No.

_____
Signature

_____
Signature

Performance Feedback of Task 1

**Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan
(Scenario-I: Failure/Other Based)**

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation in a year and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that you should have settled on "6 Weeks in Summer" based on the industry norms and even Sunbeam Corporation's company policies. The final settlement between you and the human resource manager of Sunbeam Corporation was highly detrimental to your interests. You failed in the negotiation because of the negative attitude and the undesirable tactics employed by your counterpart. Your counterpart is solely responsible for your failure in this negotiation.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan
(Scenario-II: Failure/Self Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation in a year and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that you should have settled on "6 Weeks in Summer" based on the industry norms and Sunbeam Corporation's company policies. The final settlement between you and the human resource manager of the Sunbeam Corporation was highly detrimental to your interests. Your unfavorable settlement in this negotiation is due to your lack of ability and effort, and you are solely to blame for your failure in this negotiation.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan
(Scenario-III: Success/Other Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation time and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that the final settlement between you and the human resource manager of Sunbeam Corporation was in your favor. Your settlement is better than the industry norms and even Sunbeam Corporation's own company policies. You owe this favorable settlement to the personal goodwill of the human resource manager who acted in your favor in good faith during the negotiation process.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan
(Scenario-IV: Success/Self Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation time and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that the final settlement between you and the human resource manager of Sunbeam Corporation was in your favor. Your settlement is better than the industry norms and even Sunbeam Corporation's own company policies. Your favorable settlement is due to your own ability to negotiate and the effort you put into the negotiation process, and you are solely responsible for your success in this negotiation.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation (Scenario-I: Failure/Other Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation time and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that you should have settled on "2 Weeks in Winter or Summer" based on the industry norms and Sunbeam Corporation's company policies. The final settlement between you and Mr. Amir Khan was highly detrimental to your interests. Your unfavorable settlement in this negotiation was due to the negative attitude and the undesirable tactics employed by your counterpart. Your counterpart is solely responsible for your failure in the negotiation.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation (Scenario-II: Failure/Self Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months of vacation time and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that you should have settled on "2 Weeks in Winter or Summer" in the negotiation based on the industry norms and Sunbeam Corporation's company policies. The final settlement between you and Mr. Amir Khan was highly detrimental to your interests. Your unfavorable settlement in this negotiation is due to your lack of ability and effort, and you are solely to blame for your failure in this negotiation.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation (Scenario-III: Success/Other Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that the final settlement between you and Mr. Amir Khan was in your favor. Your settlement is better than the industry norms and Sunbeam Corporation's own company policies. You owe this favorable settlement to the personal goodwill of Mr. Amir Khan who acted in your favor in good faith during the negotiation process.

Performance Feedback of Task 1

Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation (Scenario-IV: Success/Self Based)

An analysis of the "vacation time" issue (the number of months and the time of the year allowed by the company, Sunbeam Corporation) reveals that the final settlement between you and Mr. Amir Khan was in your favor. Your settlement is better than the industry norms and Sunbeam Corporation's own company policies. You owe this favorable settlement to your personal ability and effort to negotiate and you are solely responsible for your success in this negotiation.

Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan

Task 2

In Task 2, you will negotiate four issues related to the terms of employment: namely, Annual Salary, Health Insurance Company, Company Transport, and Start Date.

You can expect the annual salary to range from Rs. 200,000 to Rs. 550,000, based on the recent figures from the placement office in your university. This is the most important issue for you because it deals with the pay package directly. The second issue is the selection of the insurance company. The health insurance companies in Pakistan have different rules for the reimbursement of the health expense claims. Companies like Adamjee insurance company are well known for their speed and reliability, while some companies are notorious for delaying reimbursements for long periods of time. All five companies included in this negotiation are quite reliable but there are slight differences in how quickly they will process the claim. These differences are depicted by the point structure shown in the table. The third issue, company transport, is more important for you than the health insurance issue because you have no transport and you live ten kilometers from the company's office. Most of your colleagues who graduated with you have received cars from their employers and you have found that it is a generally accepted practice in the industry. The fourth and final issue, Start date, is the date you start working. You definitely prefer an earlier date to start your job because you are in dire need of money to pay of pending bills. Amongst the five choices, January 15th is the best choice and March 15th is the worst choice for you.

