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**THE EFFECTS OF MACHIAVELLIANISM, PERSPECTIVE TAKING, AND
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPONENTS ON NEGOTIATION
STRATEGIES AND OUTCOMES**

A Thesis in

Psychology

by

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ABSTRACT

While some pop negotiation guides still claim that emotions have no business at the negotiation table, in the past decade, an increasing number of researchers have argued that emotions have a natural and functional role in negotiations and should therefore be given focus in the negotiation literature. This study examines four individual differences related to emotions (Machiavellianism, perspective taking, emotional understanding, and emotional management) and their effects on negotiation outcomes and strategy utilization at the individual and dyad level of analysis. It investigates which individual differences facilitate the use of emotional and cognitive negotiation tactics and which lead to higher levels of individual and joint gain, as well as viability and negotiation satisfaction. The study analyzes data collected from 88 undergraduate student dyads in a lab study that asked participants to negotiate with each other in the roles of job candidate or new manager. Results suggest that while Machiavellianism enabled the use of more distributive and emotional strategies, no other individual differences were related to negotiation outcomes or strategies. However, the use of integrative strategies led to higher levels of individual and joint gain, and males were found to perform better than females with regard to both negotiation outcomes and strategy utilization. Suggestions for future research on individual differences in negotiations are discussed as well as practical and theoretical implications of the research.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Although some pop negotiation guides still claim that emotions have no business at the negotiation table, in the past decade, an increasing number of researchers have argued that emotions have a natural and functional role in negotiations and in decision making (Adolphs & Damasio, 2001; Gray, 2003; Ogilvie & Carsky, 2002). Many negotiations that take place in everyday life and in the business world revolve around highly emotional issues, such as mergers and acquisitions, salaries, and the buying and selling of houses and cars. Emotions surface whether or not we are prepared for them (Fisher & Shapiro, 2005), and sometimes they can be useful in obtaining beneficial results for one or both parties. Although several aspects of emotions, such as positive and negative affect (Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990; Kumar, 1997), have been examined previously in the literature, there is still much to be learned regarding the benefits of emotional competence in negotiations, especially the rewards of using emotional strategies (Barry, 1999).

As researchers' attention to the role of emotions in the workplace has burgeoned (Judge & Ilies, 2004; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004; Totterdell, Wall, Holman, Diamond, & Epitropaki, 2004; Wright & Staw, 1999), it is important to investigate how emotions and emotional variables play a part in negotiations, which are defined as "the process by which parties with non-identical preferences allocate resources through interpersonal activity and joint decision making" (Barry & Oliver, 1996, p.127). As emotions have already been shown to be important in the bargaining context (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997; Friedman, Anderson, Brett, Olekalns, Goates & Lisco, 2004; Forgas, 1998; Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006), emotional intelligence (EI),

which is defined as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” (Salovey & Grewal, 2005), is the next logical topic of study. Although several articles have suggested that EI should be the focus of future research in the negotiation context (Butt, Choi, & Jaeger, 2005; Fulmer & Barry, 2004; Reilly, 2005), there is currently only one empirical study examining this relationship (Foo, Elfenbein, Tan, & Aik, 2004). Because their study was conducted with an Asian sample and utilized a collectivism-oriented EI measure (Wong & Law, 2002), results may not generalize across cultures.

Additionally, individual differences that are also related to emotions, such as Machiavellianism and perspective taking (PT), have not received enough attention in the literature even though they should play a prominent role in conflict resolution situations. The current study will focus on individual differences that have received limited attention in the negotiation literature, but have strong conceptual links to negotiation outcomes, specifically emotional management and understanding (components of EI), Machiavellianism, and perspective taking. To the author’s knowledge, this is the only empirical study to date that will examine these variables within the same study and focus on emotional management and emotional understanding in negotiations with an American sample (Foo, et al, 2004 used a Chinese sample). Furthermore, this research will test for direct links between individual differences and negotiation strategies as well as the negotiation payoffs earned by each individual participant and collective dyad. It will also incorporate the use of Machiavellianism as a moderator for several relationships between individual differences and individual gain. Knowing which individual differences play important roles in the negotiation process will allow organizations to better select appropriate personnel to handle such interactions. Therefore, the

practical implications of this study can inform selection and training decisions for negotiators or those who engage in bargaining on a regular basis (Fulmer & Barry, 2004).

