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**The effect of emotional intelligence on B2B negotiations in terms of preparations,
behaviours and outcomes**

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Abstract

This study serves the purpose of researching the effect of emotional intelligence on B2B negotiations in terms of preparations, behaviours and outcomes. Emotions are known to play a large role in negotiations. However, a clear relationship is yet to be identified. It does so by researching twelve selected cases of professional negotiators from various internationally operating organisations in the Netherlands. The empirical part of the study consists of a qualitative multiple case study through interviews made up of four phases, measuring the respondents' EI level, evaluating their manner of preparations, identifying their negotiation behaviours and finally measuring their negotiated outcomes. The phases of the interview are done through open-ended questions, along with questionnaires, all based upon existing theories and literature. A total of twelve interviews have been conducted within various sectors in the Netherlands. The main findings are that higher EI levels do indeed result in better negotiation outcomes, as well as a more competitive orientation however in contrary to expectations EI does not significantly influence negotiator's preparation. Limitations of this study are found in the scope of the research; only firms in the Netherlands have been considered, along with a lack of considerations for other factors like gender, experience et cetera. Finally, theoretical and practical implications include that this study further addresses a commonly identified gap regarding studies in the field of negotiations of mainly researching student populations and highlighting that EI is a learned behaviour worth investing in for managers and organisations in order to improve their negotiation abilities.

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Index of Abbreviations

EI	Emotional Intelligence
EASI	Emotions As Social Information
SEA	Self Emotion Appraisal
OEA	Others' Emotion Appraisal
ROE	Regulation of Emotion
UOE	Use of Emotion
B2B	Business-to-Business
B2C	Business-to-Consumer
Neg	Negotiator
Ltd.	Limited Liability Company
BV	Besloten Vennootschap (Dutch)
FTE	Full-time Employee
USP	Unique Selling-Point

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1. Introduction

1.1 Negotiations and their importance

Negotiation has been defined as “a process of communicating back and forth for the purpose of reaching a joint decision” (Fisher et al. 1991 p. 20). The phenomenon of negotiation is wide-ranging, from situations that we encounter in our daily lives, such as purchasing a second-hand item from a marketplace reseller, all the way to complex situations in various settings and environments, albeit among friends and family, business, politics, crisis situations and so forth. It is undeniable that in order to be successful in, and to reap benefits from negotiations a high level of skill as well as experience is required. The value of negotiation in business is clearly recognised in the field of purchasing and supply management, ranging from lower hierarchical levels of operative procurement all the way to strategic sourcing. Thomas et al. (2013 p. 97) stated that negotiations are fundamental for critical buyer-supplier relationships, which in turn are the cornerstones of modern supply chains. Effective buyer-supplier negotiations along with relationship building are moreover considered as essential elements for successful long-term business relationships (Talluri et al. 2008 p. 551). Developing a better understanding of negotiations and their role in businesses enables for better functioning and more effective business outcomes (Fells et al. 2005 p.199).

1.2 Addressing the gap in the literature and developing the research question

Based on aforementioned findings negotiations are a central topic and area of research for this thesis. On top of that this study covers the field of emotional intelligence (EI), researching what role it actually plays in negotiations. This thesis furthermore identifies a context where negotiations are of vital importance, namely various B2B environments.

To date there have been a large number of studies considering the concepts of negotiations and EI (Der Foo et al. 2004; Sharma et al. 2013; Schlegel et al. 2018), however there still is no sound understanding of how, and even if, EI actually affects negotiations, in terms of preparations, behaviours and outcomes. Many scholars have furthermore conducted research on negotiations in B2B markets (Al-Khatib et al. 2007; Sigurdardottir et al. 2018; Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019; Sigurdardottir et al. 2019). However, the inclusion of EI seems to be held to a minimum. On top of that Sigurdardottir et al. (2019 p. 299), found that

earlier studies on B2B negotiations are uncommon to such an extent, that only five percent of published studies actually involved practising managers or private sector employees. Furthermore, it was reported that approximately eighty percent of published negotiation studies concerned a student population. Given these statements, the demand for research on B2B negotiations seems evident. The purpose of this study is to increase our understanding of this identified gap between these three key concepts; negotiations, EI and the B2B setting respectively. This study seeks to identify EI, and furthermore test the effects it displays on three areas concerning negotiations, namely preparations that precede the negotiation, behaviours that are displayed during the negotiation and outcomes that result from the negotiation. This all is to be done in a B2B setting, with participants that are active across various sectors. Based on this idea the following research question has been developed:

RQ: *“What is the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on the thoroughness of negotiation preparation, behaviours and outcomes in a B2B context”.*

1.3 Theoretical and Practical Contributions

This thesis seeks to contribute to existing literature by researching the effects of EI on the preparations, behaviours and outcomes of B2B negotiations. This contribution is based on the fact of perceived shortage of research combining these main concepts. By conducting this research, this thesis will provide an answer to the research question and consequently address; firstly, the identified gap of the shortage of understanding with regards to the effect of EI on negotiation preparations, secondly negotiation behaviour and thirdly negotiation outcomes. Furthermore, will it contribute by focusing on B2B negotiations, and actually including professional negotiators from B2B markets, rather than a student population. In doing so, this study connects three concepts, on which many scholars (Der Foo et al. 2004; Gelfand et al. 2006; Sharma et al. 2013; Choi 2018 ; Schlegel et al. 2018; Al-Khatib et al. 2007; Sigurdardottir et al. 2018; Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019; Sigurdardottir et al. 2019) have done extensive research, however mostly independently of each other.

Moreover, the results of this study will provide managers, executives and other professionals with a guideline, of how to choose the right person to negotiate, what to expect from this person and how to develop and train this person, in order to negotiate on behalf of the organisation and by that contribute to overall firm performance and growth.

Consequently, this work is constructed as follows, upon the introduction and explanation of theoretical contribution in section 1, the aforementioned theoretical concepts are to be disquisited in section 2, the literature review. Section 3 will provide the theoretical framework, which is based on the discussed findings from the literature in section 2. The theoretical framework will serve as the foundation of this work and underlie the research behind it. In section 4 the methodology will be discussed, explaining the research design and the reasoning behind it. Section 5 will provide the results of the research, followed by the discussion in section 6. Finally, section 7 will serve as the conclusion.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Emotional Intelligence

2.1.1 Emotional Intelligence in research

For a long period of time, the art of negotiation has been researched from a rational decision-making perspective, focussing primarily on objectively quantifiable outcomes e.g., money earned, or costs saved (Schlegel et al. 2018). On top of that it has been widely believed that individual differences of negotiators have neglectable effects on such quantifiable outcomes (Thompson 1990 p. 515). However, in recent times the perspective of researching has shifted towards one with a higher interest in social and emotional aspects of negotiations (Olekalns & Druckman 2014). Considering it from a logical standpoint, it is indeed quite obvious that various emotions which may arise during a negotiation surely influence the results. Curhan et al. (2006) have found that apart from influencing the objective outcomes of negotiations, emotions have a considerable effect of psychosocial outcomes such as rapport, commitment, liking, or trust.

Andrew Coleman's book, *A Dictionary of Psychology* (2015) defines emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behaviour". Emotional intelligence is a relatively new phenomenon that has gained increasing popularity over the past two decades (Schlegel et al. 2018). Mayer and Salovey (1997) dubbed high emotional intelligence as an adaptive characteristic that influences various aspects of one's private, as well as professional life sphere. At the moment there is a distinction in the conceptualisation of EI, which is classified along two directions.

The first one being the so-called ‘trait EI’, that is composed of a set of non-cognitive traits and behavioural dispositions, which are measured by self-report questionnaires. The second conceptualisation that we are speaking of is the so-called ‘ability EI’, consisting of cognitive abilities which are measured with performance-based tests (Schlegel et al. 2018). In their 1997 book Mayer and Salovey presented a model, based on ability EI, which proposes four branches of emotional intelligence, namely (I) Emotion Perception, i.e. recognition of emotion in others and in oneself, (II) Emotion Facilitation, i.e. making use of emotions for the facilitation of task performance, (III) Emotional Understanding, i.e. understanding the relationships between emotions and occurring situations and lastly (IV) Emotion Management, i.e. managing the emotions of oneself and others (Schlegel et al. 2018).