Your performance is based on how many points you earn in the negotiation. You must try to maximize the number of points. You have forty minutes to finish the negotiation. By the end of the forty minutes you must have yours and the other party's signature on the agreement form.

Role of the Job Candidate, Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan

Sr. No.	Issues	Preferences	Points Candidate
1.	**Annual Salary**		
		550000	500
		450000	450
		400000	300
		300000	150
		200000	0
2.	**Health Insurance Company**		
		Adamjee	175
		IGI	125
		EFU	100
		New Jubilee	50
		Crescent	0
3.	**Company Transport**		
		Medium Car	425
		Small Car	325
		Shared Company-Owned Car	225
		Transport Allowance	125
		No Provision	0
4.	**Start Date**		
		Jan 15	225
		Feb 1	200
		Feb 15	150
		Mar 1	75
		Mar 15	0

Role for the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation

Task 2

In Task 2, you will negotiate four issues related to the terms of employment: namely, Annual Salary, Health Insurance Company, Company Transport, and Start Date.

You can expect the annual salary to range from Rs. 200,000 to Rs. 550,000, based on the recent figures from the human resource office. This is the most important issue for you because it deals with the pay package directly. The second issue is the selection of the insurance company. The health insurance companies in Pakistan give different discounts to their clients. Companies like Crescent insurance give high discounts to their clients while some companies like Adamjee insurance give low discounts. The differences in discount rates accrue to significant amounts by the end of the year. These differences amongst the insurance companies are reflected by the point structure shown in the adjoining table. The third issue, company transport, is less important for you than the health insurance issue because the cost of giving transport to the employees is not as high as the differences in the insurance discounts. It is a norm to give cars to the employees and while it is important to reduce this cost, you are not as concerned about it as the health insurance issue. The fourth and final issue, Start date, is the date Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan will start working in the company. You definitely prefer an earlier date for starting the job because you know that the department where Mr. Amir Khan or Ms. Amina Khan may work is short of people and is in dire need of more staff. Amongst the five choices, January 15th is the best choice and March 15th is the worst choice for you.

You must try to maximize the number of points. The performance is based on how many points you earn in the negotiation. You have forty minutes to finish the negotiation. By the end of the forty minutes you must have yours and the other party's signature on the agreement form.

Role of the Employer, Sunbeam Corporation

Sr. No.	Issues	Preferences	Points Sunbeam
1.	**Annual Salary**		
		550000	0
		450000	150
		400000	300
		300000	450
		200000	500
2.	**Health Insurance Company**		
		Adamjee	0
		IGI	125
		EFU	225
		New Jubilee	325
		Crescent	425
3.	**Company Transport**		
		Medium Car	0
		Small Car	50
		Shared Company-Owned Car	100
		Transport Allowance	125
		No Provision	175
4.	**Start Date**		
		Jan 15	225
		Feb 1	200
		Feb 15	150
		Mar 1	75
		Mar 15	0

Employment Contract Negotiation Agreement Form

Task 2

Group No. _____

Please Circle the Settlement Reached Between The Two Negotiators

Annual Salary	550000	450000	400000	300000	200000
Insurance Coverage	Adamjee	IGI	EFU	New Jubilee	Crescent
Company Transport	Medium Car	Small car	Shared company-owned car	Transport Subsidy	No provision
Start Date	Jan 15	Feb 1	Feb 15	Mar 1	Mar 15

Sunbeam Corporation
Negotiator's Role

Amir Khan or Amina Khan
Negotiator's Role

_____
Name

_____
Name

_____
Roll No.

_____
Roll. No.

_____
Signature

_____
Signature

Appendix B

Questionnaire Number 1

Questionnaire Number 1

1.   a)   Group No. _____

      b)   Name _____

      c)   Roll Number _____

      d)   Age _____

      e)   Gender _____

      f)   Negotiation Role _____

      g)   Education Level _____

      h)   Work Experience _____ years, months

2.   Please answer this question if you know your counterpart. If you do not know your counterpart, please go to the next question.