This paper will first provide a review of the literature on negotiation and its components. Following, is an examination of the research focusing on the emotions-relevant variables of Machiavellianism, perspective taking, and EI components in negotiations. The last section of the literature review will focus on negotiation strategies, both emotional and cognitive, that have been previously examined. A segment follows the literature review that contains twelve hypotheses developed to predict the relationships between the individual difference variables of interest and the negotiation outcomes of joint and individual gain and negotiation strategies. A methodology section will outline the process by which these predictions will be tested. Finally, the results section will present the findings observed and a discussion section will provide explanations for the results, as well as discuss study limitations and implications.

Negotiations

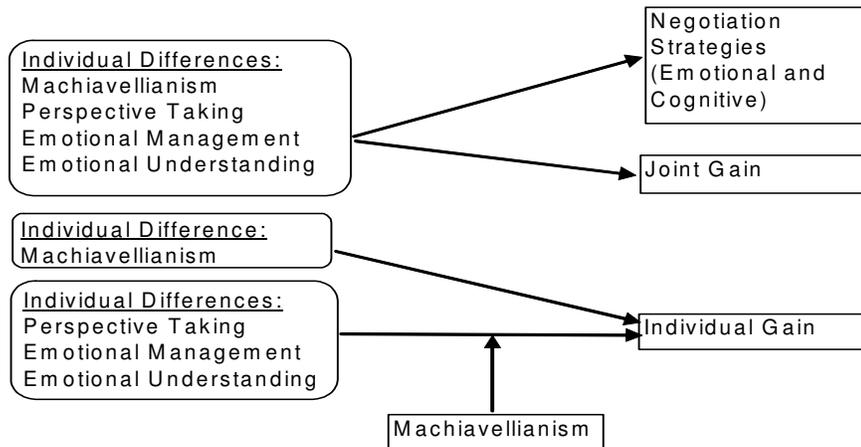
The term “negotiation” usually refers to a process of decision-making between two or more individuals who make mutual decisions about the allocation of certain resources (Pruitt, 1981; Thompson, 1990b). It is also a process for ascertaining shared interests and increasing joint payoffs when two parties need one another in order to reach desired goals (Johnson, 1993). Several characteristics of negotiation appear in the literature: a) people will believe that their interests are conflicting, b) there is a possibility for communication and cooperation, c) compromises and intermediate solutions can occur, d) there are offers and counteroffers, e) all parties must accept the terms and agreements, f) there must be at least two parties, and g) each party should have an understanding of their own and the other parties’ roles, interests, and needs (Johnson, 1993). Studies on negotiations are frequently conducted at the dyadic level (Butt,

Choi, & Jaeger, 2005; Fry, 1985; King & Hinson, 1994; Olekalns & Smith, 2003), though some researchers choose to focus on multi-party bargaining (Gillespie, Brett, Weingart, 2000; Susskind, Mnookin, Rozdeiczer, Fuller, 2005). Negotiations may be simple or complex, formal or informal, and quick or ongoing (Johnson, 1993; Thompson, 1990b). The issues to consider in all negotiations are the parties and their respective interests and the negotiation process and outcomes.

Although negotiation research has focused heavily on status power and roles (Anderson & Thompson, 2004; Greenhalgh, Neslin & Gilkey, 1985; Schei, Rognes, & Mykland, 2006; Van Kleef, De Dreu, Pietroni, & Manstead, 2006), cultural differences (Ma & Jaeger, 2005; Mintu-Wimsatt, 2002; Tinsley, 1998), and situational variables such as time pressure, physical barriers, and behavior sequencing (Adair & Brett, 2005; Carnevale & Isen, 1986; De Dreu, 2003; Fry, 1985), work on important individual differences in negotiation contexts has been lacking and inconsistent (e.g. Fry, 1985; Greenhalgh and Neslin, 1983; Huber & Neale, 1986; King & Hinson, 1994; Watson, 1994). Because of this gap in the negotiation literature, the personal characteristic variables of Machiavellianism, perspective taking, emotional management, and emotional understanding will be the focus of this study. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed relationship between individual differences and negotiation outcomes and behaviors. The variables included in the figure below will be discussed in detail in the sections to follow.