2.1.2 Emotional intelligence in negotiations

In relation to the conceptualisation of the ability EI Fulmer and Barry (2004) proposed a model of four interrelated paths that have an effect on negotiations, which are 1) information acquisition, 2) decision making soundness, 3) emotional tactics and 4) emotion induction in others respectively. Fulmer and Barry (2004 p. 259) describe emotional tactics as “tactical manipulation of own and/or others’ emotions”. They argue that emotionally intelligent negotiators would be more likely to recognise and take advantage of opportunities that could actively influence or manipulate the emotions of opponents to their own advantage. This is driven by the fact that emotionally intelligent individuals would be more aware of the emotional dimension in which a negotiator could act strategically. We can see how the first path of information acquisition links directly to two branches of EI, namely emotion perception (I) and emotional understanding (III) respectively. This is due to the fact that emotion perception implies recognition of emotions, while emotional understanding implies understanding relationships between emotions and occurring situations. Furthermore, with the understanding of information acquisition the second path of decision-making soundness enables for the branch of emotion facilitation, in other words emotion facilitation (II), making use of emotions for the facilitation of task performance. Moreover, are the use of emotional tactics connected to branches two and four, emotion facilitation (II) and emotion management (IV), managing the emotions of oneself and others. Lastly if one were to successfully engage in emotion induction in others, we recognise parts of all four of the aforementioned branches. On top of this it is argued that the effective management of the counterpart’s emotions, allows the negotiator to obtain higher individual gains (Der Foo et

al. 2004). Moreover Schlegel et al. (2018) point out the fact that the four EI branches collectively affect performance, due to their hierarchical interdependence.

In order to further point out the relevance of emotional intelligence in negotiations several more findings from earlier presented literature are to be considered. In a 2008 publication from Fulmer et al. they researched informational and emotional deception in negotiation. An example of the former being lying about or misrepresenting needs or interests, while the latter would imply misrepresenting one's emotional state. Findings from this paper pointed out a perceived difference between these two forms of deception, with the latter of the two being more widely accepted. As they noted in the hypothesis of their work that "Individuals express more favourable attitudes toward the use of tactics of emotional deception than towards tactics of informational deception". Furthermore Gelfand et al. (2006) found that negotiators scoring high on EI, are more likely to create value for their organisation by attracting satisfaction and trust from their counterparts, which in turn enables for sustaining collaboration in the long term. Apart from this kind of value such negotiators also reap economic gains for their organisations from establishing these relationships. It has consequently been found that counterparts to negotiators, scoring high on EI, are more willing to make concessions and accept compromises when a positive negotiation environment has been created (Barron 1990). This is solidified by the fact that negotiators ranking high on EI, and considering aforementioned branches of EI, possess the attributes and skills to create such an environment.

On the basis of the outcomes found in the researched literature on this particular topic, this work will focus on analysing the level of emotional intelligence of various negotiators in order to research the effect it displays on the outcome of negotiations.

2.1.3 How emotions affect the negotiation process

This paragraph serves the purposes of increasing our understanding of the effect of emotions on the negotiation process. Van Kleef et al. (2004 p. 510) found negotiators that display positive affect tend to be more cooperative and conciliatory, in contrast to negotiators displaying negative affect, which are more often competitive and less-willing to make concessions. However, a negotiator's emotions not only affect themselves but also their counterparts. This fact in turn provides negotiators the opportunity to adjust their own negotiation strategy in accordance with their counterpart's emotional state (van Kleef et al. 2004 p. 511). A deeper insight into the role that emotions play in the negotiation process can

be obtained by considering the Emotions as Social Information (EASI) model, as presented by van Kleef (2009). The EASI model proposes that emotional expressions are of influence on the behaviour of the observer. This happens by the way of two paths, the inferential and the affective reactions paths, with the former referring to information about the situation, and the latter concerning liking of the expresser. The predictive strength of these paths is dependent on two factors, information processing of the observer and social-relational factors. Hence for example during a negotiation, if the negotiator were to express a certain emotional state, whether anger or happiness, it would influence the counterpart's behaviour along either the inferential path, the affective reactions path or both. The manner of influence would however be dependent on the counterpart's information processing, thus how he or she perceives the given emotional expression, for example anger. Would the anger be justified because of a certain fault of the counterpart, or would the anger be unjust because the negotiator intends to exert dominance over the counterpart. Secondly social-relational factors would also play a role in determining the effects on the counterpart's behaviour, in other words how does the counterpart perceive the relationship with the negotiator, is there a case of a long-term business- or personal relationship? Does the counterpart personally like or dislike the negotiator? Does the counterpart trust the negotiator? Et cetera. In accordance with the EASI model an emotionally intelligent negotiator would be able to read its counterpart, and base the expectation of the counterpart's behaviour in reaction to the emotions he or she expresses, and in that manner guide the negotiation in a preferred direction.

2.2 Negotiation Preparations

2.2.1 Negotiation outcomes are dependent of preparation

The previous section of this report provided an in-depth look at the phenomenon of emotional intelligence, firstly explaining its role in existing literature, and furthermore reviewing EI in relation to negotiations. The following section is going to first divide negotiations into three aspects, namely preparations that precede negotiations, behaviour of negotiators during negotiations and negotiated outcomes to negotiations respectively.

Due to the importance and the central role of negotiations in various environments such as politics and business, to name a few, Peterson and Shepherd (2010) found that a lot of research has been done on negotiations (Rubin and Brown 1975 ; Phelps and Shanteau 1978 ; Graham 1983 ; Lewicki et al. 1997). Nevertheless, a big proportion of this research

that focused on antecedent variables has remained rather limited to variables such as age, experience, education, nationality, and so forth. However, Natlandsmyr and Rognes (1995) suggested that what the negotiator does to prepare for a negotiation, in terms of intelligence gathering and planning, significantly influences the outcome, either positively or negatively. On top of that Smith (2007) suggested that the opposition has a competitive advantage in the negotiation if the negotiator is not well prepared. In support of the value and necessity of preparations for negotiations the ‘four-phase pre-negotiation framework’ as proposed by Peterson and Lucas (2001 p.39) is to be considered, presented in Table 1. As the name suggests the framework consists of four phases in the pre-negotiation phase, namely intelligence gathering, formulation, strategy development and preparation respectively. Intelligence gathering has been defined by the U.S. Army Field Manual (1993) as “The act of collecting, processing, analysing and evaluating available data concerning the other party and relevant environmental factors”. What makes this first step so important is the fact that the more information is collected, and the more factors have been considered, such as the counterpart’s strengths and weaknesses, market trends and developments, (inter)national political developments and so on and so forth, the better one can formulate and prepare and thus improve its position in the negotiation. Futrell (1996) pointed out how setting goals and determining objectives can be an inherent part of any planning phase. This is equally applicable to the second phase of Peterson and Lucas’ framework, which they suggest entails the development of goals and specific objectives along with establishing the requirements of the issues to be negotiated. As such a clear and sound formulation precedes the successful development of one’s negotiation strategy, which is the third phase of the pre-negotiation framework. The fourth and final phase of the framework is the preparation phase which implies the rehearsal of the previously developed strategy along with the addressing of logistical issues and concerns.

Table 1: four-phase pre-negotiation framework (Peterson and Lucas 2001 p.39)

<i>Phase</i>	<i>Domain</i>
<i>Intelligence Gathering</i>	The act of collecting processing, analysing and evaluating available data concerning the other party and relevant environmental factors (U.S. Army Field Manual, 1993).
<i>Formulation</i>	Entails the development of goals and specific objectives along with establishing the requirements of the issues to be negotiated.
<i>Strategy</i>	Strategy is a plan that integrates a person’s goals and action sequences into a cohesive whole (Quinn 1980).

<i>Preparation</i>	Involves rehearsing verbal communication, arranging/creating support materials, and attending to logistical concerns
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However, it is important to consider that the above described framework originates from 2001. In order to make sure it is valid and relevant for this study the literature is to be addressed. In order to empirically test the discussed framework Peterson and Shepherd (2010) identified 34 pre-negotiation activities, in line with the four phases that have been identified by Peterson and Lucas (2001). Consequently, the study was conducted with 178 graduate students, researching the frequency of use of each of the listed activities. Finally, in this manner the framework was tested and the study concluded that the identified pre-negotiation activities, based upon the pre-negotiation framework, are widely accepted and used among businesspeople preparing for negotiations.