     This scale measures how much you like your counterpart. Using the scale below where 1 denotes strongly disagree and 5 denotes strongly agree, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items.

A. I like my counterpart very much.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

B. My counterpart is friendly with me.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

C. My counterpart is easy to get along with.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

D. My counterpart goes out of his/her way to help me.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

E. My counterpart is very polite.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

F. My counterpart is very trustworthy.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Questionnaire Number 2

Questionnaire Number 2
Task 1

1.   a)   Group No. _____

       b)   Name _____

       c)   Roll Number _____

2.   Please circle the Settlement reached between the two negotiators for Task 1

Preferences	6 Weeks in Summer	4 Weeks in Summer	6 weeks in Winters	4 weeks in Winters	2 weeks in Winter or Summer

3.   The items below measure how you evaluate the situation after getting the feedback of Task 1. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate the level of your evaluation of the situation.

	Low				High
I have been cheated by my counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart is to blame for my bad outcome	1	2	3	4	5
I am to blame for my bad outcome	1	2	3	4	5
I was unable to do better because of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Things have turned out great because I did a good job	1	2	3	4	5
I was successful because of my efforts	1	2	3	4	5
Things have gone very well for me because my counterpart let me win	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart helped me in achieving my objective	1	2	3	4	5

4. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate the level of your feelings towards your counterpart.

	L o w				H i g h
Angry with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Furious with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Frustrated with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Outraged with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile with counterpt	1	2	3	4	5
Angry with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling guilty of my actions	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Embarrassed of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Regretful of my acts	1	2	3	4	5
Happy due to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Likeness for counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Thankful to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Obliged to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Appreciative of counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling self-competent	1	2	3	4	5
Pleased with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Proud of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Confident of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Upset with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling sorry for myself	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
Grateful to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Admiration for myself	1	2	3	4	5

5. This scale measures your orientation during the next negotiation, Task 2. On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 denotes strongly disagree and 5 denotes strongly agree, please indicate your level of agreement with the following items.

A. I am supposed to achieve maximum points for both myself and my counterpart.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

B. I will try to achieve maximum points for both myself and the counterpart.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

C. I am supposed to achieve maximum points for myself regardless of the points achieved by my counterpart

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

D. I will particularly try to achieve maximum points for myself.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

E. I will particularly try to win from my counterpart.

Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Questionnaire Number 3

Questionnaire Number 3
Task 2

1. a) Group No. _____

    b) Name _____

    c) Roll Number _____

(All questions in this questionnaire are based on Task 2 only)

2. Please circle the choice that reflects the Settlement reached in Task 2 for the two negotiators.

Settlement Table

Annual Salary	550000	450000	400000	300000	200000
Insurance Coverage	Adamjee	IGI	EFU	New Jubilee	Crescent
Company Transport	Medium car	Small car	Shared company-owned car	Transport Subsidy	No provision
Start Date	Jan 15	Feb 1	Feb 15	Mar 1	Mar 15

3. On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate the level of your feelings towards the other negotiator.

<div align="center">L o w   H i g h</div>

Angry with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Furious with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Frustrated with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Outraged with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile with counterpt	1	2	3	4	5
Angry with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling guilty of my actions	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Embarrassed of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Regretful of my acts	1	2	3	4	5
Happy due to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Likeness for counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Thankful to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Obliged to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Appreciative of counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling self-competent	1	2	3	4	5
Pleased with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4	5
Proud of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Confident of myself	1	2	3	4	5
Upset with counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling sorry for myself	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
Grateful to counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Admiration for myself	1	2	3	4	5

4. This question refers to your behavior during negotiation of Task 2. On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate the level of the following behaviors employed by you during the negotiation process.