Figure 1

Title: The relationship between individual differences and negotiation strategies and outcomes.



Individual Differences and Negotiation

While there have been several attempts to establish the precise role of specific individual differences in negotiations, they have been fairly unsuccessful and have yielded inconsistent results (Wall & Blum, 1991). The reasons for the lack of valuable findings may be questionable methodology, poor variable measures, and a dubious choice of individual differences (Wall & Blum, 1991). Research has examined several personal characteristic variables, and though it can be concluded that they have some effect on the results of negotiations (Barry & Friedman, 1998; Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005; Cai, Wilson, & Drake, 2000; White, Tynan, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2004), the extent of these effects, the exact way in which they operate, and the importance of certain characteristics over others, is still in need of clarification.

Some of the variables previously examined include Machiavellianism, perspective taking, personality, collectivism, and individualism (Thompson, 1990b). Barry and Friedman (1998) discovered that extraversion and agreeableness may be harmful for distributive negotiations and this effect is stronger for those with low aspirations for the negotiation. They also found that conscientiousness was not related to any negotiation outcomes. In a study conducted by

Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, and Hair (1996), participants low in agreeableness were found to elicit more conflict from their opponents while highly agreeable people saw less conflict in interactions, liked their partners more, and rated them more favorably. However, Foo and colleagues (2004) found that none of the Big 5 personality traits were related to negotiation monetary gain. Summed collectivism of the negotiating dyad and individual seller collectivism both increased joint profit (Cai, Wilson, & Drake, 2000). More experienced negotiators make higher initial demands, fewer concessions, fewer offers in general, and claim more of the outcome for themselves at the expense of their partner (Thompson, 1990c).

Some other individual difference variables that have been examined include conciliatory predisposition, trusting nature, and risk-taking (Mintu-Wimsatt & Lozada, 1999), motivation orientation (Pullins, Haugtvedt, Dickson, Fine, & Lewiski, 2000), narcissism (Greenhalgh & Gilkey, 1997), equity sensitivity (King & Hinson, 1994) and face threat sensitivity (White, Tynan, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2004).

The four individual difference variables chosen for examination in this study are Machiavellianism, perspective taking, emotional management, and emotional understanding. While many other individual characteristic studies have shown insignificant findings and indirect effects (Barry & Friedman, 1998; Mintu-Wimsatt & Lozada, 1999), the selected variables show the most promise for being directly related to negotiation outcomes. Although the literature on these variables is scarce, the material currently available shows that these variables contribute significantly to individual or joint gain (Foo, et al., 2004; Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, & Smith, 2002; Huber & Neale, 1986; Kemp & Smith, 1994; Rubin & Brown, 1975), making them more important and beneficial to examine than variables that have previously failed to demonstrate

such relationships, such as narcissism (Greenhalgh & Gilkey, 1997) and risk-taking (Mintu-Wimsatt & Lozada, 1999).

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism refers to the tendency to be manipulative, detached, opportunistic, and exploitative of others and to seek self-interested goals (Mudrack & Mason, 1995). It is a personality trait based on characteristics highlighted in Machiavelli's "The Prince." Those high in Machiavellianism usually display higher levels of cynicism and believe that the end results justify the means (Gunnthorsdottir, et al., 2002). Machiavellians also have a tendency to discover the optimal strategies for any situation or interaction in order to aid their materialistic goals and to claim the most advantageous outcomes (Christie & Geis, 1970). They can also be cooperative when it is to their advantage (McHoskey, 1995) and will be more likely than non-Machiavellians to lie and cheat to reach their goals (Christie & Geis, 1970; Kleinman, Palmon, & Lee, 2003).