2.3 Negotiation Behaviours

2.3.1 Distributive negotiation seeking to maximise personal gains

In order to gain a better understanding of negotiators' behaviours this paragraph takes a deeper look at three different types of negotiation behaviour. Negotiation tactics have mainly been divided in two broad categories (Sigurdardottir et al. 2018). These are integrative, or cooperative tactics, which concentrate on creating value and satisfying the interests of all parties involved (Weingart et al. 1996), and distributive, or competitive tactics, focusing on maximising the individual gain (Olekalns et al. 1996). Firstly, we consider the use of distributive behaviour, and the motivation behind it. Lewicki and Robinson (1998) found that negotiators were more likely to display tactics that are in-line with distributive behaviour when expecting their counterpart to behave in a competitive manner, furthermore they would even be more likely to engage in such tactics if the negotiation is conducted only once without the intention of building upon a long-term relationship. What further characterises a distributive negotiation is that the outcome is known, there is a so called 'fixed pie', and the goal of the negotiator is to obtain as much of that outcome as possible, getting an as big as possible piece of the pie (Fulmer & Barry 2004). Due to these predispositions that a distributive negotiator possesses he or she is less likely to share information and more inclined to display certain forms of unethical and dislikeable behaviour. The competitiveness that arises from these negotiations can be attributed to both negotiators seeking to obtain a larger piece of the pie for themselves, rather than trying to create a win-win situation. The reasoning for the deployment of such behaviour can be attributed to the narrow focus on

self-interest and personal gains (Barry & Friedman 1998). Moreover, the primary objective during the negotiation is to induce the counterpart to agree upon the least favourable terms, without walking away. This is done by effective communication in learning about the counterpart's norms along with the use of persuasive tactics and logic, in order to encourage them to leave hold of their own interests (Sharma et al. 2013). It has been proven that individuals negotiating with a counterpart displaying aggressiveness in the negotiation are more willing to make compromises and concessions (van Kleef et al. 2001).

However, when considering distributive negotiation tactics and their competitive behaviour, it is important to note that there is a distinction to be made between acceptable and inappropriate competitive behaviours (Soarín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019). Based on their classification of behaviours they analysed the competitive bargaining tactics proposed by Lewicki and Robinson (1998). The five tactics, that underpinned the latter scholars' studies on ethicality in negotiations, were categorised as follows, misrepresentation of information (1), traditional competitive bargaining (2), bluffing (3), manipulation of opponent's network (4) and inappropriate information gathering (5). Out of these five categories only the second, traditional competitive bargaining, was deemed to be acceptable competitive behaviour, along with having a less negative effect on a negotiation. On top of that Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019) suggest that these traditional competitive actions should be addressed separately since they convey information about preferences, organisation and trading environment, and the opponent might use this information to increase their own position during the negotiation (Ramsay 2004).

2.3.2 Expanding the pie through integrative negotiation

Where distributive tactics focus on gaining a fixed piece of the pie, integrative tactics concern themselves with expanding the pie, thus serving the interests of all parties involved, as can be seen in figure 1 (Hawes & Fleming 2014 p. 281). Moreover, integrative solutions provide several advantages, namely they cause satisfaction, strengthen relationships, decrease the possibility of future conflicts and they are of benefit to the organisation (Beersma & de Dreu 2002 p.228). Integrative negotiations furthermore provide a greater opportunity to create value beyond simply reaching an agreement, implying the establishment of long-term business relationships (Sharma et al. 2013 p.298). Fulmer and Barry (2004 p.248) noted that during integrative negotiations, parties simultaneously try to

create joint benefits and maximise their own share of the benefits. This is enabled by the phenomenon of logrolling. Logrolling can be defined as negotiating parties making trade-offs between subjects, in a manner where one party achieves desired outcomes on subjects that they value more, while making compromises on subjects that are less interesting (Fleming & Hawes 2017 p. 520). Furthermore, characteristic of integrative behaviour is the pursuit of joint benefits through sharing information and understanding the other party's interests along with reciprocating their own cooperative behaviour (Kern et al. 2005 p. 23). Finally, successful use of integrative negotiation tactics increases the amount of total resources, in other words, create more value (Kern et al. 2005 p. 26)

Nonetheless is the prerequisite of successfully engaging in an integrative negotiation that the parties involved have dissimilar interests, which can only come to light when there is substantial information sharing. This is illustrated by an example of two sisters arguing over an orange. Both girls insist on obtaining the whole orange, with their mother acting as

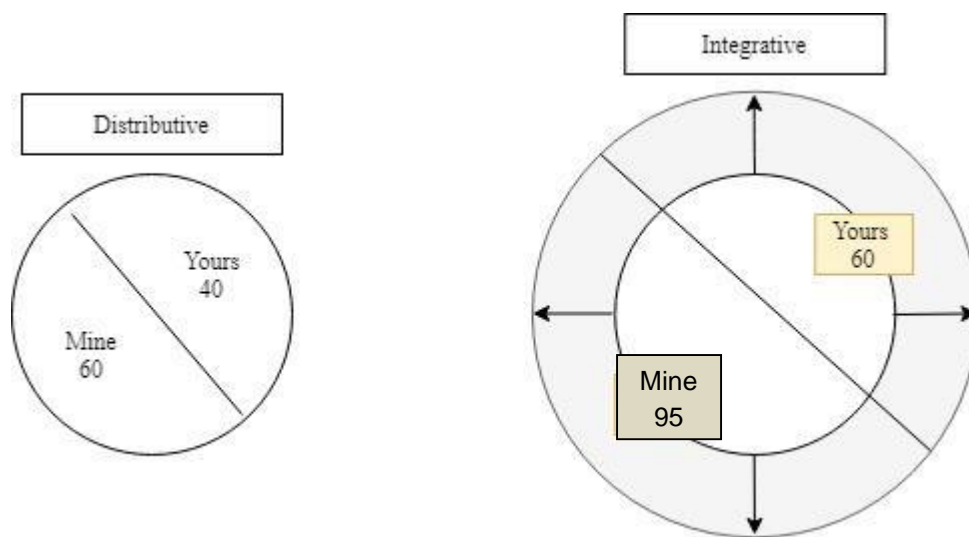


Figure 1: Expanding the pie (Hawes & Fleming 2014 p. 281)

the moderator, which proceeds to cut the orange in half and divide it equally. However, the girls' interests in the orange were not aligned, due to the fact that one of them wanted to eat the orange, while the other intended to use the peel for the baking of cookies. Due to the absence of information sharing both sisters eventually received only half of their desired outcome, rather than being cooperative, in other words integrative, and finding themselves in a win-win situation (Fisher et al. 2011 p.18).

Sigurdardottir et al. (2019 p. 310) found that option generating, and concession tactics are generally associated with integrative behaviour. Consequently, most studies on

intrapersonal effects show that positive emotions, displayed by the negotiator, have a beneficial effect on the outcome of the negotiation (Barry et al. 2004 p.85). However, there is a risk associated with integrative negotiation, as studies have found that negotiators that create value can become subject to the counterpart consuming the claimed value. The reason behind this being that negotiators which are more trusting and communicative, and thus creating integrative outcomes, make themselves vulnerable to exploitation from their counterparts (Der Foo et al. 2004 p. 15). Table 2 shows a situational factor comparison in regard to distributive and integrative tactics (Fleming & Hawes 2017 p. 520).

Table 2: Situational factor comparison (Fleming & Hawes 2017 p. 520)

<i>Situational Factors</i>	<i>Distributive if</i>	<i>Integrative if</i>
<i>Number of issues</i>	Single, particularly price	Multiple, especially if price is not dominant
<i>Valuation of issues</i>	Same	Different
<i>Style orientation</i>	One or both distributive	Both integrative
<i>Past relationship</i>	None or bad	Good
<i>Future relationship potential</i>	Low	High
<i>Creativity</i>	Low	High
<i>Intelligence</i>	Low	High
<i>Trust</i>	Low	High
<i>Negotiations experience</i>	Low	High
<i>Positions or interests discussed</i>	Positions	Interests
<i>Time available for negotiation</i>	Short	Lengthy
<i>Communication skills</i>	Less than excellent	Excellent
<i>Power level for the parties</i>	Different	Same
<i>Importance of the exchange</i>	Routine	Critical

Hence table 2 explains the main differences between distributive and integrative tactics. As is to be seen integrative negotiations differentiate themselves from distributive ones in many different aspects, with major differences being the levels of future relationship potential, creativity, intelligence and trust, all ranking low for distributive and high for integrative negotiations.

