



AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF MIDDLE EAST CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy by

Fahad Al-Sabah

**College of Business, Arts and Social Sciences
Brunel Business School
Brunel University**

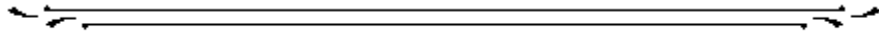
2015

بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا اسْتَعِينُوا بِالصَّبْرِ وَالصَّلَاةِ إِنَّ اللَّهَ مَعَ الصَّابِرِينَ ۝

O you who believe! Seek assistance through patience and prayer; surely Allah is with the patient.

[*Surah Al-Baqarah: Ayah 153*]



PhD Abstract

This study investigates preferred conflict management styles in order to explore how conflict is dealt with in a particular cultural/geographical context (i.e. the Middle East), as culture is one of the factors, which affects management style, whether in a conflict situation or any other situations. Upon researching the literature in the area of conflict management styles in the Middle East it has been found that there is no published research for the region and specifically on the cultural issues. Therefore, this research study has taken a step forward in exploring how and in what ways, the conflict management styles of those individuals (e.g. employees) in Kuwait (a culture/context within the Middle East) may or may not be similar or different to those described in studies carried out in other cultures/contexts. The research explores the different conflict management styles used in Kuwait, which is approached by simulating the application of different conflict situations in Kuwaiti business context and explores the negotiation and application of conflict management styles applied. The use of the Thomas Kilmann Conflict mode Instrument (TKI) to gather research data helped in understanding the different conflict management styles used. The TKI is an extensively validated instrument used in the field to highlight the different ways of how people handle disputes and its effects on the dynamics of individuals and teams. This study attempts to make its contribution to knowledge in the field of conflict management styles in that (a) it assesses Kuwaiti conflict management styles, and (b) It studies the effects of the process of the different conflict management styles and its outcomes in resolving these conflicts in the Kuwaiti Business culture.

Acknowledgement

I would like to start off by thanking ALLAH for all the blessings. He has given me and for giving me the strength to walk through this long journey and complete the research even when all odds were against me.

The research would not have been completed were it not for the guidance of my two supervisors, *Dr. Tillal Eldabi*, *Prof Lamia Tahoo* and *Dr Lynne Baldwin*. I benefited a lot from their guidance and continued support right through to the end. It is also important to extend my appreciation to Brunel University and Ahlia University in Bahrain for giving me an opportunity to enhance my leadership knowledge. I cannot mention all the people by name, but certainly I would like to thank *Dr. Tillal Eldabi* for coordinating this PhD program very well.

I also extend my gratitude to all the leaders who participated in this study and enriched the quality of the research, without their evidence it would not have been possible to appreciate the leadership style in these organisations. Last but not least the gratitude and appreciation for the support and help of my wife, children and family during this period cannot be measure

Table of Contents

PHD ABSTRACT	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	II
TABLE OF CONTENTS	III
LIST OF TABLES	VI
LIST OF FIGURES	VII
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO CONFLICT MANAGEMENT; THE RESEARCH AREA	1
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH AREA	1
1.2 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT ISSUES.....	3
1.3 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES AND NEGOTIATION.....	4
1.4 RESEARCH PROBLEMS AND GAPS	6
1.5 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVE	7
1.6 THESIS OUTLINE	7
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	9
2.2 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES	11
<i>2.2.1 Understanding the Negotiator: Behaviours, difference in personalities, interpersonal orientation and background.</i>	11
<i>2.2.2 Negotiation Behaviour – Key Factors Influencing the Negotiation Behaviour (Strategies)</i>	12
<i>2.2.3 Individual Conflict</i>	21
<i>2.2.4 Organisational Conflict</i>	23
<i>2.2.5 Conflict Management Strategies/Behaviour at the Level of the Culture/Country</i>	25
2.3 THEORIES AND MODELS OF CULTURE AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL.....	26
<i>2.3.1 Theoretical Model of Culture – Hall and Hall (1990)</i>	28
<i>2.3.2 Theoretical Model of Culture – Trompenaars (1993)</i>	29
<i>2.3.3 Theoretical Model of Culture – Schwartz (1994)</i>	30
<i>2.3.4 Theoretical Model of Culture – House et al., (2004)</i>	32
<i>2.3.5 Theoretical Model of Culture – Hofstede (2004)</i>	33
2.4 INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND ITS IMPACTS ON CONFLICT/NEGOTIATING	36
2.5 INTERCULTURAL CLASHES AND CULTURE SPECIFIC NEGOTIATION STYLES.....	40
2.6 SUMMARY	41
CHAPTER THREE: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	43
3.1 OVERVIEW OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT AND ITS INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS	43
3.2 RESEARCH CONTEXT.....	44
3.3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	45
3.5 SUMMARY	49
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	50
4.1 INTRODUCTION TO QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE APPROACHES	50

4.1.1 <i>The Key Characteristics of the Quantitative Research</i>	51
4.1.2 <i>The Key Characteristics of the Qualitative Research</i>	53
4.1.3 <i>Similarities between the Quantitative and the Qualitative Approaches</i> ...	54
4.1.4 <i>The Combined Approach</i>	54
4.1.5 <i>Selecting between Quantitative and Qualitative Approach</i>	56
4.2 JUSTIFYING THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHOD.....	56
4.3 SAMPLE AND PROCEDURE.....	56
4.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS:.....	58
4.4 THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT (TKI).....	59
4.5 NEGOTIATION EXERCISES.....	60
4.7 THE INTERNATIONAL PERSONALITY INVENTORY (IPI).....	64
4.8 DEPENDENT VARIABLES.....	65
4.10 SUMMARY.....	66
CHAPTER FIVE: EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	67
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	67
5.2 RELIABILITY.....	74
5.2.1 <i>Statistical Analysis</i>	74
5.3 THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON NEGOTIATION.....	78
5.4 THE EFFECT OF CONFLICTING MODES ON RESEARCH ITEMS.....	82
5.5 MEASURING THE OVERALL SATISFACTION OF THE NEGOTIATION PROCESS.....	85
5.6 THE CORRELATION STRUCTURE.....	86
5.7 MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TEST.....	87
5.8 ASSOCIATION BETWEEN GENDER AND CONFLICTING MODE.....	89
5.9 THE USED CAR NEGOTIATION SIMULATION.....	92
5.9.2 <i>Testing For Significant Differences between Buyers' and Sellers' Perceptions to Research Items</i>	96
5.9.3 <i>Testing for Significant Differences between Gender</i>	97
5.9.4 <i>Testing for Significant Differences between Conflicting Mode (Sellers)</i>	101
5.9.5 <i>Analysis of Means of Sellers' Perceptions</i>	102
5.10 SUMMARY.....	105
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION.....	112
INTRODUCTION.....	112
6.1 THE NEW HOUSE NEGOTIATION SIMULATION.....	112
6.2 THE USED CAR NEGOTIATION SIMULATION.....	116
6.2.1 <i>Background</i>	116
6.2.2 <i>The Effect of the Different Conflicting Modes on Goal Choices</i>	117
6.2.3 <i>Testing for Significant Differences between Kilmann's Conflicting Mode (Sellers)</i>	118
6.3 SUMMARY.....	119
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTION, LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH.....	121
7.1 RESEARCH OVERVIEW.....	121
7.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION.....	122
7.3 PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION.....	123
7.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH.....	124
7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	124
REFERENCES.....	126

APPENDIX A: THOMAS-KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT QUESTIONNAIRE.....	138
APPENDIX B: SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE THOMAS – KILMANN CONFLICT MODE INSTRUMENT	141

List of Tables

TABLE 2.1: THEORETICAL MODEL OF CULTURE (<i>SOURCE: TROMPENAARS, 1993</i>)	30
TABLE 5.1: REPRESENTATION OF BEHAVIOURAL MODE ACCORDING TO TKI.....	71
TABLE 5.2: NEW HOUSE NEGOTIATION.....	75
TABLE 5.3: DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF NEGOTIATION ITEMS BY GENDER.....	80
TABLE 5.4: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE NEGOTIATION ITEMS BY CHARACTERISTICS.....	84
TABLE 5.5: OVERALL SATISFACTION	85
TABLE 5.6: THE RESULTS ILLUSTRATED, FOR ALL PARTIES.....	86
TABLE 5.7: CORRELATION OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENTS	86
TABLE 5.8: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS.....	89
TABLE 5.9: NEGOTIATION CROSS TABULATION	91
TABLE 5.10: CHI-SQUARE TESTS	92
TABLE 5.11: DISTRIBUTION OF GENDER IN THE SAMPLE.....	92
TABLE 5.12: GENDER BY NOGOTIATION	93
TABLE 5.13: CHI-SQUARE TEST	94
TABLE 5.14: GOALS OF NEGOTIATION KILMANN FILTER CROSS TABULATION: BUYERS	94
TABLE 5.15: CHI-SQUARE TEST - BUYERS	95
TABLE 5.16: GOALS OF NEGOTIATION KILMANN FILTER CROSS TABULATION: SELLERS	95
TABLE 5.17: CHI-SQUARE TEST – SELLERS.....	96
TABLE 5.18: SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BUYERS AND SELLERS.....	96
TABLE 5.19: GROUP STATISTICS	97
TABLE 5.20: TESTING FOR SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KILMANN’S CONFLICTING MODE – BUYERS	98
TABLE 5.21: ANALYSIS OF MEANS OF BUYERS’ PERCEPTIONS	99
TABLE 5.22: DUNCAN’S MULTIPLE COMPARISON TEST	101
TABLE 5.23: REVEALING AGENT GOALS.....	102
TABLE 5.24: ANALYSIS OF SELLERS.....	102
TABLE 5.25: GOALS OF NEGOTIATION GENDER CROSS TABULATION: BUYERS	103
TABLE 5.26: CHI-SQUARE TEST	104
TABLE 5.27: GOALS OF NEGOTIATION GENDER CROSS TABULATION: SELLERS	104

List of Figures

FIGURE 2.1: MODES OF CONFLICT BEHAVIOUR IN TERMS OF AGREEABLENESS AND ACTIVENESS.....	17
FIGURE 2.2: CONFLICT MODE MODEL	19
FIGURE 2.3: EMPIRICAL MODEL	20
FIGURE 2.4: INDIVIDUAL REACTION TO CONFLICT	22
FIGURE 2.4: INDIVIDUAL CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATION	24
FIGURE 2.5: HIGH TO LOW CONTEXT RANKING (SOURCE: HALL AND HALL, 1990)	28
FIGURE 4.1: FLOW CHART FOR NEGOTIATION PROCESS	59
FIGURE 5.1: RESEARCH MODEL.....	71
FIGURE 5.2: GRAPH OF NEGOTIATION BETWEEN BUYER AND SELLER.....	76
FIGURE 5.3: NEGOTIATION BY GENDER.....	81
FIGURE 5.4: OVERALL SATISFACTION.....	85
FIGURE 5.5: CHART FOR BUYERS.....	100
FIGURE 5.6: CHART OF GOALS OF AGENT.....	103

Chapter One: Introduction to Conflict Management; the Research Area

1.1 Background of the Research Area

Due to the ever increasing globalised and competitive business environment, leaders and decision makers across the business, government and the professional sectors have to focus on working in collaboration (Santos, 2002). On the other hand, globalisation is pushing for an increasing economic integration of the world (Robertson, 2012). For some, globalisation is merely considered as the global dissemination of western modernism i.e. westernisation (Yang, 2003). Yet for many, it prompts societies to interact with individuals from other cultures either in person or electronically, especially at the workplace. The latter argument is supported by Granell (2000) who states that globalisation is not about disregarding transformations or permitting the stronger to impose sanctions on the weaker, rather to integrate the differences, bringing together the strengths and enabling collaborative efforts for a win-win situation. One potential consequences of interpersonal conflict that has been firmly established is an increase in the amount of work behaviour i.e. behaviour that harms the cooperation of organisational members (Herscovis *et al.*, 2007). A 'global' workplace comprises of individuals from different parts of the world and without doubt, each has a cultural background of their own. Culture impacts relationships, business operations, and even the productivity at work (Moran *et al.*, 2011). This thesis research sets out to provide a rationale for individuals working at a multi-cultural workplace to understand and respect their counterparts and to develop the skills required to work most effectively in today's complex globalised world. Today's world has become far more interrelated as a result of improvements in transportation and communication and lower production costs abroad, which have made global markets more accessible. Even United States based firms, with their immediate access to extensive domestic markets, have steadily increased the proportion of their foreign operations.

The increase of the trade bulks between the continents gives rise to the use of different negotiation and conflict management styles that have to be met by all trading partners involved both directly or indirectly in trade process. Thus, globalisation and cross-cultural business have come to dominate the world (Bird and Stevens, 2003). The dependence on foreign countries has increased drastically, so growth and success in today's global economy depend on the skill to work internationally. This gives birth to a multi-cultural environment at the workplace. Culture is often considered as the driving force behind the basic human behaviour everywhere. Unfortunately, culturally diverse environment is always prone to conflicts (Garcia-Prieto *et al.*, 2003). It has long been concluded that its conflict

evolution into today's modern world is based on the different cultural derivatives that are not interlinked to the economies of the world but to the partitions of traditions and culture (Huntington 1993). Conflict is a friction or opposition resulting from actual or perceived differences or incompatibilities. A conflict is solved by strengthening the representation of relevant task features (Egner and Hirsch, 2005). Conflict criteria are not covered with the words of "War" or "violence". However, conflict exists at all levels of society and in all sorts of situations. We have to face a diversity of conflicts every day in our lives. At a multi-national workplace, people interact with other individuals who have an entirely different cultural background and may encounter situations, which are quite unfamiliar. This leads to a difference in opinion among the employees in a workplace environment.

Conflict is considered as a core phenomenon of life, in organisations just as in all other places, as individuals contest for securing a job, resources, authority, acknowledgement, and safety (Bagshaw, 1998). According to the latter research study, coping with it is at times is challenging as it stimulates such nascent reactions. Individuals feel vulnerable (precisely or erroneously), and this generates an old response of stress – fight or flight (*ibid*). Workplace conflicts occur when individual's approaches differ or two or more people always disagree when it comes to making decisions. Often it is called 'a personality clash' (Bodtker and Katz, 2001). At times, conflict of thoughts on any facet of an organisation can often prove to be useful, only if the entities involved are eager to contemplate and come up with solutions collaboratively. Nevertheless, at times, the conciliation between the entities can be much healthier for organisations as compared to the original notions. Conflicts as mentioned in the latter often engender improved work practices and pledges progressive transformations that would otherwise never have ensued. Several behavioural tendencies, including the ability for hostility, are communal to almost all individuals. This certainly does not signify that they are inherently established individuals have the ability to be hostile as well as selfless the conduct revealed relies on a mass of developmental, experimental, societal and contingent factors (Hinde,1997).

Researchers such as Ensley *et al.*, (2002) report that comprehending conflict can be a facilitator for creativeness in addition to hostility and antipathy, the open sharing of notions and viewpoints, and the objective valuation of options. Rigorous contradictions in viewpoints develop conflicts out of which innovative thoughts and resolutions appear. Simultaneously, such dealings may also develop irritation and hostility, which can bring about of alienation and separation in team members. Consequently, operational and efficient groups hold onto the advantages of conflict, whilst also escaping its related overheads (Ensley *et al.*, 2002). However, in order to do this entails inspiring the intellectual aspect of conflict, at the same time, discouraging the sentimental aspect. It is very obvious that as people from different cultural backgrounds work together, conflict is often expected to occur and it is from this fact that the need for efficient conflict management styles and strategies arise.

1.2 Conflict Management Issues

Conflict management has become an important discipline of organisational behaviour quite rapidly (Kozan, 1997; Sørderberg and Holden, 2002). Some of most researched leadership styles are the ruling or democratic styles (Eagly and Carli, 2007), experimental studies which have been led early by leadership style (Lewin and Lippitt, 1938) and followed by other research (Likert, 1961; Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Blake and Mouton, 1969). These styles were observed in the context of third party intervention in conflict management (Elangovan, 1995; Karambayya and Brett, 1989; Karambayya *et al.*, 1992) Autocratic management style in an organisation cultivates that the hierarchy dominates the pyramid of authority and command to its employees (Mintzberg, 1989). In the conflict management literature hierarchical status conveys authority to resolve conflict. This trend highlights the more conflicts as an organisational demonstration, which creates problems for its management. Literature review has revealed the lack of intensive research on conflict management across cultures but the recent awareness on the importance of cross cultural management especially with globalization (Adler and Graham, 1989; Sørderberg and Holden, 2002; Thomas, and Peterson, 2014) Thus concluding that cross-cultural research is weak in comparison to other fields of conflict management (Kiggundu *et al.*, 1983; Kozan, 1997). Cultural diversity and globalisation in the work environment in today's world is an emerging norm and hence the importance of conflict management across the cultures.

This need is confirmed by a study conducted by (Thomas and Schmidt, 1976; Steenkamp, 2001; Leung *et al.*, 2005), in which they surveyed studies prove that at least 20% of people's time is spent on managing all aspects of a conflict in an organisation. Moreover, according to Hoecklin (1995), in an organisational environment when cultural differences are not appropriately handled, may lead to management becoming unsatisfied, costly misinterpretations, and at times even facing business disasters. It can be argued that with today's globalisation of business trades and the diverse skill-sets and working teams that the amount of time spent by managers in resolving conflicts has increased throughout the years.

Other opinions argue that the individuals within the organisation are usually focused on strategies for conflict management and its allocated resources at 'the stage' of the conflict management process, resulting in less control over the overall conflict management style (Jehn and Chatman, 2000). conflict management should be phased without allowing sub-conflicts grow in isolation (Euwema *et al.*, 2003; Jehn and Chatman, 2000; Speakman, 2009; Speakman and Ryals, 2010). A pre-determined course of action should be weighed and worked upon for each conflict (Jehn, 1997; Speakman and Ryals, 2010).

1.3 Conflict Management Styles and Negotiation

In recent years, management experts have started considering that human resource as the foremost strength of any organisation and a competitive advantage and that vigorous relations amongst valued workforce based on support and understanding are one of the prime factors for the success of organisations (Shargh *et al.*, 2013). According to Brewer *et al.*, (2002) who support the latter argument and state that managing a conflict in an organisational set-up is a key skill required if individuals are to work in collaboration and efficiently at any level within an organisation. Conversely, as a result of the ever increasing organisational intricacy and variances in thoughts and viewpoints, approaches and beliefs of individuals, conflict is considered an expected part of organisational life (Kiakajoori and Aghajani, 2004; Shargh *et al.*, 2013). The key point here is that the certainty of conflict is not the motive for its being opposing, instead of if conflict is well handled, it can turn out to be more favourable for the organisation. As a result, according to several research scholars such as Shargh *et al.*, (2013); Ma (2007); Brewer *et al.*, (2002) undoubtedly the capacity to administer and control the phenomenon of conflict in organisations is one of the most imperative management skills required by managers to succeed.

On the other hand, negotiation is a process that recurrently has invoked procedure for determining conflicts between different individuals or the agents who lead a group of individuals (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Kirkbride *et al.*, 1991; Eagly and Carli, 2007). To a certain degree, negotiation activities are recognised to foresee the occurrences of conflict management variations (Kirkbride *et al.*, 1991). Whereas, the approach of the different conflict management styles are a process to decode in diverse conducts for the negotiation process which additionally engenders dissimilar consequences. Nevertheless, unexpectedly limited numbers of research studies have endeavoured to report the affiliation (Volkema and Bergmann, 1995; Ma, 2007), as a result leading towards enquiring the following query: *Can the behaviour during the negotiation process predict the outcome of the conflict depending on the conflict management style and resolution chosen?* Ma (2007) recommended that a contingency method to manage the different types of conflicts i.e. the suitability of employing a specific style clearly hinges at the conflict circumstances, but the method fails to recognise that person can at times not be well-informed each situation determines the style to be used.

According to Carnevale and Pruitt (1992), the negotiation process is the vigorous communication process between mediators i.e. through which the two group of entities give-and-take goods or services in an attempt to mutually agree upon a compromising settlement agreeable to both parties regardless of their initial goals. Over the years, regardless of the attention that negotiation process has received as a possibility for solving conflict, between both different individuals (Bazerman *et al.*,

2001) and groups (Loschelder and Trotschel, 2010), there has been limited attention to the important issue of the readiness to negotiate. Researchers always start from the point that members are ready to negotiate (Bear, 2011) and consequently assess all considerations of which the power struggle between the two parties and the constraint of time asymmetry between the sides, time pressure (Carnevale and Lawler, 1986), cognitive biases (Malhotra and Bazerman, 2007), or negotiators' motivational orientations (De Dreu *et al.*, 2006) – that may affect the final resolution. According to Barry and Friedman (1998) there are other factors i.e. the first offer such, as its assertiveness in the negotiation process is an important step. This sets up the behaviours of the parties involved, determined by factors such as the conflict management styles used in the preceding phases and its outcomes. The integration of all of the above will be examined as part of this research.

Assertiveness (or simply firmness) includes an unrestricted interchange of information and inducement and more vigorous participation in taking the negotiation process in the forward direction. As assertiveness is it has been verified by studies that during the negotiation process that the level of assertiveness has a large impact on the negotiation behaviours and subsequent direction of the outcome of the process (e.g., Ma *et al.*, 2000; Mnookin *et al.*, 1996). Similarly, the win-win attitude balances the negotiation behaviour and is related to the negotiation process and its related outcomes (Lewicki *et al.*, 1994). The research will also examine the above-mentioned specifics and its relationship with the different conflict management styles. Global diversification indicates that the step to make the first offer on the table is filled with cultural perspectives that may be extreme or moderate dependent on the parties involved. The decision is also filled with these cultural settings and perspectives, as it may become as double-edged sword (Barry and Friedman, 1998). This may also be perceived as a strategic disadvantage and a negotiation weakness as it conveys information usable to the benefit of the other party (Rubin and Brown, 1975). Hence, leading to an agreement at a disadvantage to the offering person.

An extreme initial offer placed on the table although may be deemed as a negotiation weakness is actually found to be a deciding factor to the opposing party (Siegel and Fouraker, 1960) For example a buyer who is walled with a buying offer will be induced to believe that there is possibility of a potential agreement as there is a wide range to negotiate on also signalling that the offering party will be hard to bargain with (Lewicki *et al.*, 1994) and negotiation researchers (Bazerman *et al.*, 2001; De Dreu *et al.*, 2007). Subsequently this is more inclined for the recipient of the offer to make more concessions during the negotiation process. Hence it may be concluded that although studies show that putting an offer on the table may be deemed a feeble strategy; an extreme high offer has a higher tolerance of the negotiation process to go forward with concessions if it does not fall into the limits of the effectiveness of extreme (Barry Friedman, 1998).

1.4 Research Problems and Gaps

Most of the research found in the literature review in the field of conflict management was conducted predominantly by experimental social psychologists (e.g. Jehn and Weldon, 1992; Kozan, 1997; Sorenson *et al.*, 1999). These researches although have contributed to the knowledge base in the field of conflict management such as setting out the best methods in managing conflicts have some shortcomings that have impeded further research in the field. The first shortcoming being that although international organisational behaviour is deemed important its young age (Kozan, 1997; Ma, 2007), makes the lack of integration of cross-cultural measures in the choice of conflict management styles an integral part of the flaw (Weldon and Jehn, 1995; Ma, 2007). Most of the research done in conflict management has been investigated in western culturally set working environments leaving behind a gap in the research literature for the little data collected on conflict management in non-western cultures (Weldon and Jehn, 1995) having stated that conflict is defined by culture and regulated by its environment - conflict management should be different across cultures (Hocker and Wilmot, 1991). Womack (1988) in her analysis of the use of the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument – the analytical study pointed out correctly that the choice of the conflict management style was determined by both personality and environmental factors whereby correlating that actual behaviours and measured scores in a single incident were not high. The study recommended that a more in depth understanding and examination of an individual's choice of the conflict management styles through a different set of situations and environments be studied. Throughout the literature review it maybe concluded that the recommendations by Womack (1988) have not been taken up and no such study has been deemed important enough to asses such a relationship.

Known implementation of the studies of cross-cultural conflict management styles have not been found in literature review granting it the second deficiency. Academic research in all its theory requires that it should be relevant to society and its institutions and it has found that all relevant research on conflict management styles is not hitting the heart of theory versus application failing to answer simple questions of “so what if”? Although the majority of studies have been made in an effort to research differences and explain them culturally, only a small portion have attempted to assess whether such differences make lead to more effective conflict management styles in different cultures (Jehn and Weldon, 1992; Trubisky, Ting-Toomey and Lin, 1991; Weldon and Jehn, 1995).

1.5 Research Aim and Objective

This research aims to:

To develop a model that will better understanding the process of the conflict management styles in the Middle East with a particular reference to Kuwait as an example.

The research approach aims in using the behavioural interpretation of the negotiation process in a business interaction between a supplier and buyer. The objective is to assess the conflict management styles used to determine the negotiating behaviours and the solution undertaken Also taking into consideration the negotiation process without the use of intermediary mediums. This would extend research that has mainly been carried out in western cultures, into others, such as the Middle Eastern culture. The investigation into this culture can contribute to the formation of a generalisable theory, which can be applicable around the world regardless of their cultural backgrounds. The present study attempts to offer a more comprehensive examination of conflict management in a non-western culture by extending the research focus from westerners only so as to include non-western cultures. In addition, the investigative results of this study, not only make an attempt to fill the aforementioned literature gaps, but it also presents an insight into this culture and the conflict management styles used in this culture and how they affect their negotiation behaviour and outcomes

Outlining the objectives of the PhD thesis, they will be studied as follows;

- **Objective 1:** To investigate and evaluate different conflict management styles in Kuwait
- **Objective 2:** To analyse if the conflict management styles of Middle East is more related to its culture
- **Objective 3:** To assess if the conflict management perceptions of respondents apply in real life situations
- **Objective 4:** To add to the knowledge base of conflict management by testing and evaluating the process model.

1.6 Thesis Outline

The content design structuring the outline of the PhD set out as follows:

- **Chapter One: Introduction to the Research Area**

Chapter One-introduces the research background, the scope of the research outlining the limitations and constraints in addition to summarizing the research approach and its objectives

- **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature focusing on the concepts and understanding the theories in the effectiveness of the Middle Eastern culture of conflict management styles and the effects of its culture on the negotiation behaviour. The outcome of the literature review contours the theoretical and research methodology of the research.

- **Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework**

Chapter Three renders a framework of the conceptual underpinning of the theoretical work. The development and significance of the concept in the Middle East background which is represented by Kuwait is identified and analysed here.

- **Chapter Four: Research Methodology**

Chapter Four presents justification of the selection of research methodology, that is, the quantitative research approach.

- **Chapter Five: Research Findings**

Chapter Five presents the findings from the two case simulated scenarios, that is, the new house negotiation simulation and the used car simulation.

- **Chapter Six: Discussion**

This chapter interprets the research findings. An explanation for the statistical findings in a cultural perspective is given in this chapter.

- **Chapter Seven: Conclusions, Contribution, Limitations, and Further Research**

This chapter summarises the thesis findings in the framework of conflict management styles used in Kuwaiti culture and includes an explanation of how this impacts the negotiation behaviour and the expected business negotiation process outcomes.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

Today's world is commonly referred to as a "Global Village", a world that has become more interdependent and intercultural (Triandis, 1972). Whether at home, the workplace or between countries, human behaviour is such that whilst there is at times peace and harmony there is also conflict. 'Flight or fight' are survival instincts when feeling threatened which brings us to the base of the threat -conflict. Conflict is a fact of life, it happens all around at all levels of society be it competing for a promotion, a job and even for the proper resources. That is, as humans, either we attempt to avoid the conflict entirely ('flight') or we attempt to deal with it in some way ('fight'). That 'fight' may lead us to enter into some kind of negotiation, in an attempt to reach mutual agreement with whomever we have a conflict.

A conflict of ideas on any aspect of business can often be productive. Sometimes, the cooperation can be better for the organisation and its progress, if the workers keen on coming up with solutions together. Conflict of this kind often generates better results and better practices to flourish positive changes that would not take place otherwise. The effective team and its understanding of conflict resolution in its organizational culture can either be an initial start for either creativity or animosity between its team members. Conflict in its many forms usually produces anger and alienation leading to gross loss both in time and of human resources and without the appropriate conflict resolutions in place and understanding the different approaches through both research and study-the cost of avoiding it is lost. As humans, and regardless of gender, age, religious background or any other factor, researchers are genetically predisposed to be aggressive, and as a result to create or foster conflict. How people in organisational setup recognise and manage their own aggression and deal with conflict, and how managers do so in the workplace, is something that researchers need to better understand if they are to make the workplace one in which conflict is reduced or at the very least, appropriately managed and dealt with. Negotiation plays a major role in dealing with conflict in the workplace.

In the workplace and more specifically in cross-cultural workplaces, conflict is more likely to take place. Managers have to deal with such conflicts, which usually result from the fact that employees come from different cultures. Let us imagine a multinational workforce of an international organisation in, say, the UK. A manager or a subordinate may well be working

with fellow employees from, let us say, twenty different cultural backgrounds. However well-educated or whatever training is given, the UK-born employee may well understand their own behaviour and their own UK culture but it is just not possible for them to have that same level of understanding, or even any understanding of, the behaviours shaped by the cultures of those twenty employees from, to take but three, Kenya, Kazakhstan or Kuwait. Misunderstandings are often at the root of conflict, and if the workers are from different cultures, there may well be more of them than would be found in organisations where all the workers share the same cultural background. It is clear that culture plays an important role in making someone's behaviour. If we are to understand conflict in the workplace, it is reasonable to look what culture is arguing the impact of national culture on an employee's behaviour in the workplace and the part it plays in any negotiation which is often used as an effective way of settling conflicts. If, as will be argued, culture affects how the employees deal with conflict, understanding the cultural models may help in comprehending the backgrounds of negotiators and thus help to determine what style or method of negotiation may be use in order to manage/resolve that conflict.

When people from different cultures interact, undoubtedly difference of opinion arises. This leads to conflict. Conflicts in workplace are inevitable. They occur when there is a perception of incompatible interests between workplace participants. In recent times due to the diversity in cultural background of the employees, they are more prone to create workplace conflicts. The first step in uncovering workplace conflicts is to consider the typical sources of conflict. There are a variety of sources of workplace conflicts including interpersonal, organisational, change related, and external factors. In many workplaces, there are strong ethno-cultural and racial sources of conflict as well as gender conflict. This may lead to charges of harassment and discrimination or at least the feeling that such things exist.

The existence of conflicts is a natural occurrence among and group of people, resolving it is the challenging part. Resolving such conflicts is a very important factor for achieving organisational success and enhancing productivity. However, many organisations usually suffer from continuous conflicts that are costly and show evidences of huge rifts in the organisations. Until quite recently the literature in the field of conflict management was not considered a major research subject (Kozan, 1997; Brown et al, 2010) (Kozan, 1997; Brown *et al.*, 2010; Conn *et al.*, 2010; Craigie and Hobbs, 2004; Goldman, Meuser, Roger *et al.*, 2010), as has conflict resolution strategies and adaptation to change (Baxter and Brumfitt, 2008; Brown *et al.*, 2011). The newly evolving trend reflected a growing interest in studying conflict as a widely acknowledged phenomenon in almost all organisations and the importance of managing it sensibly (Adler and Graham, 1989). Nevertheless, the literature

review has found that the context usage of cross-cultural research is far more or less researched in its integration into the conflict management field than into other fields (Kiggundu et al., 1983; Kozan, 1997).

From what is mentioned above, the reader may come to the conclusion that in organisations where people from different ethno groups work, conflict is almost inevitable, which means that there is a basic need for understanding the types and causes of these conflicts and the effective conflict management styles that would suggest the best ways to resolve such conflicts. Understanding the main aspects of each culture should form a necessary basis for understanding the preferred conflict management styles in the people belonging to this culture. It would help others who belong to a different culture to predict the reaction of people from another culture and adjust themselves to this. This may consequently lead to the resolution of many conflicts.

2.2 Conflict Management Practices

2.2.1 Understanding the Negotiator: Behaviours, difference in personalities, interpersonal orientation and background.

Negotiation is often used as an effective way of resolving several conflicts (e.g. compromising, collaborating) and in all world cultures negotiation is often seen as a reliable means of coming over any type of dispute. The procedure of which two or more parties attempt to agree on the exchange of products and/or services is known as a negotiation process (Carnevale and Pruitt, 1992; Wall, 1985; Wall and Blum, 1991). Negotiation is a universal tool that is used in a wide array of situations and can be used as a meditative, arbitrary and compromising tool which is frequently used in both formal and informal settings ranging from international relations to martial relations (Pruitt and Carnevale, 1993). Diverse as these negotiation tools are and at both ends of a wide range of settings, they may seem unconnected but they all have a contextual foundation of elements. These elements being:

- 1- Both parties have a conflict interest over the exchange and division of scare resources;
- 2- Willingness to compromise by either both parties or one party to meet in the middle;
- 3- Reaching a mutual agreement of outcomes both voluntarily and jointly.

People will make a different first offer regardless of their culture. Different people may opt for a different first offer. As previously mentioned, putting the first offer on the table in the negotiation process is a double edged sword (Barry and Friedman 1998). According to Rubin

and Brown (1975) the offering person is at a disadvantage as their offering strategy may give out information that can be tactically used by the recipient of the offer using the structure of reservation of prices. Upon the opening offer being placed and being perceived as being of an extreme nature it is observed that the settlement will favour the side that makes the first offer (Siegel and Fouraker, 1960). As an example the start of an extreme negotiating process situation allows the recipient to think that the first demanded price range is within the range of expected agreement allowing the understanding between the parties that the party offering is a hard bargainer. For the seller, who would not be easily persuaded to withdraw (Lewicki *et al.*, 1994).

The recipient in the negotiation process of an extreme offer tends to offer more concessions to reach an agreement. Although the one with the first offer on the table may be at a disadvantage for having their strategy out in the open but has also the disadvantage of the effectiveness of extreme offers whereby discrediting themselves to the point of withdrawal when hope is diminished (Barry and Friedman, 1998). With the help of negotiation practitioners and years of negotiation research the goal of the negotiation process has developed into helping people understand how to achieve the wanted outcomes of conflict resolution processes. The ability to solve conflicts effectively literature review on the negotiation process focuses on the three issues (Bazerman and Carroll, 1987; Pinkley, 1990) to understand the negotiator:

- Their behaviour, difference in personality, interpersonal orientation and background (e.g. Thompson, 1990, 1998);
- The assumption that both parties of the negotiating process are both ‘rationally’ level-headed (Bazerman and Neale, 1992);
- Understanding the influence of the situation and the environment on behavioural aspects of the negotiation process (Bazerman *et al.*, 2001; Pinkley, 1990).

2.2.2 Negotiation Behaviour – Key Factors Influencing the Negotiation Behaviour (Strategies)

The five types of negotiation behaviour or strategies (that is, compromising, competing, collaborating, accommodating and avoiding) depending on the combination of preferences for two basic concerns: the integration or correlation between the expected outcome and the relationship between the negotiators. The importance of each of these two concerns, and their relative priority should direct the selection of the optimal negotiation strategy (Kray and

Thompson, 2005; Kulik and Olekalns, 2012). The other party may select a strategy in a similar manner. If they do not, the individual will want to give serious consideration as to whether people should share this strategic negotiation model with other individuals. The chances of a good outcome are often better if both parties agree to play by the same rules. The interaction of the two parties' choices will further influence the negotiation process that actually occurs, and this will have dramatic impact on the outcomes. In the following, the author describes each of these two concerns in detail.