	Low				High
Discussed the issues openly with my counterpart to work out a mutually acceptable decision	1	2	3	4	5
Cooperated with my counterpart to better understand each other's views and positions	1	2	3	4	5
Tried to settle the issues based on the interests of both the parties	1	2	3	4	5
Exchanged accurate information with my counterpart to solve the problem together	1	2	3	4	5
Put pressure on my counterpart to accept my demands	1	2	3	4	5
Showed aggression to my counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Gave little or no concession to my counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
Tried to persuade my counterpart to give in to my demands without giving much in return	1	2	3	4	5
Gave up my interests to satisfy the wishes of my counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
I let my counterpart win at my expense	1	2	3	4	5
I accommodated the wishes of my counterpart	1	2	3	4	5
I negotiated to find a compromise agreeable to both the parties	1	2	3	4	5
I tried to find a middle ground for resolving the conflict	1	2	3	4	5
I reduced our differences by gaining some and losing some	1	2	3	4	5

5. This question refers to your counterpart's emotions. On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate your *counterpart's* level of feelings shown towards you during Task 2.

Counterpart's Emotions

	Low				High
Angry with me	1	2	3	4	5
Furious with me	1	2	3	4	5
Frustrated with me	1	2	3	4	5
Outraged with me	1	2	3	4	5
Hostile with me	1	2	3	4	5
Angry with him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling guilty of his/her actions	1	2	3	4	5
Ashamed of him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Embarrassed of him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Regretful of his/her acts	1	2	3	4	5
Happy due to me	1	2	3	4	5
Likeness for me	1	2	3	4	5
Thankful to me	1	2	3	4	5
Obliged to me	1	2	3	4	5
Appreciative of me	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling self-competent	1	2	3	4	5
Pleased with him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Satisfied with him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Proud of him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Confident of him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Upset with me	1	2	3	4	5
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5
Feeling sorry for him/herself	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5
Grateful to me	1	2	3	4	5
Admiration for him/herself	1	2	3	4	5

6. This question refers to your counterpart's behavior during negotiation of Task 2. On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is low and 5 is high, please indicate your *counterpart's* level of following behaviors employed by your counterpart during Task 2.

Counterpart's
Behavior

	Low				High
My counterpart discussed the issues openly with me to work out a mutually acceptable	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart cooperated with me to better understand my views and positions	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart tried to settle the issues based on the interests of both the parties	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart exchanged accurate information with me to solve the problem jointly	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart put pressure on me to accept his/her demands	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart showed aggression to me	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart gave little or no concession to me	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart tried to persuade me to give in to his/her demands without giving much to me in return	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart gave up his/her interests to satisfy my wishes	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart let me win at his/her expense	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart accommodated my wishes	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart negotiated to find a compromise agreeable to both the parties	1	2	3	4	5

My counterpart tried to find a middle ground for resolving the conflict	1	2	3	4	5
My counterpart reduced our differences by gaining some and losing some	1	2	3	4	5

7. On a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is low and 5 is high, how much would you like to negotiate with the other negotiator in the future.

	Low				High
Prefer to negotiate in the future with this negotiator	1	2	3	4	5
Will be pleased to negotiate with the same negotiator again	1	2	3	4	5

8. This question measures your level of satisfaction with the negotiation. Please indicate your level of agreement on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates strongly disagree and 5 indicates strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In general, I am quite satisfied with my relationship with my counterpart.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, my counterpart is a good person to negotiate with.	1	2	3	4	5
All in all, my counterpart has been very fair with me.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, my counterpart's behavior and attitude benefited my goals.	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with the outcome of the negotiation.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, the outcome was fair to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am pleased with what I received.	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with the negotiation process.	1	2	3	4	5

The process was fair to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am pleased with the negotiation process.	1	2	3	4	5

9. The next five questions assess the level of realism of this exercise in terms of the situation and your involvement in the negotiation process.

A. Do you think the situation described in this exercise is likely to occur in real life?

1	2	3	4	5
Very unlikely				Very likely

B. How realistic do you think is the situation described in this exercise?

1	2	3	4	5
Very unrealistic				Very realistic

C. Is your behavior in this negotiation representative of how you would negotiate in such a situation in real life

1	2	3	4	5
Very unrepresentative				Very representative

D. Did you get genuinely involved in the negotiation process.

1	2	3	4	5
Not Very Genuine				Very Genuine

E. Was your opponent genuinely involved in the negotiation process.

1	2	3	4	5
Not Very Genuine				Very Genuine

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Appendix E

Ethics Certificate