2.3.3 Achieving the best results through a combination of behaviours

Recent studies have suggested that generally speaking higher levels of satisfaction are achieved through integrative negotiating, rather than distributive (Fleming & Hawes 2017

p. 520; Sigurdardottir et al. 2018 p. 430). However, in many situations overall negotiation behaviour is neither purely integrative, nor purely distributive, rather it finds itself somewhere in between (Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019 p. 54). Moreover Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019 p. 54) suggest that both integrative and distributive behaviours are non-exclusive and coexist throughout the course of a negotiation. Henceforth the continuum of negotiations have been identified by various scholars (Hawes & Fleming 2014 p. 280; Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019 p. 55). This section firstly considers the continuum as provided by Hawes & Fleming, which can be seen in figure 2. Here negotiations range from the extreme values of 0.0, representing ‘purely distributive negotiations’, to 1.0, which

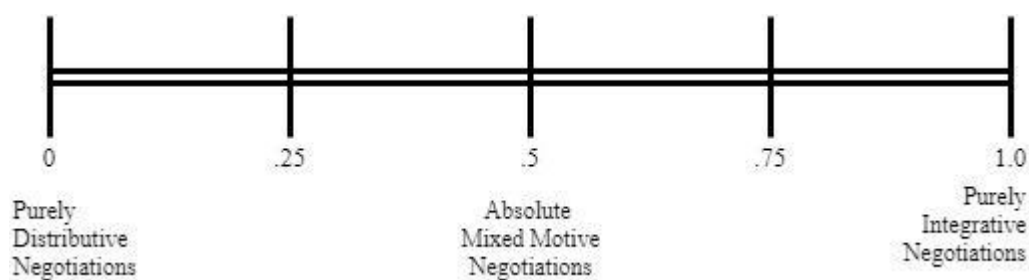


Figure 2: The negotiation continuum (Hawes & Fleming 2014 p.280)

represents ‘purely integrative negotiations’. The middle of this continuum is the stage of ‘absolute mixed motive negotiations’, with a value of 0.5. Secondly, figure 3 visualises the classification of negotiation behaviour by Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019 p. 55), expanding their earlier discussed distinction between integrative, acceptable competitive and

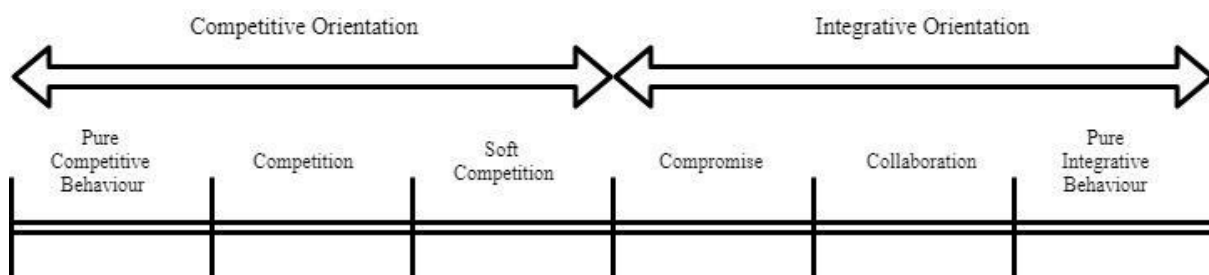


Figure 3: Classification of Negotiation Behaviour by Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019 p. 55)

inappropriate competitive negotiation behaviour. As shown in figure 3 a distinction is made between a competitive- and an integrative orientation, both consisting of three distinct categories. The strongest form of a competitive orientation is pure competitive behaviour, which is characterised by a high use of competitive actions, both acceptable as well as inappropriate, with little to no application of integrative actions. This builds down to the weakest form of competitive orientation, and closest to the middle, which is soft competition, consisting of integrative actions with frequent use of acceptable competitive actions and a low number of inappropriate competitive actions. The other side of the spectrum, integrative

negotiation, is spearheaded by pure integrative behaviour, where there is seldom usage of any competitive actions. The weakest, and closest to the middle, form of negotiation here is compromise behaviour, which is made up of consistent deployment of integrative actions, along with a moderate use of acceptable competitive actions (Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo 2019 p. 55). Concluding on this section the following sub questions have been developed with regards to the role of EI and negotiation behaviour in this study, firstly considering EI, the role of emotions in negotiations and preparations the first sub question is: Srq1: *Do individuals scoring high on EI engage in more thorough preparations, in accordance with the identified framework, for negotiations, leading to higher outcomes?* With regards to the second aspect discussed in the literature review, the integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours the second sub question is: Srq2: *Do individuals scoring high on EI display a balanced combination of integrative- and distributive negotiation behaviours?* With regards to the display of negotiation behaviour the literature review discussed how better outcomes could be achieved by taking the best from both worlds i.e. combining both distributive and integrative behaviours, hence the sub question: Srq 3: *Do individuals that apply a balanced combination of integrative and distributive behaviours negotiate higher outcomes?* Finally the fourth sub question considers the relationship between EI and outcomes of negotiations and reads: Srq4 : *Do individuals that score high on EI achieve better negotiation outcomes?*

2.4 B2B

2.4.1 How B2B differs from B2C

B2B markets are usually characterised by fewer, but larger customers, along with extensive long-term relationships, where cooperation and collaborative innovation play a central role (Cawsey & Rowley 2015 p. 756). In the context of B2B negotiations establishing and nurturing long-term business relations, is considered to be of great importance. It reaches to the extent of firms willing to make concessions and sacrifice gains in one round of negotiations, for the sake of investing in the relationship (Sigurdardottir et al. 2018 p. 437). Furthermore, B2B markets differentiate themselves from B2C markets in many regards. Reklaitis and Pililiene (2019 p. 76) point out how sales potential of a B2C organisation is often limited by population, geographical area or a combination of the two. They point out the example of a shop that sells sunglasses, whose market would be the population of the

city, region or country it operates in, depending on their distribution channel i.e. whether they only sell physically or online as well. On the other hand the market of a yoga studio would probably be limited to an area within driving distance. On the other hand in the B2B sector transactions usually have higher order value, longer sales cycles and higher levels of complexity (Reklaitis and Pililiene 2019 p. 76). Furthermore, organisations that serve other organisations, thus operate in a B2B context, are part of a supply chain consisting of multiple actors and thus more stakeholders. Moreover, buyers in B2B markets invest more in a longer lasting relationship, consequently leading to higher switching costs, and lower switching rates (Russo et al. 2015 p.2). B2B negotiators are often negotiating on behalf of their organisations and are called either agents or representatives, in contrast to negotiators in consumer markets, which more often negotiate on their own behalf (Sigurdardottir et al. 2019 p. 300). Saha et al. (2014) have conducted a comparative study on the differences between B2B and B2C, a summary of their results can be seen below in table 3.

Table 3: Comparison between B2C and B2B (Saha et al. 2014)

	B2C	B2B
Sales volume	Low	High
Risk	Low	High
Use of mass media for brand promotion	High	Low
Target audience	End user	Enterprises
Target market size	Large	Small
Duration of purchasing process	Short	Long
Price	Same for each customer	Differs per customer
Payment term	Mostly instant	Instant payment may not be required
Transaction system	Mostly cash, debit- or credit card	Transactions require complex systems
Decision making	Individual	By committee
Demand	Based upon wish	Based upon need

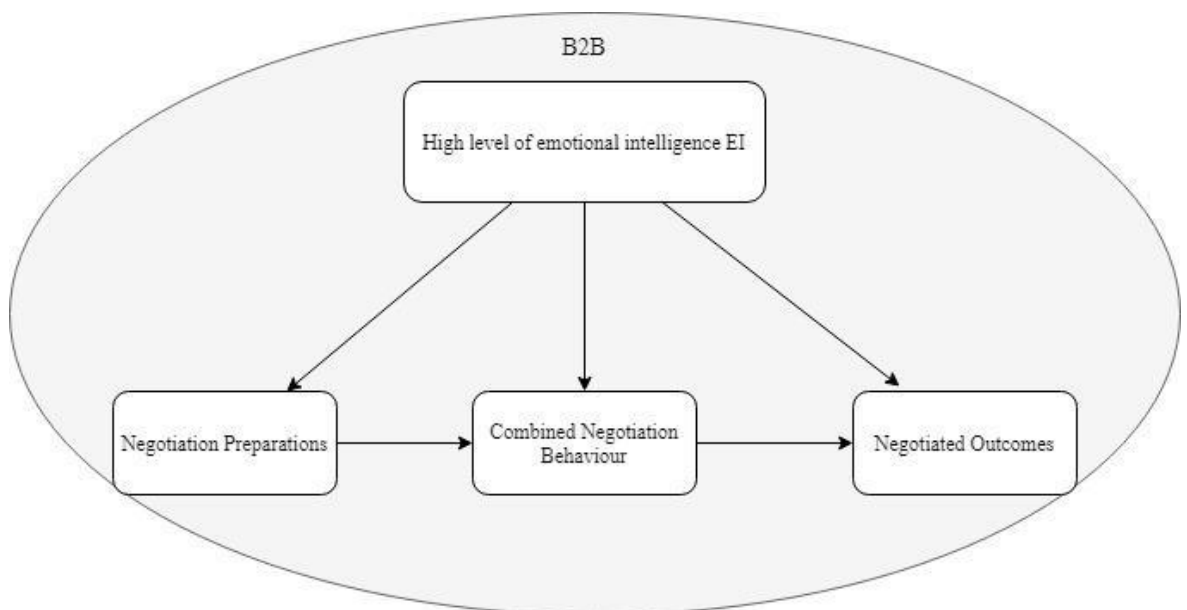
Ramos et al. (2003 p. 293) have drawn the comparison between B2B negotiations and football (American English: Soccer) matches as they state that a football environment consists of “multiple agents that negotiate towards a common goal. As they pass the ball over to each other, fooling the enemy team along the way they must be quick on making decisions in a distributed environment.” Furthermore they suggest that conflicts appear in

the form of opponents, weather conditions and emotional issues such as the reactions from the crowd and decision making done by the referee.