Relationship Concerns: First, how important is an individual's past and understanding the opponent in the negotiation process and for future reference is a concern that needs to be addressed by answering the following questions to give a bigger picture on strategizing the process. How important is the relationship in terms of its history and its future? What are the past experiences of former collaborations and cooperation and what were the concluding outcomes; positive or negative? Subsequently, the questions may be a deciding factor on the importance of up keeping the relationship versus the negotiation process. One or the other is important for each individual which maintains the negotiation style. Upon a closer look it can be concluded that the individuals and the teams within which they are working will developed distinctly into collaboration or avoidance tactics that require a more in depth analysis or a three-way understanding might evolve well (Gelfand *et al.*, 2008) There are deciding factors in converging the relationship between the two parties involved in the negotiation process

- Whether there is a relationship present at all or not.
- Whether that relationship is generally positive or negative.
- Whether the two members of the parties have moved along well or poorly in the past.
- Whether a future relationship is desirable or not.
- The length of the relationship and its history, if one exists.
- The level of commitment and relationship.
- The degree of interdependence in the relationship and open communication between the parties.

For example, if an individual is negotiating the purchase of a new car, the scene is assumed as a one-time event leading to a one time relationship of the negotiation process both parties have not met before. In this incident the selling party may have an interest of wanting the purchase to go through for personal gains i.e. a sales commission but interest is still at a lower level in comparison to a relationship that requires a long term customer relationship because of a future long term business arrangement which will fully affect negotiation process. On the other hand, if the individual is buying the car from his/her neighbour, and wants to continue to

have a good relationship with that person, the individual may negotiate differently if the car is purchased from a stranger. Having an ongoing relationship, the type; is sometimes perceived with first impressions of the negotiation process which embraces either amiable or alienating bases for the process. If the relationship starts on an amiable and welcoming tone it is wise to keep it as such whereas a relationship that has a hostile history has to be evaluated carefully lowering expectations in the negotiation process especially if seeking a future relationship or not going through it all.

Outcome Concerns: The second factor affecting negotiation strategy. The importance of individual gains of the outcome of the negotiation process is evaluated in the process. Questions to ask in evaluating the factors would be: what is the advantage gained in the process? What is the importance of the outcome? Considering the car buying simulation – buying from the dealer the individual gain of the outcome would be the price as there is no interest in a long term relationship whereas buying from your neighbour there are aspects to the relationship that need to be considered in the negotiating process with an outcome of not wanting to press on the monetary issue. Finally, if you are buying the car from your mother simply so that she does not have to worry about its price anymore, you probably are most concerned about the relationship and care very little about the outcome. Most of the planning and preparation described have focused on the outcome. Hence we will not see much more about outcome concerns here. The important message; however, is that the priority of each of the two negotiation concerns, relationship and outcome, will direct the strategy selected to use for a particular negotiation. The relationship may be a top priority, especially if there is a relationship history and the individual may want to maintain the relationship. In contrast, in many other negotiations, the outcome is the most important factor, as in the example of buying a car. Or relationship and outcome may both be important. This will require working together with the other party in some fashion to affect a result. If the relationship concerns have a strong influence on the matter at hand, and you decide to emphasize them over the outcome, then you will select a different strategy than you would select where the outcome is more important. If a graph is plotted correlating an association between the relationship and the individual anticipated outcome concerns; both high and low priorities as in Figure 2.1, where the vertical y-axis represents the individuals' degree of concern.

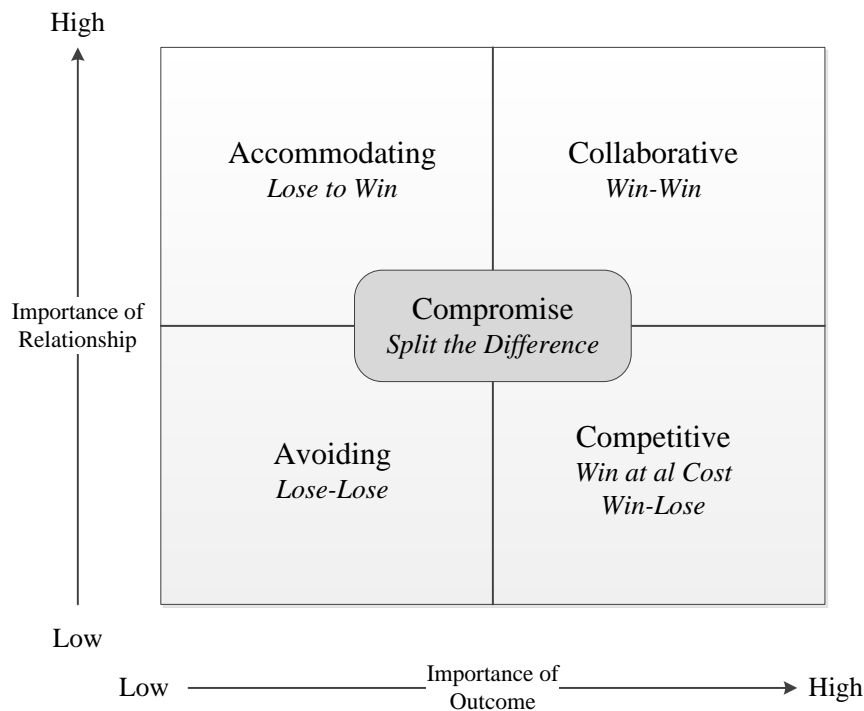


Figure 2.1: Modes of Conflict Behaviour in terms of Agreeableness and Activeness

When we look at the various quadrants created by different levels of concern for relationship and outcome, five distinctly different strategies emerge:

Accommodating (Lose-Win): The mode of lose-win [accommodating mode] is represented in the upper left quadrant of the graph, which is the intersection between the moderate and high importance of the relationship in relevance to the low to moderate expectation of the outcome importance. Hence, interrelating the results as the ‘back away’ phenomena whereby deliberately to ‘lose’ on the outcome and to ‘win’ on the relationship. These are achieved by being unassertive and co-operative:

- Reasonableness
- Compromising and letting go to satisfy the needs of others
- Building a foundational relationship for the future
- Persisting in competing and losing in the process
- Avoiding disputes and preserving the harmony

Avoiding (Lose-Lose): The mode of lose–lose (Avoiding) is represented in the lower left quadrant of the graph, which is the intersection between the low to moderate importance of the relationship in relevance to the low to moderate expectation of the outcome importance.

Hence, interrelating the results as the ‘avoiding’ phenomena whereby deliberately choosing to withdraw or avoid the negotiation process in its entirety: This happens in

- Unassertive and uncooperative situations.
- When there are issues more pressing in terms of triviality or importance
- When the situation is out of ones hands concerning things such as national polices
- Balancing the weight of conflict costs versus the resolution outcomes
- Not to lose perspective by reducing tensions and being productively positive and composed
- Balancing time to gather data versus making an immediate decision
- If conflict resolution can be managed effectively by others
- Situations where the issue is vague and symptomatic of something more trivial

Competitive (Win-Lose): The mode of win–lose (Competitive) is represented in the lower right quadrant of the graph, which is the intersection between the low to moderate importance of the relationship in relevance to the moderate to high expectation of the outcome importance. This is translated to stakes are high and no future outlook for the relationship is valued

- Assertive and uncooperative.
- Where in emergency situations immediate decisions and actions are required
- Harsh decisions for the best interest of the overall such as cost cuts unpopular decisive actions
- Pushing through with issues of vital importance for overall welfare on the premise knowing one is right
- Protection against being taken advantage of by others

Collaborative (Win-Win): The mode of win–win (Collaborative) is represented in the upper right quadrant of the graph, which interrelates into a high priority for both the relationship and the outcome. This pertains to that both parties agree mutually to an outcome all the while preserving and or enhancing the relationship for the future. All parties come out as winners.

To achieve this:

- Assertive and cooperative
- Finding an agreeable solution to all involved by addressing the important perspective of each party
- Setting the objectivity of the issue as an educational means by testing ones assumptions and being understanding of opposing opinions

- Merging the different insights and using it to approach the issue with a better understanding
- Participative management of the negotiation process by incorporating different views
- The ability to overcome personal prejudices

Compromising (Split the Differences): Split the differences [Compromising] is the middle area of the graph, which compromises a bit of each quadrant leading to a combination and satisfying strategy. Used mainly in situations whereby the parties are willing to achieve an outcome but without the win-win [collaborative] attitude to preserve a little of the relationship. Thus, for example, if a good collaborative attitude is not achieved to pursue the outcome and abandon the concern for the relationship (or vice versa), then a compromising strategy can be effective. This type of negotiation process is mainly used in situations where time is a pressure constraint and a resolution outcome is required-leaving the parties to find a middle balance. This is achieved by:

- Intermediate in assertiveness and cooperativeness.
- When the objective of the process is moderate in importance but not worth the use of assertive modes
- The high expected outcomes when both parties are equal and determined in achieving their goals such as those used in labour union negotiations
- Finding provisional outcomes for complicated agendas
- Regardless of time pressure constraints the ability to come up with beneficial outcomes
- Have a backup plan at times when the collaboration or the process fails

Negotiation behaviours are widely presumed to be based on management styles (Kirkbride *et al.*, 1991; Tse *et al.*, 1994), and likewise, different outcomes are obtained when the different conflict styles evolve into different behaviours during the negotiation process in the process of negotiation and therefore different results appear. Yet, only a few studies addressed the task of examining such a relationship (Volkema and Bergmann, 1995), resulting in a question that is still waiting for an answer: Does the actual behaviour during a conflict resolution determine the conflict style used? A cognitive decision model, proposed by Neale and Bazerman (1983, 1985), argues that the negotiator's cognitions and judgements are the mediating factors in the reached outcome selection due to the setting of the situation, the understanding of the opponents behaviour and personality. This model points to an important factor, negotiator cognition, which may integrate different perspectives on negotiation studies.

It is assumed that different conflict modes will provide indications for the method in which the negotiation process is dealt with, and this is expected to lead to different results. It is also expected that such styles need not go through the understanding of negotiation behaviours to reach the outcome results wanted. Being found in a conflict situation, behaviours are defined along the modes of assertiveness or collaboration. These modes will define the behaviour in the negotiation process in either satisfying their own concerns assertively or cooperatively to satisfy the opponents concern (Ma, 2007). The level of assertiveness in the process may include forcefully pushing the negotiation into the wanted direction by means of persuasion and/or divulgence of information. The level of assertiveness determines the outcomes by influencing the negotiation process and its outcomes. It has been noted that the level of intent used in the win-win situations, the negotiation behaviour has been correlated with the negotiation outcome (Lewicki and Litterer, 1985; Lewicki *et al.*, 1994).

There are five modes of conflict management: avoiding, accommodating, compromising, collaborating, and competing (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974). One of the methods of conflict management is avoidance. Avoiding the conflict in order to postpone the inevitable circumstances and thereby not to address the issue is the non-assertive and non-cooperative method of reaction to a conflict situation. This may lead to an escalation of the matter, whereas sometimes avoidance is balanced with the outcomes for example disrupting the harmony of the workplace and/or team and can be ignored if found to be in negligent proportions.

The second method for conflict management is accommodating. Which is a strategy that requires an immediate outcome to satisfy all the needs of the players It also helps the players to focus on achieving an outcome by being accommodative and putting all differences aside. This approach is effective than avoidance, as the issues are addressed instead of building up resentments.

The third method of conflict management is compromise. This is effectively is used when each side is willing to settle halfway just to resolve the issue as peacefully as possible. It fails the moment either party does not honour the agreement reached or puts on too heavy demands for the conflict to be resolved.

The fourth method of conflict management is competition. Although seen as a conflict management method its cooperation levels are very low, and are used as a last resort since its resolution methods has no communication between the parties.

The fifth method of conflict management is collaboration. This best defines as a team oriented resolution as parties within put aside their differences to accomplish the objective of the issue at hand and are willing to go to great lengths of achieving the required and expected outcomes.

The downfall of this is that not all teams have the texture to work in unity by putting their differences aside and hence sometimes may not be the method to manage conflicts. Figure 2.2 provides a visual overview of these five modes of conflict management and the two independent dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness. Each individual uses the five modes of conflict management dependent on the situation that has presented itself and one cannot portray that an individual has just one style of conflict management (Thomas and Kilmann, 2001). It has been found that individuals tend to use some modes more than others dependent on the situations they are in, their persona and biases of how they handle each issue, resulting in a mastery of one approach in the management of conflict over another approach (Cavusigl *et al.*, 1993) It has been suggested by Cavusigl *et al.* (1993) and later affirmed by Kraimer *et al.* (2001) that the there is a direct relation between an expatriate’s adjustment to the host countries understanding of work culture and work performance and productivity. It may start off low but with time and understanding increases once well – adjusted after receiving performance reviews from their supervisors. A study by Takeuchi *et al.* (2005) collaborates what studies have stated concluding that work adjustment is strongly correlated to work performance.

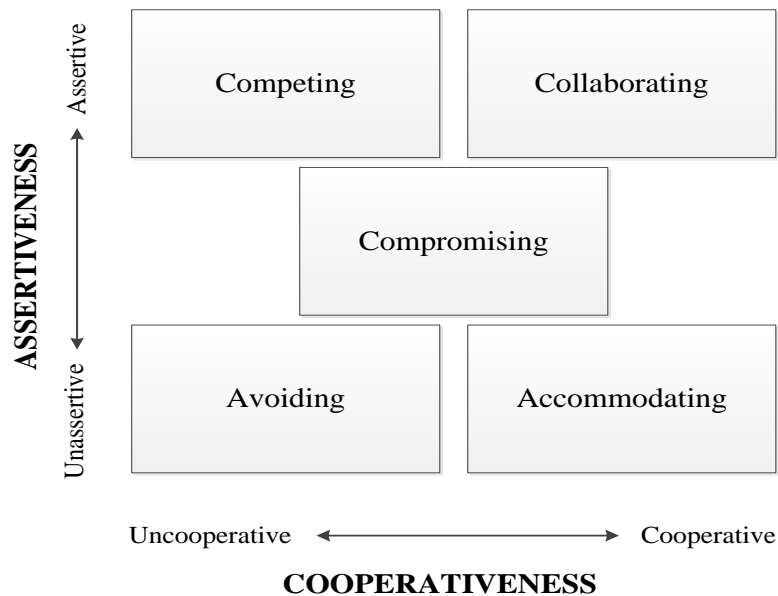


Figure 2.2: Conflict Mode Model (Source: Kilmann, 2001)

Whilst examining different conflict management styles, some recommended a sort of a flexible approach when dealing with any conflict by thinking over how suitable the use of a particular style is to a certain conflict situation. Nevertheless, the flexible or contingency approach did not address the individuals that may not be sufficiently flexible so as to choose the style that is best for a particular situation.

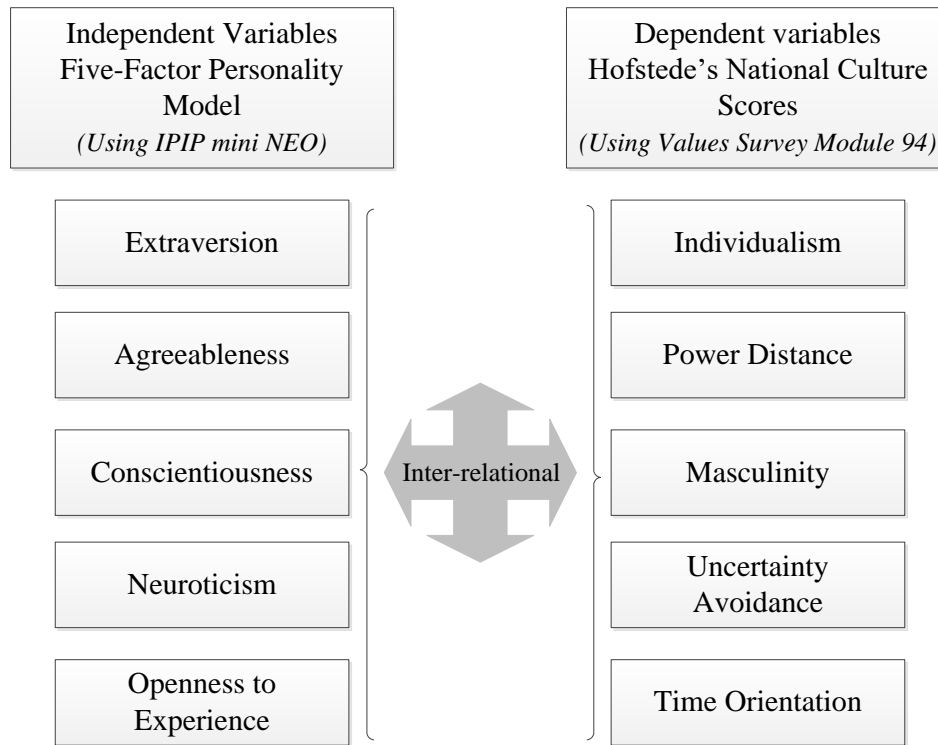


Figure 2.3: Empirical Model (Source: Migliore, 2009)

In spite of the fact that this line of research has been cumulative and generally of high quality, it lacks integrative research (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1985, Hazlett *et al.*, 2007; Herpertz *et al.*, 2001; Koenigsberg *et al.*, 2009; Limberg *et al.*, 2011). In particular, the effects of personality, situational factors, and the decision-making process on outcomes have been studied separately (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1985). There is little evidence from research that the factors between the negotiation outcomes and the relationships has been shown, not to mention the effects of negotiator cognition, a key factor that may determine how participants approach the conflict (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 1985). Negotiation scholars have thus seen a great need for more integrated research on negotiations, especially a need for research that incorporates various negotiation studies of different perspectives. The negotiation process has traditionally ignored on how the conflict is defined and interpreted by the negotiators but has been viewed on the terms of who gets the better deal in the process. In other words, negotiator's cognitions have been neglected in the negotiation literature, which is the main reason for the largely

inconclusive findings obtained from different studies, including studies on personality and negotiation and studies on culture and negotiation.

Within this framework that is often suggested by traditional negotiation research, the differences in negotiation styles arise from negotiators' perception of their opponent and understanding and strategizing the conflict negotiation process. Such knowledge structures are constructed based on the factors embedded in negotiator's social context, individual characteristics, and negotiation task, all of which jointly produce particular patterns of negotiating (Higgins, 1996). The approach allows for the outlook outlining the mental decision making sequence, by defining how the negotiation process is expressed and interpreted.

Based on ideas underlying cognitive decision model, this dissertation incorporates the principles from social cognition research (Higgins, 1996) and proposes a more comprehensive framework for dyadic negotiation study. The literature review has provided a great deal of evidence in understanding the negotiation process by in turn understanding the negotiators strategy and expected outcomes (Bazerman *et al.*, 2001). Researchers have adopted this approach to explore the knowledge structures that guide negotiators' judgment and decisions (Morris and Fu, 2001; Pinkley (1990). Empirical studies have provided evidence for the potential of this framework (Gelfand *et al.*, 2001; Lituchy, 1992; Pinkley, 1990; Donegan *et al.*, 2003; Ebner-Priemer *et al.*, 2005; Herpertz *et al.*, 2001; Koenigsberg *et al.*, 2009)). However, whilst each individual human being has their own, individual personality, which affects how they work and thus how they deal with conflict in the workplace and deal with negotiating, our perceptions and behaviours are also informed and affected by the society/culture in which we find ourselves. It is here maintained and concluded that different cultures mean that different conflict management styles and strategies are used in each.

2.2.3 Individual Conflict

When we look at conflict in the human individual, it is noticed that it is a very complex matter. Each day, as individuals pass through their normal routine, and face the decision making process, they experiences some state of conflict on a continuous basis. Where they are able to take analytical situations and set them up for computer analysis, thus alleviating themselves of voluminous and routine analytical tasks. These individuals cannot however, place their own thinking and motivation in a computer system and this remains within the

individual. Figure 2.4 shows the factors affecting individual conflict and individual reaction to conflict.

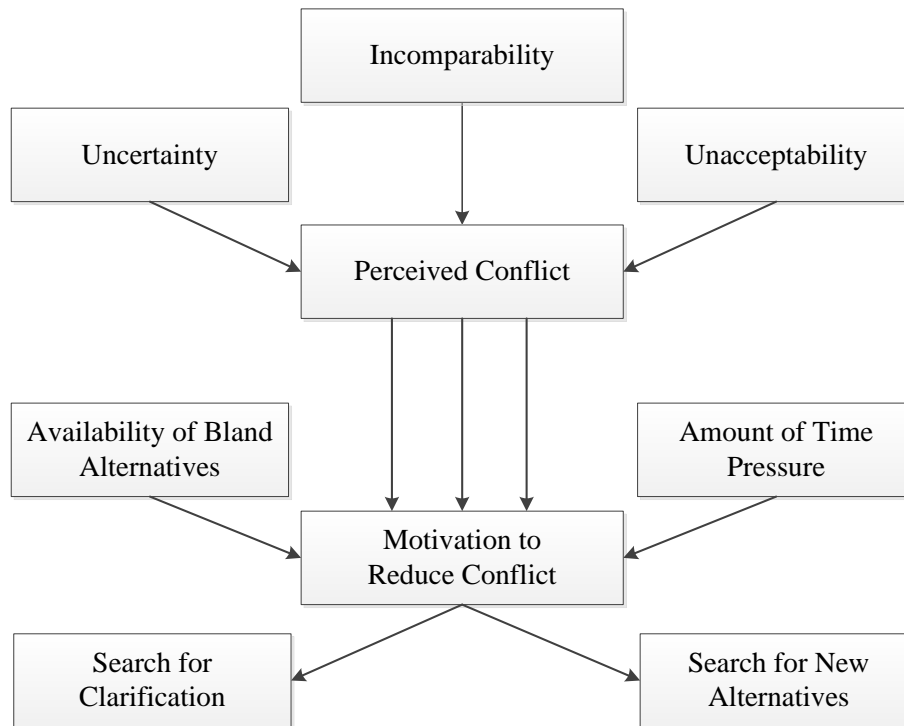


Figure 2.4: Individual Reaction to Conflict

Conflict arises when we are faced with a situation presenting other than clear-cut alternatives or acceptable actions. Conflict is categorised into: unacceptability, incomparability and uncertainty. Unacceptability is when the individual knows the probability distribution of outcome associated with their alternative courses of action. Incomparability gives the individual the probability distribution of their proposed alternatives, but they cannot identify a most preferred alternative. In the case of uncertainty, the individual does not know the probability distribution. Having perceived the conflict, it is assumed that the individual is motivated to reduce that conflict. This is an acceptable assumption since it is the rare individual who wishes to remain in conflict with themselves, and remember we are discussing conflict within an individual. Reacting to conflict depends on the type of conflict with which we are faced. The motivations of the individual are influenced by two outside factors, the availability of bland alternatives and the amount of time available for resolving the conflict. In the case where conflict is the result of uncertainty, the individual's initial course of action is to search for clarification of the alternatives presenting that uncertainty. The individual will re-analyse these and attempt to clarify them and thus eliminate the uncertainty. Failing to do so, the next approach will be to search for new alternatives.

In the case when the conflict is as a result of unacceptable alternatives, the individual is motivated to search for new alternatives. This search is affected by two things; first, the amount of time available to solve the conflict; second, the availability of bland alternatives. In this case the availability of bland alternatives may be considered as a release valve. Given a bland alternative, the individual may vigorously pursue their search for new alternatives in the time available. As that time becomes shorter and the search is unfruitful, the definition of unacceptable is re-evaluated and the bland alternative is rationalised to become an acceptable alternative. Thus, what was originally perceived as a conflict within the individual is reduced through a rationalisation that the bland alternative available is now acceptable. Depending on the level in the organisation an individual is, the conflict resolution strategy and resources allocated is determined, allowing for more influence up the pyramid (Jehn and Chatman, 2000). That conflict types apparently tend to pop up having occurrences that develop in seclusion have multiple components of different proportions (Euwema *et al.*, 2003; Jehn, 1997; Jehn and Chatman, 2000; Speakman, 2009; Speakman and Ryals, 2010) that are formulated in the conflict process.

March *et al.* (1993) set forth the theory that when conflict is as result of incomparability, the decision time is short and the choice will depend upon the attention and sequence in which the alternatives are presented. If in fact the amount of time is short, this theory can be acceptable. However, given sufficient amount of time, the motivations to reduce the conflict will result in traditional search to clarify the incomparable alternatives and make them comparable. This would then place them in one of the other two categories, uncertainty or unacceptability. The resolution of conflict would then fall in a pattern as previously described for those two sources of conflict.

2.2.4 Organisational Conflict

From an organisational perspective, the individual has accepted a position which he/she feels is most in line with their individual interests, motivations, and goals. The conflict he/she faces in an organisation, therefore, is to have acceptable alternatives in terms of his/her own goals and perception. It can be seen that conflict for the individual in an organisation is most likely to occur when conditions surrounding the decision involve wide-spread uncertainty or few acceptable alternative courses of action. The researchers thus see the environment playing a large role in this new type of intra-individual conflict. Figure 2.5 sets forth the factors affecting individual conflict within organisations as set out by March and Simon (1993).

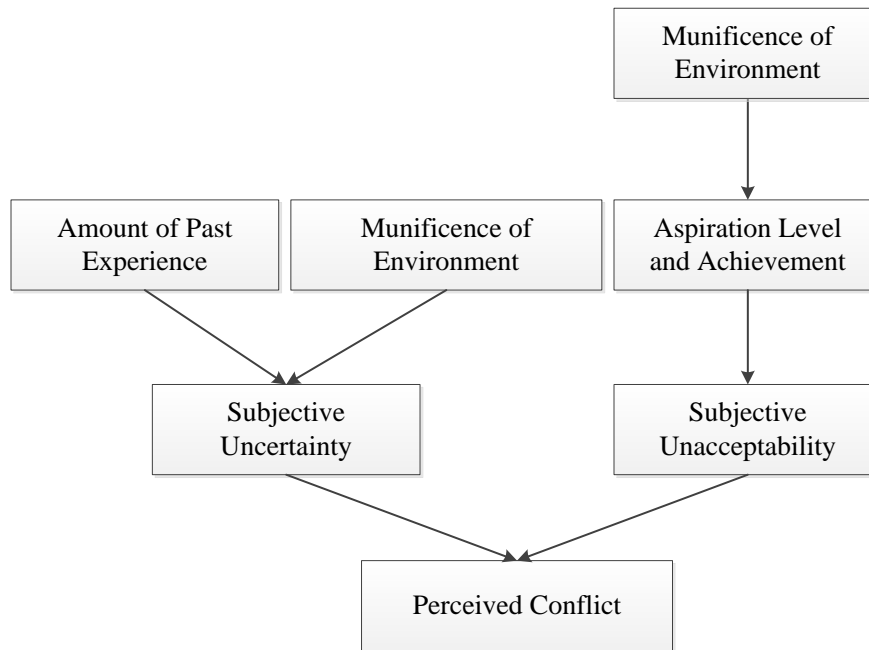


Figure 2.5: Individual Conflict with in Organisation

Looking first at the subjective uncertainty as a source for the perceived conflict, the researchers may recall that this was a case where the individual does not know the probability distribution. In this situation, an individual draws on the amount of past experience he/she has had in order to resolve the uncertainty. This is coupled with the perceived complexity of the decision to give the individual his/her relative degree of uncertainty of the perceived conflict. Turning now to unacceptability as a source of perceived conflict, the first factor affecting this is set forth as being the circumstances of the environment; how liberal or how constraining it may be. This acts as input to the individual's aspiration level and whether or not he/she can or has achieved these aspirations. The larger the gap the individual experiences between what the individual desires and what is achieved, the greater the probability that the individual will be in conflict within the organisation. Remember that the individual carries within him/her his/her motives, attitudes and values developed over a lifetime and although he/she has allied himself/herself with an organisation, these goals, attitudes, and motivations are set together in his/her current set of motivations in the light of the situation at hand.

It can be proposed thus that the factors March and Simon (1993) set forth as affecting individual conflict within organisations (Figure 2.5) affect all types of sources of conflict to some degree or another and are not as clear cut as they may show them to be. It was stated earlier that no one motive acts alone but interacts with all, both positive and negative. It can be contended therefore that the factors they have presented really affect all sources of

perceived conflict and not just specific ones. Alternatives may be in the category of unacceptability due to the complexity of decision and the amount of experience of the individual. It may be due to experience and the complexity of the decision that the identified, preferred alternative is determined to not meet the standards of suitability.

2.2.5 Conflict Management Strategies/Behaviour at the Level of the Culture/Country

Perceptions of a conflict situation are conditioned by the characteristics of their national culture, from which they come (George *et al.*, 1998). Generally conflicts arise as a result of cultural differences in management styles (Adler, 1986; Hofstede, 1991; Morris *et al.*, 1998). A person from one culture brings to a conflict situation a different set of attitudes and values than the other from a different culture, and these attitudes and values will be very different indeed when that culture is markedly different. Thus, a conflict between individuals from two different cultures is more complicated than a conflict between persons from the same culture. Understanding the host country's work culture and also the diversity that is in a workplace is deemed a necessity for adaptability and effective performance. This can be further induced by understanding customs and business protocols and courtesies of the management philosophies set out by the management. Due to globalisation people work abroad. As previously mentioned until they adapt to the work culture their performance may decrease (Cavusigl *et al.*, 1993).

In a longitudinal study, it was found that the expatriate's work adjustment is strongly correlated to their performance (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005). According to Hofstede (2005) when conducting his research assumed that the seven countries that he took into consideration (Kuwait, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, Libya, United Arab Emirates and Iraq) that there were no difference between them when it came to cultural differences and were homogenously aligned in the way they approached and resolved issues. As a consequence all Arab countries were clustered into a group relinquishing the essence of the cultural context being a factor in the negotiation process.

People may use all the five modes in different situations and depending on their personal skills but in each culture there are modes that may be used more commonly than in others. This was contradicted by Ma (2007), who claimed that the assumption that each culture has certain conflict management styles that are more predominant than others were found in the results For example taking the Chinese, they have a non-assertive style that is predominately

used in conflict management while the second most used is the avoidance strategy instead of compromising willing to sacrifice for the benefit of the relationship. It can be said with confidence that most of the Chinese when it comes to conflict management styles are mostly indirect in their styles allowing for the factor of competition to also exist.

It has been stated that each individual has a preferred conflict management style dependent on various factors that leads to the conflict resolution. Organisations have what is called a conflict culture that is a similar attitude and behaviour guided by the type of conflict to be resolved in a certain conflict management style. This allows for the reduction of resultant ramifications due to individual management styles (cf. Kozlowski and Klein, 2000). Found that conflict cultures emerge through the composition of conflict management styles of individuals and a preference on using a style repetitively giving the outcome resolution wanted hence resulting in a structure that can be used within an organization in agreement to its policies. Research has found that conflict research has acknowledged that routines and practices used in conflict management are developed into organizations (Constantino and Merchant, 1996; Kolb and Putnam, 1992; Slaikeu and Hasson, 1998; Ury *et al.*, 1988) whereas the three-way conflict management of avoidance, collaboration and domination usually exists in a small groups (Chen *et al.*, 2005; De Church and Marks, 2001; De Dreu and van Vianen, 2001; Lovelace *et al.*, 2001).

2.3 Theories and Models of Culture at the National Level

As was stated earlier, both national and organisational cultures are related. According to Lagrosen (2003) the assumption that cultural organization in conflict management styles is a reflection of the country's management of conflict was confirmed by the argument that whilst a company develops its own organizational culture, this is informed by, and cannot be greatly different from, the culture/country in which it exists.. For a nation to have a national culture it has a history and experience through the years to account for and becomes the foundation that people can relate to setting out the standards and norms. National culture is the basis of a unique sense of beliefs belonging to a particular nation passed on through the generations however an organizational culture is the shared and agreed upon values of operation (Bhaskaran and Gligorovska, 2009). Hofstede (1980) found out the national culture is the foundation for individual preferences and foundation for the development of principles and ethics-concluding that the national culture precedes the development of individuals and at a later stage the organizational culture is a secondary development dependent on need of work. Studying the difference between national culture and organizational culture has been a research interest (Mathews *et al.*, 2001) and research by Hall and Hall (1990), Hofstede (1991), Schwartz (1994), Trompenaars (1993) and House *et al.* (1999) has explored people in

multinational organizational and their representations of their national cultures. This provided a database for the classification of a framework of countries ranking them based on the representations of the different cultural dimensions. All in all, national culture is closely related to organisational culture and therefore it plays an integral role in conflict management in any cross cultural workplace. The examination of the national culture dimensions will help us understand the actual reasons why someone who is engaged in negotiating makes the decisions that they do. These decisions are informed in part by their own individual personality/make up, and in part by the culture of the organisation in which they work. The culture of any organisation is shaped or informed by the national culture in which it operates. So, if we are to better understand why someone who is engaged in negotiating makes the decisions that they do, researchers need to also better understand national culture dimensions.

Steinwachs (1999) found that people with the same values of national culture perceived the situations similarly. Hence, this concludes what (Hofstede, 1980 pp. 723) established that culture is a communal acceptance of the knowledge, which is by distinguishing one person's approach from another. Culture has been defined by one of the leading researchers as: *"A society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believes in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members. Culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, behavior, or emotions. It is, rather, an organization of these things. It is the form of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them"* (Goodenough,1971).

Through research, culture has been defined in a different context each time but all agree on the main genre whereby Schien (2004) defines it as a set of behaviour and its perceptions that dictate the goals of an entity while Hofstede (1991) defines it by affirming "collective programming that takes place at the national and at the organizational level". Although having previously stated that the difference between national and organizational culture and that one pertains to the values and beliefs shared by a group in a nation and the other relates to the corporate beliefs and values of an organization (Van Oudenhoven, 2001), this is further confirmed by Lagrosen (2003).

It has been argued by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) that culture is a collective memory that has been shared by a group of people through the same environment and same time of history. Another perspective is that it is a shared memory within a symbolic system as (Assmann, 1992 cited in Kutter, 2007). Studying the national culture under the pretext of understanding organizational cultures, it should be understood that there are comparisons and that this approach will not attain the best results (Hofstede, 2003). This line of investigation

was agreed on by Schwartz (1994) and Trompenaars (1993) who created a module to measure national opinion on culture concluding that taking into fact the issues that differentiated it, anticipated results were a setback. This also corresponds with studies to better understand the correlation between the national/ethnic culture and workplace culture on different dimensions (Laroche *et al.*, 2004; Lorenzoni and Lewis, 2004). A wider dimensional, listing of these factors was approached in research by those as described in the following sub-section.

2.3.1 Theoretical Model of Culture – Hall and Hall (1990)

This model was conceptualized by classifying more than 30 countries in an attempt to highlight the difference in national cultures of how individuals in each country gathers information to base knowledge and decisions on. It was hypothesized that high context countries relied on information being communicated through social and personal platforms of word by mouth discussing with family, friends and colleagues while low context countries relied on information that was trustworthy from reliable sources such as supported, published and researched studies.

- **High Context:** Over time people tend to understand the rules of engagement resulting in that so much is taken for granted. This system of information building is confusing for those that do not understand these cultural rules

- **Low Context Culture:** Nothing is taken for granted in this category meaning that information building needs more explanation leaving no room for misunderstandings.

Figure 2.6 illustrates Hall and Hall's (1990) high to low communication context countries.



Figure 2.5: High to Low Context Ranking (Source: Hall and Hall, 1990)

2.3.2 Theoretical Model of Culture – Trompenaars (1993)

Developed five elements of national cultures. The data was collected using on a survey that was distributed in 50 countries and 15000 respondents of managers to identify seven relationship differences between national culture and workplace culture. The seven dimensions were divided into two the first part consisting of five concentrating on the relationships dimension and the other two were focused on the orientation in time and attitude towards the environment. This research was similar in approach to Hofstede (1980).

Dimension	Purpose of the Dimensions
Universalism vs. Particularism	Measures whether obedience to rules or relationships are more important.
Individualism vs. Communitarianism	Coherent with Hofstede model.