High Machiavellians, in theory, should make the perfect candidates for negotiations (especially distributive ones) because they exploit the other party to claim the largest piece of the pie, while being wary of the other side's every move to reciprocate their behavior (Gunnthorsdottir, et al., 2002). Therefore, Machiavellianism has been the focus of several negotiation studies and has been demonstrated to be relevant in predicting bargaining outcomes (Fry, 1985; Rubin & Brown, 1975). Studies usually identify those that are high on Machiavellianism as "high Machs" and those that are low on the characteristic as "low Machs". While high Machs are controlling and competitive, low Machs tend to demonstrate the qualities of warmth, cooperation, and distractibility, making them easily susceptible to the impact of emotional arousal. Since high Machs are capable of escalating an emotional situation, a dyad consisting of a low and a high Mach personality would be especially interesting to examine (Fry,

1985). Christie and Geis (1970) demonstrated that high Machs perform better in highly emotional situations while low Machs suffered losses. Therefore, Machiavellianism is an individual difference with an emotional basis since those who possess the trait are able to manipulate an emotional situation as well as the emotions of others.

In the literature, Machiavellianism has been studied mostly in the context of various interpersonal interactions and performance. Machiavellianism has been found to be unrelated to intelligence and grade point average and inversely related to job satisfaction (Wilson, Near, & Miller, 1996). High Machs also earn twice as many commissions as low Machs when in a loosely structured organization (Shultz, 1993), exhibit better sales performance (Aziz, 2005), and lie more effectively and convincingly than low Machs (Geis & Moon, 1981). Managers exhibiting the trait reported more perceived job role conflict and ambiguity than managers low on Machiavellianism (Hollon, 1996). However, for participants who report high job involvement, Machiavellianism leads to higher levels of sales and profit earned (Gable & Dangelo, 1994). It seems to increase as one gets older until late adolescence and then declines (Gupta, 1986) and is slightly more prominent in males than in females (Brown & Guy, 1983; Rosenthal, 1978).

In the negotiation context, Machiavellianism has been found to increase the likelihood of taking advantage of one's opponent to claim all of the gain (Gunnthorsdottir, et al., 2002), predict self-set goals for achieving higher payoffs, and increase negotiation profit outcomes (Huber & Neale, 1986). Gunnthorsdottir and colleagues examined Machiavellianism in a "\$10 Trust Game" that involved participants passing a sum of money back and forth as it increased in value. The highly Machiavellian players defected most of the time when it was to their advantage, claiming all of the money and leaving their partners with nothing. The current study

differs in that it examines Machiavellianism in a more traditional negotiation setting with multiple issues that are comprised of integrative, distributive, and compatible components, which is closer to the type of negotiation problems encountered in real life. High Machs also tend to claim more resources than do non-Machiavellian bargainers (Fry, 1985; Huber & Neale, 1986). Fry (1985) manipulated negotiating dyads' visual access to each other with the use of visual barriers and examined the effects of dyad composition in terms of Machiavellianism levels. He focused on the outcome of joint gain at the dyad level of analysis and found that the composition of a low and high Mach was the worst combination for achieving joint gain. The current study takes this a step further by focusing on the individual level of analysis as well. Huber and Neale (1986) focused on examining goals and goal-setting in the negotiation context instead of focusing on Machiavellianism, which nevertheless predicted higher self-set goals and performance in a 3-issue integrative negotiation. The authors only examined average profit across the negotiation transactions, while the current study will look at individual and joint profit separately as well as investigate individual and dyadic level individual differences.

High Machiavellians are less affected by emotions (Forgas, 1998), and have a lower chance of beneficial future negotiation relationships (Wilson, et al, 1996). Wastell and Booth (2003) elaborate on the failure of high Machs to be sensitive to emotion by demonstrating that those high in the characteristic also score high on measures of alexithymia, which is a disconnection with one's own emotions. Therefore, emotional situations should not affect high Machs as much as they would low Machs, especially since the same study showed that Machiavellianism is related to difficulty in identifying feelings. This also implies that while an emotional situation may be detrimental or stressful to low Mach individuals, those high in

Machiavellianism are better able to handle the emotional situation and take control of it since it does not affect them negatively.