3. Theoretical Framework and Research Aim

On the basis of above described literature, the theoretical framework has been developed. An illustration of the framework can be seen in Figure 4. The research is set to examine the shown relationships between the independent variable of EI, with the dependent variables of negotiation preparations, the combination of negotiation integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours and the negotiation outcome respectively. Considering the effects displayed by a high level of EI on the preparations for negotiations, the employment of the combined negotiation behaviours, the outcomes of negotiations and finally the effect of the combined negotiation behaviour on the negotiated outcomes. The controlling variable in this case will be the B2B context, in which the research will be carried out. All of this will contribute to the research aim of answering the main research question:

RQ: *“What is the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on the thoroughness of negotiation preparation, behaviours and outcomes in a B2B context?”*



4. Methodology

The following section serves the purpose of explaining the methodology in four steps; the multiple case study, that is to be conducted, the research design, and the methods of data collection and data analysis.

4.1 Multiple Case Study

A multiple-case study is required when more than a single case is examined (Baxter and Jack 2008 p. 550). Hence this research is to be conducted in the form of a multiple case study. Multiple case studies are found to be resulting in better theory, along with enabling broader exploration of research questions and elaborations of theory (Eisenhardt and Graebner 2007 p.27). Furthermore Gustafsson (2017 p. 9) points out that the evidence generated from a multiple case study is strong and reliable. Moreover, in his 1995 book Robert E. Stake distinguishes three types of case studies; intrinsic, instrumental and collective. According to Stake intrinsic case studies are applied when interested in a unique situation, with results with limited transferability. Instrumental case studies are applied when there is an intent of gaining insight and understanding of a particular phenomenon. Finally, the term collective case study describes the situation when multiple cases are being examined, as is the case with this research.

This research has examined twelve cases of B2B negotiators from various sectors and businesses, considering both the buyers' and sellers' perspectives. The cases have been carefully selected on the basis of their relevance for the sake of this research. This means that the backgrounds of their activities have been considered, along with their negotiation experience in the context of the respective organisations. The cases are composed of various entrepreneurs, agents and representatives from internationally operating Dutch firms active in healthcare-, food-, human resources-, automotive and IT sectors among others, respectively, ranging from proprietorships to LLCs. The intention is to evaluate professional negotiators, with purchasing, sales and operations backgrounds, on how they score on EI, how well they prepare for negotiations, what behaviours they display and what outcomes they negotiate. All of the interviewees come from the Netherlands, and have multiple years of negotiation experience. All but one of the interviewees were males, and the duration of the interviews were 30 minutes on average. The interview guide is to be found under Appendix A.

4.2 Research Design and Data Collection

As this study aims to answer the research questions and examine the relationships from the proposed framework, a qualitative research is to be applied. Qualitative research differentiates itself from quantitative research due to the fact where it develops theories, rather than testing them (Urquhart 2012 p. 293). Generally speaking, quantitative methods make use of random sampling, whereas samples in qualitative research are often carefully selected in order to make sure the right data is collected. Moreover, methods for conducting qualitative research are observing, focusing on groups and taking interviews (Denzin & Lincoln 2011 p. 12). This research is designed as follows, firstly gaps in existing literature have been analysed, upon which concepts from that literature have been reviewed and disgusted, leading to the development of the theoretical framework. The empirical part of the research is set to follow, aiming to identify the chosen variables and their relationships. Firstly, in order to conduct a measurement of EI respondents will be asked to fill in a questionnaire, developed by Wong and Law (2002) before the start of the interview, found in appendix A. The proposed questionnaire measures the level of EI based on self-emotional appraisal (SEA), other's emotional appraisal (OEA), regulations of emotions (ROE) and the use of emotions (UOE) respectively. Secondly the manner of preparations is to be examined through a set of open-ended questions that were developed based on the 'four-phase pre-negotiation framework' as proposed by Peterson and Lucas (2001), found in appendix B. Consequently, the application of negotiation behaviour is to be examined by surveys developed by, and used in, previous work of scholars Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2019), found in appendix C, where they examined negotiation behaviours of suppliers of large supermarket chains in Central America. Finally, negotiation outcomes are to be evaluated based upon the survey developed and validated by Curhan et al. (2006) found in appendix D, researching what people value when they negotiate, in other words how they perceive previously negotiated outcomes.

In the book 'Introducing Research Methodology' (2015) Uwe Flick identified two sorts of interviews; structured and unstructured. Characteristic of structured interviews is the easiness of coding the results. Unstructured interviews however resemble regular conversations where the respondent can steer the direction. A mixture of these sorts of interviews are the so-called semi-structured interviews. King et al. (2004 p. 47) state that

semi-structured interviews the position that the respondent occupies, along with other attributes, are relevant to the interview as well as identifiable to others.

4.3 Data Analysis

For the purpose of analysing the data, collected from the interviews, the transcripts require to be coded. Firstly, going through the process of open coding, a seven-question series is used (Böhm 2004; Ruppel & Mey 2015 p.181), which is shown in Table 4. Consequently, axial coding is applied in order to identify underlying patterns and enable further analysis.

Table 4: Seven-question series for open coding (Ruppel & Mey 2015 p. 181)

What	What is the issue here? What phenomenon is being addressed?
Who	What persons or actors are involved? What role do they play? How do they interact?
How	What aspects of the phenomenon are addressed (or not addressed)?
When/how long/where	What significance do the time-space dimensions have (either biographically, or for a single action)
Why	What reasons are given or may be deducted
By what means	What methods, tactics and strategies are used to achieve that goal?
For what reason	With what intention, and for what purpose?

Finally, the data is analysed and reported in order to provide fruitful results, for the purpose of answering the research question and delivering a conclusion. This has been done by the way of cross-case analysis, comparing the results of the cases and noting underlying patterns that emerged from it.

5. Results

The following section is intended to present the findings of the conducted empirical research. Table 5 describes the researched cases, labelling the interviewed negotiators from ‘neg1’ to ‘neg13’ and distinguishing them by gender and role in their respective organisations, as well as the industries and legal types of the organisations.

5.1 EI

Firstly, the measurements of the EI levels are to be presented, and disgusted. Table 6 shows the scores of each case for Wong and Law’s EI questionnaire, that the respondents of this

study filled in. The bottom row of the table shows the weighted average of the cases' scores for each of the four EI dimensions; SEA, OEA, ROE and UOE as well as the total score. As

Table 5: Description of cases

Case	Industry	Legal Type	Gender	Role in organisation
Neg1	Software	Ltd. (BV)	M	Partner
Neg2	Alternative Healthcare	Ltd. (BV)	M	Owner
Neg3	Advisory	Ltd. (BV)	M	Partner
Neg4	Food	Ltd. (BV)	M	Director
Neg5	Hydrology	Sole Proprietorship	M	Owner
Neg6	Food	Ltd. (BV)	M	Director
Neg7	Automotive	Ltd. (BV)	M	Technical Assistant
Neg8	Refrigeration	Ltd. (BV)	M	Owner
Neg9	Retail	Sole Proprietorship	M	Owner
Neg10	Financial Services	Ltd. (BV)	M	Owner
Neg11	Food	Ltd. (BV)	F	Procurement Manager
Neg12	Food	Ltd. (BV)	M	Global Procurement Manager

the questionnaire consisted of 16 statements, 4 per each dimension, with each statement being graded on a 7-point Likert-scale, the maximum score per dimension would be 28, with 112 being the total maximum. The scores in the table are presented on a 0 to 1 scale. Based on the scores derived from this research, the mean EI score of the respondents is .76. This average allows for the classification of the cases into groups I and II (with I being $EI > \mu$ and II $EI < \mu$), where cases from group I would be considered as 'individuals scoring high on EI'.