Neutral vs. Emotionalism	Looks at how appropriate it is to show emotion.
Specific vs. Diffuse	To measure whether work and personal life is detached or connected.
Achievement vs. Ascription	To show how status is accorded
Attitudes to Time	Measures which is most important of past, present or future.
Attitude to Environment	To measure whether values and motivations are influenced by external or internal factors

Table 2.1: Theoretical Model of Culture (*Source: Trompenaars, 1993*)

Hofstede (1996) criticised Trompenaars' (1993) framework that only a couple of dimensions are established and that doubts on the other dimensions were raised especially on the methodology approach used. Hofstede (1996) further argued that the results were not aggregated into the country, therefore scores increasing the confusion of where a country would be put in the rankings also criticizing that the data was poorly collected and lacks content validity at the end he concluded his disapproval by stating that the result is a fast food approach to intercultural diversity and communication. In defence of the Trompenaars' (1993) framework, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1997) clarified the approach by stating that culture was 'neither linear or exclusive' expressing briefly that a list of assumptions suggesting eight differences in the model framework articulating their views of the criticism into four points:

1. Misconception of the database
2. The use of individual questions that were not prejudiced
3. Parametric versus non-parametric scaling
4. Model of learning versus a perfect model

Both research approaches were validated and accommodated a set of hypotheses that each researcher should see fit to use in their approach. Trompenaars' (1993) framework resulted into the country index differentiating the national cultures in a quantitative context.

2.3.3 Theoretical Model of Culture – Schwartz (1994)

Schwartz's research approach factorises the culture setting of a group of people. His respondents were surveyed on value preferences from different settings and backgrounds of 38 countries. Most were teachers and students that were questioned on 56 values. The

Schwartz model (1994) although considered to be of a more exhaustive research in comparison to Hofstede (1980) as it included data samples of communist countries (Chui et al., 2002) it is less used in international marketing (Steenkamp, 2001). Although designed in the context of an alternative model to Hofstede's (1983) it was based on the two aspects of theoretical reasoning and past experiences. Both that were found to be significantly matching to the inter-cultural variation values when approached empirically and theoretically in the Schwartz survey (Schwartz, 1994). This reduced the studied values from 56 to 45 values across the studied countries. Schwartz (1994) had previously between 1988 and 1992 collected data from 38 countries whose results revealed that there were seven dimensions that related to seven cultural values. Individuals suggest that examining incivility through a wider ethnic and cultural lens will inform research and practice. First, because cultural values play a key role in shaping our perceptions (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995), they may influence how incivility is perceived. Because uncivil behaviours are subtle and of ambiguous intent, targets' perceptions affect how incivility is interpreted (Pearson and Porath, 2005). Second, as highlighted in Selective Incivility Theory (Cortina, 2008; Cortina *et al.*, 2013), members of ethnic minorities may be especially likely to encounter incivility, due to thinly veiled prejudiced attitudes in the workplace. Finally, both ethnicity and cultural values have been linked to how people cope with and respond to stressors (Chun *et al.*, 2009); thus, incivility as a stressor may differentially impact employees with different cultural backgrounds.

The dimensions being divided in two whilst the first three dimensions studied set traditional ways versus acceptance to change. Schwartz (1994) found that his country value type correlated to Hofstede (1980) country score dimensions and were the first three dimensions especially the values of individualism/collectivism and power distance whereas Gouveia and Ros (2000) found that not only did the correlation between Hofstede and Schwartz relate to the first three dimensions, but also on a group of macro-social and macro-economic dimensions. The studies further showed that individualism was negatively correlated to conversational dimension and the autonomy correlated negatively with power distance. Although there was found to be no significant correlation between Schwartz's conservation and Hofstede's power distance dimensions, it was found to have a positive correlation between the individualism and autonomy dimensions. Results from the studies concluded that Hofstede's model was more ideal when macro-economic variables were used and the Schwartz model is efficient using the macro-social variables.

It was later supported by Brett and Okumura (1998) and further by Steenkamp (2001) who believed that the Schwartz dimensions were more theoretically foundational to Hofstede's

(1980) arguing that his model's hierarchy provided in depth understanding on the countries studied cross-culturally, this being due to

- How the sample was logically approached
- The systemic measurement
- The unique techniques with which he analyzed the results

Spini (2003) further supported this in an empirical study confirming the legitimacy of the theoretical framework model used by Schwartz (1994), saying that the model did not go without criticism. Lan *et al.*, (2008) argued that the model lacked in explaining on how prioritization among people took place on taking achievement decisions, by showing an existence of motivational aims and a number of different values proven both theoretically and empirically. Parboteeah *et al.* (2005) believed that Schwartz's model (1994) was very limited in its approach in contrast to the GLOBE framework. Concurrently, Ng *et al.* (2007) argued that through time there has been a noteworthy shift in cultural values amongst nations and workplace and thus the data used was outdated having been collected 14 years previously. The idea that time shifts cultural values was supported in a study on young Chinese managers and trends on their new cultural values in comparison to their predecessors (Ralston *et al.*, 1999).

2.3.4 Theoretical Model of Culture – House *et al.*, (2004)

House *et al.*, (2004) established the Globe framework whose intention was to study the effectiveness of best practices and values on organisational leadership globally. This was done by exploring cultural values in a number of countries and to assess the impact of national cultural values on organisational practices and its effect on the leadership characteristics. Based on the GLOBE research programme, which had 17000 respondents, all managers, from 951 organizations in 62 countries were questioned within 9 defining dimensions. These being:

Power Distance; Uncertainty Avoidance; Institutional Collectivism; Group Collectivism; Gender; Assertiveness; Future Orientation; Performance Orientation; and Human Orientation. The first six dimensions of the research were derived from Hofstede's (1980) study that represented quantitative measurements for cultural values and its practices at both the organizational and social levels. The GLOBE Index was based on the difference of national cultural performance of social values for the countries studied. The Globe is an assessment framework that tries to understand society's current practices as it is considered a newer and theoretically comprehensive cultural framework (House *et al.*, 2004). As usual nothing goes without its fair deal of criticism, and it has been suggested by Hofstede (2006) that to assume that the respondents were unable to compare their own society's practices to

that of others would be naïve and faulty. Also he criticized the framework because it was centred on the American culture and its values. In defence to the GLOBE framework and its methodology Javidan *et al.* (2006) claimed that it was a valid scale both theoretically and empirically verifiable due to the exhaustive methodology.

The GLOBE is a multi-phase framework that has been used to explore leadership and culture around the world. The first phase of the GLOBE focused on the creation of research instruments to measure leadership and societal and organisational culture. For the purpose of this chapter, we focus on the development of leadership scales, with lesser reference to the development of the culture scales. In the second phase of the GLOBE, the psychometric properties of the scales were replicated through a wide-ranging, multi-industry data collection phase. Together these two phases created the basis for the first two books about the GLOBE (Chhokar *et al.*, 2007; House *et al.*, 2004). The third phase presents a study of the strategic leadership effectiveness of specific leader behaviors on top management team attitudes and firm performance in cultures (Sully de Luque *et al.*, 2008; Waldman *et al.*, 2006).

2.3.5 Theoretical Model of Culture – Hofstede (2004)

In 1981 Hofstede used the IBM attitude survey as a stepping stone to an employee satisfaction survey and while analysing the results found that the study had aspects that could be correlated between national attributes and cultural values and the process ended up as a measurement of culture in multiple dimensions (Hofstede, 1983). The study was based on 60000 responses and by using the eclectic approach of analysing it, the critical reasoning of the theory emerged followed by a cultural dimensions categorization (Magnusson *et al.*, 2008). The initial employee satisfaction survey model started by identifying four key cultural actors that were to be “scored” using the IBM attitude questionnaire (Donthu and Yoo, 1998). The other five dimensions were correlated to the first four which are defined as follows:

- **Dimension 1**-Power Distance Index [PDI]. Is the extent of acceptance of unequal power distribution according to the hierarchy of an organization or family set up. The objective of getting a low PDI in cultures minimizes the gap between the powerful and ordinary (Hofstede, 2001) Representing the inequality of the social pyramid where it is defined from the bottom going upward. This validates that power and the followers endorse inequality as much as the leaders in the cultural context. Looking through the lens of international experience all are aware that all societies are unequal but some are more unequal than others.
- **Dimension 2**- is the individualism (IDV) versus the collectivism in a cultural context by which the level of individual integration into groups is assessed The individualism in

societies is the egoistical understanding of looking after ourselves and our immediate family whereas the collectivism in societies is the unquestionable loyalty generated from protection and unconditional tenderness being an integrated and a cohesive extended groups of people /families. The meaning of collectivism has no political reference; it signifies the collective group and not the state .This dimension assess a fundamental issue in cultures around the world.

- **Dimension 3**-Hofstede (2001) characterized masculinity in a social context where gender roles were explicitly distinct. Male-dominated in terms of power, assertiveness and focused on material successes whilst women are the representation of tenderness, humble and was linked to the style of life He also characterized femininity in the social context as the distribution of the gender roles. The IBM studies revealed that the values of women differed less than the men along the spectrum of different countries. The values of men contained a dimension of assertiveness to competitiveness that was extremely contradictory to women's values from modest and caring. Accordingly the assertive role is correlated with masculinity and the modest caring role correlated with the feminine. Hence this dimension identifies with whether the country is identified as masculine or feminine in the cultural context. It has to be noted that some countries may show a gap between the two values.
- **Dimension 4** –is the Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) is man's search for truth overcoming society's intolerance of uncertainty and vagueness. The UAI indicates the extent to which an individual in a society responds to unstructured situations of unknown novelty and different from usual incidents. It indicates the cultural understanding inferred by the individual in that specific society Countries that are uncertainty avoiding cultures are usually cultures confined with high adherence to rules, high safety and security measures, and on faith. "There is only one truth and we have it". People are motivated by inner nervous energy which diffuses people into being more emotional the opposite of these countries, the Uncertainty Accepting, have fewer rules and are more content in allowing many streams to flow side by side on the faith based level. They are more prone to being placid and thoughtful with no demonstration of emotions expressed. The uncertainty avoidance index is the score level of the degree of tolerance of a society within unstructured situations on uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede 1983, 1984; Hofstede and Hofstede 2005).
- **Dimension 5**-Research by Bond and colleagues (1991) led them to add the fifth dimension calling it the long versus short term orientation in societies. Long term orientated societies foster future rewards and adaptation to changing circumstances while on the other hand short term oriented societies promote values of national pride respect for traditions, fulfilling social obligations and saving face.

- **Dimension 6-** is indulgence versus restraint which are again based on the data analysis of Hofstede *et al.* (2010) world values survey involving 93 countries. A society of indulgence allows for a permissive drive allowing basic and natural egocentricity related to enjoying life and having fun on the other hand restraint is a foundation for a society which suppresses egocentricity and curbs it by strict social norms.

Schwartz (1994) criticized Hofstede's model on its lack of comprehensiveness (Schwartz, 1994; Smith *et al.*, 1996) and on it being based on a single organization hence questioning its validity because of the use of a survey that lacks thoroughness (McSweeney, 2002). According to Hofstede and Bond (1988) the long term orientation affiliated to some Asian countries being added as the fifth dimension lead to the criticism that the inclusion of Asian cultures lead to the fifth dimension. Hofstede (1981) acknowledged the overall relevance of the data and the fact that it was outdated having been collected between 1969 and 1973 as indicated by McSweeney (2002). Hill (1998) criticized Hofstede's research approach for two reasons. Firstly, that the research was already culturally biased on the premise that the researchers were of American and European origins already having set their individual cultural values hence the study itself was culturally destined by their values. Secondly, the research was based on one company's culture and not that of an industry. As previously stated, the fact that Hofstede's (1981) work is out dated especially as cultures tend to shift with time and evolve slowly (Hill, 1998), who concluded by saying that what was reasonable/the case in the 1960s and 1970s may well not be so today. This was supported by Smith *et al.* (1996) who believed that the population sample was not expansive and prevented the dimensions from being meticulously studied. Another criticism (Donthu and Yoo, 2002) was the pooling of 22 Arab countries on the premise of assuming that there are no cultural differences for these countries to be analyzed individually assuming that the social differences are similar leaving the four dimensions for the cultural indices scored. Despite the fact that Hofstede (1981) did not study each country individually the debate whether his assumption to cluster the countries into one group were not accepted. Moreover, whilst there are different countries, within these countries there may perhaps be regions within them that are their own 'mini culture within a culture'. So, for example, whilst there are 22 Arabic countries if we look at the map, in reality there may be regions within them which have their own culture, irrespective of their national boundary.

Although having been criticised, Hofstede's national cultural framework is still used as an acceptable framework (Sondergaard, 1994; Steenkamp, 2001). It was also perceived by Smith *et al.* (2006) that this was the only framework robust and comprehensive enough in regards to

the number of national culture samples contained that it fit into cultural studies easily and rationally, something also supported by Soares *et al.* (2007).

In retrospect Hofstede's work (1981) has provided the "the beginnings of the foundation that could help scientific theory building in cross-cultural research" (Sekaran, 1983, pp. 61-73) and the framework is the best approach to the optimum national cultural dimension. This being the correlational evidence of the generic characteristics as stated by Kutter (2007) between Schwartz's (1994) dimensions of conservatism versus sovereignty and hierarchy of the institutions interrelating it with the equality of the individual versus its collectivism all within the power distance dimensions. Despite its acknowledged drawbacks, Hofstede's model (1981) is the most commonly used model in the business and management literature (Zhang *et al.*, 2005). It is therefore the model that will be used in the research described in this thesis.

2.4 Intercultural Competence and its Impacts on Conflict/Negotiating

The idea of intercultural competence is very important to discuss here, as it may be the reason why some people would deal with conflicts in a cross-cultural workplace in better ways than others. Nevertheless, it would be much better to start with a definition of intercultural competence to be able to grasp its relation to conflict management styles. Although there is no consensus on the definition of intercultural competence, Berardo (2005) defined that the intercultural competence is the ability to interrelate successfully and within applied dimensions with a variety of intercultural resources of knowledge, skills awareness and attitudes. Bennet (1986) applied the concepts related to cybernetic constructivism (Von Foerster, 1984; Brown, 1972; Maturana and Varela, 1987) whose observations concluded that cultural competence was recognized with six orientations that people's experiences gained their attainment of their intercultural competencies. The basic assumption of the model is that with one's gain of the experiences of cultural differences; one's potential competence increases due to the complexities and finesse of the experiences. The framework presented later in this dissertation, derives from the following: perception (Brunswick, 1956; Heider, 1958), metaphor (Morgan, 1997), framing (Creed *et al.*, 2002; Lakoff, 2004; Lakoff and Johnson, 1999; Lewicki *et al.*, 2003), integrative complexity (Conway *et al.*, 2001; Kelly, 1955), and on other meta-frameworks (Breunlin *et al.*, 2001).

- ***Denial of Cultural Difference*** is enduring that the culture experienced and recognized as the only real one, perceiving other cultures as irrelevant or construed in a vague non-discriminatory way. This results in a cultural indifference of inexperience and identifying it as foreign and alien. People with denial of cultural

difference are oblivious to what's around them and when it impinges onto their comfort zone they tend to either aggressively address to eliminate the differences with a sense of superiority. Extreme forms of denial tend to perceive their own culture as the only realistic 'human' where as the rest are viewed as; to be tolerated exploited and eliminated if necessary simpler forms. As suggested by Bennett (1993) that ignoring such differences is the eventual outcome of mono-cultural societies.

- ***Defence Against Cultural Difference*** is being resolute that there is the only culture to be experienced and it is theirs. People having defence against cultural difference are more adept in discriminating with perceptions of stereotypical attitudes and are more aggressive in protecting their understating of their culture; this far more than the denial of cultural difference. To them cultures is divided to 'us' and 'them'. 'Us' being the superior and 'them' the inferior culture. Difference of cultures experienced by the defence is perceived as an attack on their values especially considering that they allocate themselves as the dominant culture. People from minority cultures are more susceptible to a stable and solid individual identity that will differ from the majority group (Banks, 1988; Parham, 1989).
- ***Minimization of Cultural Differences*** this is viewed when an individual perceives that their culture is of a global overview and is experienced universally. People of the cultural minimization difference expect similarities and become obsessed in correcting the behaviour of others to match their expectations. For culturally dominant people the minimization tends to mask all recognition of their cultural ethnicity and the privilege it avails itself on the particular group. It also tends to mask all threats of cultural differences by categorizing the familiar into groups of similarities. These cultural differences may for instance be sub-categorized into the typical natural physical (physical universalism) aspects of cultural differences that are in turn processed into the natural pyramid of needs and motivations or the experience of cross-cultural differences such as economic, religious and/or philosophical concepts (transcendent universalism). Thus, categorising these differences into the similarities might be expressed as a cross-cultural applicability because of 'universal absolutes' in the process obscuring deep cultural differences and trivialising the other cultures or romanticizing them.

The orientation of the next three Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity [DMIS] are more ethno-cultural and is defined on the pretext that culture is experienced through the contextual experience of the culture of others:

- ***Acceptance of Cultural Difference*** is the state by which one's culture is experienced as a fairly complex worldview. In other words these group of people can create cross cultural categories that allow them produce a range of relevant norms between various cultures thus becoming not just experts of their own and other cultural values but adept in identifying how to experience all the cultural differences in a vast selections of behaviours. Having the ability to distinguish the difference of cultures including their own they have the ability to experience others as different from themselves by constructing a meta-level consciousness. Having the ability to adapt to the human interactions of other cultures is not necessarily agreement but acceptance where some cultural differences may although be perceived negatively will have worldview of the cultures. In this standpoint the main issue to be undertaken is regarding the comparative value of the cultural differences known as 'value relativity'. The acceptance of this value relativity in a cultural context is how to main the ethical commitment in relation to the value relativity of the cultures thus exercising the different cultures by different values in the cultural context (Perry 1970).
- ***Adaption to Cultural Differences*** is when experiencing another culture and having the ability to acclimatize oneself to the perceptions and behaviours relevant to that experienced hence their theory include the edifice of other worldview cultures. People with adaption to cultural differences have the ability to also shift the frame of reference from one culture to another by engaging in empathy, in-depth and customised actions that leads to expressing biculturalism and multiculturalism by re-enactment of appropriate behaviours and feelings.
- ***Integration of Cultural Difference*** the ability to use one's intercultural experiences to interchange between the different cultural worldviews. Their issues are related with being on the margins of two or more cultures and their identities connecting with all the differences within the cultures i.e. 'cultural marginality'. Bennett (1993a) suggested that there are two forms of cultural identification that flourishes; one negatively as a sheltered culture, which separates itself and experiences alienation of both the cultures and the other on a positive note a constructive form embracing the interchange between the cultures as a necessary and basis of their cultural identity.

Integration is by no means better than adaptation when it comes to intercultural competence but it is descriptive of a large group of people who are non-dominant, global long-term and nomadic expatriate. The more the ethnocentric cultural orientations are a way of avoiding cultural differences; the more the denial of its existence or the raising of its defences minimizes its importance. It may be reasoned that the characterization of identity is

integrating the concept of either accepting by adapting one's perspectives or a whole integration of cultural differences and its pursuing more ethno relative worldviews.

Although Bennett's (1993) orientations are widely known, criticism was directed to them. The Intercultural Developmental Inventory [IDI] is a theory based instrument of which its concept is embedded in the six stages of Bennett's (1986, 1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity [DMIS] which are listed as follows:

- Denial of Difference
- Defence against Difference
- Minimization of Difference
- Acceptance of Difference
- Adaption of Difference
- Integration of difference

These stages from the DMIS form a continuum from ethno-centrism to ethno-relativism. The IDI is not a whole reflection of the theoretical framework of the DMIS. The IDI according to Hammer et al. (2003) is unable to distinguish the difference between denial from defence, as well as to measure separately acceptance and adaptation. The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity [DMIS] has been criticized by Turner (1991) on the research approach of the study based on the intercultural insensitivities of American expatriates in Kuwait, where he mentioned that the study faced with the difficulty of understanding the respondent's orientations within the stages as defined by Bennett's framework, whereby the study itself was unclear in its definition of the stages and the theoretical differentiation of the cultural differences portrayed by the respondents, the expatriates. This was further exacerbated by the fact that the expatriates' statements included several stages and skipped stages in between. In other words the flow of the study was inadequate (Straffon, 2003; Turner, 1991; Yamamoto, 1994). It has been speculated that the history of negotiation dates back to the early 20th century whereas its methodical study has but a short history (Gelfand and Dyer, 2000). The obvious number of studies and self-improvement books and articles providing descriptions and advise on how to negotiate in different settings and cultures are numerous with specifics for each country such as China (Blackman, 1997; Goh, 1996; Pye, 1992), Japan (Hawrysh and Zaichkowsky, 1989; March, 1988), Korea (Tung, 1991), and Russia (Schechter, 1998).

The above studies offer an insight to different cultures and styles of negotiations but are not a definitive model framework for measurement or testing the relationships between cultures and the negotiation process because of their hypothetical nature. In other words, they did not

make any empirical or scientific studies that produce reliable results. Understanding how cultures respond to intercultural disputes and conflict; is the ability to strategize a framework for the negotiation process that will work for and not against the individual when they adopt a specific conflict management style. Therefore the cultural context in which the negotiation process is working in is a sophisticated understanding of all the complexities of cross-cultural communications which also enhances the understanding of the reactions of the culture experienced (Yang *et al.*, 2007).

2.5 Intercultural Clashes and Culture Specific Negotiation Styles

With the increasing number of empirical research studies on cross cultural studies on the negotiation process, these tell us how negotiators/those dealing with conflict in the workplace think and/or behave differently and how this may or may not be impacted by the culture/country that they come from. Influence of culture on research studies has made the negotiation process understandable due to the fact that the studies were conducted through a variety of cultures which exhibited some similarities and differences during the negotiation process across the different cultures (Gelfand and Dyer, 2000; Lituchy, 1997; Ma and Jaeger, 2003) but when compared to the studies by Brett and Okumura (1998) in inter and intercultural negotiations between the Japanese and the American cultures through their negotiators it was found that the perception of understanding the priorities and its utilization of compatibility of the other party was less in inter than intercultural negotiations.

In his study, Graham (1985) compared and contrasted the processes of business negotiations in three countries, the United States, Japan, and Brazil, and came up with a number of striking differences and similarities, which can be used as an evidence for the influence of culture on negotiation and how these vary from culture/country to culture/country. Three dyads from each country were videotaped during a buyer-seller negotiation simulation. Both verbal behaviours and nonverbal behaviours were observed and recorded. The apparent differences between Japanese and American processes of buyer-seller negotiation can be summarized along 6 dimensions of observed behaviour. Contrary to the hypothesis suggested by Van Zandt (1970), Japanese, like Americans, use aggressive persuasive tactics. However, in Japanese negotiations they appear to be used only by buyers and in the later stages of the negotiations (when all else fails). This is consistent with the differences in the roles and behaviours of Japanese buyers and sellers described by Nakane (1970) and Graham (1983). Silence is a strong persuasive strategy often used in Japanese negotiations (Ueda 1974 and Van Zandt 1970). The Japanese use the word "no" less frequently as Ueda (1974) predicted. Facial gazing is much less frequent during Japanese negotiations.

Finally, two other process variables seem to be culture-specific, namely, first offers and initial concessions. In the three interactions taped, Japanese consistently asked for higher profits when making the initial offer in a negotiation. The American negotiators found that as soon they were closer to the ultimate solution were more skilled in being 'fair' in their negotiations. Americans also tended to make larger initial concessions. Other than these six differences, American and Japanese bargaining processes appear to be similar. Alternatively, observations of Brazilian executives participating in the negotiation simulation suggest a number of striking differences. The Brazilian business persons made fewer commitments and more commands. First offers were more "greedy" than either the Japanese or the American offers. The Brazilian bargainers disagreed with bargaining partners (as measured by the number of "no's") with strikingly greater frequency than either the Japanese or the American businessperson. Finally, Brazilian bargainers interrupted very frequently, spent more time gazing at partners' faces, and touched during the bargaining process. That is, the Brazilian bargaining process observed appears to be different from both the Japanese and American style in almost every respect.

In recent studies simulations of the EU received a wide audience (Lightfoot and Maurer, 2013). These simulations were based on the employees being explained the function of the decision-making process (Van Dyke *et al.*, 2000; Switky, 2004; Bursens and Van Loon, 2007), through the negotiation process within unique work places such as the EP (Jozwiak, 2013), of the European Council or Council of the Union (Jozwiak, 2013; Kaunert, 2009; Zeff, 2003; Galatas, 2006), of the Council Presidency (Elias, 2013), of the Commission's staff (Giacomello, 2012).

2.6 Summary

Considering negotiation as an effective way for resolving conflict, the strategies used by negotiators were identified and explained in this chapter. There have been attempts to develop conflict management style inventories over the years and the most widely accepted and used one is that of Thomas-Kilmann (1974) called the Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI), as earlier in this chapter, this comprises the negotiation behaviours of compromising, competing, collaborating, accommodating and avoiding, which were explained and evaluated.

The participation of both parties is necessary for an effective negotiation. In a globalised world, the participant's involvement and behaviour in the negotiation is greatly dependent on his culture and the impact of culture in the behavioural pattern of the people has been studied vividly and is laid down in this chapter. The 5 behavioural mode (compromising, competing,

collaborating, accommodating and avoiding) is directly connected to the expected outcome (outcome concern) and the relationship between the negotiators (relationship concern) and such a concern paved way to the development of a framework of behavioural modes in terms of “Agreeableness and Activeness” . So the concern on relationship and outcome is the basis of 5 distinct strategies in each behavioural mode. Apart from this, adoption of a particular conflict management style on the basis of assertiveness and cooperativeness was also studied in this chapter

The impact of relationship and outcome in the adoption of particular negotiation strategies were also enumerated here. Conflict is the source of negotiation. Individual as well as organizational factors plays important role in conflict creation. The study explores if culture has impact on the conflict management skill of individuals. National culture, which is passed by generation to generation lays the foundation for one’s ethics and organizational culture provides a secondary development which is generated by the needs of the organisation one belongs to.

Hall and Hall (1990) classified a country’s culture as either high context or low context. Seven dimensions on national culture were established in Trompennars’ (1993) research that covered 50 countries resulted in a country index to differentiate national culture in a quantitative pretext. Schwartz (1994) conducted a survey on 56 cultural values among 35 countries explains intercultural variation values. The research revealed that House’s’ (2004) GLOBE index also contributed much to explain the difference of national cultural performance of social values. The six dimension of Hofstede’s (2004) study was also enumerated in this chapter.

The study adopts the triangulation approach of combination of instrument of Thomas Killman with other two famous negotiation simulations. This method is widely accepted especially after the successful study of Chinese conflict management style by Ma (2007). Ma’s research contributed much in the conflict management style on the basis of culture and revealed the compromising and competing negotiation strategy of Chinese through his research. He used the Used Car case, Knight /Excalibur case and Best book /Page Turner case simulations for his research. The Used Car case is used in this research and instead of Knight/Excalibur case the researcher used the New House Negotiation case which is a little bit more complex than the Used Car case. The researcher purposely avoids a harder case similar to that of Best book case in order to avoid data bias and to avoid complications among the students. In an organizational context, more complicated simulations can be applied in future research.

Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework

3.1 Overview of conflict management and its international dimensions

Resolving conflict is both an art and a science and the impact of a person's culture, whether a Middle Eastern culture or any other culture, in the ability of a person to adopt a particular mode of conflict management is analyzed in this study. The culture in question here is that of Kuwait, in the Middle East. The impact of culture on the behaviours of people is explained in the literature review in the previous chapter and it shows the research that has been done around the world on the impact of culture in the conflict management style of people. Regarding conflict management, the majority of the studies were carried out in a western context and little literature is available which has explored this in the context of the Middle East. One exception is that of the work of Ma (2007), which provided a clear picture about the conflict management style in the Chinese cultural context. However, it is argued here that there is a need for further research across different cultures, especially non-western cultures, if we are to better understand conflict and its possible resolution if we are to assist individuals in dealing with conflict, whether within their own culture, as here in this study, or when dealing with conflict if it involves negotiation with people from other countries or cultures. The latter is all the more relevant given globalisation and world trade today. Having a reference that looks at conflict management styles across a diverse cultural understanding can help in incorporating and integrating the varied cultural contexts into a rich and evolved understanding in choosing the appropriate conflict management style (van de Vijver and Leung, 1997; Tjosvold et al., 2000).

It cannot be said that conflict management styles across cultures have not been investigated and studied, but they have produced inconsistent results with weak cultural specific supporting arguments (Weldon and Jehn, 1995). Although studies in the area of conflict management have made progress, in that these have answered the effective ways of managing conflict (Jehn and Weldon, 1992; Kozan, 1997; Sorenson *et al.*, 1999), studies have yet to explore the areas of cross-cultural conflict management where wide misperceptions and deficiencies are found. According to Ma (2007), the field of conflict management, being a relatively young field, lacks in integrative international studies and culture specific measures of conflict management styles. Most of the studies that have been conducted on conflict management only focus on samples representing those comprising western cultures, and only a few studies dealt with conflict styles in non-western cultures.

Since conflict management is informed by the culture in which the individuals who are negotiating are carrying out their negotiations, their conflict management styles can only be defined through it (Hocker and Wilmot, 1991), and their conflict management style is very likely to differ from one culture/country to another.

Furthermore, with the globalisation of business and trade the working environment in which individuals find themselves, this needs individuals who are able to understand both their own conflict management style (informed by their own culture) and also that of someone from another culture if the person that they are negotiating with is from a different culture. So, for example, if an American is negotiating with someone from Kuwait, the American needs to be as knowledgeable as they can be about not only their own conflict management style but also that of the Kuwaiti, and vice versa. Moreover, exploring conflict in varied cultural contexts would improve the current perceptions of different cultures and their conflict management styles, which may help in developing sophisticated and consistent universal theories applicable to these cultures (van de Vijver and Leung, 1997; Tjosvold *et al.*, 2000). Based on the literature described and discussed in Chapter Two, there is a need to find out the most commonly used conflict management styles in a region that, to date, has not been looked at in the literature, namely, that of the Middle East region and how the management styles of those in this region impact their the negotiation behaviour and outcomes in a business negotiation. Or, more accurately, how those in one particular country/culture within this wide geographical region behaves when faced with negotiating, as it is argued here that even within the Middle East, that behaviour may vary.

3.2 Research Context

The term ‘Middle East’ refers to a group of 16 countries that possess a similar religion, culture and its people are classified as collectivist in nature. These countries are Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, UAE and Yemen. The research described in this dissertation was conducted in Kuwait, the wealthiest among the Middle East countries. Because of its wealth, economically, Kuwait has a high percentage of migrant workers from all over the world, and especially for many Middle Eastern migrants who are looking for a better living and who are drawn to Kuwait due to the similarities in culture, language and religion.

Among the total population of the country, expatriates represent more than double the population of the country. This might be part be explained due to present uncertainty in some Middle East countries. Marriage with other Middle Eastern country citizens is also common

in Kuwait. Such people get citizenship in the country. So, it is common that many people have a patriarchal or matriarchal blood relation with someone from another Middle Eastern country. So, we can identify Kuwait as a sample for all Middle Eastern countries. Though the research was conducted in Kuwait, it may perhaps be the case that the results may, or may not, be representative of all the Middle Eastern countries. The geographical locations of Middle East countries are also significant. Though primarily the Middle East located in western Asia some countries are part of North Africa and South East Europe

According to Hofstede (2005) when conducting his research assumed that the seven countries that he took into consideration (Kuwait, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, Libya, United Arab Emirates and Iraq) that there were no difference between them when it came to cultural differences and were homogenously aligned in the way they approached and resolved issues. As a consequence all Arab countries were clustered into a group relinquishing the essence of the cultural context being a factor in the negotiation process.

The common themes and elements of the culture are summed up: “On aspects of popular culture in the Middle East, traces common themes and elements in the popular culture of the region which cut across boundaries of nationality, ethnicity and religion. These common themes and practices are paradoxical when considered in relation to the conventional characterisation of the Middle Eastern societies as fragmented into well bounded communities based on religion, ethnicity, regional, tribal and occupational affiliations. The purification of this syncretistic and heterodox popular culture then become part of the political projects of both nationalism and of political Islam” (Zubaida, 1993).

3.3 Research Hypotheses

During the negotiation process the behaviour of negotiators from the Middle East, like negotiators from any culture/country, interact with others in a particular way. As detailed earlier, there are a number of conflict style inventories, and most comprise a grid model. In this grid model, there are two axes; one for ‘concern for the task’ and the other ‘concern for people’. These axes show the interaction between the two and show, via the grid, five different styles of management. That is, that negotiators (or anyone else who interacts with someone else when it comes to managing something) have certain values, and that there are these five ways of interacting with others. The Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) developed by Thomas and Kilmann (1974) is one such conflict style inventory and it is the one selected for use in the research described in this dissertation. It takes as its axes ‘assertiveness’ and ‘cooperation’. The Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) shows that there are five different styles when it comes to dealing with conflict. These are:

- Collaborating (which is both assertive and cooperative)
- Compromising (which is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness)
- Avoiding (which is unassertive and uncooperative)
- Competing (which is assertive and uncooperative)
- Accommodating (which is unassertive and cooperative)

As a collectivistic culture in which close family relationships and tribal ties are highly valued, those from the Middle East tend to approach conflicts in a cooperative manner (compromising, accommodating, and collaborating). In other words, they will address conflict in an indirect way. It is assumed that they accommodate a convenient strategy that would satisfy both the individual and the collective group when it comes to resolving conflicts. It is assumed that they tend to emphasize what they have in common with the conflicting party while de-emphasizing the differences in an attempt to solve the conflict and maintain social harmony.

The Middle East culture is high in collectivism and low in individualism, according to Hofstede (2004). The Middle East culture is high in long term orientation and low in short term orientation, according to Hofstede (2004). This culture is also high in restraint and low in indulgence, according to Hofstede (2004). It is also a masculine rather than feminine culture in which men play the major roles, according to Hofstede (2004). As for uncertainty avoidance, this culture is low in it as it does not tolerate ambiguity and often seeks the truth, according to Hofstede (2004). Those from the Middle East tend to approach conflicts in a cooperative manner (compromising, accommodating, collaborating). The six dimensions of Hofstede (2004) are taken into account in the study described in this dissertation. These are Power Distance Index, Individualism and Collectivism, Masculinity and Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long and Short Term Orientation, Indulgence and Restraint.

The subjects chosen for the study described in this dissertation are those from Kuwait in the Middle East. Taken into account in this study are those aspects above, that is, their style of management when it comes to conflict resolution (as measured by the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, 1974), their personal orientation and their background when it comes to the following five negotiating behaviours: compromising/split the difference, collaborating/win-win, accommodating/lose to win, competing/win-lose, avoiding/lose-lose.

Thus, it is established that a conflict management study on the basis of culture is pertinent mainly due to the following factors

- Understanding differences in behaviour on the basis of culture is significant in a complex globalised world for the smooth functioning of organisations.
- Most of the studies were done in a western culture context and hence the results may not be applicable to the Middle Eastern context.
- The collectivistic culture of Middle East emphasizes the need to investigate if the elements of collectivistic culture exhibit in their business dealings also.

High degree of importance in relationship, high degree in the expectation of outcome, high degree of cooperativeness and high degree of assertiveness are the behavioural modes which are pertinent to Middle Eastern culture attributes a collaborative style according to Thomas-Kilmann behavioural pattern and in the study, it is testing if these behavioural modes have impact in the business dealings through 2 simulations.

The following Hypotheses are formulated on the basis of the theoretical findings.

- ***Hypothesis 1 : People from Middle East exhibit an assertive and cooperative manner during negotiation due to the impact of their culture.***

Assuming that during the negotiation process behaviour of negotiators from the Middle East, have been identified along the basic two dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness and their correlation between the five conflict modes previously studied. These being

- Collaborating which is both assertive and cooperative
- Compromising which is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness
- Avoiding which is unassertive and uncooperative
- Competing which is assertive and uncooperative
- Accommodating which is unassertive and cooperative

Having the conflict management norms being discussed actively and cooperatively (Gelfand *et al.*, 2008)

- ***Hypothesis 2: People from Middle east address conflict in an indirect manner.***

The respondents being from the Middle East tend to approach conflicts in a cooperative manner (Compromising, Accommodating, Collaborating) and will be studied according to Hofstede's dimensions which are Power Distance Index, Individualism and Collectivism, Masculinity and Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long and Short Term Orientation, Indulgence and Restraint; it will be assumed that they will address conflict in an indirect way. In simply words, they will address conflict in an indirect way.