The nature of the dyad composition might also help explain some of the effects of Machiavellianism in negotiations. For example, Fry (1985) found that dyads that consisted of one low Mach and one high Mach earned the lowest joint outcomes than any other dyad combination, saw their partner as being more unyielding than other dyads, and demonstrated little liking toward their opponent. According to Wilson and colleagues (1996), the way in which individuals usually respond to Machiavellian behavior in a negotiation is to adopt a tit-for-tat strategy, retaliate with their own opportunistic tactics, or simply leave the table and break the negotiation.

Perspective Taking

Another individual difference that has only recently been incorporated into the negotiation literature is perspective taking (PT), which is defined as the ability to “adopt multiple perspectives when making judgments” (Goreflo & Crano, 1998, p. 163). A more detailed definition provided by Johnson (1975) is as follows:

Taking the perspective of another person is the ability to understand how a situation appears to another person and how that person is reacting cognitively and emotionally to the situation. It is the ability to put oneself in the place of others and recognize that other individuals may have points of view different from one’s own (p. 241).

Perspective taking has been examined in several contexts in the literature and it has recently begun to gain more attention from the research community, though much additional work is needed. Perspective taking has been found to decrease stereotyping and in-group favoritism (Galinsky & Ku, 2004; Vescio, Sechrist, & Paolucci, 2003), increase student achievement outcomes such as social studies grades (Gehlbach, 2004), and facilitate group performance (Reimer, 2001). Additionally, it has been shown that PT declines in older

individuals (Pratt, Diessner, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 1996). PT facilitates speech comprehension due to the effective recognition and usage of common ground with an audience (Krauss & Fussell, 1991). Oswald (2003) found that perspective taking ability predicts the volunteerism in an ethnically diverse sample of working adults and that perspective taking had discriminate validity with empathy.

Perspective taking has also been linked to emotions in previous research. For instance, Mohr, Howells, Gerace, Day and Wharton (2007) found that those who were higher on dispositional perspective taking were also less likely to express the emotion of anger and were more successful in controlling it. Therefore, having the ability to take another individual's perspective into account helps one to manage anger in stressful situations.

According to Gehlbach (2004) and Paese and Yonker (2001), PT is considered to be a crucial factor in conflict resolution ability, though a lack of empirical work makes this prediction difficult to confirm. One of the only studies conducted on perspective taking (PT) in negotiations shows that PT can be very salient when the opposing party's information and priorities are not disclosed directly (Kemp & Smith, 1994), such as when parties do not show their payoff tables to each other. Higher levels of PT (both individually measured and the dyad mean) increased joint profit. However, artificially priming participants to engage in perspective taking by telling them that they should look at the issues from the other person's perspective had no effect on joint gain. This finding leads to the conclusion that PT is an individual difference that cannot be easily changed or manipulated (Kemp & Smith, 1994). Although the construct of PT is still in its early stages, it fits conceptually into the negotiation context, especially since knowing the other party's position can help facilitate cooperative and integrative bargaining. This study, however, did not examine other individual differences that may explain the results and did not cover the breath of

negotiation outcomes such as individual gain and the usage of negotiation strategies, which are variables that the current study will address.

Emotions in Negotiations

Although the emotional variables of interest in this study are strategic components of emotional intelligence and emotions-related individual differences, it is first necessary to illustrate the importance of emotions in general in the negotiation context. Numerous studies have established that emotions can play a significant role in the negotiation process (Allred, et al., 1997; Friedman, et al., 2004; Gray, 2003). Kumar (1997) specifically states that positive affect in negotiations can increase liking of one's opponent, produce more creative solutions, increase concession making, promote joint gain, and lessen hostility, but can also detract from a "tough bargainer" image and make the individual more easily persuadable. Displaying negative affect, on the other hand, can indicate that a possible norm violation has occurred to one's opponent, can strengthen the "tough bargainer" image, and may promote more concession making from one's opponent, but may also increase hostility, raise the chance of an impasse, add more tension and anxiety, and also enhance the possibility of anger or retaliation from one's opponent. According to Daly (1991), anger serves the additional function of enhancing information processing and goal orientation, making threats credible, and sending the message to an opponent to drop a certain tactic. Furthermore, Adler, Rosen, and Silverstein (1998) state that fear and anger are the most intense and possibly most detrimental emotions in negotiations since they can cloud one's objectivity and narrow one's focus towards retaliation instead of toward one's goals.