I ($EI > \mu$):

- neg1; neg2; neg7; neg8; neg9; neg11

II ($EI < \mu$):

- neg3; neg4; neg5; neg6; neg10; neg12

Table 6: EI Measurements

Case	SEA	OEA	UOE	ROE	Total EI
Neg1	0,79	0,75	0,82	0,96	0,83
Neg2	0,89	0,75	1,00	0,71	0,84
Neg3	0,61	0,54	0,75	0,86	0,69
Neg4	0,89	0,46	0,79	0,43	0,64
Neg5	0,61	0,29	0,61	0,36	0,46
Neg6	0,57	0,71	0,86	0,61	0,69
Neg7	0,71	0,79	0,82	0,79	0,78
Neg8	1,00	0,96	0,96	1,00	0,98
Neg9	0,82	0,93	0,96	1,00	0,93
Neg10	0,75	0,61	0,54	0,86	0,69
Neg11	1,00	0,82	0,82	0,82	0,87
Neg12	0,71	0,61	0,79	0,79	0,72
μ	0,78	0,68	0,81	0,76	0,76

5.2 Preparations

In order to create an image of the manner of preparation of the participating negotiators, a set of open-ended interview questions have been developed, based upon literature discussed in chapter two, as seen in appendix B. The interview has been set up in a consequential manner, namely the respondents were firstly asked to describe their negotiation preparations in their own words. Secondly, they were evaluated on the basis of Peterson and Lucas' four-phase pre-negotiation framework, with questions being asked in regard to the phases that compose the framework. Furthermore, the respondents were asked about the amount of time that they invest in their preparations. Finally, the respondents pointed out examples from their own experiences, where they enjoyed benefits attributed to the preparation, as well as situations where they perceived that their performance was negatively influenced due to a lack in the preparation process. Hence the goal of this section is to present the findings from the part of the interview concerning the preparations. This will be done in subsections, dedicated to the described sequences of the pre-negotiation framework.

5.2.1 The phase of intelligence gathering by the respondents

From the conducted interviews it was observed that intelligence gathering prior to negotiations played a significant role in all of the cases' preparations. The intensity however was largely dependent on the subject of the negotiation, whether it was core-

business related or not. An example can be found in the transcript of the interview with Neg5, where the respondent pointed out how the selection of energy suppliers (electricity, gas and water) was primarily financially motivated, due to the homogeneity of the service they provide, and the information was directly available from the supplier. However when considering suppliers for machines in the manufacturing process a greater array of factors is to be considered, namely how future-proof is the supplier? i.e. is the organisation financially healthy? can the supplier provide support and maintenance for the machines? et cetera. Moreover, is such intensive intelligence gathering done through the organisation's network of partners, suppliers, customers, et cetera. Furthermore, in the case of Neg2 a case of intelligence gathering in both directions of the value chain was observed, as the organisation concerns itself with the development, import and distribution of various medicinal supplements from India. In this particular case factors of consideration include firstly local demands in the Dutch market, followed by research of the supply market in India. Factors that are to be considered are firstly whether the identified demand can be supplied from the supplier base, and secondly the logistical issues regarding prices, legal regulations, lab tests, customs regulations, et cetera.

The case of Neg3 provides us an example of factors considered, and the manner of intelligence gathering in the service-driven advisory industry. Here, in the primary phase of the preparations that precede negotiations, knowledge of the market was considered necessary in order to determine the pricing of the services. A similar approach was noted with Neg6, however what differentiated both cases was the fact that Neg6 works with the public sector, in contrast to Neg3 operating in the private sector, leaving less room for price fluctuations and making data easier accessible due to the fact of predetermined budgets and estimations. Another example of intelligence gathering done through the organisation's network has been observed in the case of Neg8, where prior to entering negotiations data was collected from the supplier base.

5.2.2 Formulation phase as observed in the interviews

With regards to the second phase of the identified pre-negotiation framework once again, similar to the previous phase, no deviations from the respondents were observed. The results however did provide insights into differences between the various organisations, and moreover between the industries they operate in, as well whether the negotiations are up- or

downstream in the supply chain. The first example regarding the formulation of goals and objectives pointed out here is the one of Neg3. *“For example if we have a project that does not pay well, but it provides the opportunity to enter a new network and establish new business relations, we compromise financially for the sake of future earnings, hence we make an estimation if the deal would be valuable in the long run.”* (Neg3). In the case of Neg1, with an organisation providing software to their customers, in the interview we discussed the product creation process (PCP) that the organisation engages in with their clients. *“Prior to entering negotiations, on the basis of gathered intelligence, multiple criteria are considered. Namely, with the provided services being tailor-made to suit the clients’ needs firstly the current infrastructure of the potential client is evaluated, considering what needs to be adjusted or complemented in order to meet their future needs. Furthermore, the size of the project determines the amount of fulltime employees (FTEs) to be deployed. Along with these considerations objectives for the negotiation are developed, in terms of what needs to be achieved.”* (Neg1). These are examples coming from service industries, with negotiations going downstream in the value chain i.e. with customers.

On the other hand, with regards to negotiations with upstream actors in the supply chain, we observed how in the case of Neg5 the example of the sourcing of new commercial vehicles was pointed out. *“Our objectives for the negotiation were based on the product requirements i.e. equipment of the vehicles, engine and transmission types, et cetera. With the goal being the purchase of vehicles fitting the requirements, within the predetermined budget of the firm.”* (Neg5). Neg11 highlighted that the objectives for negotiations were dependent on the items or services that were sourced, whether it was lowering tariffs, improving communications, et cetera.

5.2.3 Strategy

This subsection is dedicated to the phase of strategy development of the pre-negotiation framework. With regards to this particular stage some interesting observations were made. Divergent results emerged from the conducted interviews, which are to be distinguished in the following subsection. The first example pointed out relates back to the case of sourcing new commercial vehicles by Neg5, discussed in the previous phase. The strategy that was deployed with the supplier was to firstly extend the RFQ, based upon the product requirements. Furthermore, placing counteroffers with the goal of reducing the quotation, until an attractive price was reached, prior to entering negotiations and finalising the deal.

The key aspect of the strategy was described as taking away the time pressure and giving the supplier the impression that his products could also be purchased from competitors, in order to close the deal for a lower price. In the case of Neg6 an example was observed of focusing one's strategy on his unique selling point (USP), in other words knowing where the organisation has the edge over its competition and convincing its clients that the services cannot be sourced elsewhere, and in that manner strengthening its own negotiation position. A similar manner to strategy formulation as the latter has been observed in the case of Neg12, which is also centred around the strength of the negotiation position. However once again the difference between the cases is that Neg10 negotiates downstream i.e. with (potential) clients, while Neg12 conducts negotiations with suppliers from the perspective of the purchasing party. The determining factor of the position however is the B2B model in question, whether it is an established buyer-supplier relationship, supplier- or buyer-oriented marketplace.

However, what makes the findings for this phase interesting is the absence of a clear strategy formulation in certain cases. Namely it was noted that individuals scoring significantly high on the EI scale pointed out that they do not formulate a specific strategy prior to entering negotiations. This has been observed with the cases of Neg8(EI:110), Neg9(EI:104), Neg11(EI:97), Neg2(EI:94). This is evident from the following examples taken from the transcripts of the interviews. Upon being asked whether the respondents develop a strategy, following the previous phases of intelligence gathering and objective formulation, and how this strategy comes about the following answers were given; Neg11: *"To be honest I have followed negotiation courses and practices, and this is always a point of emphasis, however I do not engage in it much. I usually just start the negotiation and see where the ship strands."* Neg9: *"No, I do not have a specific strategy, I just prepare in advance and gather the required intelligence from my suppliers."* Neg8: *"No, I make use of my charm a lot during negotiations."*

5.3 Negotiation Behaviour

The following section serves the purpose of presenting the findings of the interviews with regard to negotiation behaviour. In accordance with the classification of negotiation behaviour by Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019) the cases have been analysed on the basis of the frequency of use of integrative-, acceptable competitive- and inappropriate competitive actions. Consequently, based on their respective actions, the negotiation behaviour of the

cases has been identified, as shown in table 8. A summary of the six types of behaviours in the continuum, as described by Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019), is as follows;

Table 7: A summary of negotiation behaviours

Type of negotiation behaviour	Definition
Pure Integrative Behaviour	A very high frequency of integrative actions, with little to no acceptable competitive actions and no inappropriate competitive actions.
Collaboration	High frequency of integrative actions, along with few acceptable competitive actions and no inappropriate competitive actions.
Compromise Behaviour	Intensive use of integrative actions, along with a moderate amount of acceptable competitive actions and no inappropriate competitive actions.
Soft Competition	Integrative actions along with acceptable competitive actions and little inappropriate competitive actions.
Competition	Integrative actions with frequent use of acceptable- and inappropriate competitive actions.
Pure Competitive Behaviour	Little to no use of integrative actions, along with high frequency of acceptable- and inappropriate competitive actions.