- ***Hypothesis 3: During negotiation process people from Middle East adopts a strategy to convince the other party about their common interest and to maintain harmony.***

The subjects would accommodate a convenient strategy that would satisfy both the individual and the collective group. The subjects will tend to emphasize what they have in common with the conflicting party while de-emphasizing the differences in an attempt to solve the conflict and maintain social harmony.

- ***Hypothesis 4: Masculine subjects will be more assertive and competitive than feminine subjects who would tend to be more cooperative. The Middle East has been identified as mainly a Masculine culture according to Hofstadter's Masculinity and Femininity Cultural Dimensions***
- ***Hypothesis 5: Personal orientation, mannerism and back ground has impact in the behavioural pattern of Middle East Negotiators***

Considering that the negotiators are from the Middle East and taking into account their behaviours according to the situational conflict management styles will also take into consideration their personal orientation, backgrounds and mannerisms as reflected by the behaviours of Compromising/split the difference, collaborating/win-win, accommodating/Lose to Win, Competing/Win-Lose, Avoiding/Lose-Lose, as previously reviewed.

The Middle East has been identified as mainly a masculine culture according to Hofstede's masculinity and femininity cultural dimensions. Masculine subjects will be more assertive and competitive than feminine subjects who would tend to be more cooperative. *"A Society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct; men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life"* (Hofstede, 1998).

Islamic women prefer to abide by the state law, consider religion as a private matter and hence their perceptions and reactions are mainly based on easier and smoother approach to handle things. Hence this section is focused on the satisfaction of the negotiating process and its outcomes based on the effect of gender. In other words, there was a need to investigate if there are significant differences between male negotiators and female negotiators for each party.

3.5 Summary

The term culture is very important as it is believed that it could explain many aspects of human life. Researches on culture have contributed much to the social and physical science. The behaviour, style, social life, mannerism etc manifest the culture of a person, and it was mainly evident in older times where there were no intercultural interactions. The impact of culture though seems disseminated with the impact of globalization which resulted in huge rate of migration and intercultural interactions the study of culture is still relevant in an organizational context to improve the organizational harmony. Negotiation is an inevitable aspect in a business world. The interaction of culture and negotiation behaviour is hence gains much prominence in a social as well as organizational context. The Middle East culture, which is distinctive for its close-knit family relations and social relations, is subjected to this research for its impact in business negotiations. It is presumed that the Middle East people resort to a cooperative and collaborative method because of the importance that they give to keep relations hence the hypotheses were laid down on the basis of that presumption. Through the TKI instrument the researcher tries to identify the dominant behavioural mode of Middle East people and through the IPI method the researcher tries to assess if the behavioural mode has impact on conflicting situations.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter will introduce the research approach that will be implemented in this research and why they have been particularly selected from a wide diversity of research models. It will also give a detailed idea about the two negotiation simulations and the steps or procedures included in their implementation including the subjects and all the necessary information related to them. In addition to this, there will be an extensive discussion of the dependent variables influencing the results and the proposed methods for measuring them. This chapter also introduces the qualitative, the quantitative and the combined approaches and provides the justification for using the quantitative approach.

4.1 Introduction to Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches

Cornbrash indicated that there were two prevailing schools of scientific study in psychology (1957). One school of psychology studies by experimenting on small samples extracted and determined for suitability by scrutinising and documenting the average performance of the human and animal behaviours basing them on general principles. The other school of scientific study in psychology obtains its representative samples through the analysis of questionnaire surveys or interviews. Then tends to use standard measurements previously substantiated that is related to describing and interpreting individual differences, the diversity of the dimensions of intellectual ability, personality and psychopathology of the respondents. It can be concluded that the quantitative research tends to interpretive of the data into numerical solutions of understanding the research questions whereas the qualitative research is an interpretation of the data in non-numerical forms (Punch, 1998). Accordingly, the results are analysed for the first scientific school of psychological study, the data is computed through *t*-tests and the analysis of variance while the second school tends to evaluate with the use of correlation, regression and factor-analytic methods (Everett and Hay, 1992).

Although having chosen that this study be quantitative it also has the criteria to be a qualitative research. This due to the fact that it has the characteristics of describing events and behavioural attitudes reflective of the subject researched and puts forth a scientific understanding without the use of numerical data. While quantitative research is based on data being numerically analysed and interpreted numerically. Whether quantitative or qualitative both approaches are acceptable and not exclusive to a particular study set, it is possible for a subject evaluated to be approached by both methods (Best and Khan, 1989). It has been stated

that the qualitative approach is challenging in achievement because it requires passion, time and commitment under stressful conditions through its process (Delamont, 1992).

Quantitative research represents data in numeric forms that needs to be disseminated, interpreted and analysed from the representation of the data collected. This is done by focusing on the large scale and the representation of the data sets which are often perceived to deal with collecting data as facts. On the other hand qualitative research although interested in collecting non-numerical forms of information by focusing on the details of the issue and aiming to reach the 'depth' rather than the 'breadth' of the issue (Blaxter *et al.*, 1996). As known, research is a systematic investigation of a problem to find answers by following the traditional scientific method of objective investigation. Since the 1960s various opinions related to the research approach for the social sciences. One method takes a holistic natural phenomenological mode of research while the other takes the traditional scientific empirical research, which is often termed as 'nomothetic', suggesting that the social objectives are external of the individual. The nomothetic method challenges the research quantitatively to create laws and theoretical principals whereas the holistic approach tends to research the experiences of individuals subjectively and analysing it with a qualitative emphasis. This emphasis focusing on the individual subjectivity rather than a set list of guidelines is known as 'ideographic' (Blaxter *et al.*, 1996 p.69)

4.1.1 The Key Characteristics of the Quantitative Research

- **Control:** identifying the causes allows the researcher to have control over his/her gathered and analysed interpretations. Hence, for that reason it is often regarded as the most important element. To answer research questions experiments are conducted to identify the why, the 'what' and the 'how', with several other questions dependent on what is investigated. Having control to set out the boundaries offers unambiguous answers to such questions. It helps in eliminating the variables by concurrently isolating the cause and effect and having the ability to answer investigative questions in the areas of education and social sciences. Hence without controlled inquiry the cause and effect of the subject matter cannot be isolated.
- **Operational Definition:** are the stages/phases and steps that are defined within the process used to measure and is also a way of reducing any confusion between the meaning and the way it is communicated. Taking a look at the statement "Anxiety causes students to score poorly in tests" the term anxiety may be confused with being tense, which increases the confusion. Explaining that the term refers to a score

according to a criterion measured against an anxiety scale will help in conveying the specific understanding of the overall statement. This is concluded by identifying the empirical referents or terms, that are important to state an operational statement and any ambiguity is reduced. Thus, it can be said that introversion are defined according to particular scales dependent on personality scales such as hunger; against how many hours ago did they last eat, social class; as being defined as the occupation in that particular society.

- **Replication:** Reliability of the data is a key ingredient for any study /experiment to be duplicated hence should the study be repeated at any time the results/observations should be the same. Otherwise the stated observations and explanations will be thought to be unreliable leading to scepticism of the study.
- **Hypothesis Testing:** The formation of a set of hypotheses developed methodically to be subjected to empirical testing

4.1.1.1 Strengths of the Quantitative Approach

- Precision – which is done through quantitative and reliable measurement
- Control – which is reflected though questionnaire sampling and design
- Having the ability to use and differentiate when to construct causality statement versus the use of controlled experiments
- Refined scientific analysis as a conclusion to statistical techniques
- Replicable

4.1.1.2 Limitations of the Quantitative Approach

Following limitations are a barrier to the quantitative research approach:

- Due to human complexity of their experiences the removal or control of certain variables are questionable.
- People are unpredictable and tend to respond in different ways unlike the inert matters of experiments in the physical sciences
- The use of the quantitative method for its systematic approach tends to exclude philosophies of freedom, moral responsibilities and choice
- Quantification rather than a means to an end can be used as a change to an end.
- Although having the ability to interpret experiences subjectively and the resultant conclusion is to act on them accordingly with personal interpretations are deemed as defective.

- Due to the controlled variables and its restrictions in quantitative research the findings are mostly found to be insignificant and of no consequence

The subjectivity of the researcher involved in choosing the area of study to be investigated, analysed and interpreted allows for lack of objectivity.

4.1.2 The Key Characteristics of the Qualitative Research

The main belief in qualitative research is that they are investigated within a context that is absorbed by the researcher. Hence,

- Nothing is predefined or taken for granted only natural inquiries on the premise that it is not engineered
- Qualitative research is an interactive mirror of what is to be reflected by those being studied
- Qualitative researchers focus on the experience as a whole. The goal of qualitative research is to understand and capture the impact of the experience.
- It is the study of experiencing the variables as a whole unified form and not as separate variables
- There is no one general method, all the above understandings are a reflection of qualitative research

The qualitative research process is observed as an on-going assessment by the researchers on what needs to be studied.

- Ely (1991) adds the following from Sherman and Webb (1988) to their definition: “Qualitative implies a direct concern with experience as it is *lived* or *felt* or *undergone*”. Hence it could be understood that qualitative research is aimed in putting the researcher in the participants’ shoes with the goal of feeling and/or living the experiences studied.

4.1.2.1 Strengths of the Qualitative Approach

The researcher is overall more involved in all aspects of the study and has the ability of obtaining an insiders perspective of the issues. It has an advantage that it can pinpoint intricacies and complexities that would have otherwise been impossible to find if approached in a more scientific and rigid methodology. Qualitative research uses a more narrative and descriptive way of presenting the results which can imply relationships and cause and effects in a form that for the researcher that would have been otherwise unable to give new insights of the study.

Qualitative research adds the spices and decorations to the social research.

4.1.2.2 Limitations of the Qualitative Approach

It has been criticized that since qualitative research approach is based on the unconventional standards of reliability and validity. This being due to the subjective approach of the data is collected in the particular context. Consequently,

- The study cannot at any time imitate the context, interactions and conditions or making any generalizations to the subject studied as it is for that particular setting with all its conditions to gain a high confidence level of legitimacy
- Time is required to collect data, to analyse and interpret all qualitative studies
- The participants are affected by the aura of the researcher. There are problems with issues such as anonymity and confidentiality when selecting findings
- Participation in studies and selecting the appropriate findings are surrounded with confidentiality and anonymity issues
- Since the researchers subjectivity both the participant and the researcher's viewpoints are distinguished by identifying and explaining them

4.1.3 Similarities between the Quantitative and the Qualitative Approaches

- Although true to say that quantitative research is mostly used to test theories, that it can also be used to explore and generate hypotheses
- The above is also applicable to qualitative research, that it can be used to test theories as much as generating them.
- Word statements with inference to wordings such as more than, less than are components of quantification
- Conventional basics of collecting data through questionnaires holding open-ended questions tend to suggest that quantitative studies are not necessarily distinct

4.1.4 The Combined Approach

There has been a widespread debate on both research approaches and the advantages and disadvantages of their procedures. Various positions have been taken. One position emphasises that it should be taken in its entirety whereas, another position has no qualms of mixing the two research approaches together. Bryman (1988) argued for combining the two approaches whereas Hughes (1997) argues that the legitimacy and the technical solutions are

associated with the choice of the research approach, indicating that the quantitative approach is more scientific and objective. As a result, a new approach that incorporates both research strategies have emerged in an attempt to use the merits and exclude the demerits of both of them.

This new approach of incorporating the two research approaches has eleven ways of combining. These being

1. ***Logic of Triangulation*** is used to check the findings of a particular qualitative study against the findings of the same study quantitatively or vice-versa
2. ***Qualitative research facilitates quantitative research*** the qualitative research can act as the basis for the quantitative research by generating the context of the study, source of the hypotheses
3. ***Quantitative research facilitates qualitative research*** this is when the quantitative research assists in the choice of subject study for a qualitative study
4. ***Combining both approaches***, this is used when one research approach fills in the research gaps of the other as previously mentioned in the introductory paragraph
5. ***Structure and process***, the research process having structure gives the overall structure of the social features by using the quantitative process whereas the qualitative research is established in the process itself
6. ***Researchers and Subjects Perspectives*** quantitative research is controlled by the researchers objectivity and concerns whereas the qualitative approach is more determined by the participants perspective
7. ***Problem of Generality*** including quantitative data may help with the generalisations
8. ***Facilitating with*** qualitative research can enable the interpretation between the relations of the variables used hence allowing the researcher the ability to construe relationships among the variables. Otherwise it would have been hard to explain the underlying factors for the reason of these relationships
9. ***Relationship between Macro and Micro levels*** the incorporation of both the level will utilize a bridge formed to overcome the micro-macro gulf in other words the macro being the qualitative would give us the large scale structural features of the social life whereas the micro being the quantitative would be the small-scale behavioural aspects of the society
10. ***Stage in the research process*** the use of different stages within a longitudinal study
11. ***Hybrid*** is the use of qualitative research in quasi experimental quantitative research.

4.1.5 Selecting between Quantitative and Qualitative Approach

There are six factors you need to consider if you are to choose between quantitative and qualitative approaches:

- **Research questions** having to decide what exactly is being found out. Hence the use of the appropriate wording and asking the right research question will lead either to qualitative or quantitative approaches.
- Is the interest of study targeting to be concluded with methodical comparisons or to study a phenomena in detail
- **The Literature** has the area of proposed study been addressed before? To what extent is the researcher interested in delving into the matter and by what means?
- **Practical Issues**-research is time consuming and practical ways of addressing the issues of finances –work life balance availability of data, familiarity with the subject, gained collaborations...etc.
- **Knowledge payoff**, which research approach, will give more knowledge to mankind? Which approach will during its process and /or structure indulge more understanding?
- **Style**; personal preferences of what a piece of research should look like is dependent on the hypothesis and theoretical issues explored into.

4.2 Justifying the Quantitative Research Method

The aims of this are to examine the conflict management styles in the Middle East culture through questionnaires and this is expected to lead to a theory or a generalised idea of a sort, so it is appropriate to use the quantitative approach. Precision is the main reason for choosing the quantitative approach. Any valid results that can be generalised must be dependent on precision. Quantitative research can easily be controlled through careful sampling and design. A good opportunity for more sophisticated analyses is provided through the statistical techniques used within the quantitative approach.

4.3 Sample and Procedure

400 senior undergraduate business students from Kuwait University were selected for the survey. 64% of them were females and 36% were males. The students were given an introduction in which all the terms and conditions and the process of the activity was explained to them. After that the Thomas-Kilmann (1974) questionnaires were distributed for the students to answer. Each question was explained and they were given time to answer to avoid missing and invalid data. Thereafter they started the negotiation process of the Used

Car. The buyers and sellers were randomly selected. Each group consisted of 10 members (5 buyers and 5 sellers). The negotiation ended after 30 minutes and then the questionnaire for the Used Car was given. After a break of 10 minutes the activity restarted with the negotiation for New House. Here also buyers, sellers, buyers' agent and sellers' agent were selected randomly, 100 each. Each group consist of 20 members; 5 represented buyers, 5 seller, 5 buyers' agent and 5 sellers' agent. The negotiation ended after 30 minutes and the questionnaire for the New House was given to them.

The study was conducted in Kuwait and the New House negotiation and Used Car negotiation was chosen as a method to analyse the student to enable the complete and effective participation of the students. The young generation are very much familiar with new cars, their specifications and they participate a great deal in conversations, negotiations and preparations regarding the specifications in the exercise since they are very aware about those matters, so there is no scope for ambiguity. So, there is a chance for an active participation which is close to real life negotiation, The New House negotiation was given to the students with the same intention that is, that there should be no chance for any ambiguity as the specifications are easy for students to understand and apply and consequently it creates the impact similar to a real-life negotiation

A pilot study was conducted which mainly focused on the people from organizations and 40 people were invited. But the pilot study was a failure as only less than 20% of the invited respondents participated in the group activity. Since the researcher adopted the method of live negotiation process to get the output of the questionnaire, the practical difficulty of bringing together the employed people to the venue was a great challenge. The pilot negotiation exercises also exhibited several other drawbacks like;

- Unavailability of the majority of sample on the same time on the same date
- Over confidence and domination of people working in the marketing sector
- Tendency of some respondents to express respect or their tendency to be inactive in front of their senior colleagues who were also participants of the negotiation process
- The presence of more experienced as well as presence of senior colleagues affects the decision-making power and thereby their answers in the negotiation questionnaires.

So, the researcher decided to continue the research with students so that it would reduce bias. The advantage of getting students involved in the negotiation process is many. The research mainly focuses on the impact of culture on the negotiation behaviour of the respondents. The students are freshers in this field and they are assumed to have no prejudice and they could

therefore express the impact of their culture in the process. The availability of the sample in the predetermined time and venue was another added advantage of choosing students in a time constrained research. Moreover, it was easy to include representatives from other Middle East countries.

These two simulations were chosen to the complexity and different interactive potentials hence before starting the negotiation simulations each of the participants were given the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) to be completed. There were no discussions on the subject matter of the stimulation with the participants until the simulations were fully completed. The participants were just given 30 minutes to read the instructions and script for the exercise in which they were required to negotiate an agreement within 30 minutes. There was also both a pre-and post-negotiation questionnaire completed by the participants. For each of the negotiation stimulations, the procedure was repeated. Subsequently since all the agreements were finalized as a result of the negotiations they were included in the analysis.

This research adopted the triangulation method in order to reduce data bias. Triangulation enables validation of data by cross verification of two or more sources. It refers to the application and combination of several research methods in the study. Participants from any culture/country provides a scenario for more chance for data bias as they have some perception about the general code of behaviour and the researcher therefore needs to identify if their perceptions about their behaviour is exhibited in a real-life situation. This explains the reason why the researcher adopted the method of triangulation.

4.4 Research Instruments:

The instruments used in the research are the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI), Used Car negotiation simulation and New House negotiation simulation. The data received from the negotiations simulations were entered and analysed in the statistical software SPSS.

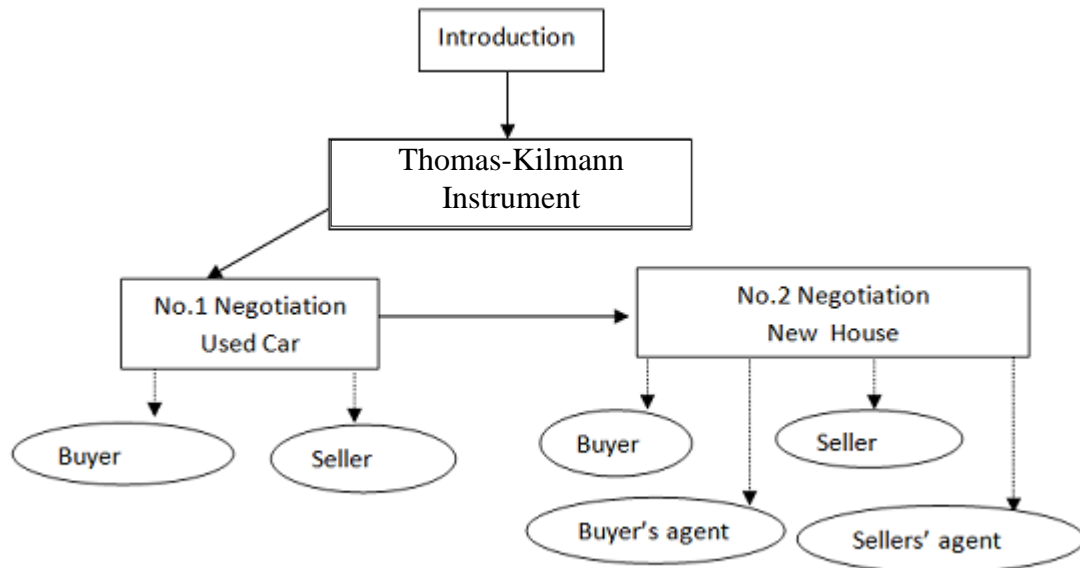


Figure 4.1: Flow chart of the negotiation process

4.4 Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI)

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) questionnaire, which includes 30 pairs of questions prepared in English, was used with the negotiation stimulations in this study.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) questionnaire was filled by the sample before the real life situation or negotiation process was given to them. Each sample was given a particular code which they can use in the questionnaires to identify the respondent to make the data entry process in the right way. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) is a research tool developed in the early 1970s. The Instrument is based on the suggestions of Blake and Mouton in the 1960s on the theoretical improvements on strategies of different management styles. The TKI is an important tool in assessing the different conflict management styles. It was available in a paper based format which although easy to administer is difficult to retrieve large results bases. By 2002, the availability of TKI came into effect through the CPP'S online assessment delivery system by using the Skills One website. All data is collected and administered online. The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument questionnaires were distributed among 400 students who were doing various management courses in Kuwait. The questionnaire consists of 30 questions. Each question has two options to answer and that answers represent two modes of behaviour. Each mode of behaviour is compared with other 4 modes through 3 questions (tests) and hence each mode is questioned 12 times with combinations of other 4 modes. For example in order to determine if the respondent is competing, the questions that help to determine if the respondent is "competing" is repeated 12 times in the questionnaire with combination, Competing VS

Collaborating (3 times), Competing Vs Compromising (3 times), Competing Vs Avoiding (3 times), Competing Vs Accommodating (3 times). In the similar way, each behavioural mode is repeated with other modes.

4.5 Negotiation Exercises

The negotiation exercise was a variable-sum simulation similar to that used by Thompson and Hastie (1990) and Drake (2001) with some adaptation. Negotiators were instructed to reach an agreement on the prices for two objects. Conflict management styles are reflection of the way conflict is responded through people and across time and events (Thomas, 1976; Volkema and Bergmann, 1995; Vomack, 1988). The methodical way of studying the impact of conflict management styles on the negotiation process is to collect the necessary data through many negotiation settings and examine their effects across these situations (see Lewicki *et al.*, 1994). This method facilitates the probability that the true effects of the study be perceived as long as the measurements are cancelled out by the errors along the negotiation process. Having this as the logic behind this study a simulation of the negotiations process used in

1. The used car sale
2. The new house negotiation sale.

For each object, the negotiator received a list of 9 possible prices to be paid for that item, labelled “Price A”, “Price B”, and so on, through “Price I”. Next to each price was listed the Kuwaiti dinar amount of profits the negotiator would earn from setting at that price. Both objects provide different profit for the negotiators. For instance, sellers could achieve a profit of KD20, 000 for each new house, but only KD500 for each used car. In addition, the profit sheets for buyers and sellers differed in that some high-profit objects for buyers were low-profit for sellers and vice-versa. Thus, the opportunity for mutually beneficial trade-off existed. For example, the best price for a used car could earn KD1000 for sellers, but could only KD600 for buyers. Contrary to this, the best price for a new house could only earn 7000 for sellers, but KD12, 000 for buyers. Therefore, both sides could compromise their least profitable item to maximize profits on their most profitable item. Other objects represented incompatible goals for buyers and sellers, a zero- sum situation. That is, each negotiator stood to make exactly the same amount of profit for that item and would be forced to compete for a sizable share of that profit. For example, buyers and sellers could both earn KD 0 to KD 800 for digital camcorder and must split the difference to reach an agreement.

This exercise appropriated those used extensively in other dyadic simulations (Drake, 2001; Kimmel *et al.*, 1980; Pmitt, 1981; Simons, 1993; Thompson, 1991; Thompson and Hastie,

1990). This type of exercise was popular because it held both integrative and competitive potential and usually created about 30 minutes of substantive interaction. Pruitt (1981) argued that negotiators were more likely to look for integrative solutions to this task when they held relatively high aspiration. Consistent with this assumption, and with the Pruitt and Lewis (1975) study, negotiators were told in the instructions that their supervisor expected them to make at least KD1200 of profit from the negotiation. This induction was included to discourage straight “middle of the road” compromises, such as price “E”, “E”, and “E” for all three objects, that is, KD1200 of profits for both sides. Negotiators were told verbally, as in the written instructions, “you may share any information you see as appropriate with your counterpart, but you may not exchange the work sheets”.

The Used Car simulation is often believed to be simpler than the New House Negotiation, where a seller and a buyer negotiate a price for a second-hand car. In the Used Car Simulation price is the only issue that matters to both sides in this case. In this study, a number of changes to the original simulation were made so as to suit the Kuwaiti or Middle East local market. So here a Chevrolet Caprice was offered for sale. The used car can be described as follows:

- 2009 Chevrolet Caprice, full option, automatic gear, air condition, runs on gasoline.
- Black with beige upholstery, tinted glass
- 30,450 km, steel-belted radial tires expected to last another 30,000 km
- 45 mile per gallon on gasoline at current prices
- No rust; dent on passenger door barely noticeable
- Mechanically perfect except exhaust system, which may or may not last another 10,000 km (costs 200 KD to replace)
- Blue book retail value, KD 5000; wholesale, KD 4400 (local 2012 prices)
- Car has spent its entire life in Surra, Kuwait City

The above is the same as the original simulation, except for the change of currency into Kuwaiti dinars and the change in price rate, which may be a bit cheaper. Another change lies in the price of changing the exhaust system of the car, which may seem much more expensive than the one in the original as the repair cost in Kuwait is relatively high.

The second case is on the *New House Negotiation*. This is more complex; there are four issues to be negotiated, including the buyer and his/her agent along with the seller and his/her agent who all have to work in order to reach an agreement on all four issues. Agents work on behalf of both the buyer and seller and usually collect some fee or commission in return for these services. The aim of this negotiation is to gain experience by negotiating through

agents. The negotiation simulates the sale and purchase of a piece of real estate, a transaction which is normally conducted through agents. Some of the subjects are to play the role of agents; others will play the roles of buyers and sellers. As a way of assessing the individual negotiator's profits, each participant receives a profit chart, illustrating the profit points earned on each issue or a set of possible combinations of these issues. In this study, only very few changes related to price and air conditioning are applied so that the sale would look appealing in Kuwait. The new house can be described as follows:

- The house is a 3 bedroom, 3 bath one story. It was listed in Al-Waseet two weeks ago at KD 200,000. The house has the following features:
 - 2, 100 sq. ft.
 - 6 years old (one owner prior to current owner).
 - 2-car garage.
 - Contemporary styling (black wall of house is basically all glass, with sliding draperies).
 - 1/3 acre lot (no flooding problems).
 - Brick exterior.
 - Built-in range, dishwasher, garbage disposal, and microwave.
 - Modern central air conditioning.
 - Fireplace and ceiling fan in the family room.
 - No fence.

A great deal of what transpires during a negotiation is the verbal persuasion-people arguing for and supporting their own preferred position and resisting similar arguments from the other party. At the same time, underlying this layer of persuasive messages is a set of economic transactions-bids and counterbids-that are at the economic core of the negotiation process. The purpose of this case is to provide some experience with combining the economic transactions and the persuasive messages to support preferred economic outcomes. Integration of the two stimulated case studies is a valid test method for the understanding of the conflict management styles and its impact across different settings during the negotiation process.

In this New House Negotiation simulation process, 400 respondents participated. They were classified into four groups: *buyers*, *sellers*, *agents for the buyers* and *agents for the sellers*. Each group consisted of 100 respondents. After each negotiation, the respective questionnaires were distributed to them to get their responses about the negotiation. The same questionnaire is designed for each of the 4 involved parties.

Respondents were to assess the response on a 7-point scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Factor analyses were then run on all the items to differentiate each type of behaviour. Negotiation Outcomes Outcome variables were measured in different ways: for individual profits, the dinar amount from the negotiated agreement was used; for satisfaction, a 7-item scale was used. Participants were asked:

- How satisfied were you with the negotiation process?
- How satisfied were you with the negotiation outcome?
- How satisfied were you with the negotiation in general? (Where 1 = very dissatisfied, and 5 = very satisfied),
- To what extent are you willing to interact with your partner again in the future?
- To what extent do you think the relationship between you and your partner has been improved?
- To what extent do you think you trust you partner more than you did before the negotiation? and
- To what extent can you rely on your partner to keep the promise made during the negotiation (Where 1 = to the least extent, and 5 = to the greatest extent).

Setting up Goals and Agents' Influence: The questionnaire ask about the goals that have been set for both buyer and seller regarding the negotiation subject. In the New House negotiation process, the negotiation involves target price, opening bid, bottom line, etc. Therefore, the first question is targeting the goals of both buyer and seller and whether these goals have been revealed to their agents. As for the agents' influence, the questionnaire then asked about the effect of meeting each one of the main negotiators (buyer, seller) with his/her agent to resolve any dispute and if such a consultation has reshaped the negotiation process. Moreover, the question proceeded to check whether each agent has revealed his/her client's goal to the other agent.

Strategy, Tactics, and Extra Information Provided: The questionnaire then asked if the new strategy or tactic has been set forward to change the course of negotiation and whether the results of negotiation through agents were satisfactory. It is also important to trace any additional help or instructions given to both buyer and seller from their respective agents during the process to improve their positions.

Reaching Agreement and Role of Agents: The questionnaire asked about the settlement of the case through agents and how easy it was to reach their final agreement. Moreover, the questionnaire also questioned if the agents have reached an agreement and whether it was

satisfactory to both the buyers and the sellers. Finally, the questionnaire investigated the role played by both agents to make the negotiation easier to settle the case.

4.7 The International Personality Inventory (IPI)

The International Personality Inventory (IPI) measures the affecting five qualities of the negotiator's personality (Goldberg, 1999). These five factors are scored against the IPI scale which is a shorter scale that with the five measurable personality dimensions which in turn consist of a 10-item list scale that measures the personality within the five-factor model, these being

1. Neuroticism
2. Extraversion
3. Openness to experience
4. Agreeableness
5. Conscientiousness

On a 5-point scale the participants were asked to describe how accurately each statement described themselves where 1= very inaccurately and 5=very accurately for sample statements such as "*I feel little concern for others,*" "*I don't talk a lot,*" and "*I sympathize with others' feelings*".

Factor analyses were performed using principal component analysis in SPSS on all 50 items to replicate Goldberg's study (1999) and five factors were clearly recovered from these items.

A new cultural scale was developed for this study based on cultural dimensions taking in to account the bearing to individualism/collectivism and short versus long term orientations According to Hofstede's (2001) scale, the analysis of the study was conducted on an individual level, which does not allow for direct calculation of the cultural values. There are three relevant items on the scale that are related to group performance and is used to integrate into the individualism/collectivism levels. Earley (1993) argued that the scale could be developed from previous studies and as proved by Wagner (1995) the adapted scales for assessing the individualism/collectivism levels made up for the insufficiency in Hofstede's scale. Three items that were appropriate to working together to solve problems and related to group performance were used for tapping individualism/collectivism. The issues explored were:

"A group is more productive when its members follow their own interests and concerns",

“A group is more efficient when its members do what they think is best rather than doing what the group wants them to do”,

And

“A group is more productive when its members do what they want to do rather than what the group wants them to do”.

From Hofstede’s (2001) study the assessment of long-term versus short-term orientation was used. This was an 8-item scale. Sample items include: “Thrift,” “Face-saving or protecting your face,” and “Respect for tradition.” These scales have been used in cross-cultural research and shown to be psychometrically valid (Earley, 1993; Hofstede, 2001; Wagner, 1995). The questions relating to long-term orientation were scaled according to a 5-point scale of which 1= unimportant to 5=utmost importance as for the individualism/collectivism the scale was also a 5 point score for which 1=strongly disagree and 5 =strongly agree. Factor analyses were also performed on all the cultural value items. Two factors emerged from the items used. The scores from these two factors were thus used in analysis.

4.8 Dependent Variables

Win-lose Orientation: The win-lose orientation was assessed with four questions that were based on similar items from a previous study on conflict frames (Pinkley and Northcraft, 1994). Each question was scaled on a 5-point scale, where 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree as a range of responses used by the participants. The questions included an apology or an acknowledgment of erroneous behaviour is required by one of the parties in the negotiation process. The focus of the negotiation process is based on what the consequences for each individual behaviour and its effect on each party. The negotiation requires a concession by one party where as in this negotiation one is right and the other is wrong. Face-saving One 2-item index was developed for face-saving based on Brown’s study on face work (1960; 1970). Using 5-point scales participants indicated their opinion on two statements, including “It is very important that I appear strong in this negotiation.” and “It doesn’t matter that I appear strong or weak in this negotiation” (reverse coded), where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Trust: The level of trust was measured using a 7-item scale adapted from the scale used by Robinson and Rousseau (1994). Sample questions include “I am not sure I fully trust my partner” (reverse coded), “My partner is open and upfront with me,” and “I can expect my partner to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.” With participants’ responses ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

4.10 Summary

This chapter discussed the research methods used in this study. It started by discussing the Thomas Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument, followed by the negotiation simulations and exercises. The quantitative, qualitative and even the combined approaches were explained with a special focus on the merits and demerits of each of them. The reasons for using the quantitative approach were provided. It also dealt with the dependent variables affecting the results and the procedures that included the steps of implementing the questionnaires. A vivid description about the instruments used in the research was given here in this chapter.

Chapter Five: Empirical Research Findings

5.1 Introduction

Thomas-Kilmann questionnaire is designed in such a way that each question provides two options, that represents two different behavioural modes so that from each answer each sample reveals which is his/her behavioural mode. The individual behavioural mode of each sample and the frequency of these behavioural modes had to be identified in order to ascertain the dominant mode of behaviour. Hence the sum total of scores for each mode was calculated. The combination of different modes of behaviour is out of the scope of this study but the following paragraphs will provide a detailed description about the questions and to which behavioural mode the question is addressed to.

Avoiding accommodating combination:

The questions 1, 15 and 27 devoted to this combination. The Thomas Kilmann questionnaire results in this study revealed that for the first question, which is a combination of avoiding (“There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem”) and accommodating modes (“Rather than negotiate the things on which we disagree, I try to stress the things upon which we both agree”) among the 400 respondents 210 respondents revealed that they were avoiding and 190 respondents answered that they were accommodating. From the 15 the question it is revealed that 216 respondents were avoiding (I might try to soothe the other’s feelings and preserve our relationship) and 184 respondents were accommodating (I try to do what is necessary to avoid tensions”) and from the 27th question it is revealed that 268 respondents were avoiding (“I sometimes avoid taking positions that would create controversy”) and 132 respondents were accommodating (“ If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain his views”).

Collaborating Compromising Combination:

The 2, 20 and 26 the questions dealt with this combination. The second question reveals that 169 respondents were collaborating (“I attempt to deal with all of his and my concerns”) and 231 respondents were compromising nature (“I try to find a compromising situation”). 218 respondents revealed that they were collaborating (“I attempt to immediately work through our differences”) in question 20 and 182 revealed that they were compromising (“I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for everyone”). And the 26-question revealed that 267

respondents were collaborating (“I am nearly always concerned with satisfying all our wishes”) and 133 are compromising (“I propose a middle ground”).

Competing Accommodating Combination: The 3, 16 and 25 the questions dealt with this combination. From question 3 it is revealed that 176 respondents were competing (“I am usually firm in pursuing my goals”) and 224 respondents were accommodating character (“I might try to soothe the other’s feelings and preserve our relationship”). Responses from question 16 reveal that 183 of the respondents were competing (“I try to convince the other person of the merits of my position”), while 217 were accommodating character (“I try not to hurt the feelings of others”). The 25 the question on this combination reveals that 208 respondents were competing (“I try to show him the logic and benefits of my position”), while 192 are accommodating (“In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person’s wishes”).

Compromising Accommodating Combination: The fourth question received responses from 191 compromising (“I try to find a compromise solution.”) respondents and 209 accommodating (“I sometimes sacrifice my own wishes for the wishes of the other person.”) respondents. Question number 18 reveals that there were 206 respondents who were compromising (“I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.”) while 194 were accommodating (“If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain”). In the same series 181 respondents answered that “I try to get him to settle for a compromise” shows that they were compromising while the others (219) responded that (“If the other’s position seems very important to him, I would try to meet his wishes.”).

Collaborating Avoiding Combination: “I consistently seek the other’s help in working out a solution” 207 respondents confirmed this statement and showed them as collaborating persons while 193 respondents stated that “I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.” Establishing that they are avoiding behavioural characters. 178 respondents in question number 19 confirmed their collaborating character (“I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.”) and the rest 222 confirmed their avoiding character (“I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.”). “I am very often concerned with satisfying all our wishes” confirmed by 183 collaborating respondents in question 23 while others opined that “There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem” establishing their avoiding character.

Competing Avoiding Combination: Question number 6, 9 and 17 dealt with these combinations. Question 6 reveals that 189 are competing “I try to avoid creating unpleasantness for myself.” and 211 were avoiding “I try to win my position”. Question 9 reveals that 204 were competing (“I make some effort to get my way.”) while 196 are avoiding (“I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.”). Question 17 reveals that 202 were competing (“I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.”) and 148 are avoiding (“I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine”).

Compromising and Avoiding Combination: Question number 7, 12 and 29 dealt with these combinations. Responses to question 7 reveals that 206 of the responses were towards compromising (“I give up some points in exchange for others.”) and 194 towards avoiding (“I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over”). Towards question number 12, 189 responses were compromising (“I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.”) while 211 are avoiding (“I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy”). Regarding question 29, 220 responses were directed towards compromising (“I propose a middle ground.”) while 180 responses are towards the avoiding behavioural mode (“I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about “).

Competing and Collaborating: Question number 8, 14 and 28 dealt with these combinations. Responses to question 8 (“I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.”) reveals that 189 respondents were competing and 211 were collaborating (“I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out I the open.”). As a response to the statement “I try to show him the logic and benefits of my position” 239 responded positively declaring their competing behavioural mode while 161 revealed their collaborating character by approving the statement “I tell him my ideas and ask him for his ideas”. Question number 28 revealed the competing (“I am usually firm in pursuing my goals”) behavioural mode of 184 respondents and collaborating (“I usually seek the other’s help in working out a solution”) behavioural mode of 216 respondents.

Competing and Compromising combination: Questions 10, 13 and 22 deals with this. 184 respondents showed that they were competing character by affirming the statement “I am firm in pursuing my goals” while 216 established their compromising character by affirming the statement “I try to find a compromise solution”. With question number 13, 208 confirms that they were competing (“I press to get my points made”) while 192 exhibited their compromising (“I propose a middle ground”) character. Similarly, in question 22, 183

exhibited their competing character (“I assert my wishes”) and 217 exhibited their compromising character (“I try to find a position that is intermediate between his and mine.”).

Collaborating and Accommodating combination: Questions 11, 21 and 30 deals with this. 244 respondents confirmed that they exhibited a collaborating character by affirming the statement “I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open” and 156 respondents affirmed that they were accommodating in nature by affirming the statement “I might try to soothe the other’s feelings and preserve our relationship”. 205 respondents confirmed that they were collaborating (“I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine”) and 195 revealed their accommodating character (“I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy”). For question number 30, 205 respondents affirmed that they were collaborating in character (“I always share the problem with the other person so that we can work it out”) while 195 affirmed that they are accommodating in character (“I try not to hurt the other’s feeling”). The total score for avoiding is 2466, collaboration is 2464, compromising is 2364, competing is 2399 and finally accommodating is 2307.

The Power Distance Dimension is medium in this culture. In this study, the sample consists of 400 students who are doing various management courses in Kuwait. 64 % of the sample is female and rest is male. The following table represents the number of responses.

Modes	Competing		Collaborating		Compromising		Avoiding		Accommodating	
	Qn.no	Score	Qn.no	Score	Qn.no	Score	Qn.no	Score	Qn.no	Score
	3	176	2	169	2	231	1	210	1	190
	6	189	5	207	4	191	5	193	3	224
	8	189	8	211	7	206	6	211	4	209
	9	204	11	244	10	216	7	194	11	156
	10	184	14	161	12	189	9	196	15	184
	13	208	19	178	13	192	12	211	16	217
	14	239	20	218	18	206	15	216	18	194
	16	183	21	205	20	182	17	148	21	195
	17	202	23	183	22	217	19	222	24	219
	22	183	26	267	24	181	23	217	25	192
	25	208	28	216	26	133	27	268	27	132

	28	184	30	205	29	220	29	180	30	195
Total Score	2349		2464		2364		2466		2307	

Table 5.1: Representation of Behavioural Mode According to TKI

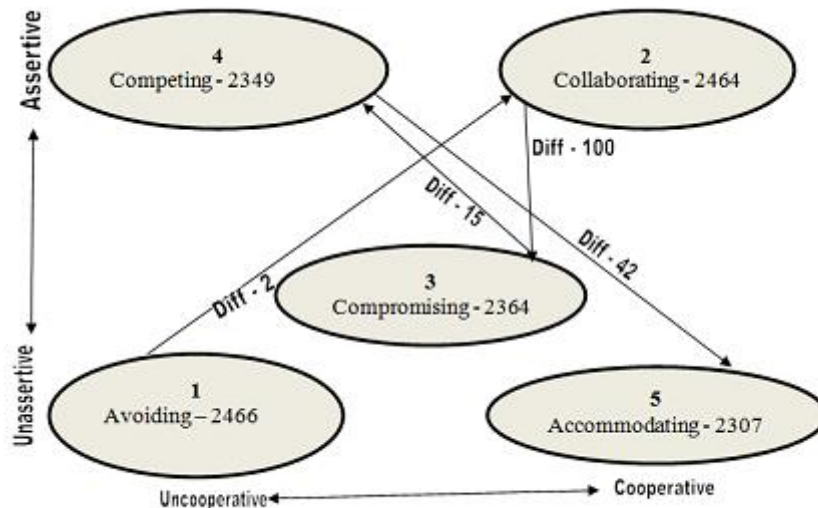


Figure 5.1: Research Model

The results revealed that the sample scored highest in “avoiding” which has been succeeded by the “collaborating” style. The difference between the score is only 2 and this indicates that the chance for it to move to the second one "collaborating" is very high. So, in fact, we can say that the general tendency of the sample is "avoiding" or "collaborating". A move to the next style that is “compromising” is difficult for the sample as the difference between the two styles is 100. This is succeeded by the “competing” style. A move from the compromising to the competing style is comparatively easy when compared to the previous as the difference is 15. Again, the last sort of reaction for the sample is “accommodating” which is in fact a difficult move for the sample as the difference is 49.

While analysing the results it can be seen that the Middle East response to conflict situation is prima facie an unassertive at the same time uncooperative behaviour. But a sudden or easy shift to a collaborating style is possible. The close family - friendship tie which people from the Middle East possess is expressed in the results at the same time, that is, those from the Middle East who are good in business and trade express the business mind that enables them to maintain an assertive behavioural mode. The great difficulty to shift to compromising style

is yet another behavioural mode of Middle East people is well reflected in this study. At the same time in situations that they need to compromise an assertive and uncooperative style of competing with a goal to win is the next behavioural pattern and accommodating is the least expected behavioural mode in the Middle East business scenario.

Hence *Hypothesis 1* People from Middle East exhibit an assertive and cooperative manner during negotiation due to the impact of their culture is partially established.

- It is rejected that those from a Middle East culture do not resort to an avoiding behavior
- It is established that those from a Middle East culture adopt a cooperative behavior when negotiating but that their cooperative behavior is balanced with assertiveness.

Hypothesis 2: People from Middle East address conflict in an indirect manner is established.

Hypothesis 3: Middle East people adopt a convenient strategy that would satisfy both the individual and the collective group (accommodating) is rejected.

Hypotheses 3 is rejected that those from the Middle East possess an accommodating behaviour in conflict management. The study results confirm that the basic tendency of those from this culture is “avoiding”, which clearly demonstrates that they do try to withdraw from the conflicting situation. This can be done by merely neglecting it or by sidestepping the issue diplomatically by postponing reaction to the situation. Non-cooperation with the situation or denial to solve the issue is reflected in the attitude of the sample. But we cannot consider this as the ultimate basic response of the sample as the difference to the next style is only 2. So, we can say that the general method of response is either "avoiding" or “collaborating”. This is right in the sense that a person cannot use the avoiding nature all the time. In some instances, he can use it in order to escape from the situation, but in others where he is compelled to give an answer, especially in business transactions, avoiding cannot be adopted. So, we can assume that the community will try to avoid a situation of conflict in personal relations, but in case of a mandatory situation where they need to express their concern, their mode of reaction is collaborative.

The collaboration style of the sample indicates that the sample is ready to work on the issue and dig on the matter to find out a proper solution which is acceptable to all. This shows that the Kuwaiti sample equally represents these two styles in their reaction with a little more tendency towards ‘avoiding’ the situation. This may be due to the fact that Kuwaitis possess a different culture that attributes more importance to family and friendly relations. Hence, they

do not want to spoil relations due to their strong or assertive reactions in conflicting situations. Kuwaitis have close knit family relations. Family get-togethers at several occasions are very frequent and very important in their day to day life. They cannot keep themselves away from their family and friends. Moreover, the strict adherence to religious practices provides discipline in their life and they have to maintain a code of conduct that complies with their religious principles which they prefer to adhere to.

Bearing in mind all the aforementioned considerations, we can come to the conclusion that the situations Kuwaitis had previous bad experiences about, or the ones they know there would be a difficulty in handling the demands of the other party, they resort to a method of “Avoiding”, whereas in situations in which there are some explanations or justifications for both sides, they are flexible to see the viewpoints of the other party and become collaborative in business relations. The collaborating style is succeeded by the compromising style, but with much difference in the total score from the previous styles. The assertiveness to their own viewpoints (competing) reflects the reaction of a majority business community in Kuwait. Most of the Kuwaiti population is engaged in their own business in Kuwait. Kuwait accommodates a large number of expatriates who are more in population than the citizens. Expatriates can work here only under the sponsorship of a Kuwaiti company and the rule that expatriates cannot run companies/business in their own name- but only in the name of a Kuwaiti sponsor- ultimately attracts so many Kuwaitis to business. So, Kuwaitis hold the top positions in the companies and this power of authority especially in business vested them with a nature of “competitiveness”. So, we can conclude that though some of the population is ready for a little bit adjustment, accommodating or accepting by neglecting their own concerns is a rare phenomenon among the Kuwaiti population.

Hypothesis 4: Masculine subjects will be more assertive and competitive than feminine subjects who would tend to be more cooperative is rejected. The simulations test reveals that gender has no significance in the negotiation behaviour of the respondents and hence it rejects hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5: Personal orientation, mannerism and back ground has impact in the behavioural pattern of Middle East Negotiators is rejected. It also rejects hypothesis 5 that the Thomas Kilmann behavioural mode has impact on real life situations. So, it is established that there is a wide difference between the way of approaching the problem by the respondents and the practical way of dealing with it.

5.2 Reliability

The high the reliability is the more the instruments are. If the reliability is higher than 70% it is deemed as acceptable one. In order to assess the reliability of the questionnaire the reliability test was conducted for the two negotiation questionnaires. The reliability of the questionnaire was respectively 92% for the buyers' questionnaire, 94.5% for the buyers' agents' questionnaire, 95.4% for the sellers' questionnaire, and 87.7% for the sellers' agents' questionnaire. These results reflect acceptable levels of reliability for all questionnaires from a statistical standpoint.

5.2.1 Statistical Analysis

These are the respondents' perceptions towards the nine questions. Their perceptions are rated in the 5-point Likert scale in which 1 indicate that they have a negative attitude towards the question, and 5 indicate that they have a positive attitude towards the question. The reaction of the respondents towards each question are represented in the Table 4.2. Regarding the first question of revealing goals to agents by their clients, all concerned parties indicated that these goals were partially revealed with an average rating 3.44 for buyer, 3.3 for buyer's agent, 3.35 for seller and 3.2 for seller's agent on the 5-point Likert scale. Meeting with agents for both the buyer and the seller was somewhat satisfactory, (buyer's average rating 3.3, buyer's agent average rating 3.32, seller's average rating 3.22 and seller's agent rating was neutral 3.09 on the 5-point Likert scale. Regarding the information revealed by agents about their clients' goals, the buyer confirmed that some information was revealed with an average 3.44 on 5 Likert Scale, the buyer's agents confirmed that with an average rating 3.36, the seller also has confirmed that this partial information has been given with an average rating 3.37 and also it was confirmed by the seller's agent with an average rating 3.21 on 5-point scale.

Negotiation Items	Descriptive Statistics											
	Buyer Stand Point			Buyer Agent Stand Point			Seller Stand Point			Seller Agent Stand Point		
	Sample Size	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sample Size	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sample Size	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sample Size	Mean	Std. Dev.
Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	100	3.44	1.149	99	3.30	1.111	100	3.35	1.242	100	3.20	1.198
How did meeting with the agents redefine the	100	3.30	.859	99	3.32	1.018	100	3.22	.970	100	3.09	.889

goals?												
Agents' talk about their client's goals	99	3.44	.992	99	3.36	1.015	100	3.37	.928	100	3.21	.820
New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	100	3.38	1.033	99	3.40	.957	99	3.44	.928	100	3.40	.910
Negotiation as a result of using agents	100	3.49	.980	99	3.37	.996	100	3.43	1.066	100	3.54	.989
Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	100	3.40	1.015	97	3.37	.961	100	3.52	1.010	100	3.38	1.003
How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	100	3.44	.978	99	3.41	.845	100	3.48	.969	100	3.34	1.007
Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	100	3.62	.896	99	3.45	.961	100	3.50	.905	100	3.34	.855
Does agent make negotiations easier or more difficult?	100	3.68	.963	99	3.37	1.055	100	3.47	.846	99	3.37	.932

Table 5.2: New House Negotiation

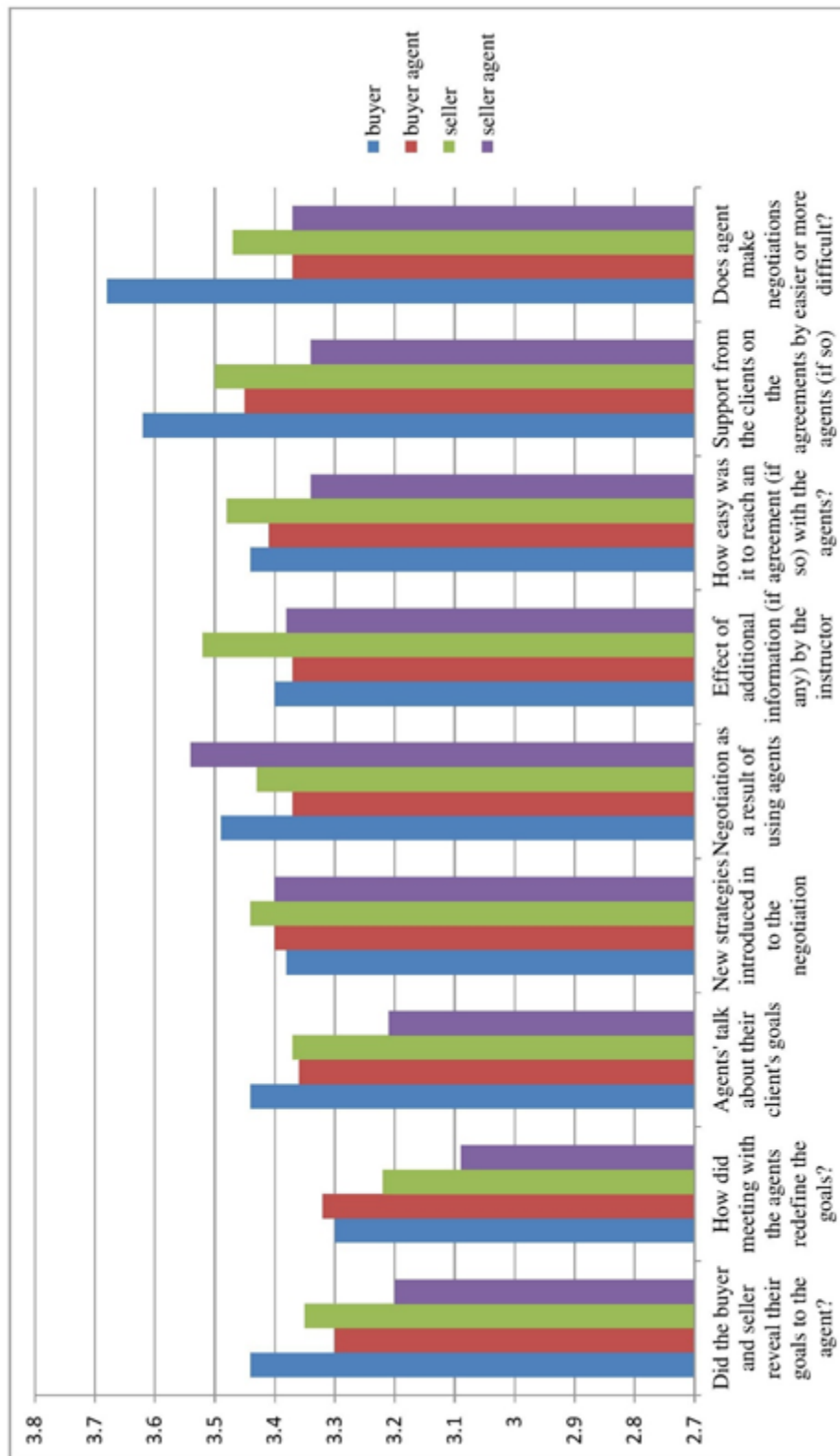


Figure 5.2: Graph of negotiation between Buyer and Seller

Buyers are much positive in their perceptions especially on the question if the agents make the negotiation easier. The sellers are positive towards the questions but not as much as that of

buyer and they are very positive regarding the effect of additional information from the instructor. Buyers' agents are positive regarding support from the clients on the agreements by agents and seller's agents are much positive towards the effect of negotiation with agents.

Changing the course of negotiation by introducing a new strategy or tactic to improve each party's position was addressed in the questionnaire. The results show that the buyers confirmed that a new strategy or tactic was introduced in the negotiation with an average rating 3.38, the buyer's agent confirmed this view with an average rating 3.4, the seller on the other hand asserted that with an average rating 3.44 and finally the seller's agent supported the view with an average rating 3.40 on 5-point scale.

The results reflect that from the buyer's standpoint, the negotiation was somewhat satisfactory through using his/her agent with an average rating 3.49 and the buyer's agents confirmed that with average ratings 3.37 on 5-point scale, the seller was also positive regarding the role of his/her agent with an average rating 3.43 and his/her agent supported this view with an average rating 3.54 on 5-point scale. The effect of additional information delivered to both clients was also considered by the questionnaire. The buyer asserted that the information given to the instructors was somewhat satisfactory with an average rating 3.40 on a 5-point scale, the buyer's agent confirmed that view with an average rating 3.37, the seller's view was positively emphasized with an average rating 3.35 and his/her agent was in agreement with his/her view. For the question which asked about how easy it was to reach an agreement, the buyer was somewhat satisfied with the agreement with an average rating 3.44, his/her agent supported his/her view with an average rating 3.41 on a 5-point scale, the seller has also a positive view about the agreement with an average rating 3.48 and his/her agent was in support of this view with an average rating 3.34 on a 5-point scale.

The role played by the agents was also a matter of concern. The buyer was satisfied with the role of the agents to reach the settlement with an average rating 3.62 on a 5-point scale, his/her agent was also positive about his/her role with an average rating 3.45, the seller was also satisfied with the agent's role in reaching the agreement with an average rating 3.5 and his/her agent was supportive to this view with an average rating 3.34. Moreover, the buyer's view about the role of the agents in making the negotiation fruitful was positive with an average rating 3.65, his/her agent rating to the same issue was 3.37, the seller on the other hand was also satisfied with the role played by the agents with an average rating 3.47 and his/her agent agreed about this view with an average rating 3.37.

5.3 The Effect of Gender on Negotiation

The Middle East, as previously mentioned, has been identified as mainly a masculine culture according to Hofstede's masculinity and femininity cultural dimensions (1980). Hence this section is focused on the satisfaction of the negotiating process and its outcomes based on the effect of gender. In other words, there was a need to investigate if there are significant differences between male negotiators and female negotiators for each party. In table 2 the results interpret whether the difference between two independent groups that are gender centred -male versus female are significantly different. It seems according to the nine negotiation items, all the items had a p-value >0.05 when it came to perception of buyer negotiators based on their gender. However, it can be seen that males and females have positive perceptions to all 9 research items introduced in the negotiation process (all means are >3.0 for both male and female buyers) though differences are not significant.

For sellers, results also indicated that all male sellers and female sellers have positive perceptions to the nine negotiation items (means >3.0). However, it is also noticeable that male sellers do have more positive perceptions to the research items than the female sellers do. In the perception of the seller, these differences are significant only for items, 4, 7, and 8. Item 4 in particular specifies whether new strategies or tactics were implemented during the negotiations, the male sellers (mean = 3.65) were more positive regarding this item than the female sellers (mean = 3.21) on the 5-point Likert scale and the difference is significant (p-value = 0.034) although both were positive about the implementation of the new strategies or tactics during negotiations. Towards the question (no: 7) if this final agreement was easy to reach, the results reflect that males' average rating is 3.62 whereas the females' average rating is 3.42 on a 5-point Likert scale. Although both have positive attitudes towards the statement, the male sellers are more positive than the female sellers and the difference is significant (p-value = 0.041). For item 8, regarding the agents reaching the agreement and if their clients supported this agreement, it is noticed that both male and female sellers have positive attitudes regarding the statement with average ratings (males average = 3.7, females average = 3.25). This difference in perception is significant (p-value = 0.032) and it confirmed that male sellers were more positive than female sellers toward the agents' settlement of the negotiation.

When we move to the buyer's agent's standpoint, there are significances regarding 3 items. Gender has a significance regarding their disclosure of their goals to the agent with a p-value $0.004 < 0.05$. The mean value for males is 3.69 while the mean value for the females is 2.98.

Regarding the item that asked if the meeting with the agent has contributed in redefining their goals, gender has significance with p-value 0.048 where the average for the males is 3.40 and the average for the females is 3.02. Gender shows significance with the item that deals with the support from the clients for the agreements by agents with p-value 0.026. The average for the males is 3.69 while that of females is 3.29. A general trend that is identified from the above tables is that males are more positive toward the negotiation items than females although both have positive perceptions. For sellers' agents, the picture is very much the same.

Buyer's Perception										
Gender		Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	Agents' talk about their client's goals	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	Negotiation as a result of using agents	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	Does agent make negotiations easier or difficult
Male	Mean	3.47	3.24	3.37	3.29	3.37	3.34	3.58	3.76	3.66
	N	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
	Std. Deviation	.979	.751	1.101	1.088	1.025	1.021	.758	.786	1.047
Female	Mean	3.42	3.34	3.44	3.44	3.56	3.44	3.35	3.53	3.69
	N	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	62
	Std. Deviation	1.249	.922	1.018	1.002	.952	1.018	1.088	.953	.916
Total	Mean	3.44	3.30	3.41	3.38	3.49	3.40	3.44	3.62	3.68
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.149	.859	1.045	1.033	.980	1.015	.978	.896	.963
P-value		0.82	0.567	0.757	0.495	0.334	0.654	0.268	0.213	0.858
Seller's Perception										
Male	Mean	3.54	3.54	3.59	3.65	3.59	3.49	3.62	3.70	3.49
	N	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
	Std. Deviation	.989	.989	1.013	.949	.896	.989	.828	.878	1.017
Female	Mean	3.11	3.14	3.17	3.21	3.19	3.14	3.24	3.25	3.25
	N	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63
	Std. Deviation	1.220	1.090	1.071	1.019	1.105	1.162	.928	1.062	1.150
Total	Mean	3.27	3.29	3.33	3.37	3.34	3.27	3.38	3.42	3.34
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.153	1.066	1.064	1.012	1.047	1.109	.908	1.017	1.103
P-		0.072	0.072	0.056	0.034*	0.062	0.135	0.041*	0.032*	0.311

value										
Buyer's Agent Perception										
Male	Mean	3.69	3.40	3.46	3.50	3.54	3.54	3.62	3.69	3.60
	N	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	52
	Std. Deviation	1.181	.934	.851	.897	1.038	.979	.953	.875	.846
Female	Mean	2.98	3.02	3.27	3.31	3.31	3.50	3.33	3.29	3.33
	N	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	Std. Deviation	1.211	.978	1.005	1.075	1.095	1.052	.975	.898	.834
Total	Mean	3.35	3.22	3.37	3.41	3.43	3.52	3.48	3.50	3.47
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.242	.970	.928	.986	1.066	1.010	.969	.905	.846
P-value		0.004*	0.048*	0.307	0.345	0.292	0.85	0.147	0.026*	0.121
Seller's Agent Perceptions										
Male	Mean	3.47	3.12	3.29	3.47	3.59	3.59	3.41	3.24	3.18
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
	Std. Deviation	1.007	.781	.686	1.007	1.004	1.004	1.121	.903	1.131
Female	Mean	3.14	3.08	3.19	3.39	3.53	3.34	3.33	3.36	3.37
	N	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83
	Std. Deviation	1.231	.913	.848	.895	.992	1.003	.989	.849	.959
Total	Mean	3.20	3.09	3.21	3.40	3.54	3.38	3.34	3.34	3.34
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.198	.889	.820	.910	.989	1.003	1.007	.855	.987
P-value		0.309	0.889	0.645	0.727	0.827	0.350	0.749	0.552	0.456

Table 5.3: Descriptive Analysis of Negotiation Items by Gender

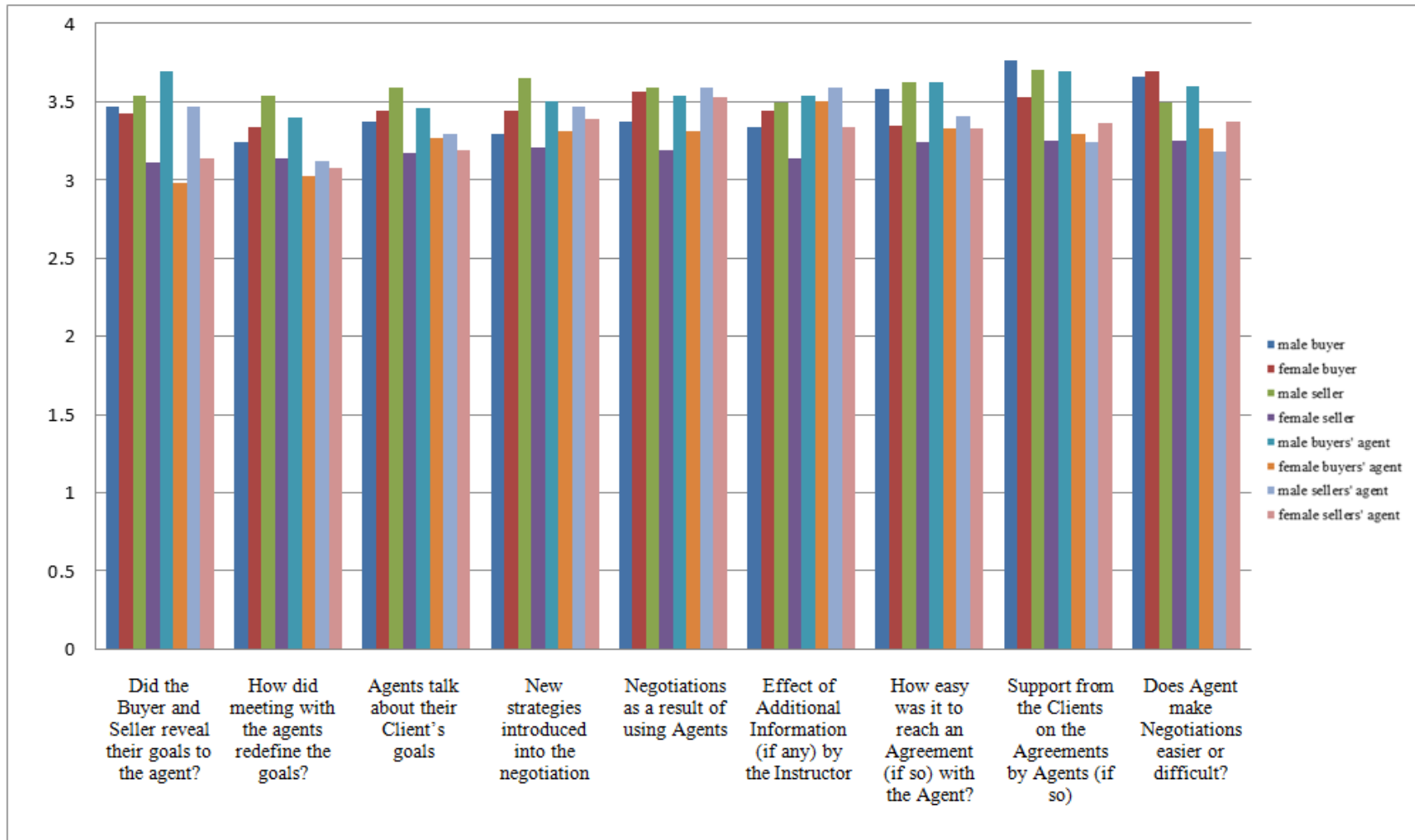


Figure 5.3: Negotiation by gender

With regard to the buyers' perception, there is significance regarding 3 items. Gender has significance regarding their disclosure of their goals to the agent with a p-value $0.004 < 0.05$. The mean value for male buyers is 3.69 whereas the mean value of the female buyers is 2.98. Regarding the item that talked about whether the meeting has caused the agents to redefine their goals, gender has significance with p-value 0.048 whereas the average for the male buyers is 3.40 and the average for the female buyers is 3.02. Gender shows significance with the item about the support from the clients on the agreements by agents with p-value 0.026. The average for the males is 3.69 while that of the females is 3.29.

5.4 The Effect of Conflicting Modes on Research Items

ANOVA Table For Testing Research Items Against Thomas Kilmann Mode (Buyers)										
Kilmann Mode		Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	Agents' talk about their client's goals	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	Negotiation as a result of using agents	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	Does agent make negotiations easier or difficult?
Competing	Mean	3.61	3.35	3.48	3.45	3.71	3.55	3.71	3.84	3.90
	N	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
	Std. Deviation	1.086	.839	.996	.850	.902	.925	.973	.735	1.044
Collaborating	Mean	3.41	3.37	3.37	3.22	3.52	3.26	3.19	3.44	3.59
	N	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
	Std. Deviation	1.248	.884	.839	1.050	.802	.984	.834	.847	.888
Compromising	Mean	3.30	3.00	3.10	3.20	3.50	3.40	3.50	3.40	3.10
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	1.418	1.054	1.524	1.317	1.434	1.350	1.080	.843	.876
Avoiding	Mean	3.32	3.26	3.21	3.26	3.11	3.53	3.32	3.58	3.68
	N	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
	Std. Deviation	1.003	.733	1.134	1.098	1.049	.905	.885	1.071	.885
Accommodating	Mean	3.38	3.31	3.85	3.85	3.46	3.15	3.46	3.69	3.77
	N	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
	Std. Deviation	1.193	.947	.987	1.068	.967	1.214	1.266	1.109	1.013
Total	Mean	3.44	3.30	3.41	3.38	3.49	3.40	3.44	3.62	3.68

	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.149	.859	1.045	1.033	.980	1.015	.978	.896	.963
P-value		0.891	0.822	0.408	0.415	0.344	0.7	0.341	0.468	0.229 1
Anova Table for Testing Research Items Against Thomas Kilmann Mode (Sellers)										
Kilmann mode		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Competing	Mean	3.50	3.27	3.38	3.42	3.19	3.23	3.38	3.46	3.31
	N	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
	Std. Deviation	1.393	1.151	1.169	1.137	1.266	1.366	1.061	1.272	1.379
Collaborating	Mean	3.08	3.23	3.15	3.35	3.38	3.35	3.38	3.38	3.50
	N	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26
	Std. Deviation	1.055	.908	.925	.977	.898	.689	.697	.898	1.030
Compromising	Mean	3.33	3.50	3.50	3.33	3.42	3.50	3.67	3.92	3.58
	N	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
	Std. Deviation	1.073	1.000	.798	.778	.996	1.168	.888	.793	.515
Avoiding	Mean	3.35	3.41	3.41	3.35	3.29	3.24	3.18	3.12	3.18
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
	Std. Deviation	.931	1.004	1.064	.862	.772	.831	.728	.697	.809
Accommodating	Mean	3.11	3.16	3.32	3.37	3.47	3.11	3.37	3.37	3.16
	N	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
	Std. Deviation	1.197	1.302	1.293	1.212	1.219	1.410	1.116	1.116	1.302
Total	Mean	3.27	3.29	3.33	3.37	3.34	3.27	3.38	3.42	3.34
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.153	1.066	1.064	1.012	1.047	1.109	.908	1.017	1.103
P-value		0.693	0.903	0.884	0.999	0.918	0.897	0.733	0.348	0.735
Anova Table for Testing Research Items Against Thomas Kilmann Mode (Agent Buyer)										
Kilmann mode		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Competing	Mean	3.26	3.13	3.29	3.42	3.48	3.58	3.52	3.35	3.32
	N	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	31
	Std. Deviation	1.341	1.056	.973	.848	.996	.958	.890	.950	.945
Collaborating	Mean	3.68	3.36	3.41	3.59	3.50	3.64	3.68	3.82	3.73
	N	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
	Std. Deviation	1.041	.902	.854	.796	1.012	.790	.894	.733	.767
Compromising	Mean	3.36	3.36	3.21	3.07	3.21	3.29	3.14	3.36	3.21
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
	Std. Deviation	1.277	1.277	1.051	1.492	1.424	1.326	1.167	1.151	.893
Avoiding	Mean	3.11	2.94	3.39	3.33	3.44	3.56	3.33	3.33	3.44
	N	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
	Std. Deviation	1.278	.802	1.037	.970	.984	1.042	1.029	.840	.705

Accommodating	Mean	3.33	3.40	3.60	3.53	3.40	3.40	3.60	3.67	3.67
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	1.291	.737	.737	.990	1.121	1.121	.986	.816	.816
Total	Mean	3.35	3.22	3.37	3.41	3.43	3.52	3.48	3.50	3.47
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.242	.970	.928	.986	1.066	1.010	.969	.905	.846
P-value		0.669	0.565	0.817	0.61	0.946	0.851	0.511	0.291	0.282
Anova Table for Testing Research Items Against Thomas Kilmann Mode (Agent Seller)										
Kilmann mode		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9
Competing	Mean	3.31	3.31	3.38	3.44	3.63	3.31	3.25	3.19	3.28
	N	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	Std. Deviation	1.120	.931	.833	.878	.907	.998	.984	.931	.958
Collaborating	Mean	3.17	3.04	3.08	3.33	3.25	3.17	3.17	3.33	3.25
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
	Std. Deviation	1.204	.908	.830	.868	.989	1.049	1.049	.816	1.189
Compromising	Mean	3.11	2.94	3.28	3.50	3.78	3.67	3.72	3.56	3.39
	N	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
	Std. Deviation	1.231	.802	.752	.985	1.003	.907	.958	.984	1.037
Avoiding	Mean	3.31	3.19	3.25	3.44	3.44	3.38	3.44	3.38	3.63
	N	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Std. Deviation	1.401	.834	.775	.892	1.094	1.088	1.094	.719	.719
Accommodating	Mean	2.90	2.60	2.80	3.20	3.70	3.60	3.20	3.40	3.20
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
	Std. Deviation	1.197	.843	.919	1.135	1.059	.966	.919	.699	.919
Total	Mean	3.20	3.09	3.21	3.40	3.54	3.38	3.34	3.34	3.34
	N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Std. Deviation	1.198	.889	.820	.910	.989	1.003	1.007	.855	.987
P-value		0.888	0.216	0.343	0.926	0.444	0.535	0.425	0.7	0.763

Table 5.4: Descriptive Statistics of the Negotiation Items by Characteristics

In this section, we want to test whether different conflict modes have different perceptions to research items. The analysis of the variance test was performed for each of the four negotiators' perceptions to the research items against the 5 conflicting modes. Results are presented in Table 5. For the buyers as indicated at the top of Table 5, the average perception is above 3 for all items for all modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accommodating). It is also evident for the p-values that no significant differences have been

depicted between different perceptions. The pattern also holds for seller perceptions, buyer/agent perceptions and seller/agent perceptions.