	Case											
	Neg5	Neg4	Neg3	Neg6	Neg10	Neg12	Neg7	Neg1	Neg2	Neg11	Neg9	Neg8
Low/High EI	Low						High					
EI score	.46	.64	.69	.69	.69	.72	.78	.83	.84	.87	.93	.98
Inappropriate Competitive Actions	Low	Low	Never	Never	Never	Medium-Low	Medium	Never	Low	Low	Medium-Low	Medium-Low
Acceptable Competitive Actions	Medium	High	Medium	Medium-Low	Medium	Medium-High	Medium-High	Medium-Low	Medium	Medium	High	High
Integrative Actions	Medium	Medium-High	Medium-High	Medium	Medium-High	Medium-High	Medium-High	High	High	High	High	Very High
Classification of Negotiation Behaviour	Soft Competition	Soft Competition	Compromise Behaviour	Compromise Behaviour	Compromise Behaviour	Soft Competition	Competition	Collaboration	Soft Competition	Soft Competition	Competition	Soft Competition
Gender	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Female	Male	Male
Industry	Hydrology	Food	Advisory	Food	Financial Services	Food	Automotive	Software	Alternative Healthcare	Food	Retail	Refrigeration
Legal Type	Sole Proprietorship	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Ltd. (BV)	Sole Proprietorship	Ltd. (BV)
Role	Owner	Director	Partner	Director	Owner	Global Procurement Manager	Technical Assistant	Partner	Owner	Procurement Manager	Owner	Owner
Negotiated Outcome Score	.67	.79	.63	.73	.81	.83	.76	.92	.90	.94	.90	.89

Table 8: Overview of Results

As is to be seen in table 8, four out of the six types of negotiation behaviour have been identified in the observed cases. Namely the observed behaviour types are; collaboration, compromise behaviour, soft competition and competition. Thus the two extremes of the continuum in the form of pure integrative behaviour and pure competitive behaviour have not been identified. The most frequent type of negotiation behaviour in this research has been soft competition, with six cases, followed by collaboration behaviour, with three cases, competition with two cases and collaboration with one case. This means that eight cases displayed a competitive orientation, six by soft competition and two by competition, while four cases displayed an integrative orientation, three by compromise behaviour and one by collaboration.

5.4 Negotiation Outcomes

The final part of the interview, as well as the results section of this studies, was centered around negotiation outcomes. Regarding this phase of the interviews the respondents were asked to recall a negotiation from their own experiences that they found most relevant. Hence from this perspective each respondent answered the final survey of the interview with regards to their own respective negotiation experience. Consequently, negotiated outcomes of the cases have been evaluated at the hand of the earlier described questionnaire, developed and tested by Curhan et al. (2006). The goal of the scholars' study was to "*Create a general-use questionnaire instrument to measure subjective value*" (Curhan et al. 2006 p. 502). The questionnaire is described as a 16-item subjective value inventory (SVI), being made up of four factors, namely feelings about the instrumental outcome (A); feelings about the self (B); feelings about the process (C) and feelings about the relationship (D) respectively. Each item within the questionnaire was scored on a one to seven likert scale.

6. Discussion

Section number six of this report serves the purpose of discussing the findings from the conducted empirical research, in line with the theoretical framework that has been proposed on the basis of the extended literature research. The aim of this study has been to research the effect of EI on negotiations, in the form of preparations, behaviours and outcomes, and by that answering the main research question of; *What is the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on negotiation preparation, behaviours and outcomes in a B2B context?* This has been

done by the means of a qualitative multiple case study. The relevance of this research has been argued in the introduction on the basis of several perceived shortcomings in existing literature. Even Though both the topics of EI as well as negotiations have been extensively studied before, the relation between the two is still largely unclear. Moreover, specifically focusing on the three identified aspects of preparations, behaviours and outcomes existing knowledge seems rather limited, in particular the aspect of how EI affects preparations for negotiation. Furthermore, can the practical contribution of existing works be questioned and challenged due to the fact that the largest proportion of conducted studies focused on student populations, rather than the B2B context that has been included in this study.

6.1 EI and preparations

With regards to the first sub question, concerning the effects of EI displayed, the manner and intensity of the selected cases' preparations were examined at the hand of Peterson and Lucas' four-phase pre-negotiation framework, by the means of open-ended semi-structured interviews. Consequently, these interviews provided us with interesting results regarding the first sub question. Firstly, it can be considered as a validation for the research approach and the use of the pre-negotiation framework, as it was clearly recognised in practice, as has been described and pointed out in the previous section. This is also in line with Peterson and Shepherd's (2010) findings, regarding the empirical testing of the pre-negotiation framework. However what has become evident from this research is that preparations are not something universal and bounded to just one framework or concept, rather there is a large array of factors and determinants that play a role, ranging from an organisation's field of operations, to the subject of negotiations and personal characteristics of the negotiator him- or herself.

Another interesting finding, pointed out in the results section as well, is that the participants that were categorised as 'individuals scoring high on EI' pointed out to not specify a particular strategy prior to entering negotiations, even though strategy formulation is an inherent part of the discussed framework. And if we were to use the framework as a determinant for the evaluation of preparations, this would suggest a bad manner of preparation. However, this does not mean that these individuals have shortcomings in their preparations, rather the reason could be found in the aforementioned other factors, individual differences, amount of negotiation experience, or other concepts which have not been

researched in this study. It could even be argued that negotiators with high levels of EI, simply put, need less for a good preparation. Nevertheless, based upon the findings of this part of the research the following can be suggested:

P1: EI levels of individual negotiators do not play a decisive role in the preparations preceding negotiations.

6.2 The relation between EI and negotiation behaviour

The second aspect of this study considers whether a high level of EI influences the behaviours displayed during negotiations. As the findings of the research indicated no forms of purely integrative- or distributive negotiation behaviour have been observed. This furthermore highlights the findings of Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019 p.60) how competitive and integrative actions are complementary to each other, rather than mutually exclusive. With regards to the two identified groups within the sample, I and II, with group I, being considered as individuals that score high on EI, similar compositions of behaviours were observed. However, it is worth noting that three cases in group I; Neg1, Neg7 and Neg9, displayed less balanced tactics i.e. further away from the middle of the framework, namely collaboration for Neg1 and competition for Neg7 and Neg9. Furthermore, five out of the six negotiators inclined towards a more competitive orientation, Neg1 being the exception, which is to some extent contrary to the expectation of high EI individuals being more integrative orientated. As for group II, consisting of negotiators scoring lower on EI, we observed a split between the types of soft competition and collaboration behaviour. Considering these results, and not observing any purely distributive or integrative behaviours, it leads us to believe that with regards to the second sub question, concerning the display of mixed negotiation behaviour being linked to high levels of EI, EI does not necessarily play a role in this regard. To summarise what has been observed with regards to negotiation behaviour and EI, the following propositions have been developed;

P2: Negotiators with high levels of EI tend to have a more competitive orientation.

P3: Mixed negotiation behaviour is not influenced by EI.

6.3 Outcomes

Narrowing this study down to the final aspect of negotiations, we come to the negotiated outcomes. When considering the observed negotiated outcomes of the participants divergent scores were observed. When arranging said scores, and displaying them alongside the cases respective EI scores, noteworthy results emerged. When looking at the arrangement of cases by their outcomes it is evident how the five out of the six highest scoring negotiators all belong to group I, individuals scoring high on EI. The exception from group I being, Neg7, ranked ninth, below Neg12, Neg10 and Neg4 of group II. However, this does not have to be directly attributed to the differing EI levels. Rather when comparing the cases roles' and experiences we notice how Neg7 is a technical assistant with a lesser amount of years of experience, contrary to the roles of director, owner and procurement manager fulfilled by aforementioned cases. However, this statement is merely an expectation due to the fact these factors were not covered in this research, rather they arose during the discussion of the results. Apart from this pointed out exception the results for this section are in line with the expectation of individuals with higher levels of EI performing better in negotiations, hence we can formulate the following proposition;

P4: Individuals with higher levels of EI negotiate better outcomes.