The main conclusion is that although buyers, sellers, buyers' agents and sellers' agents have positive attitudes toward all 9 negotiation items, no significant differences have been found among the different conflict modes for each party.

5.5 Measuring the Overall Satisfaction of the Negotiation Process

The main aim of this section is to give an overall evaluation satisfaction of the four parties the buyer, the seller, the buyer's agent and the seller's agent.

	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Buyer overall	100	1.67	4.78	3.4622	.78133
Seller overall	100	.00	4.89	3.3344	.90426
Buyer/agent overall	100	1.33	5.00	3.4167	.83647
Seller/agent overall	99	1.56	4.78	3.3187	.68542
Valid N (list wise)	99				

Table 5.5: Overall Satisfaction

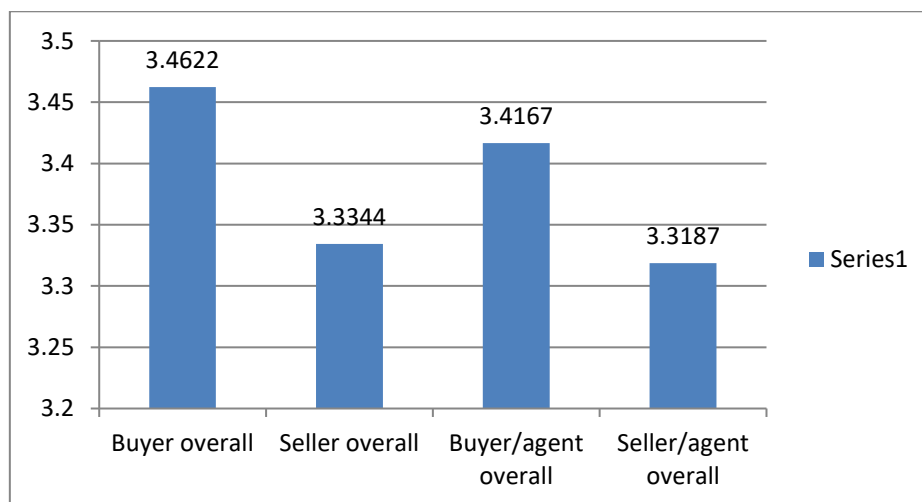


Figure 5.4: Overall Satisfaction

First each party's questionnaire was expressed as one variable as a weighted average of the 9-research items for each of the four involved parties. Hence, simple statistical measures were calculated for each party including minimum rating, maximum rating, the mean and the standard deviation as shown in Table 5.5. All average ratings are positive > 3 for all negotiators. Moreover, utilizing the fact that the sample size is 100 (large) for each party, a single variable independent t-test was performed to test whether the overall mean rating for

each party is more than 3. The results illustrated in Table 4.6 assert that all negotiators have an overall positive perception to the entire negotiation process (p -values are <0.05) for all parties.

	One-Sample Test					
	Test Value = 3					
	t	Def.	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Lower					Upper	
Buyer overall rating	5.916	99	.000	.46222	.3072	.6173
Seller Overall rating	3.699	99	.000	.33444	.1550	.5139
Buyer's Agent Overall rating	4.981	99	.000	.41667	.2507	.5826
Seller's Agent Overall rating	4.627	98	.000	.31874	.1820	.4554

Table 5.6: The Results Illustrated, for all parties

5.6 The Correlation Structure

It will be also of interest to discuss the correlation structure between the different parties' overall perceptions.

Correlations					
		Buyer Overall Rating	Seller Overall Rating	Buyer's Agent Overall Rating	Seller's Agent Overall Rating
Buyer overall rating	Pearson Correlation	1	-.102-	-.124-	.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.314	.219	.223
	N	100	100	100	99
Seller Overall rating	Pearson Correlation	-.102-	1	.050	-.127-
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.314		.624	.212
	N	100	100	100	99
Buyer's Agent Overall rating	Pearson Correlation	-.124-	.050	1	-.054-
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.219	.624		.595
	N	100	100	100	99
Seller's Agent Overall rating	Pearson Correlation	.124	-.127-	-.054-	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.223	.212	.595	
	N	99	99	99	99

Table 5.7: Correlation of the Perceptions of Respondents

As shown in Table 5.7, the results of the correlation analysis revealed no significant association between the buyer's perceptions and all other negotiators including their agents. The same is true for all the other three parties. This finding could lead to the conclusion that

every party made their decision based on their own satisfaction with the negotiation process and the negotiation outcomes.

5.7 Multivariate Analysis of Variance Test

As presented in Table 5.8, we see that there are no significant differences between Negotiators (buyers, sellers, buyers' agents, and sellers' agents) regarding all items and their perceptions, which are positive to all items. In addition, we tested all 9-research negotiation items against different negotiation conflicting modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accommodating). The results from the MANOVA emphasized that no significant differences have been detected between different modes for all the nine research items although all modes have positive perceptions to all questions.

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Negotiators	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	.529	3	.176	.126	.945
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	2.533	3	.844	.932	.425
	Agents' talk about their clients' goals	1.109	3	.370	.394	.757
	New strategies introduced into the negotiation	.127	3	.042	.043	.988
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	1.072	3	.357	.340	.796
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	1.794	3	.598	.539	.656
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	.456	3	.152	.166	.919
	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	2.916	3	.972	1.168	.322
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	3.839	3	1.280	1.309	.271
Gender	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	10.636	1	10.636	7.599	.006
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	3.533	1	3.533	3.903	.049
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	3.207	1	3.207	3.420	.065
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	2.167	1	2.167	2.210	.138
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	1.059	1	1.059	1.008	.316
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	1.362	1	1.362	1.227	.269
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	3.224	1	3.224	3.527	.061
	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	3.223	1	3.223	3.873	.050
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	.083	1	.083	.085	.771
Kilmann mode	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	3.296	4	.824	.589	.671
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	.868	4	.217	.240	.916
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	2.076	4	.519	.553	.697
	New strategies introduced into the negotiation	2.731	4	.683	.696	.595
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	.907	4	.227	.216	.930
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	1.092	4	.273	.246	.912
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	.263	4	.066	.072	.991
	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	1.339	4	.335	.402	.807
	Does agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	2.295	4	.574	.587	.672
Negotiator * Gender	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	4.160	3	1.387	.991	.397
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	2.094	3	.698	.771	.511
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	1.192	3	.397	.424	.736
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	2.055	3	.685	.699	.553
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	2.696	3	.899	.855	.464

	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	1.284	3	.428	.386	.763	
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	.814	3	.271	.297	.828	
	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	2.883	3	.961	1.155	.327	
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	1.958	3	.653	.668	.572	
Negotiator * Kilmann mode	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	7.836	12	.653	.466	.934	
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	6.112	12	.509	.563	.872	
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	5.837	12	.486	.519	.903	
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	6.559	12	.547	.557	.876	
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	7.438	12	.620	.590	.851	
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	7.404	12	.617	.556	.877	
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	17.711	12	1.476	1.614	.085	
	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	16.073	12	1.339	1.610	.087	
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	12.934	12	1.078	1.103	.356	
	Gender * Kilmann mode	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	4.351	4	1.088	.777	.541
		How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	1.233	4	.308	.340	.851
		Agents' talk about their client's goals	5.228	4	1.307	1.394	.236
New strategies introduced in to the negotiation		1.913	4	.478	.488	.745	
Negotiation as a result of using agents		4.175	4	1.044	.993	.411	
Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor		4.784	4	1.196	1.077	.368	
How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?		3.689	4	.922	1.009	.403	
Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)		1.589	4	.397	.478	.752	
Negotiator * Gender * Kilmann mode	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	1.972	4	.493	.504	.733	
	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	18.735	11	1.703	1.217	.274	
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	12.248	11	1.113	1.230	.265	
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	13.325	11	1.211	1.292	.227	
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	15.886	11	1.444	1.473	.140	
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	14.547	11	1.322	1.258	.247	
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	7.973	11	.725	.653	.783	
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	17.160	11	1.560	1.706	.070	
Error	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	10.108	11	.919	1.104	.356	
	Does agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	8.056	11	.732	.749	.691	
	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	505.299	361	1.400	–	–	
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	326.859	361	.905	–	–	
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	338.519	361	.938	–	–	
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	354.012	361	.981	–	–	
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	379.364	361	1.051	–	–	
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	400.838	361	1.110	–	–	
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	330.064	361	.914	–	–	
Total	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	300.358	361	.832	–	–	
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	352.808	361	.977	–	–	
	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	4956.000	400	–	–	–	
	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	4520.000	400	–	–	–	
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	4810.000	400	–	–	–	
	New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	4982.000	400	–	–	–	
	Negotiation as a result of using agents	5176.000	400	–	–	–	
	Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	5031.000	400	–	–	–	
	How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	5022.000	400	–	–	–	
Corrected Total	Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	5156.000	400	–	–	–	
	Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	5169.000	400	–	–	–	
	Did the buyer and seller reveal their goals to the agent?	560.310	399	–	–	–	
Total	How did meeting with the agents redefine the goals?	359.750	399	–	–	–	
	Agents' talk about their client's goals	374.440	399	–	–	–	

New strategies introduced in to the negotiation	385.160	399	–	–	–
Negotiation as a result of using agents	415.000	399	–	–	–
Effect of additional information (if any) by the instructor	427.378	399	–	–	–
How easy was it to reach an agreement (if so) with the agents?	370.760	399	–	–	–
Support from the clients on the agreements by agents (if so)	339.640	399	–	–	–
Does the agent make negotiations easier or difficult?	387.278	399	–	–	–

Table 5.8: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

When the 9 research items were tested against gender, several statements revealed significant differences between males and females. In general, significant differences were found between males and females (males are more positive than females) for all parties regarding the statement of the buyer and seller in which they have revealed their goals to the agent (p-value =0.006) and the statement of how meeting with the agents redefined the goals. The results confirmed significant differences between males' and females' views of the statements for all parties (p-value =0.046) (where males are more positive than females regarding this matter). Finally, male and female negotiators have significant different views regarding the statement that both clients have provided support to their agents during negotiation (p-value =0.05) (again males have a more positive view of this statement than females). As a closing remark, all two-way and three-way interaction effects have been considered against the nine items, yet no significant differences between all possible combinations were discovered.

5.8 Association between Gender and Conflicting Mode

Table 5.9 presents the negotiation cross tabulation.

Gender * Kilmann mode * Negotiation Cross tabulation									
Negotiation			Kilmann mode					Total	
			Competing	Accommodating	Compromising	Avoiding	Collaborating		
BUYER	Gender	Male	Count	10	10	4	8	6	38
			% within Gender	26.3%	26.3%	10.5%	21.1%	15.8%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	32.3%	37.0%	40.0%	42.1%	46.2%	38.0%
		% of Total	10.0%	10.0%	4.0%	8.0%	6.0%	38.0%	
		Female	Count	21	17	6	11	7	62
			% within Gender	33.9%	27.4%	9.7%	17.7%	11.3%	100.0%
	% within Kilmann mode		67.7%	63.0%	60.0%	57.9%	53.8%	62.0%	
	% of Total	21.0%	17.0%	6.0%	11.0%	7.0%	62.0%		
	Total	Count	31	27	10	19	13	100	
		% within Gender	31.0%	27.0%	10.0%	19.0%	13.0%	100.0%	
% within Kilmann		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		

		mode							
		% of Total	31.0%	27.0%	10.0%	19.0%	100.0%		
SELLER	Gender	Male	Count	9	9	4	8	37	
			% within Gender	24.3%	24.3%	10.8%	21.6%	18.9%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	34.6%	34.6%	33.3%	47.1%	36.8%	37.0%
			% of Total	9.0%	9.0%	4.0%	8.0%	7.0%	37.0%
		Female	Count	17	17	8	9	12	63
			% within Gender	27.0%	27.0%	12.7%	14.3%	19.0%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	65.4%	65.4%	66.7%	52.9%	63.2%	63.0%
			% of Total	17.0%	17.0%	8.0%	9.0%	12.0%	63.0%
	Total	Count	26	26	12	17	19	100	
		% within Gender	26.0%	26.0%	12.0%	17.0%	19.0%	100.0%	
		% within Kilmann mode	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	26.0%	26.0%	12.0%	17.0%	19.0%	100.0%	
	BUYER'S AGENT	Gender	Male	Count	15	12	8	7	10
% within Gender				28.8%	23.1%	15.4%	13.5%	19.2%	100.0%
% within Kilmann mode				48.4%	54.5%	57.1%	38.9%	66.7%	52.0%
% of Total				15.0%	12.0%	8.0%	7.0%	10.0%	52.0%
Female			Count	16	10	6	11	5	48
			% within Gender	33.3%	20.8%	12.5%	22.9%	10.4%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	51.6%	45.5%	42.9%	61.1%	33.3%	48.0%
			% of Total	16.0%	10.0%	6.0%	11.0%	5.0%	48.0%
Total		Count	31	22	14	18	15	100	
		% within Gender	31.0%	22.0%	14.0%	18.0%	15.0%	100.0%	
		% within Kilmann mode	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	31.0%	22.0%	14.0%	18.0%	15.0%	100.0%	
SELLER'S AGENT		Gender	Male	Count	4	0	6	4	3
	% within Gender			23.5%	0.0%	35.3%	23.5%	17.6%	100.0%
	% within Kilmann mode			12.5%	0.0%	33.3%	25.0%	30.0%	17.0%
	% of Total			4.0%	0.0%	6.0%	4.0%	3.0%	17.0%
	Female		Count	28	24	12	12	7	83
			% within Gender	33.7%	28.9%	14.5%	14.5%	8.4%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	87.5%	100.0%	66.7%	75.0%	70.0%	83.0%
			% of Total	28.0%	24.0%	12.0%	12.0%	7.0%	83.0%
	Total	Count	32	24	18	16	10	100	
		% within Gender	32.0%	24.0%	18.0%	16.0%	10.0%	100.0%	
		% within Kilmann mode	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	32.0%	24.0%	18.0%	16.0%	10.0%	100.0%	
	TOTAL	Gender	Male	Count	38	31	22	27	26
% within Gender				26.4%	21.5%	15.3%	18.8%	18.1%	100.0%
% within Kilmann mode				31.7%	31.3%	40.7%	38.6%	45.6%	36.0%
% of Total				9.5%	7.8%	5.5%	6.8%	6.5%	36.0%
Female			Count	82	68	32	43	31	256
			% within Gender	32.0%	26.6%	12.5%	16.8%	12.1%	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	68.3%	68.7%	59.3%	61.4%	54.4%	64.0%
			% of Total	20.5%	17.0%	8.0%	10.8%	7.8%	64.0%
Count		120	99	54	70	57	400		

	% within Gender	30.0%	24.8%	13.5%	17.5%	14.3%	100.0%
	% within Kilmann mode	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	30.0%	24.8%	13.5%	17.5%	14.3%	100.0%

Table 5.9: Negotiation Cross Tabulation

Table 5.10 presents the results of Chi-square test of independence between gender and the mode of negotiation conflicting mode within negotiators (buyers, sellers, buyers' agents, sellers' agents). The p-value of Pearson's Chi-Square test as illustrated in Table 5.10 indicated that there are no association between gender and the conflicting modes within the buyer negotiators. The results revealed no significant association between gender and behavioural mode within buyers (p-value = 0.915). Similar arguments can be said about sellers among whom we have found no significant association also between gender (male/female) and the conflicting modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, accommodating) (p-value= 0.920). Buyers' agents exhibit similar behaviour where no association was found between gender and the conflicting modes (p-value = 0.575). Sellers' agents showed a significant association between gender and conflicting modes (p-value = 0.003). Females tend to be competing, collaborating and compromising more than males, whereas males are more like having an equal view for all modes but tend to be either compromising or avoiding.

Chi-Square Tests				
Negotiators		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Buyers	Pearson Chi-Square	.964b	4	.915
	Likelihood Ratio	.964	4	.915
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.936	1	.333
	N of Valid Cases	100		
Sellers	Pearson Chi-Square	.934c	4	.920
	Likelihood Ratio	.915	4	.922
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.240	1	.624
	N of Valid Cases	100		
Buyer's Agent	Pearson Chi-Square	2.900d	4	.575
	Likelihood Ratio	2.936	4	.569
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.260	1	.610
	N of Valid Cases	100		
Seller's Agent	Pearson Chi-Square	10.702e	4	.030
	Likelihood Ratio	13.937	4	.007
	Linear-by-Linear Association	4.556	1	.033
	N of Valid Cases	100		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	4.936a	4	.294

	Likelihood Ratio	4.894	4	.298
	Linear-by-Linear Association	4.096	1	.043
	N of Valid Cases	400		

Table 5.10: Chi-Square Tests

The New House Negotiation exercise among the respondents reveals that difference in position or situation (whether seller, buyer, seller's agent, buyers' agent) does not change the behavioural mode or we can say that the respondent exhibit the same behaviour in all situation. It also reveals that gender has no significance in the behavioural mode which rejects the *hypothesis 4* that masculine subjects will be more assertive and competitive than feminine subjects who would tend to be more cooperative.

5.9 The Used Car Negotiation Simulation

As shown in Table 4.11, male buyers represent 17.3% of the entire 400 sample, female buyers represent 32.8% of the total sample, male sellers represent 17.3% of the entire sample, and female sellers represent 32.8%. As illustrated in Table 4.11, the involvement of females in the experiment was more than males for both negotiators.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 male buyer	69	17.3	17.3	17.3
	2 female buyer	131	32.8	32.8	50.0
	3 male Seller	69	17.3	17.3	67.3
	4 female seller	131	32.8	32.8	100.0
	Total	400	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.11: Distribution of Gender in the Sample

5.9.1.1 Effect of Gender on Mode by Negotiators

As illustrated in Tables 5.13 and Table 5.14, there is no significant association between gender and the buyers' conflicting mode (p-value, 0.371). Similarly, no significant association is found between gender and the sellers' conflicting modes (p-value=0.140).

Gender * Kilmann mode * Negotiation Cross tabulation															
Negotiation			Kilmann mode										Total		
			Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating	Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating			
BUYER	Gender	1. Male Buyer Gender Negotiation	Count	17	20	11	14	7	-	-	-	-	-	69	
			% within Gender	24.6%	29.0%	15.9%	20.3%	10.1%	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	43.6%	31.7%	36.7%	38.9%	21.9%	-	-	-	-	-	-	34.5%
			% of Total	8.5%	10.0%	5.5%	7.0%	3.5%	-	-	-	-	-	-	34.5%
		2. Female Buyer	Count	22	43	19	22	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	131
			% within Gender	16.8%	32.8%	14.5%	16.8%	19.1%	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%
			% within Kilmann mode	56.4%	68.3%	63.3%	61.1%	78.1%	-	-	-	-	-	-	65.5%
			% of Total	11.0%	21.5%	9.5%	11.0%	12.5%	-	-	-	-	-	-	65.5%
		Total	Count	39	63	30	36	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	200
			% within gender negotiation	19.5%	31.5%	15.0%	18.0%	16.0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%
			% within Kilmann filter	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%
			% of Total	19.5%	31.5%	15.0%	18.0%	16.0%	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%
	BUYER	Gender	3. Male Seller Gender Negotiation	Count	-	-	-	-	-	17	14	20	11	7	69
				% within Gender	-	-	-	-	-	24.6%	20.3%	29.0%	15.9%	10.1%	100.0%
				% within Kilmann mode	-	-	-	-	-	34.7%	26.4%	51.3%	32.4%	28.0%	34.5%
				% of Total	-	-	-	-	-	8.5%	7.0%	10.0%	5.5%	3.5%	34.5%
2. Female Seller			Count	-	-	-	-	-	32	39	19	23	18	131	
			% within Gender	-	-	-	-	-	24.4%	29.8%	14.5%	17.6%	13.7%	100.0%	
			% within Kilmann mode	-	-	-	-	-	65.3%	73.6%	48.7%	67.6%	72.0%	65.5%	
			% of Total	-	-	-	-	-	16.0%	19.5%	9.5%	11.5%	9.0%	65.5%	
Total			Count	-	-	-	-	-	49	53	39	34	25	200	
			% within gender negotiation	-	-	-	-	-	24.5%	26.5%	19.5%	17.0%	12.5%	100.0%	
			% within Kilmann filter	-	-	-	-	-	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
			% of Total	-	-	-	-	-	24.5%	26.5%	19.5%	17.0%	12.5%	100.0%	

Table 5.12: Gender by Negotiation

Chi-Square Tests				
Negotiators		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Buyers	Pearson Chi-Square	4.264b	4	.371
	Likelihood Ratio	4.389	4	.356
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.652	1	.199
	N of Valid Cases	200		
Sellers	Pearson Chi-Square	6.931c	4	.140
	Likelihood Ratio	6.763	4	.149
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.000	1	.990
	N of Valid Cases	200		

Table 5.13: Chi-Square Test

5.9.1.2 The Effect of the Different Conflicting Modes on Goal Choices

The question gives three choices for goals in negotiation and hence the goal could be a target price, an opening bid, or a bottom line. The question that arises now is that if the respondents' conflicting modes of behaviour and the goal choices are independent. To meet this end, the author conducted the Chi-Square test for independency test to validate such a claim for both buyers and sellers.

Gender * Kilmann mode * Negotiation Cross tabulation								
Negotiation			Kilmann Mode					Total
			Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating	
Gender	Target Price	Count	13	26	5	14	6	64
		% within Q1	20.3%	40.6%	7.8%	21.9%	9.4%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	33.3%	41.3%	16.7%	38.9%	18.8%	32.0%
		% of Total	6.5%	13.0%	2.5%	7.0%	3.0%	32.0%
	Opening Bid	Count	18	28	17	16	19	98
		% within Q1	18.4%	28.6%	17.3%	16.3%	19.4%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	46.2%	44.4%	56.7%	44.4%	59.4%	49.0%
		% of Total	9.0%	14.0%	8.5%	8.0%	9.5%	49.0%
	Bottom Line	Count	8	9	8	6	7	38
		% within Q1	21.1%	23.7%	21.1%	15.8%	18.4%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	20.5%	14.3%	26.7%	16.7%	21.9%	19.0%
		% of Total	4.0%	4.5%	4.0%	3.0%	3.5%	19.0%
Total	Count	39	63	30	36	32	200	
	% within Q1	19.5%	31.5%	15.0%	18.0%	16.0%	100.0%	
	% within Kilmann filter	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	19.5%	31.5%	15.0%	18.0%	16.0%	100.0%	

Table 5.14: Goals of Negotiation Kilmann Filter Cross Tabulation: Buyers

The results of Chi-Square test indicated that the goals and modes are independent in the case of buyers (p-value = 0.286).

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.708 ^a	8	.286
Likelihood Ratio	10.227	8	.249
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.323	1	.250
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.70.

Table 5.15: Chi-Square Test - Buyers

Gender * Kilmann mode * Negotiation Cross tabulation								
Negotiation			Kilmann Mode					Total
			Competing	Collaborating	Compromising	Avoiding	Accommodating	
Gender	Target Price	Count	14	14	6	9	5	48
		% within Q1	29.2%	29.2%	12.5%	18.8%	10.4%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	28.6%	26.4%	15.4%	26.5%	20.0%	24.0%
		% of Total	7.0%	7.0%	3.0%	4.5%	2.5%	24.0%
	Opening Bid	Count	20	19	24	19	9	91
		% within Q1	22.0%	20.9%	26.4%	20.9%	9.9%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	40.8%	35.8%	61.5%	55.9%	36.0%	45.5%
		% of Total	10.0%	9.5%	12.0%	9.5%	4.5%	45.5%
	Bottom Line	Count	15	20	9	6	11	61
		% within Q1	24.6%	32.8%	14.8%	9.8%	18.0%	100.0%
		% within Kilmann filter	30.6%	37.7%	23.1%	17.6%	44.0%	30.5%
		% of Total	7.5%	10.0%	4.5%	3.0%	5.5%	30.5%
Total	Count	49	53	39	34	25	200	
	% within Q1	24.5%	26.5%	19.5%	17.0%	12.5%	100.0%	
	% within Kilmann filter	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	24.5%	26.5%	19.5%	17.0%	12.5%	100.0%	

Table 5.16: Goals of Negotiation Kilmann Filter Cross Tabulation: Sellers

As shown in Table 5.17, the conflicting modes of sellers and their choices are independent (p-value=0.161).

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.792a	8	.161
Likelihood Ratio	11.957	8	.153
Linear-by-Linear Association	.146	1	.702
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.00.

Table 5.17: Chi-Square Test – Sellers

5.9.2 Testing For Significant Differences between Buyers' and Sellers' Perceptions to Research Items

In this section, the aim is to test if there are significant differences between buyers and sellers in their perception to each research item. Since the sample is large and independent t-test was performed to test for significance between the two parties' perceptions.

Research Items	Negotiator	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P-value
Did they reveal these goals to their agents?	Buyer	200	3.51	1.228	0.867
	Seller	200	3.49	1.156	
How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Buyer	200	3.80	1.268	0.676
	Seller	200	3.85	1.115	
Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Buyer	200	3.47	1.283	0.094
	Seller	200	3.67	1.094	
Have the agents reached an agreement?	Buyer	78	3.71	1.207	0.516
	Seller	85	3.82	1.115	
Have the clients supported the agreement?	Buyer	174	3.34	1.413	0.008
	Seller	169	3.72	1.170	
Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Buyer	200	3.51	1.134	0/045
	Seller	198	3.73	1.021	

Table 5.18: Significant Differences between Buyers and Sellers

Regarding the outcomes of the t-test, it is evident that both buyers and sellers have positive perceptions to all items (mean >3). However, there are only two statements concerning the support of both clients to the agreement which has buyer's average rating 3.34, and seller's average rating 3.72. Although both averages reflect positive attitudes towards the agreement, the sellers' average, however, is more positive than the buyer's. The second statement questioned the role played by the agents to reach an agreement and the results showed that

both buyers and sellers were positive. The p-value = 0.045 revealed a significant difference between the buyers' perceptions and the sellers' perception (average rating of buyer's perception = 3.51, the average rating of the seller's perception = 3.73). So, sellers are more supportive to the role played by the agents to reach a settlement than buyers although both parties have positive attitudes toward the item.

Group Statistics						
Parties	Research Items	Gender	N	Mean	Std.	P-value
Buyers	Did they reveal these goals to their agents?	Male	69	3.42	1.299	0.456
		Female	131	3.56	1.191	
	How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Male	69	3.75	1.355	0.708
		Female	131	3.82	1.225	
	Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Male	69	3.41	1.438	0.609
		Female	131	3.50	1.199	
	Have the agents reached an agreement?	Male	28	3.68	1.416	0.886
		Female	50	3.72	1.089	
	Have the clients supported the agreement?	Male	61	3.11	1.450	0.115
		Female	113	3.47	1.383	
	Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Male	69	3.41	1.167	0.347
		Female	131	3.56	1.117	
Sellers	Did they reveal these goals to their agents?	Male	69	3.43	1.091	0.625
		Female	131	3.52	1.192	
	How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Male	69	3.67	1.107	0.092
		Female	131	3.95	1.112	
	Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Male	69	3.83	.907	0.144
		Female	131	3.59	1.176	
	Have the agents reached an agreement?	Male	32	4.03	.933	0.183
		Female	53	3.70	1.202	
	Have the clients supported the agreement?	Male	59	3.68	1.074	0.722
		Female	110	3.75	1.222	
	Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Male	67	3.84	.881	0.286
		Female	131	3.67	1.084	

Table 5.19: Group Statistics

5.9.3 Testing for Significant Differences between Gender

As a general pattern, both male and female buyers and sellers have positive perceptions to all research items as illustrated in Table 5.21. However, none of the tests revealed any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers.

ANOVA for Buyers						
Research Item		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Did they reveal these goals to their agents? How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Between Groups	14.771	4	3.693	2.525	.042
	Within Groups	285.209	195	1.463		
	Total	299.980	199			
Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Between Groups	4.604	4	1.151	.712	.585
	Within Groups	315.396	195	1.617		
	Total	320.000	199			
Have the agents reached an agreement? Have the clients supported the agreement?	Between Groups	1.602	4	.401	.239	.916
	Within Groups	326.218	195	1.673		
	Total	327.820	199			
Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Between Groups	4.222	4	1.055	.713	.585
	Within Groups	107.996	73	1.479		
	Total	112.218	77			
Did they reveal these goals to their agents? How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Between Groups	13.583	4	3.396	1.730	.146
	Within Groups	331.727	169	1.963		
	Total	345.310	173			
Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Between Groups	3.437	4	.859	.664	.618
	Within Groups	252.543	195	1.295		
	Total	255.980	199			

Table 5.20: Testing for Significant Differences between Kilmann's Conflicting Mode – Buyers

Kilmann filter		Did they reveal these goals to their agents?	How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Have the agents reached an agreement?	Have the clients supported the agreement?	Does having an agent make negotiation easier?
Competing	Mean	3.67	4.05	3.62	3.47	3.81	3.72
	N	39	39	39	19	36	39
	Std. Deviation	1.155	1.025	1.310	1.349	1.261	.916
Collaborating	Mean	3.59	3.71	3.51	3.61	3.39	3.57
	N	63	63	63	23	51	63
	Std. Deviation	1.240	1.300	1.306	1.118	1.471	1.279
Compromising	Mean	3.13	3.93	3.37	3.83	2.93	3.37
	N	30	30	30	12	28	30
	Std. Deviation	1.167	1.388	1.299	1.337	1.412	1.245
Avoiding	Mean	3.86	3.64	3.39	3.60	3.25	3.42
	N	36	36	36	10	32	36
	Std. Deviation	1.222	1.246	1.271	1.265	1.414	1.025
Accommodating	Mean	3.13	3.72	3.41	4.14	3.19	3.38
	N	32	32	32	14	27	32
	Std. Deviation	1.238	1.397	1.266	1.027	1.415	1.100
Total	Mean	3.51	3.80	3.47	3.71	3.34	3.51
	N	200	200	200	78	174	200
	Std. Deviation	1.228	1.268	1.283	1.207	1.413	1.134

Table 5.21: Analysis of Means of Buyers' Perceptions

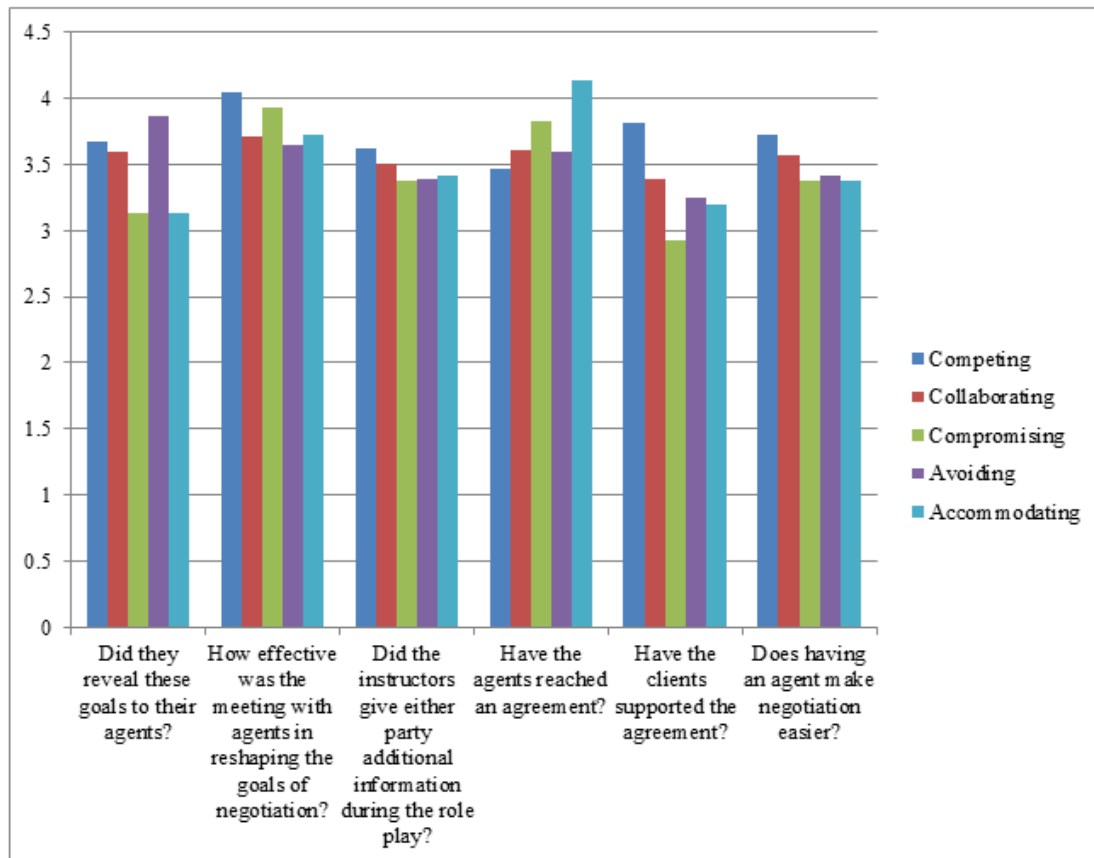


Figure 5.5: Chart for Buyers

The analysis of variance test (as shown in Table 5.22 above) for the buyers, conflicting mode revealed that there are significant differences between different modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, and accommodating) and their views concerning the buyers who are revealing their goals. Table 5.23 below indicates that all means ratings are positive for all modes > 3 . However, further analysis (Duncan's multiple comparison test) showed that the competing and compromising modes are less positive than the other three modes whose detailed analysis is given in Tables (5.22 and 5.23). However, no significant differences have been revealed for the other items although their perceptions to the items were positive for all modes.

Duncan ^{a, b}			
Kilmann Filter	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
5 Accommodating	32	3.13	–
3 Compromising	30	3.13	–
2 Collaborating	63	–	3.59
1 Competing	39	–	3.67
4 Avoiding	36	–	3.86
Sig.	–	.078	.361

Table 5.22: Duncan's Multiple Comparison Test

5.9.4 Testing for Significant Differences between Conflicting Mode (Sellers)

The question whether there are significant differences between different modes and their perceptions to research items was examined by the ANOVAs (having a large sample size). The results in Table 5.23 revealed no significant differences between the different conflicting modes and their perceptions to research items (P -value >0.05). But if we look at the mean analysis in Table 5.24, all means are very positive regarding the process of negotiation and the outcomes are satisfactory to all modes regarding all research items.

To test for significant differences between conflicting mode (sellers), the ANOVAs test was conducted and the results revealed no significant differences between the different conflicting modes and their perceptions to research items (P -value >0.05). But if we look at the mean analysis again, we notice that all means are very positive regarding the process of negotiation and the outcomes are satisfactory to all modes regarding all research items.