7. Conclusion

The final section of this thesis serves the purpose of concluding on the main findings and answering the main research question. To conclude, the main goal of this study has been to answer the main research question of “*What is the effect of emotional intelligence (EI) on negotiation preparation, behaviours and outcomes in a B2B context?*”. This has been done through semi-structured interviews in a qualitative method of research. In accordance with the four variables that have been researched; EI, negotiation preparations, negotiation behaviours and negotiation outcomes, four sub questions have been developed in order to address each issue. These four sub questions are respectively;

Srq1: *Individuals scoring high on EI engage in better preparations for negotiations, leading to higher outcomes.*

Srq 2: Individuals scoring high on EI display a balanced combination of negotiation behaviour.

Srq 3: Individuals that apply a balanced combination of integrative and distributive behaviours negotiate higher outcomes.

Srq4: Individuals that score high on EI also achieve better negotiation outcomes.

The findings of the results have been presented and discussed and allowed for the formulation of four propositions in relation to the research questions, which are;

P1: EI levels of individual negotiators do not play a decisive role in the preparations preceding negotiations.

P2: Negotiators with high levels of EI tend to have a more competitive orientation.

P3: Mixed negotiation behaviour is not influenced by EI.

P4: Individuals with higher levels of EI negotiate better outcomes.

These propositions have come about as a result of firstly measuring the EI level of this study's participants, furthermore, investigating their manner of preparations, negotiation behaviours and finally measuring their outcomes. This has been done on the basis of researched and reviewed existing literature.

This study has aimed to contribute in academic terms by addressing an identified gap in existing literature between the fields of EI, negotiations and B2B respectively. It has provided new insights into these respective fields and put forward the highlighted propositions. Furthermore in terms of managerial implications and business recommendations it is important to point out that EI is a behaviour that can be learned, and as this study proposes that individuals with higher levels of EI negotiate better outcomes, it might be useful for managers to invest in better negotiators, by engaging in trainings and courses and seek to maximise the potential there is to be earned in terms of EI and negotiations, for themselves as well as their team members. With the fourth proposition of the findings of this study substantiating that individuals with higher levels of EI negotiate better outcomes. This means that, as an organisation, being represented by negotiators that score high on EI leads to better outcomes from the negotiations and by that being of added value to the organisation.

7.1 Limitations and Future Research Directions

As is the case with most studies, there have been a number of limitations to this work. Firstly, the number of researched cases remained restricted to twelve, a larger number of cases would

have enabled for a better comparison between results. Furthermore, even though this research has provided reliable results, they are not generalisable to a large extent due to data collection being limited to a small number of firms, all concentrated in the Netherlands. Another limitation that has been identified with this work is the fact that data regarding negotiation preparations, behaviours and outcomes has been done through interviews, rather than observations of real-time negotiations. The problem is that such a manner of data collection leaves room for biases from the respondents. Finally, the contributions of this research may have been richer if the scope was expanded, and a larger array of variables would have been considered. Variables in the form of work- and negotiation experiences, gender, cultural aspects and industry specific aspects. This has mainly been noticed during the writing of the results and discussion, since the scope of the current research allowed for assumptions rather than verifications. Hence the recommendation for further research would be to incorporate the limitations that have been pointed out, and in that manner build upon the findings of this research.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Interview Guide

Name:

Date:

Organisation:

Gender:

Legal Type:

Role:

Duration: Approximately 30 minutes

Location: Online / Firm location

Phase I: Open ended questions in relation to preparations

Phase II: Questionnaire regarding negotiation behaviour

Phase III: Questionnaire regarding negotiated outcomes

Phase IV: EI Questionnaire

Appendix B: EI Questionnaire

	Not applicable		Extremely Applicable				
Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Self-emotion appraisal (SEA)

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.

Others' emotion appraisal (OEA)

5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

Use of emotion (UOE)

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.

Regulation of emotion (ROE)

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

Score SEA: /28 OEA: /28 UOE:
 /28 ROE: /28 Total: /112
 Name: _____
 Organisation: _____ Date: __/__/____

Appendix C: Questions on Negotiation Preparations

1. Could you please broadly explain how you prepare for negotiations?

Introduce Peterson and Lucas' pre-negotiation framework

2. In what manner do you gather intelligence prior to the negotiation?
3. How do you formulate your goals and objectives prior to the negotiation? I.e. what are factors and parameters that you consider?
4. Based on this, how do you develop your strategy, i.e. what do you consider to be of importance?
5. What steps do you undertake in order to prepare for the negotiation?
6. With regards to the whole process of the negotiation, how much time do you invest in the preparation, and how important do you consider the preparation?
7. Could you provide an example where you experienced an advantage coming from your preparation?
8. Could you provide an example where your performance was negatively influenced by a lack of preparation?

Appendix D: Survey from Saorín-Iborra and Cubillo (2019)

Tactics	Frequency of usage					
	Never	Low	Medium-Low	Medium	Medium-High	High Very High
1. Intentionally misrepresent factual information to your opponent when you know that he/she has already done this to you.						
2. Intentionally misrepresent factual information to your opponent in order to support your negotiating arguments or position.						
3. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating position and strategy by "asking around" in a network of your friends, associates, and contacts.						
4. Make an opening demand that is far greater than what one really hopes to settle for.						
5. Hide your real bottom line from your opponent.						
6. Convey a false impression that you are in absolutely no hurry to come to a negotiation agreement, thereby trying to put more time pressure on your opponent to concede quickly.						
7. Make an opening offer or demand so high (or low) that it seriously undermines your opponent's confidence in his/her own ability to negotiate a satisfactory settlement.						
8. Lead the other negotiator to believe that they can only get what they want by negotiating with you, when in fact they could go elsewhere and get what they want cheaper or faster.						
9. Promise that good things will happen to your opponent if he/she gives you what you want, even if you know that you can't (or won't) deliver those good things when the other's cooperation is obtained.						
10. Threaten to harm your opponent if he/she doesn't give you what you want, even if you know you will never follow through to carry out that threat.						
11. Talk directly to the people who your opponent						
12. Threaten to make your opponent look weak or foolish in front of a boss or others to whom he/she is accountable.						
13. Talk directly to the people who your opponent reports to, or is accountable to, and tell them things that will undermine their confidence in your opponent as negotiator.						
14. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating position by paying friends, associates, and contacts to get this information for you.						
15. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating position by cultivating his/her friendship through expensive gifts, entertaining, or "personal favors".						
16. Ensure understanding of the counterpart's needs.						
17. Seek mutual satisfaction of negotiators.						
18. Ensure a positive and productive personal relationship.						
19. Free flow of information among negotiators.						
20. Trust the position and information of other negotiators.						
21. Participation of all parties in the decision making process.						
22. Questions (statement in which you asked the counterpart to reveal information about themselves).						
23. Explanations (statement in which you reveal information about any point required by the counterpart).						
24. Self- Disclosures (statement in which you revealed information about yourself).						

Appendix E: Survey from Curhan et al. 2006

	Not at all	Moderately	Perfectly							
Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6				
A. Feelings About the Instrumental Outcome										
1.	How satisfied are you with your own outcome—i.e., the extent to which the terms of your agreement (or lack of agreement) benefit you?									
2.	How satisfied are you with the balance between your own outcome and your counterpart(s) 's outcome(s)?									
3.	Did you feel like you forfeited or “lost” in this negotiation?									
4.	Do you think the terms of your agreement are consistent with principles of legitimacy or objective criteria (e.g., common standards of fairness, precedent, industry practice, legality, etc.)?									
B. Feelings About the Self										
5.	Did you “lose face” (i.e., damage your sense of pride) in the negotiation?									
6.	Did this negotiation make you feel more or less competent as a negotiator?									
7.	Did you behave according to your own principles and values?									
8.	Did this negotiation positively or negatively impact your self-image or your impression of yourself?									
C. Feelings About the Process										
9.	Do you feel your counterpart(s) listened to your concerns?									
10.	Would you characterise the negotiation process as fair?									
11.	How satisfied are you with the ease (or difficulty) of reaching an agreement?									
12.	Did your counterpart(s) consider your wishes, opinions, or needs?									
D. Feelings About the Relationship										
13.	What kind of “overall” impression did your counterpart(s) make on you?									
14.	How satisfied are you with your relationship with your counterpart(s) as a result of this negotiation?									
15.	Did the negotiation make you trust your counterpart(s)?									
16.	Did the negotiation build a good foundation for a future relationship with your counterpart(s)?									
Score A:			/28	B:			/28	C:		
/28	D:			/28	Total:			/112		