ANOVA for Sellers						
Research Item		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Did they reveal these goals to their agents? How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Between Groups	5.654	4	1.413	1.059	.378
	Within Groups	260.326	195	1.335		
	Total	265.980	199			
Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Between Groups	4.311	4	1.078	.864	.486
	Within Groups	243.189	195	1.247		
	Total	247.500	199			
Have the agents reached an agreement? Have the clients supported the agreement?	Between Groups	5.936	4	1.484	1.246	.293
	Within Groups	232.284	195	1.191		
	Total	238.220	199			
Does having an agent make negotiation	Between	2.009	4	.502	.393	.813

easier?	Groups					
	Within Groups	102.344	80	1.279		
	Total	104.353	84			
Did they reveal these goals to their agents? How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Between Groups	1.689	4	.422	.303	.875
	Within Groups	228.240	164	1.392		
	Total	229.929	168			
Does having an agent make negotiation easier?	Between Groups	2.174	4	.543	.516	.724
	Within Groups	203.099	193	1.052		
	Total	205.273	197			

Table 5.23: Revealing Agent Goals

5.9.5 Analysis of Means of Sellers' Perceptions

Kilmann Filter		Did they reveal these goals to their agents?	How effective was the meeting with agents in reshaping the goals of negotiation?	Did the instructors give either party additional information during the role play?	Have the agents reached an agreement?	Have the clients supported the agreement?	Does having an agent make negotiation easier?
Competing	Mean	3.45	4.06	3.65	3.88	3.75	3.70
	N	49	49	49	16	40	47
	Std. Deviation	1.276	1.144	1.165	1.204	1.276	1.061
Collaborating	Mean	3.26	3.91	3.68	3.63	3.61	3.70
	N	53	53	53	27	44	53
	Std. Deviation	1.195	1.079	1.173	1.182	1.262	1.119
Compromising	Mean	3.72	3.67	3.97	4.07	3.68	3.85
	N	39	39	39	15	37	39
	Std. Deviation	.972	1.177	.903	1.033	1.132	.844
Avoiding	Mean	3.65	3.74	3.50	3.88	3.75	3.56
	N	34	34	34	17	28	34
	Std. Deviation	1.178	1.109	1.080	1.054	1.110	.991
Accommodating	Mean	3.48	3.76	3.44	3.80	3.95	3.88
	N	25	25	25	10	20	25
	Std. Deviation	1.046	1.052	1.044	1.135	.945	1.054
Total	Mean	3.49	3.85	3.67	3.82	3.72	3.73
	N	200	200	200	85	169	198
	Std. Deviation	1.156	1.115	1.094	1.115	1.170	1.021

Table 5.24: Analysis of Sellers

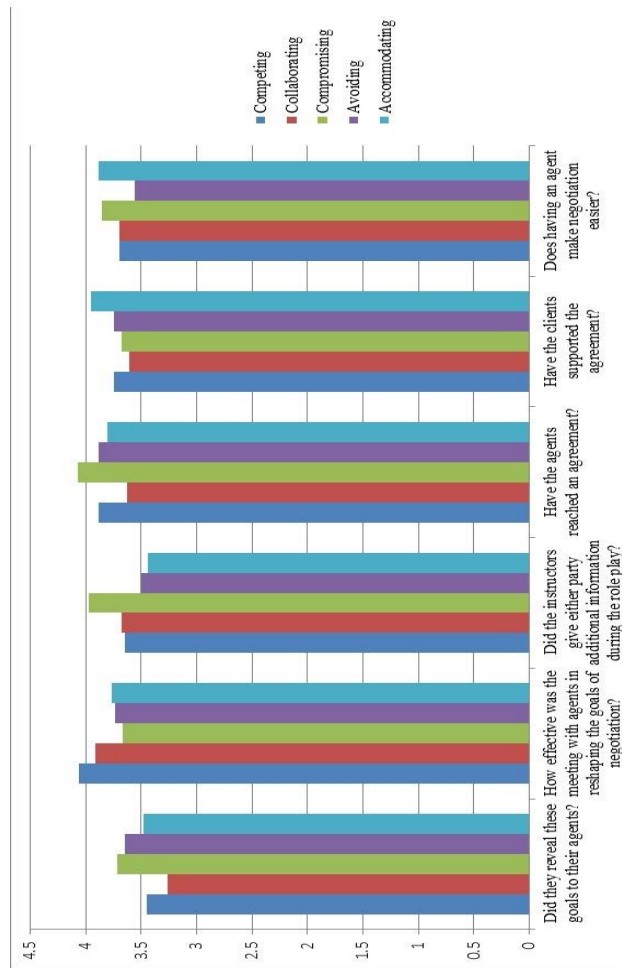


Figure 5.6: Chart of Goals of Agents

Goals of Negotiation * Gender Cross Tabulation: Buyers					
			Gender Negotiators		Total
			Male Buyer	Female Buyer	
Goals for Negotiation	Target Price	Count	22	42	64
		% within Q1	34.4%	65.6%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	31.9%	32.1%	32.0%
		% of Total	11.0%	21.0%	32.0%
	Opening bid	Count	33	65	98
		% within Q1	33.7%	66.3%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	47.8%	49.6%	49.0%
		% of Total	16.5%	32.5%	49.0%
	Bottom Line	Count	14	24	38
		% within Q1	36.8%	63.2%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	20.3%	18.3%	19.0%
		% of Total	7.0%	12.0%	19.0%
Total	Count	69	131	200	
	% within Q1	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%	
	% within gender negotiation	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%	

Table 5.25: Goals of Negotiation Gender Cross Tabulation: Buyers

Chi-Square Tests			
Negotiators	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.122a	2	.941
Likelihood Ratio	.121	2	.941
Linear-by-Linear Association	.042	1	.838
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.11.

Table 5.26: Chi-Square Test

Goals of Negotiation * Gender Cross Tabulation: Sellers					
			Gender Negotiators		Total
			Male Buyer	Female Buyer	
Goals for Negotiation	Target Price	Count	10	38	48
		% within Q1	20.8%	79.2%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	14.5%	29.0%	24.0%
		% of Total	5.0%	19.0%	24.0%
	Opening bid	Count	35	56	91
		% within Q1	38.5%	61.5%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	50.7%	42.7%	45.5%
		% of Total	17.5%	28.0%	45.5%
	Bottom Line	Count	24	37	61
		% within Q1	39.3%	60.7%	100.0%
		% within gender negotiation	34.8%	28.2%	30.5%
		% of Total	12.0%	18.5%	30.5%
Total	Count	69	69	131	
	% within Q1	34.5%	34.5%	65.5%	
	% within gender negotiation	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	34.5%	34.5%	65.5%	

Table 5.27: Goals of Negotiation Gender Cross Tabulation: Sellers

Chi-Square Tests			
Negotiators	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.233a	2	.073
Likelihood Ratio	5.557	2	.062
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.686	1	.055
N of Valid Cases	200		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.56.

Table 5.28: Chi-Square Test

The Chi Square Test revealed that gender has no significance in the behavioural mode as the p-value is .073 which is less than .05. Though the study reveals that male respondents are more positive towards the negotiation behaviours significant difference between male and female in their negotiation behaviour.

5.10 Summary

In this chapter, the results implicate that ‘avoiding’ was the most common characteristic of the participants and hence these respondents preferred to avoid conflicting situations and preferred to wait for a better chance to break a deal that could be satisfactory to both sides and this happened most frequently in personal relations. Nevertheless, it is also evident from the results that people in this society mostly collaborated especially in mandatory business situations in which they find it necessary to take prompt action to reach a settlement. The study also reveals that gender had no significance in the conflicting modes. There was no difference in the way of thinking between men and women. At the same time, it is also interesting that the conflicting modes of behaviour had no impact. So it is established that there was a wide difference between the way of approaching the problem by the respondents and the practical way of dealing with it.

The findings of this study confirm that both male and female buyers and sellers adopted quite a positive attitude towards the role played by their agents and the overwhelming majority of the respondents were quite positive about the agreements reached by them. Regarding the measures of the overall satisfaction with the negotiation process, the findings confirm that all negotiators had an overall positive perception to the entire negotiation process for all parties. Moreover, the results of the correlation analysis revealed no significant association between buyers' perceptions and all other negotiators including their agents. The same is true for all sellers, sellers' agents and buyers' agents. This finding leads to the conclusion that every party made their decision based on their own satisfaction with the negotiation process and the negotiation outcomes. The results suggest that all negotiators including their agents had positive perceptions to all the questions of the questionnaire. The results emphasized that no significant differences were detected among the different modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, accommodating) for all the research items (reveal goals, effectiveness of agents in reshaping the goals, impact of additional information from instructors, if reached to an agreement, did the clients support the agreement, If agents make the negotiation easier).

The results revealed that the sample scored highest in “avoiding” which has been succeeded by the “collaborating” style. The difference between the score is only 2 and this indicates that the chance for it to move to the second one "collaborating" is very high. So, in fact, we can

say that the general tendency of the sample is "avoiding" or "collaborating". A move to the next style that is "compromising" is difficult for the sample as the difference between the two styles is 100. This is succeeded by the "competing" style. A move from the compromising to the competing style is comparatively easy when compared to the previous as the difference is 15. Again, the last sort of reaction for the sample is "accommodating" which is in fact a difficult move.

The study results confirm that the basic tendency of those from this culture is "avoiding", which clearly demonstrates that they try to withdraw from the conflicting situation. This can be done by merely neglecting it or by sidestepping the issue diplomatically by postponing reaction to the situation. Non-cooperation with the situation or denial to solve the issue is reflected in the attitude of the sample. But we cannot consider this as the ultimate basic response of the sample as the difference to the next style is only 2. So, we can say that the general method of response is either "avoiding" or "collaborating". This is right in the sense that a person cannot use the avoiding nature all the time. In some instances, he/she can use it in order to escape from the situation, but in others where he/she is compelled to give an answer, especially in business transactions, avoiding cannot be adopted. So we can assume that the community will try to avoid a situation of conflict in personal relations, but in case of a mandatory situation where they need to express their concern, their mode of reaction is collaborative.

The collaboration style of the sample indicates that the sample is ready to work on the issue and dig on the matter to find out a proper solution which is acceptable to all. This shows that the Kuwaiti sample equally represents these two styles in their reaction with a little more tendency towards "avoiding" the situation. This may be due to the fact that Kuwaitis have a culture that attributes more importance to family and friendly relations. Hence, they do not want to spoil relations due to their strong or assertive reactions in conflicting situations. Kuwaitis have close knit family relations. Family get-togethers at several occasions are very frequent and very important in their day to day life. They cannot keep themselves away from their family and friends. Moreover, the strict adherence to religious practices provides discipline in their life and they have to maintain a code of conduct that complies with their religious principles which they prefer to adhere to.

Bearing in mind all the aforementioned considerations, the conclusion is that the situations Kuwaitis had previous bad experiences about, or the ones they know there would be a difficulty in handling the demands of the other party, they resort to a method of "Avoiding", whereas in situations in which there are some explanations or justifications for both sides,

they are flexible to see the viewpoints of the other party and become collaborative in business relations. The collaborating style is succeeded by the compromising style, but with much difference in the total score from the previous styles. The assertiveness to their own viewpoints (competing) reflects the reaction of a majority business community in Kuwait. Most of the Kuwaiti population is engaged in their own business in Kuwait. Kuwait accommodates a large number of expatriates who are more in population than the citizens. Expatriates can work in Kuwait only under the sponsorship of a Kuwaiti company and the rule that expatriates cannot run companies/business in their own name- but only in the name of a Kuwaiti sponsor- ultimately attracts so many Kuwaitis to business. So, Kuwaitis hold the top positions in the companies and this power of authority especially in business vested them with a nature of “competitiveness”. So, we can conclude that though some of the population is ready for a little bit adjustment, accommodating or accepting by neglecting their own concerns is a rare phenomenon among the Kuwaiti population.

The results reveal that gender has no significance in the negotiation behaviour of the respondents

It is very clear from the above results that meeting with agents for both buyer and seller was somewhat satisfactory. This means that the Kuwaiti community prefers and appreciates cooperation and group work as all buyers and sellers along with their agents assisted each other to achieve a joint goal in a situation such as selling or buying a new house. This sense of cooperation is typical of any close-knit society such as the Kuwaiti society which is even made stronger and more closely related by its tribal background.

As for the question which deals with changing the course of negotiation by introducing a new strategy or tactic to improve each party’s position, the results show that the buyers confirmed that a new strategy or tactic was introduced in the negotiation. These results demonstrate that Kuwaitis are very keen on using new strategies or tactics to break a deal. This reflects a sense of flexibility in their way of thinking and overcoming any difficulty in the negotiation. Moreover, the results reflect Kuwaitis' quest for new and innovative solutions in case traditional ones did not work out. They cannot be stubborn or excessively competitive as this may disintegrate the society or lead to social unrest.

As for the question about the role of agents and how satisfactory it was for the buyers and sellers, the results reflect that from the buyer's standpoint, the negotiation was somewhat satisfactory. In general, the results reflect a great deal of contentment and trust to the role

played by agents. It also shows that the Kuwaiti society relies on agents to make selling and buying more effective and reliable.

Concerning the effect of additional information delivered to both clients, the results indicate that the buyers asserted that the information given to the instructors was somewhat satisfactory. The results here reflect again a kind of positive attitude towards the additional information given to the instructors which again reaffirms the appreciation of cooperation and working together in the Kuwaiti society. The results show that the Kuwaiti society avoid situations that may result in a conflict and collaborates more in order to reach a consensus to protect and emphasize on the solidarity and unity of the overall society.

As for the question which asked about how easy it was to reach an agreement, the buyers were somewhat satisfied with the agreements. Again, the results confirm a positive attitude towards the reached agreements as these agreements are supported by the buyers, their agents and the sellers and their agents respectively. Again, and again the element of social integrity and solidarity in Kuwait that is always regarded as a top priority is confirmed through the results.

As for the last question that dealt mainly with the role played by the agents to reach a settlement and how satisfied the buyers were, the results show an average rating, their agents were also positive about their roles with an average rating, the sellers were also satisfied with the agents' roles in reaching the agreements and their agents were supportive to this view. Moreover, the buyers' views about the roles of the agents in making the negotiation fruitful were positive, as were those of the agents. The sellers were also satisfied with roles played by the agents and their agents agreed about this view. The results give nothing but a reconfirmation of the conclusions about the Kuwaiti society's general tendency towards solidarity and integrity rather than confrontation and conflict. The results show that the Kuwaiti society mainly prefer avoiding confrontation so long as it is inevitable and adopts a policy of collaboration in most situations to reach a settlement.

As for the influence of gender, the results confirm among the buyer negotiators that there were no significant differences in perceptions between male and female buyers. However, it can also be seen that males and females have positive perceptions in the negotiation process though differences are not significant. For sellers, results also indicate that all male and female sellers have positive perceptions. However, it is also noticeable that male sellers do have more positive perceptions to the research items than the female sellers do. But these differences are significant only for certain aspects which suggest that males are more positive

toward the negotiation items than females although both have positive perceptions. It is very evident that the general trend that can be inferred from the results is that there are no significant differences in general between male and female participants. The conclusion that we can come to from all the data is that the lack of differences between males and females may reflect that fact that women in Kuwait are given many rights. First, the Kuwaiti society with its Islamic cultural background respects women and appreciates their role in the society as a wife, a mother, a grandmother and so on. In Islam, women have the right to inherit from a husband or a son and so on. As a wife, the husband has to support her financially even if she is rich. In addition, women are given the right to work in many different fields that are suitable for their nature. They cannot be married until they give their consent to the proposed man. It is actually this Islamic culture that promotes women's position in Kuwait and narrows the gap between male and female participants in this study as far as their perceptions of all items are concerned.

Secondly, in May 2005 women for the first time in Kuwait's history were granted the right to vote and stand for office. This was an opportunity giving women a chance to exercise their political and parliamentary rights especially when it arrived suddenly in June 2006, and four women were elected to the parliament for the first time in Kuwait's history. This again may give an appropriate justification for the results in this study which reflect no significant difference between male and female way of thinking. In addition to that, education in all stages for women has of course helped in raising women's awareness to the extent that both male and female views in the study have looked almost the same.

With respect to the effect of conflicting modes, results confirm that although buyers, sellers, buyers' agents and sellers' agents have positive attitudes, no significant differences have been found among the different conflict modes for each party. This unified view regarding the adopted conflict modes and the fact that all participants from all parties have no significant differences, reflect a kind of integrity and solidarity in the Kuwaiti society whose culture is mainly based on Islam. Moreover, we can understand from these results that the Kuwaiti society regard social solidarity and homogeneity as a top priority. When we look at the measures of the overall satisfaction, the results assert that all negotiators have an overall positive perception to the entire negotiation process for all parties. The conclusion that we may come up with is that the Kuwaiti community are so flexible about negotiations and they try to reach a compromise of a sort.

The results reveal no significant association between the buyers' perceptions and all other negotiators including their agents. The same is true for all the other three parties. This finding

could lead to the conclusion that every party made their decision based on their own perceptions of the negotiation process and its outcomes. This suggests that all the participants have their independent ways of thinking and they are not affected at all by the views of their fellow participants. They, in fact, pay little attention to the opinions of their fellows as they form their opinions on their own.

The results in terms of several statements revealed significant differences between males and females, however. Significant differences between males and females (males are more positive than females) were found for all parties regarding the statement of the buyer and the seller in which they have revealed their goals to the agent and the statement of how meeting with the agents redefined the goals. This reaffirms the fact that the Kuwaiti society is mainly after solidarity and this is reflected in the unified results that suggest that the differences among all combinations are only found in a few items, whereas in the majority of items, no significant differences were recorded. Such conclusion about the Kuwaiti society is reemphasized by the results here again.

The results of the association between genders by negotiation conflicting mode by negotiators indicated that there is no association between gender and the conflicting modes within the buyer negotiators. The results revealed no significant association between gender and behavioural mode within buyers. The results are almost the same for all the other parties including the buyers and the sellers and their agents. These results again reflect the state of gender equality in Kuwait which is mainly due to its Islamic culture and its modern constitution that gave women a lot of rights. It also refers to the importance of education for women which has enlarged their awareness of their rights and also qualified them to be able to participate in the overall development of their country.

In terms of the conflicting modes of behaviour, the results indicate that the goals and modes are independent in the case of buyers. Similarly, the conflicting modes of sellers and their choices appeared to be independent. The results suggest that there is a difference between the practical and the academic way of dealing with the same issue. Usually participants who adopt mainly the competing mode are expected to choose the target price whereas those who adopt the collaborating mode would choose the opening bid and so on. However, the results show no association between the different conflicting modes and the goal choices.

The results of differences between the buyers' and the sellers' perceptions shows that both buyers and sellers have positive perceptions. Although both averages reflect positive attitudes towards the agreement, the sellers' average, however, is more positive than the buyers'.

Concerning the statement which questioned the role played by the agents to reach an agreement, the results showed that both buyers and sellers were positive. There was a significant difference between the buyers' perceptions and the sellers' perceptions. So sellers are more supportive to the role played by the agents to reach a settlement than buyers although both parties have positive attitudes. The overall conclusion that we can draw from the statistics is that both buyers and sellers have positive attitudes. This also reflects a general satisfaction with special emphasis on the role played by the agents to reach an agreement. Hence, again we see here a reconfirmation of the importance of the agent's role in selling and buying and this leads us to the conclusion that the Kuwaiti society in general highly appreciates the role of agents and prefers to buy or sell through them as they believe they have more experience which qualifies them to make better deals.

The outcomes of testing for significant differences between gender show, as a general pattern, that both male and female buyers and sellers have positive perceptions. However, none of the tests reveal any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers. The test for the buyers' conflicting mode reveal that there are significant differences between different modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, and accommodating) and their views concerning the buyers who are revealing their goals. The results also indicates that the competing and compromising modes are less positive than the other three modes. However, no significant differences were revealed for the other items although their perceptions to the items were positive for all modes. The above results again demonstrate that the element of gender does not come into play because none of the tests reveal any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers although they both have positive perceptions.

In fact, the idea of gender equality in Kuwait is reiterated and the source of it as it was previously mentioned, is the Kuwaiti's Islamic culture and its modern constitution that gives women a lot of rights. It also refers to the importance of education for women which has expanded their awareness of their rights and also qualified them to be able to participate in the overall development of their country. This may also give an explanation to the very narrow gap in gender perceptions that was revealed in all the results in this study

Chapter Six: Discussion

Introduction

Chapter 5 deals with the findings and statistical outputs of the tests that had been done through SPSS. The hypotheses that gender has significant impact on the behavioural modes of the sample have also been defeated there. So, in this chapter a vivid explanation of the possible reason for the responses of the sample will be interpreted on a cultural perspective. The reason for defeating the hypotheses that gender has no significance in the behavioural mode of the respondents will also be explained here. A summary description of the statistical findings in chapter 5 will be provided in this chapter.

6.1 The New House Negotiation Simulation

In this section, we will discuss the results of the New House Negotiation Simulation. Regarding the first question of revealing goals to agents by their clients, all concerned parties indicated that these goals were partially revealed with an average rating 3.44 for buyer, 3.3 for buyer's agent, 3.35 for seller and 3.2 for seller's agent on 5 Likert Scale. It is very clear from the above results that meeting with agents for both buyer and seller was somewhat satisfactory. This means that the Kuwaiti community prefers and appreciates cooperation and group work as all buyers and sellers along with their agents assisted each other to achieve a joint goal which is in this situation selling or buying a new house. This sense of cooperation is typical of any close-knit society such as the Kuwaiti society which is even made stronger and more closely related by its tribal background.

As for the second question which deals with changing the course of negotiation by introducing a new strategy or tactic to improve each party's position, the results show that the buyers confirmed that a new strategy or tactic was introduced in the negotiation with an average rating 3.38, the buyer's agent confirmed this view with an average rating 3.4, the seller on the other hand asserted that with an average rating 3.44 and finally the seller's agent supported the view with an average rating 3.40 on 5-point scale. The previous results demonstrate the Kuwaitis are very keen on using new strategies or tactics to break a deal. This reflects a sense of flexibility in their way of thinking and overcoming any difficulty in the negotiation. Moreover, the results reflect Kuwaitis' quest for new and innovative solutions in case traditional ones did not work out. They cannot be stubborn or excessively competitive as this may disintegrate the society or lead to social unrest.

As for the question about the role of agents and how satisfactory it was for the buyers and sellers, the results reflect that from the buyer's standpoint, the negotiation was somewhat satisfactory through using their agents with an average rating 3.49 and the buyers' agents confirmed that with average ratings 3.37 on a 5-point scale, the sellers were also positive regarding the role of their agents with an average rating 3.43 and his agent supported this view with an average rating 3.54 on a 5-point scale. In general, the previous results reflect a great deal of contentment and trust to the role played by agents. It also shows that the Kuwaiti society relies on agents to make selling and buying more effective and reliable.

Concerning the question that focused on the effect of additional information delivered to both clients, the results indicate that the buyers asserted that the information given to the instructors was somewhat satisfactory with an average rating 3.40 on a 5-point scale, the buyers' agents confirmed that view with an average rating 3.37, the seller's view was positively emphasized with an average rating 3.35, and their agents were in agreement with their views. The results here reflect again a kind of positive attitude towards the additional information given to the instructors which again reaffirms the appreciation of cooperation and working together in the Kuwaiti society. The results of the previous questions are completely in coherence with the Thomas Kilmann questionnaire which showed that the Kuwaiti society avoid situations that may result in a conflict and collaborates more in order to reach a consensus to protect and emphasize on the solidarity and unity of the overall society.

As for the question which asked about how easy it was to reach an agreement, the buyers were somewhat satisfied with the agreements with an average rating 3.44, their agents supported their views with an average rating 3.41 on a 5-point scale, the sellers also have positive views about the agreements with an average rating 3.48 and their agents were in support of these views with an average rating 3.34 on a 5-point scale. Again the aforementioned results confirm a positive attitude towards the reached agreements as these agreements are supported by the buyers, their agents and the sellers and their agents respectively. Again and again the element of social integrity and solidarity in Kuwait that is always regarded as a top priority is confirmed through the results.

As for the last question that dealt mainly with the role played by the agents to reach a settlement and how satisfied the buyers were, the results rated an average 3.62 on a 5-point scale, their agents were also positive about their roles with an average rating 3.45, the sellers were also satisfied with the agents' roles in reaching the agreements with an average rating 3.5 and their agents were supportive to this view with an average rating 3.34. Moreover, the

buyers' views about the roles of the agents in making the negotiation fruitful were positive with an average rating 3.65, their agents rating to the same issue was 3.37, the sellers on the other hand were also satisfied with roles played by the agents with an average rating 3.47 and their agents agreed about this view with an average rating 3.37. The previous results give nothing but a reconfirmation of the previously mentioned conclusions about the Kuwaiti society's general tendency towards solidarity and integrity rather than confrontation and conflict. The results of the New House Negotiation comply with the results and attitudes of the Kuwaiti society which mainly prefer avoiding confrontation so long as it is evitable and adopts a policy of collaboration in most situations to reach a settlement.

In Chapter Five, the influence of gender was investigated. The results confirmed among the buyer negotiators, there are no significant differences in perceptions between male and female buyers regarding the 9 negotiation items $p\text{-value} > 0.05$ for all items. However, we can also see that males and females have positive perceptions to all 9 research items introduced in the negotiation process (all means are > 3.0 for both male and female buyers) though differences are not significant. For sellers, results also indicated that all male and female sellers have positive perceptions to the 9 negotiation items (means > 3.0). However, it is also noticeable that male sellers do have more positive perceptions to the research items than the female sellers do. But these differences are significant only for items, 4, 7, and 8 which suggest that males are more positive toward the negotiation items than females although both have positive perceptions. It is very evident that the general trend that can be inferred from the above results is that there are no significant differences in general between male and female participants as there is gender equality in Kuwait. In fact, the conclusion that we can easily come to from all the previous data is that women in Kuwait are given many rights for two main reasons. First, the Kuwaiti society with its Islamic cultural background respects women and appreciates their role in the society as a wife, a mother, a grandmother and so on. In Islam, women have the right to inherit from a husband or a son and so on. As a wife, the husband has to support her financially even if she is rich. In addition, women are given the right to work in many different fields that are suitable for their nature. They cannot be married until they give their consent to the proposed man. It is actually this Islamic culture that promotes women's position in Kuwait and narrows the gap between male and female participants in this study as far as their perceptions of all items are concerned.

Secondly, in May 2005 women for the first time in Kuwait's history were granted the right to vote and stand for office. This was an opportunity giving women a chance to exercise their political and parliamentary rights especially when it arrived suddenly in June 2006, and four women were elected to the parliament for the first time in Kuwait's history. This again may

give an appropriate justification for the results in this study which reflect no significant difference between male and female way of thinking. In addition to that, education in all stages for women has of course helped in raising women's awareness to the extent that both male and female views in the study have looked almost the same.

With respect to the effect of conflicting modes on research items, results confirm that although buyers, sellers, buyers' agents and sellers' agents have positive attitudes toward all 9 negotiation items, no significant differences have been found among the different conflict modes for each party. This unified view regarding the adopted conflict modes and the fact that all participants from all parties have no significant differences, reflect a kind of integrity and solidarity in the Kuwaiti society whose culture is mainly based on Islam. Moreover, we can understand from these results that the Kuwaiti society regard social solidarity and homogeneity as a top priority. When we look at the measures of the overall satisfaction, the results assert that all negotiators have an overall positive perception to the entire negotiation process (p-value is < 0.05) for all parties. The conclusion that we may come up with is that the Kuwaiti community are so flexible about negotiations and they try to reach a compromise of a sort.

The results of the correlation analysis revealed no significant association between the buyers' perceptions and all other negotiators including their agents. The same is true for all the other three parties. This finding could lead to the conclusion that every party made their decision based on their own perceptions of the negotiation process and its outcomes. This suggests that all the participants have their independent ways of thinking and they are not affected at all by the views of their fellow participants. Therefore, we can assume that the Kuwaiti character is mostly independent and unbiased. They, in fact, pay little attention to the opinions of their fellows as they form their opinions on their own.

The results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance Test show that no significant differences between all possible combinations were discovered. The results of MANOVA emphasized that no significant differences have been detected between the different modes for all the 9 research items although all modes have positive perceptions to all questions. When the 9 research items were tested against gender, several statements revealed significant differences between males and females. In general, we have found significant differences between males and females (males are more positive than females) for all parties regarding the statement of the buyer and the seller in which they have revealed their goals to the agent (p-value =0.006) and the statement of how meeting with the agents redefined the goals. When we examine all the previous results, we feel reaffirmed of the fact that the Kuwaiti society is mainly after

solidarity and this is reflected in the unified results that suggest that the differences among all combinations are only found in a few items, whereas in the majority of items, no significant differences have been recorded. Such conclusion about the Kuwaiti society is reemphasized by the results here again.

The results of the association between genders by negotiation conflicting mode by negotiators indicated that there is no association between gender and the conflicting modes within the buyer negotiators. The results revealed no significant association between gender and behavioural mode within buyers (p -value = 0.915). The results are almost the same for all the other parties including the buyers and the sellers and their agents. These results again reflect the state of gender equality in Kuwait which is mainly due to its Islamic culture and its modern constitution that gave women a lot of rights. It also refers to the importance of education for women which has enlarged their awareness of their rights and also qualified them to be able to participate in the overall development of their country.

6.2 The Used Car Negotiation Simulation

6.2.1 Background

Again a group of 400 different participants were chosen at random to carry on the negotiation (200 buyers and 200 sellers). Everyone was instructed about the deal of buying / selling of a used car and all the relevant factors in the negotiation process were clearly explained; for example, the condition of the car, its age, its mileage, its market price and the amount of depreciation. The reliability of the questionnaire was respectively, 25.1% for the buyer's questionnaire and 52.2% for the seller's questionnaire. This signifies a low reliability from a statistical standpoint. In this section, we will discuss the results of the Used Car Negotiation Simulation. As for the distribution of gender in the sample, it is important to mention that male buyers represent 17.3% of the entire 400 sample, female sbuyers represent 32.8% of the total sample, male sellers represent 17.3% of the entire sample, and female sellers represent 32.8%. It is very clear from these statistics that the involvement of females in the experiment was more than males for both negotiators.

Regarding the effect of gender by mode by negotiators, the results confirm that there is no significant association between gender and the buyers' conflicting modes (p -value, 0.371). Similarly, no significant association is found between gender and the sellers' conflicting modes (p -value=0.140). Just like the results of the New House Negotiation, the above results

reiterate the state of gender equality in Kuwait which is mainly due to its Islamic culture and its modern constitution that gives women a lot of rights. It also refers to the importance of education for women which has expanded their awareness of their rights and also qualified them to be able to participate in the overall development of their country. This may also give an explanation to the very narrow gap in gender perceptions that was revealed in all the results in this study.

6.2.2 The Effect of the Different Conflicting Modes on Goal Choices

The Chi-Square test for independency test is conducted to check if the respondents' conflicting modes of behaviour and the goal choices are independent or not. The goal choices in this question were the target price, the opening bid, or the bottom line. The results of the Chi-Square test indicated that the goals and modes are independent in the case of buyers (p-value = 0.286). Similarly, the conflicting modes of sellers and their choices appeared to be independent, too (p-value=0.161). The previous results suggest that there is a difference between the practical and the academic way of dealing with the same issue. Usually participants who adopt mainly the competing mode are expected to choose the target price whereas those who adopt the collaborating mode would choose the opening bid and so on. However, the results show no association between the different conflicting modes and the goal choices.

The results of testing for significant differences between the buyers' and the sellers' perceptions to research items assert that both buyers and sellers have positive perceptions to all items (mean >3). Although both averages reflect positive attitudes towards the agreement, the sellers' average, however, is more positive than the buyers'. Concerning the second statement which questioned the role played by the agents to reach an agreement, the results showed that both buyers and sellers were positive. The p-value= 0.045 revealed a significant difference between the buyers' perceptions and the sellers' perceptions (average rating of buyer's perception = 3.51, the average rating of the seller's perception = 3.73). So sellers are more supportive to the role played by the agents to reach a settlement than buyers although both parties have positive attitudes towards the item. The overall conclusion that we can draw from the previous statistics is that both buyers and sellers have positive attitudes towards all the research items. This also reflects a general satisfaction with all the research items with special emphasis on the role played by the agents to reach an agreement. Hence, again we see here a reconfirmation of the importance of the agent's role in selling and buying and this leads us to the conclusion that the Kuwaiti society in general highly appreciates the role of agents

and prefers to buy or sell through them as they believe they have more experience which qualifies them to make better deals.

The outcomes of testing for significant differences between gender's views to research items show, as a general pattern, that both male and female buyers and sellers have positive perceptions to all research items. However, none of the tests revealed any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers. The analysis of variance test for the buyers conflicting mode revealed that there are significant differences between different modes (competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, and accommodating) and their views concerning the buyers who are revealing their goals. The results also indicated that all means ratings are positive for all modes > 3 . However, further analysis (Duncan's multiple comparison test) showed that the competing and compromising modes are less positive than the other three modes. However, no significant differences have been revealed for the other items although their perceptions to the items were positive for all modes. The above results again prove that the element of gender is not effective by any means as none of the tests revealed any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers although they both have positive perceptions to all research items.

In fact, the idea of gender equality in Kuwait is reiterated and the source of it as it was previously mentioned, is the Kuwaiti's Islamic culture and its modern constitution that gives women a lot of rights. It also refers to the importance of education for women which has expanded their awareness of their rights and also qualified them to be able to participate in the overall development of their country. This may also give an explanation to the very narrow gap in gender perceptions that was revealed in all the results in this study.

6.2.3 Testing for Significant Differences between Kilmann's Conflicting Mode (Sellers)

To test for significant differences between Kilmann's conflicting mode (sellers), the ANOVAs test was conducted and the results revealed no significant differences between the different conflicting modes and their perceptions to research items ($P\text{-value} > 0.05$). But if we look at the mean analysis again, we notice that all means are very positive regarding the process of negotiation and the outcomes are satisfactory to all modes regarding all research items.

6.3 Summary

A quantitative summary of the key issues of the study stemmed from the findings as seen below. It is evident from the results that Avoiding comes first followed by collaborating with very slight difference. This shows that negotiators in a business context in this culture avoids conflicting situations whenever it is possible and adopts the collaborating style in mandatory situations when flexibility is required. The results confirmed that the majority of participants from all parties (sellers, buyers and their agents) have an overall sense of positive attitude towards and especially the role played by the agents. Hence, this led to the conclusion that negotiators in a business context in this culture highly trust agents in buying or selling negotiations. Moreover, the results demonstrate that negotiators in a business context in this culture are very keen on using new strategies or tactics to break a deal.

The results here reflect again a kind of positive attitude towards the additional information given to the instructors, which again reaffirms the appreciation of cooperation and working together. The results affirm a positive attitude towards the reached agreements as these agreements are supported by the buyer, his agent, the seller, and his agent respectively. Repeatedly the element of social integrity and solidarity in negotiators in a business context in this culture is always regarded as a top priority is confirmed through the results. It is very evident that the general trend that can be inferred from results is that there no significant differences in general between male and female negotiators in a business context in this culture. With respect to the effect of conflicting modes on research items, results confirm that although buyers, sellers, buyers' agents and sellers' agents have positive attitudes toward all 9 negotiation items, no significant differences have been found among the different conflict modes for each party.

The results of the measures of the overall satisfaction assert that all negotiators have an overall positive perception to the entire negotiation process and this led to the conclusion that negotiators in a business context in this culture is so flexible about negotiations and they try to reach a compromise of a sort. There is no significant association between the buyers' perceptions and all other negotiators including their agents. The same is true for all the other three parties. This finding could lead to the conclusion that every party made their decision based on their own satisfaction with the negotiation process and the negotiation outcomes. There are no significant differences have been detected between the different modes for all

the 9 research items although all modes have positive perceptions to all questions. The 9 research items were tested against gender and again no significant differences were found. This again emphasizes the state of gender equality negotiators in a business context in this culture.

The results of the association between genders by negotiation conflicting mode by negotiators indicated that there is no association between gender and the conflicting modes within the buyer negotiators. This again reaffirms the fact that there is no significant difference between male and female negotiators in a business context in this culture. The results of the Used Car Simulation are discussed in this chapter. In the introduction, there is a commentary on data and a record of the percent of the participants. The data collected show mainly that the female participants are more than the male ones. The tests of reliability signify a low reliability rate from a statistical standpoint. The results of the effect of gender by mode by negotiators confirmed that there is no significant association between gender and the buyers' conflicting mode. These findings prove to be in full coherence with the results in the New House Negotiation which reflected the gender equality of negotiators in a business context in this culture.

The effect of the different conflicting Modes on goal choices is discussed. The results of the Chi-Square test indicated that the goals and modes are independent. This may reflect a difference between the practical and academic way of dealing with the same issue. The results of testing for significant differences between the buyers' and the sellers' perceptions to research items assert that both buyers and sellers have positive perceptions to all items. Concerning the second statement which questioned the role played by the agents to reach an agreement, the results showed that both buyers and sellers were positive. This again reaffirms the previous results that the negotiators in a business context in this culture give special preference to selling and buying through agents.

The outcomes of testing for significant differences between gender's views to research items show that both male and female buyers and sellers have positive perceptions but none of the tests revealed any significant differences between the male and female buyers or sellers. This adds nothing but more confirmation of the idea of gender equality in negotiators in a business context in this culture. The results revealed no significant differences between the different conflicting modes and their perceptions but we also notice that all means are very positive regarding the process of negotiation and the outcomes are satisfactory to all modes regarding all research items.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion, Contribution, Limitations and Further Research

7.1 Research Overview

This study was set up to investigate conflict management styles used in the Middle Eastern culture (using Kuwait as an example) and how this affects their negotiation behaviour and the expected outcomes of this in business negotiation. To accomplish this we used the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument and two other popular negotiation simulations examples, namely the *Used Car* and the *New House* negotiation simulations, which are common exercises in many negotiation textbooks. The examples results were analysed using quantitative methods. The results of the negotiation simulations confirmed the hypothesis that a Middle Eastern negotiator prefers to avoid conflicting situations, which will inevitably lead to a conflict of some sort as they all see social solidarity and integrity as a top priority. Research findings also demonstrate that collaborating comes immediately after avoiding, with very little difference, a fact that consequently supports the previous hypothesis that Kuwaitis (as a typical Middle Eastern culture) most of the time try to avoid situations of conflict in the hope they would be in a position that gives them the ability to collaborate and consider the other party's goals or interests. This, if materialised, leads to reaching a compromise of some sort that would not make them lose their goals.

The next most preferable conflict management style based on the results of this study is 'compromising'. Following the competing management style, there comes the 'competing' followed by 'accommodating'. Compromising which means ready to lose a little is the reaction mode for some of the sample and accommodating is the reaction mode which is adopted by only a few-negotiators. So, it can be concluded that though some of the negotiators are ready for some adjustment, accommodating or accepting by neglecting their own concerns is a rare phenomenon.

The study has succeeded in filling in the literature gap (represented by the lack of research on Middle Eastern preferable conflict management styles) as most of the studies focused only on the western cultures.

This study offers an insight into how negotiators from this cultural context behave when they come across a conflicting situation. The study also presents another dimension of the human experience as far as conflict management styles are concerned and this new dimension is expected to be used by other researchers to attempt to form a kind of a generalised, global theory about the most effective conflict management styles that should be followed by all people, regardless of their cultural or ethnic background. This study presents a necessary step on our long way to formulate reliable international theories about conflict management. In this way, the research aims to fill in this gap through providing alternative cultural contexts that would produce universal theories about conflict management. The following sections profile these contributions from theoretical and practical perspectives.

7.2 Theoretical Contribution

The research on conflict management had to date only dealt with the way in which those from certain cultures/countries, mostly those from the western ones, reacted to conflicts which left this newly born science with a gap in terms of shedding light on conflict management in cultures/countries other than these, such as those in the Middle East. This research extends conflict management to how negotiators living in the Middle East deal with conflicts. These negotiators avoiding and collaborating scored higher than winning in a competitive negotiation. This study offers a preliminary study of the Middle East conflict management style taking Kuwait as an example.

Compromising and competing are the two preferred methods of conflict resolutions in China (Ma, 2007), though the author presumed an accommodating mode of behaviour among Chinese people. In this study, among the Middle East respondents, avoiding and collaborating are the two preferred methods. This throws light on the impact of variations in the behavioural mode in different cultures. People's responses to conflict situation can be identified with their culture. Both studies were undertaken with the assumption that the accommodating behaviour of the people of both cultures/countries would be there in the people, as 'being accommodating' is an inherent character. The accommodating nature/style adopted by those from the Middle East is in contrast to the aggressiveness in the behaviour of the US, Japan and Brazilian negotiators (Graham, 1985).

We all know that the field of conflict management is still in its very early stages and this makes it necessary that more studies on different aspects of world cultures and civilisations to be conducted. It is through the findings of this dissertation and the similar ones to come that

this developing science of conflict management would be enriched. Due to the recent emergence of the study of conflict management and international organizational behaviour (Kozan 1997) this study aims to bridge the gap between international and existing studies. Most of the existing studies are samples from western cultures and few have investigated cultures of non-western origins and their impact on the conflict management styles (Weldon and Jehn, 1995). Hence, it can be fairly stated that since conflict is a culturally adjusted and expressed event, conflict management styles should differ across the cultures (Hocker and Wilmont, 1991). Consequently by taking Kuwait in the Middle East as an example, this study provided a better understanding of the conflict management styles in a non-western culture. Studies such as the one described in this dissertation enhances comprehension and refines our perceptions of conflict management styles used by those in various cultures/countries (van de Vivier and Leung 1997; Tjosvold et. al 2000).

7.3 Practical Contribution

From a practical perspective, this dissertation is supposed to help managers and people working in Kuwait or in any of the Middle Eastern countries to acquire intercultural competence which Berardo (2005) describes as the capacity to interact effectively and appropriately in a variety of intercultural resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, awareness and attitudes). If the literature in conflict management did not provide such important data about how negotiators in a particular cultural context deal with the conflicts they face in business, many of the people who do business in that context would have real difficulty in overcoming such problems, particularly if, as here, that culture/country has a large percentage of expatriate labour (about two million representing a wide range of cultures).

Understanding that culture differences and personality traits contribute to the reasons why people negotiate differently is considered an important step towards a better understanding of the negotiation process and may lead to more integrative negotiations in the future. The negotiations in this research can help improve our understanding of the negotiation process. Moreover, negotiators can have practically a better chance to understand the mentality and culture of people living in this area of the world. For instance, if negotiators know that Kuwaitis try to avoid conflicting situations and prefer to collaborate to reach a compromise, those from cultures other than Kuwait will better understand what impacts the behaviours of negotiators from Kuwait which, it is argued, may allow for a more rapid settlement of their negotiations.

7.4 Limitations of the Research

The sample consists of 400 students from Kuwait University. The sample only from Kuwait University is a serious limitation in this research. Different negotiations that conducted in different venues with sample from all areas of society like students, professionals, workers etc could yield more reliable response. The sample size was also small to represent the perceptions of the whole Middle East. Another major limitation in the research is that the sample consists of unequal distribution of male and female which was not desirable for a research on the basis of gender.

Unidentified nationality of the sample is another limitation of the study. We cannot presume that all students from Kuwait University are Kuwaitis but from other Middle East countries also at the same time since the first language and spoken language is Arabic other nationalities than Middle East students don't prefer Kuwait University. Also the questionnaire is not asking about their personal details like nationality of father, mother etc which is essential for a study on the basis of culture. Moreover the unidentified nationality disabled the researcher to establish with evidence that the sample represents the whole Middle East.

Another defect in the study is with regard to the tools that were used in the research. The TKI and the IPI questionnaire is not a perfect tool that; along with the help of these tools the reliability of the research is always questionable. Another major limitation is the dependent variables. The research became narrower with few dependent variables. Hofsted's classification is been subjected to criticism so the research must include more broad concepts and classifications.

Though the researcher intended to create a real life situation, it is not practical to create such a real life situation in negotiation. In order to assess the behavioural mode in conflict situation, assessment through a real life conflict situation is necessary and hence the two simulations had limitations in assessing the behavioural mode.

Future research in this subject is necessary with experienced negotiators, with identified nationality and by including more dependent variables and revised questionnaires.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

- More studies and investigations need to be conducted on the conflict management styles in order to constitute comprehensive data about the varied cultural backgrounds which would help in creating global theories that could be applicable to all conflict settlements in all the parts of the world. More research in this newly innate science should be done to help in developing comprehensive theories about conflict management.

- Research using professional negotiators and real situations of negotiations should be incorporated to examine the relationship between the professionalism, personality and culture.
- Future research needs to explore the individual reactions for different negotiation settings to see whether traits such as personality and cultural values would impact the consistency of the negotiation process and settings. If such studies are found to be applicable across the range of the situations all negotiators will be in a better position to understand the cultural context as well as the individualism of the opponent and be in a better position to negotiate better outcomes.

References

- Adler, N. J. and Graham, J. L. (1989). Cross-cultural interaction: the international comparison fallacy? *Journal of International Business Studies*, 20 (3), 515-537.
- Adler, N. (1983). Cross-cultural management research: The ostrich and the trend. *Academy of Management Review*, 8 (2), 226-232.
- Adler, N. (1986). *International Dimensions of Organisational Behavior*. Boston, MA: Kent.
- Amason, A. (1996). Distinguishing the effects of functional and dysfunctional conflict on strategic decision making: resolving a paradox for top management teams. *Academic Management Journal*, 39(1), 123-148.
- Bagshaw, M. (1998). Conflict management and mediation: key leadership skills for the millennium. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 30(6), 206-8.
- Baker, J. C. and Ivancevich, J. M. (1971) The assignment of American executives abroad: Systematic, haphazard, or chaotic? *California Management Review*, 13(3), 39-44.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Banks, J. A. (1988) *Multi-ethnic Education: Theory and Practice* (2nd edition). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Barclay, D. W. (1991). Interdepartmental Conflict in organisational buying: The impact of the organisational context. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(2), 145-159.
- Barry, B. and Friedman, R. A. (1998). Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(2), 345-359.
- Bazerman, M. H., Curhan, J. R. and Moore, D. A. (2001). *The death and rebirth of the social psychology of negotiation*. In M. Clark; G. Fletcher (Eds.), *Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp. 196-228). Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Bazerman, M. H. and Neale, M. A (1992). *Negotiating Rationally*. New York: Free Press.
- Bazerman, M. H. and Carroll, J. S. (1987). Negotiator cognition-research in organisational behavior, JAI Press, Greenwich, CT, 247-288.
- Bean, R. (2006). Cross-cultural competence and training in Australia. *The Diversity Factor*, 14(1), 14-22.
- Bear, J. (2011). "Passing the buck": Incongruence between gender role and topic leads to avoidance of negotiation. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 4(1), 47-72.
- Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethno relativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. *Education for the Intercultural Experience*, 21-71.

- Berardo, K. (2005) *Intercultural Competence: A synthesis and Discussion of Current Research and Theories*, p. 4, Masters Thesis.
- Bhaskaran, S. and Gligorovska, E. (2009). Influence of national culture on trans-national alliance relationships. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 16(1), 44-61.
- Bhawuk, D. P. S. and Brislin, R. (1992). The measurement of intercultural sensitivity using the concepts of individualism and collectivism. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 16(4), 413-436.
- Bhawuk, P. S. and Brislin, R. W. (2000). Cross-cultural training: A review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 162-191.
- Bird, A. and Stevens, M. J. (2003). Toward an emergent global culture and the effects of globalization on obsolescing national cultures. *Journal of International Management*, 9(4), 395-407.
- Black, J. S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(2), 277-294.
- Black, J. S. and Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), 113-136.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1969). *Building a Dynamic Corporation through Grid Organization Development*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Blackman, C. (1997). *Negotiating China: Case studies and strategies*. St. Leonards, NSW, Australia: Allen & Unwin.
- Bodtker, A.M. and Katz J.J. (2001). Emotion in conflict formation and its transformation: Application to organizational conflict management. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(3), 259-275.
- Brewer, N., Mitchell, P. and Weber, N. (2002). Gender Role, Organizational Status, and Conflict Management Styles. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(1), 78-94.
- Brislin, R. (1981). *Cross-cultural Encounters, Face-to-face Interaction*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Brislin, R. and Pedersen, P. (1976). *Cross Cultural Orientation Programs*. New York: Wiley Press.
- Brislin, R. W., & Yoshida, T. (1994) *Improving Intercultural Interactions: Models for Cross-cultural Training Programs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Brislin, R.W. (1986). Research Instruments, *Field methods in cross-cultural research: Cross-cultural research and methodology series*, 8, 137-164

- Lonner, W. J. and Berry, J. W. (1986). *Field methods in cross-cultural research*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Brown, G. S. (1972) *Laws of form*. Ontario, Canada: Bantam.
- Carnevale, P. J. and Pruitt, D. G. (1992). Negotiation and Mediation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 43(1), 531-582.
- Cavusgil, S. T., Zou, S., and Naidu, G. M. (1993) Product and promotion adaptation in export ventures: an empirical investigation, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(3), 479–506.
- Church, A. T. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91(3), 540-572.
- Copeland, L. and Griggs, L. (1985). *Going international*. New York: Random House.
- De Dreu, C.K., Beersma, B., Stroebe, K. and Euwema, M.C. (2006). Motivated information processing, strategic choice, and the quality of negotiated agreement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(6), 927.
- Donthu, N.A.Y., B. (2002). Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions and Organisations across Nations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(3), 388-389.
- Dunbar, E. and Ehrlich, M. (1986). *International practices, selection, training, and managing the international staff: A survey report*. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Project on International Human Resource.
- Eagly, A.H. and Carli, L.C. (2007). *Through the Labyrinth: The Truth about how Women become Leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Eagly, A.H. and Johnson, B.T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 233-256.
- Eagly, A.H. and Carli, L.L. (2007). *Through the Labyrinth: The Truth about How Women Become Leaders*, Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA.
- Egner, T. and Hirsch, J. (2005). Cognitive control mechanisms resolve conflict through cortical amplification of task-relevant information. *Nature Neuroscience*, 8(12), 1784-1790.
- Eisenhardt, K. and Schoonhoven, C. (1990) Organisational growth: Linking founding team, strategy, environment, and growth among U.S. semiconductor ventures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35, 504-529.
- Elangovan, A.R. (1995). Managerial third-party dispute intervention: A prescriptive model of strategy selection. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 800-808.
- Ely, M. (1991). *Doing qualitative research: Circles within circles* (Vol. 3). Psychology Press.
- Ensleya, M.D., Pearsonb, A.W. and Amason, A.C. (2002). Understanding the dynamics of new venture top management teams – Cohesion, conflict, and new venture performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 17(4), 365.386.

- Euwema, M.C., Van de Vliert, E. and Bakker, A.B. (2003). Substantive and relational effectiveness of organizational conflict behavior. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(2), 119-139.
- Ferdman, B. and Brody, S. (2006) *Models of diversity training*. Handbook of intercultural training, 282–306.
- Fiedler, F. E., Mitchell, T. and Triandis, H. C. (1971). The culture assimilator: An approach to cross-cultural training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55, 95-102.
- Forbes, H. D. (2004). Ethnic conflict and the contact hypothesis. The psychology of ethnic and cultural conflict. An imprint of Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Frances, P. and David, R. (2004). Do culture or situational constraints determine choice of direct or indirect styles in intercultural workplace conflicts? *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 28(5), 331–352.
- Garcia-Prieto, P., Bellard, E. and Schneider, S. C. (2003). Experiencing diversity, conflict, and emotions in teams. *Applied Psychology*, 52(3), 413-440.
- Gelfand, M. J., Nishii, L. H., Holcombe, K. M., Dyer, N., Ohbuchi, K. and Fukuno, M. (2001). Cultural influences on cognitive representation of conflict: Interpretation of conflict episodes in the United States and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(6), 1059-1074.
- Gelfand, M. J. and Dyer, N. (2000). A Cultural Perspective on Negotiation: Progress, Pitfalls, and Prospects. *Annual Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 62-99.
- George, J. M., Jones, G. R. and Gonzalez, J. A. (1998). The Role of Affect in Cross-Cultural Negotiations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(4), 749-772.
- Goodenough, W. H. (1971). *Culture, language, and society*. Addison-Wesley Reading, Mass.
- Goh, B. C. (1996). *Negotiating with the Chinese*. Brookfield, VT: Dartmouth Publishing.
- Graf, A. (2004). Assessing intercultural training designs. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 28 (2/3/4), 199-214.
- Graham, J. (1985). The influence of culture on the process of business negotiations: An exploratory study. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 16(1), 81-95.
- Granell, E. (2000). Culture and globalisation: a Latin American challenge, *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(3), 89-94.
- Greenhalgh, L., Nelsin, S. A. and Gilkey, R. W. (1985). The effects of negotiator preferences, situational power, and negotiator personality on outcomes of business negotiations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(1), 9-33.
- Hall, E.T. and Hall, M.R. (1990). *Hidden differences: Doing business with the Japanese*-Hall, Et, Hall, Mr, SAGE Publications, CA.
- Harris, P. and Moran, R. T.(1979) *Managing Cultural Differences*. Houston, TX: Gulf.

- Hawrysh, B. M. and Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1990). Cultural approaches to negotiations: Understanding the Japanese. *International Marketing Review*, 7(2).
- Hershcovis, M.S., Turner, N., Barling, J., Arnold, K. A., Dupré, K.E., Inness, M., and Sivanathan, N. (2007). Predicting workplace aggression: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 92(1), 228.
- Higgins, E. T. (1996). Knowledge activation: Accessibility, applicability, and salience, Guilford Press.
- Hill, C.W. (1998). *International Business: Competing in the Global Marketplace*. 2nd Ed. Boston, USA: Irwing/McGraw-Hill.
- Hinde, R.A. (1997) War: Some psychological causes and consequences. *Interdisciplinary Science Reviews*, 22(3), 229-45.
- Hocker, J. L. and Wilmot, W. W. (1991). *Interpersonal Conflict*. Dubuque, IA: W. C. Brown.
- Hofstede, G.H. and Hofstede, G.J. (2005). *Cultures and Organisations, Software of the Mind*. McGraw-Hill, N.Y.
- Hofstede, G. (1998). *Masculinity and femininity: The Taboo Dimension of National Cultures* (Vol. 3). Sage. CA.
- Hofstede, G. (2003). What is culture? A reply to Baskerville. *Accounting, Organisations and Society*, 28(7-8), 811-813.
- Hofstede, G., (1991). *Cultures and Organisations: Software of the Mind*. (Vol.2). London: McGraw- Hill.
- Hofstede, G. and Bond, M. H. (1988). Confucius and economic growth: New trends in culture's consequences. *Organisational Dynamics*, 16(4), 4-21.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organisational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), 75-89.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, (Vol.5). Sage.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., and Minkov, M. (2010), *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind: Intercultural Cooperation and its Importance for Survival*, 3rd ed., New York: McGraw Hill.
- Huntington, S. (1993). *The clash of civilisations*. *Foreign affairs*, 72(3).
- Karambayya, R., Brett, J.M. and Lytle, A. (1992). Effects of formal authority and experience on third-party roles, outcomes, and perceptions of fairness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(2), 426-438.
- Karambayya, R. and Brett, J.M. (1989). Managers handling disputes: Third-party roles and perceptions of fairness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(4), 687-704.

- Kiakajoori, D. and Aghajani, H. (2004). *Managing Organizational Behavior*, Chaloos, Islamic Azad University of Noshahr and Chaloos.
- Laroche, M., Ueltschy, L. C., Abe, S., Cleveland, M. and Yannopoulos, P. P. (2004). Service quality perceptions and customer satisfaction: evaluating the role of culture. *Journal of International Marketing*, 12(3), 58-85.
- Lagrosen, S., 2003. Exploring the impact of culture on quality management. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management*, 20(4-5), 473-487.
- Lewicki, R. J. and Litterer, J. A. (1985). *Negotiation*. Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Lewicki, R. J., Litterer, J. A., Minton, J. W. and Saunders, D. M. (1994). *Negotiation* (2nd edition). Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin
- Lewin, K. and Lippitt, R. (1938). An experimental approach to the study of autocracy and democracy: A preliminary note. *Sociometry*, 1(3/4), 292-300.
- Leung, K., Bhagat, R.S., Buchan, N.R., Erez, M. and Gibson, C.B. (2005). Culture and international business: Recent advances and their implications for future research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(4), 357-378.
- Likert, R. (1961). *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lituchy, T. R. (1997). Negotiations between Japanese and Americans: The effects of Collectivism and Integrative outcomes. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Science*, 14(4), 386-395.
- Lituchy, T. R. (1992). International and intranational negotiations in the United States and Japan: *The impact of cultural collectivism on cognitions, behaviors and outcomes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona.
- Lorenzoni, N. and Lewis, B. R. (2004). Service recovery in the airline industry: a cross-cultural comparison of the attitudes and behaviours of British and Italian front-line personnel. *Managing Service Quality*, 14(1), 11-25.
- Loschelder, D.D. and Trötschel, R. (2010). Overcoming the competitiveness of an intergroup context: Third-party intervention in intergroup negotiations. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 13(6), 795-815.
- Jehn, K. A. and Weldon, F. (1992). A comparative study of managerial attitudes toward conflict in the United States and the People's Republic of China: Issues of theory and measurement. Academy of Management, Las Vegas, NV.
- Jehn, K.A. and Chatman, J.A. (2000). The influence of proportional and perceptual conflict composition on team performance. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 11(1), 56-73.
- Jehn, K.A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42(3), 530-557.

- Julia, B. and Annekatrin, N. (2009). Applying cognitive adjustment theory to cross-cultural training for global virtual teams. *Human Resource Management*, 48(3), 341– 353.
- Kiggundu, M. N., Jorgensen, J. J. and Hafsi, T. (1983). Administrative theory and practice in developing countries: A synthesis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28(1), 66-84.
- Kirkbride, P. S., Tang, F. Y. and Westwood, R. I. (1991). Chinese conflict preferences and negotiating behavior: cultural and psychological influence. *Organisation Studies*, 12(3), 365-389.
- Kozan, M. K. (1997). Culture and conflict management: A theoretical framework. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 8(4), 338-360.
- Kroeber, A. L. and Kluckhohn, C. (1952). Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions. Harvard University Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology, 47 7(1), 1 – 223.
- Kruglanski, A. and Higgins, E. T. (2013.) *Social Psychology: Handbook of Basic Principles*, (pp. 133-168). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kutter, L., (2007). *The Influence of National Culture on Service Quality Perceptions of European Hotel Guests*. Bournemouth University, Bournemouth, UK.
- Ma, Z. and Jaeger, A. (2003). Exploring individual differences in Chinese negotiation styles. *Proceedings of the 2003 Annual Meeting, Administrative Science Association of Canada*, 24(8), 81-102.
- Ma, Z., Wang, X., Jaeger, A., Anderson, T. and Wang, Y. (2000). Individual perception, bargaining behavior, and negotiation outcome: A Chinese case. In *Administrative Sciences Association of Canada- Annual Conference, ASAC 1999*, 21(8).
- Ma, Z. (2006). Negotiating into China: The Impact of Individual Perception on Chinese Negotiations Styles, *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 1(1), 64-83.
- Ma, Z. (2007). Competing or Accommodating? An Empirical Test of Chinese Conflict Management Styles, *Contemporary Management Research*, 3(1), 3-22.
- Ma, Z. (2007). Conflict management styles as indicators of behavioral pattern in business negotiation: The impact of contextualism in two countries. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 18(3/4), 260-279.
- Malhotra, D. and Bazerman, M.H. (2008). Psychological influence in negotiation: An introduction long overdue. *Journal of Management*. 34(March), 509-531.
- Mathews, B.P., Ueno, A., Kekaële, T., Repka, M., Pereira, Z.L. and Silva, G.É. (2001). European quality management practices. *International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management*, 18(7), 692-707.
- Maylor, H. and Blackmon, K. (2005). *Researching Business and Management*. Hampshire and New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

- Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. (1985). The Dimension of Expatriate Acculturation: A Review. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 39-47.
- Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. (2007) Acculturation profiles of expatriate managers: Implications for cross-cultural training programs. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 21(4), 73-79.
- Menon, A., Jarowski, B. and Kohli, A. K. (1997). Product Quality: Impact of Interdepartmental Interactions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Sciences*, 25(3), 187-200.
- Migliore, L.A. (2009). *Comparison of U.S.A. and India cultures: Linking personality with work-related values* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3368755)
- Miller, E. K. (1994) Diversity and Its Management: Training Managers for Cultural Competence within the Organisation, *Management Quarterly*, 35(2), 17.
- Mintzberg, H. (1989). *Mintzberg on management: Inside our Strange World of Organizations*. Simon and Schuster, NYC.
- Mnookin, R. H., Peppet, S. R. and Tulumello, A. S. (1996). The tension between empathy and assertiveness. *Negotiation Journal*, 12(3), 217-230.
- Moran, R. T., Harris, P. R., and Moran, S. V. (2011). *Managing cultural differences: global leadership strategies for cross-cultural business success*. Routledge.
- Morris, M. W. and Fu, H. Y. (2001). How does culture influence conflict resolution? A dynamic constructivist analysis. *Social Cognition*, 19(3), 324-349.
- Nakata, C. and Sivakumar, K. (2001). Instituting the marketing concept in a multinational setting: the role of national culture. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(3), pp. 255-275.
- Neale, M. A. and Bazerman, M. H. (1983). The effect of perspective-taking ability under alternative forms of arbitration on the negotiation process. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 36(3), 378-388.
- Neale, M. A. and Bazerman, M. H. (1985). The effects of framing and negotiator overconfidence on bargaining behaviors and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(1), 34-49.
- Neale, M. A. and Northcraft, G. B. (1986). Experts, amateurs and refrigerators: Comparing expert and amateur negotiators in a novel task. *Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 38(3), 305-317.
- Nicotera, A. M. (1995). *Conflict and organisations: Communicative processes*. State University of New York Press, Albany, NY.
- Parham, T. A. (1989) Cycles of psychological Nigrescence. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 17(2), 187-226.

- Perry, W. B. (1970) *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years: A scheme*. New York: Holt.
- Pinkley, R. L. (1990). Dimensions of conflict frame: disputant interpretations of conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(2), 117-126.
- Pruitt, D. G. and Carnevale, P. J. (1993). *Negotiation in Social Conflict*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Pye, L. W. (1992). *Chinese Negotiating Style: Commercial Approaches and Cultural Principles*. New York: Quorum Books.
- Rahim, M. A. (2001). *Managing Conflict in Organisations*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Rahim, M. (2002). Towards a theory of organisational conflict. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 13(3), 206-235.
- Robbins, S. P. (1978). Conflict management and conflict resolution are not synonymous terms. *California Management Review*, 21(2), 67-75.
- Robertson, R. (2012). Globalisation or glocalisation?. *Journal of International Communication*, 18(2), 191-208.
- Rubin, J. Z. and Brown, B. R. (1975). *The Social Psychology of Bargaining and Negotiation*. New York: Academic.
- Santos, B. D. S. (2002). The processes of globalisation. *Revista Crítica de Ciências Sociais and Eurozine*, 1-48.
- Schechter, J. L. (1998). *Russian Negotiating Behavior: Continuity and Transition*, Washington, DC: US Institute of Peace Press.
- Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organisational culture and leadership*. Jossey-Bass.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. *Cross Cultural Research and Methodology*, 18, 85-85.
- Sekaran, U. (1983). Methodological and theoretical issues and advancements in cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 14(2), 61-73.
- Shargh, F.S., Soufi, M. and Dadashi, M.A. (2013). Conflict management and negotiation. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 5(5): 538-543
- Shen, J. and Darby, R. (2006). Training and management development in Chinese multinational enterprises. *Employee Relations*, 28(4), 342-62.
- Siegel, S. and Fouraker, L. E. (1960). *Bargaining and group decision making: Experiments in bilateral monopoly*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Smith, P. B. (2006). When elephants fight, the grass gets trampled: the GLOBE and Hofstede projects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(6), 915-921.
- Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F. and Wang, Z. M. (1996). The manager as mediator of alternative meanings: A pilot study from China, the USA and UK. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(1), 115-137.

- Soares, A. M., Farhangmehr, M. and Shoham, A. (2007). Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(3), 277-284.
- Sondergaard, M. (1994). Research note: Hofstede's consequences: a study of reviews, citations and replications. *Organisation Studies*, 15(3), 447.
- Sorenson, R. L., Morse, E. A. and Savage, G. T. (1999). A test of the motivations underlying choice of conflict strategies in the dual-concern model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 10(1), 25-44.
- Speakman, J.I. (2009). An exploration of multiple, simultaneous, conflict episodes and the key account manager's internal selling role. In *22nd Annual IACM Conference*, Kyoto, Japan, 15th June.
- Speakman, J. and Ryals, L. (2010). A re-evaluation of conflict theory for the management of multiple, simultaneous conflict episodes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 21(2), 186-201.
- Søderberg, A.M. and Holden, N. (2002). Rethinking cross cultural management in a globalizing business world. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 2(1), 103-121.
- Steenkamp, J. B. E. M. (2001). The role of national culture in international marketing research. *International Marketing Review*, 18(1), 30-44.
- Stephan, C. and Stephan, W. (1992). Reducing intercultural anxiety through contact. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 16(1), 89-106.
- Thomas, D.C. and Peterson, M.F. (2014). *Cross-cultural Management: Essential Concepts*. Sage Publications.
- Thompson, L. (1990). Negotiation behavior and outcomes: empirical evidence and theoretical issues. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(3), 515-532.
- Thomas, K. and Schmidt, W. (1976). A survey of managerial interest with respect to conflict, *Academy of Management Journal*, 19(2), 315-318.
- Takashi, K. (2006). *Phenomenological Research on the Intercultural Sensitivity of Returned Peace Corps Volunteers in the Athens Community*, Master of Arts, University of Ohio, US.
- Tjosvold, D., Leung, K. and Johnson, D. (2000). *Cooperative and competitive conflict in China*. In M. Deutsch & P. T. Coleman (Eds.), *Handbook of Conflict Resolution: Theory and Practice*, 475-495. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers..
- Tinsley, C. and Brett, J. M. (1997, August). *Managing workplace conflict: A comparison of conflict frames and outcomes in the U.S. and Hong Kong* Presented at the Annual Meeting of the *Academy of Management*, Boston.
- Triandis, H. (1972), *The Analysis of Subjective Culture*. Wiley, NY.

- Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business*, Irwin, New York, NY.
- Troop, L. and Bianchi, R. (2006). Valuing diversity and interest in intergroup contact. *Journal of Social Issues*, 62(3), 533-551.
- Trubisky, P., Ting-Toomey, S. and Lin, S. L. (1991). The influence of individualism collectivism and self-monitoring on conflict styles. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15(1), 65-84.
- Tung, R. (1981). Selecting and training of personnel for overseas assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16(1), 68-78.
- Tung, R. (1984). *Key to Japan's Economic Strength: Human Power*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Tung, R (1991). Handshakes across the sea: Cross-cultural negotiating for business success. *Organisational Dynamics*, 19(3), 30-40.
- Wall, J. A. and Callister, R. R. (1995). Conflict and its management. *Journal of Management*, 21(3), 515-558.
- Wall, J. A. (1985). *Negotiation: Theory and Practice*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, & Company.
- Wall, J. A. and Blum, M. W. (1991). Negotiations. *Journal of Management*, 17(2), 273-303.
- Weldon, E. and Jehn, K. A. (1995). Examining cross-cultural differences in conflict management behavior: a strategy for future research. *International Journal Conflict Management*, 6(4), 387-403.
- Van de Vijver, F. and Leung, K. (1997). *Methods and data analysis of comparative research*. In J. W. Berry, Y. H. Poortinga, and J. Pandey (Eds.), *Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology* (V.1, 257-300). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Van Oudenhoven, J. P., (2001). Do organisations reflect national cultures? A 10-nation study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25(1), 89-107.
- Volkema, R. L. and Bergmann, T. J. (1995). Conflict styles as indicators of behavioral patterns in interpersonal conflicts. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 135(1), 5-15.
- Vroom, V.H. and Yetton, P.W. (1973). *Leadership and Decision-making (Vol.110)*. University of Pittsburgh Pretoria, South Africa.
- Yang B., Wang, Y. and Wang Drewry, A. (2009). Does it matter where to conduct training? Accounting for cultural factors. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(4), 324-333.
- Yang, R. (2003). Globalisation and higher education development: A critical analysis. *International Review of Education*, 49(3-4), 269-291.

References

- Zhang, J., Beatty, S. E. and Walsh, G. (2005). Cross-cultural services research: a review of the literature and future research directions. *Proceedings of the 10th Cross Cultural Research Conference*, Puerto Rico.
- Zubaida, S. (1993) *Islam, the People and the State: Essays on Political Ideas and Movements in the Middle East*. IB Tauris,.

Appendix A: Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument Questionnaire

The questionnaire included the following questions:

- A There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.
B Rather than negotiate the things on which we disagree, I try to stress the things upon which we both agree.

- A I try to find a compromise situation.
B I attempt to deal with all of his and my concerns.

- A I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

- A I try to find a compromise solution.
B I sometimes sacrifice my own wishes for the wishes of the other person.

- A I consistently seek the other's help in working out a solution.
B I try to do what is necessary to avoid useless tensions.

- A I try to avoid creating unpleasantness for myself.
B I try to win my position.

- A I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.
B I give up some points in exchange for others.

- A I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out I the open.

- A I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.
B I make some effort to get my way.

- A I am firm in pursuing my goals.
B I try to find a compromise solution.

- A I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.
B I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.

- A I sometimes avoid taking positions which would create controversy.
B I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.

- A I propose a middle ground.
B I press to get my points made.

- A I tell him my ideas and ask him for his.
B I try to show him the logic and benefits of my position.

- A I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship.
B I try to do what is necessary to avoid tensions.

- A I try not to hurt the other's feelings.
B I try to convince the other person of the merits of my position.

- A I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.

- A If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain his views.
B I will let him have some of his positions if he lets me have some of mine.

- A I attempt to get all concerns and issues immediately out in the open.
B I try to postpone the issue until I have had some time to think it over.

- A I attempt to immediately work through our differences.
B I try to find a fair combination of gains and losses for everyone.

- A In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.
B I always lean toward a direct discussion of the problem.

- A I try to find a position that is intermediate between his and mine.
B I assert my wishes.

- A I am very often concerned with satisfying all our wishes.
B There are times when I let others take responsibility for solving the problem.

- A If the other's position seems very important to him, I would try to meet his wishes.
B I try to get him to settle for a compromise.

- A I try to show him the logic and benefits of my position.
B In approaching negotiations, I try to be considerate of the other person's wishes.

- A I propose a middle ground.
B I am nearly always concerned with satisfying all our wishes.

- A I sometimes avoid taking positions that would create controversy.
B If it makes the other person happy, I might let him maintain his views.

- A I am usually firm in pursuing my goals.
B I usually seek the other's help in working out a solution.

- A I propose a middle ground.
B I feel that differences are not always worth worrying about.

- A I try not to hurt the other's feelings.
B I always share the problem with the other person so that we can work it out.

Appendix B: Scoring and Interpreting the Thomas – Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument

	Competing (9/1)	Collaborating (9/9)	Compromising (5/5)	Avoiding (1/1)	Accommodating (1/9)
1				A 210	B 190
2		B 169	A 231		
3	A 176				B 224
4			A 191		B 209
5		A 207		B 193	
6	B 189			A 211	
7			B 206	A 194	
8	A 189	B 211			
9	B 204			A 196	
10	A 184		B 216		
11		A 244			B 156
12			B 189	A 211	
13	B 208		A 192		
14	B 239	A 161			
15				B 216	A 184
16	B 183				A 217
17	A 202			B 148	
18			B 206		A 194
19		A 178		B 222	
20		A 218	B 182		
21		B 205			A 195
22	B 183		A 217		
23		A 183		B 217	
24			B 181		A 219
25	A 208				B 192
26		B 267	A 133		
27				A 268	B 132
28	A 184	B 216			
29			A 220	B 180	
30		B 205			A 195
TOTAL	2399	2464	2364	2466	2307