In addition, several empirical studies have identified a number of interesting effects of emotions in negotiation. For instance, high anger and low compassion led to less desire to work

with one's opponent in the future and lessened joint gains (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997). Participants were more likely to ensure future business dealings, reach an agreement, and make larger concessions when their opponent displayed positive affect (Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006). Butt, Choi, and Jaeger (2005) found that expressions of gratitude increased yielding behavior and joint gains for the dyad more so than other expressed emotions such as anger, shame, and pride. In a study using electronic negotiation with a programmed opponent, Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004) discovered that participants conceded more to the angry, programmed opponent, but affect did not matter when the opponent made large concessions. Moreover, they found that subjects conceded more to angry opponents when there was low time pressure, but affect had no impact under high time pressure. Pillutla and Murnighan (1996), on the other hand, discovered that an opponent's expression of anger influenced rejection of ultimatum offers even when they were economically beneficial. Similarly, in a study by Friedman, and colleagues (2004), expressions of anger induced anger in one's opponent as well and led to lower overall resolution rates.

Forgas (1998) and Carnevale and Isen (1986) established that participants in a positive mood used cooperative strategies and those in a negative mood used competitive strategies. The results of Forgas's study also show that those in a positive mood produced more successful outcomes. Conceptually, Hollingshead & Carnevale (1990) propose that people with positive affect will be more risk averse during negotiation because they have more to lose (loss of negotiation outcomes and loss of their positive feelings). Thompson, Nadler, and Kim (1999) suggest that those experiencing positive affect will generate solutions that are more imaginative and creative than those who experience neutral or negative affect.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence has gained immense press (both positive and negative) since the term was first coined in 1990 by Mayer and Salovey. EI became the more prominent new concept in the business world after Goleman (1995) claimed that it is more important than cognitive ability in predicting success and leadership. Recent business trends show an increase of attention to EI to predict success, performance, promotions, leadership and other work-related outcomes without much regard given to the lack of scientific evidence for such claims (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). One of the reasons for its popularity may be that unlike cognitive ability, many assume that EI can be coached and trained, although there is currently no solid scientific evidence for this claim (Zeidner, Roberts, & Matthews, 2002). Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) state that EI satisfies the qualifications of being considered an intelligence because it displays appropriate criterion behavior such as development over time and being distinct from other intelligences.

The most scientific and reliable model for EI today is the ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1990) which consists of four dimensions (perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions). Perceiving emotions alludes to deciphering and detecting emotions in self and others. Using emotions relates to utilizing emotions to assist with cognitive tasks such as problem solving. Understanding emotions refers to the ability to comprehend emotional language and how emotions evolve, while managing emotions implies their regulation in order to achieve certain goals (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). The four branches also fall into one of two sub-branches of EI. Experiential EI consists of perceiving and using emotions while the strategic EI sub-branch contains the understanding emotions and managing emotions dimensions. The strategic component of EI would be most useful in a negotiation context because one has to

understand and act on a complex emotional situation to achieve observable results instead of just identifying and thinking about the emotions. Ogilvie and Carsky (2002) mention that “the key to success [in negotiations] is to be aware of the emotional components, to understand their roles, and to manage them” (p. 382). Therefore, the strategic component of the ability model of EI will be focused on in this research.

Fulmer and Barry (2004) provide a theoretical framework for the role that EI would play in negotiations. They suggest that as opposed to cognitive ability, which only influences information acquisition and decision making in negotiations, EI influences information acquisition, decision making, attempting emotional tactics, and inducing others’ emotions. Specifically, negotiators high in EI will use emotions to gain a deeper understanding of their opponent’s interests and then manipulate the situation with the appropriate emotions in order to increase individual or joint gain. Another theoretical piece by Ryan (2006) emphasizes the importance of using EI to gain rewarding negotiation outcomes. She states that emotions can be an ether (an inevitable truth), obstacle, episteme (medium for information), or instrument in negotiation, and that an experienced negotiator “uses her emotional skill to mitigate undesired emotions and engender preferred emotions: to soothe, bolster, win respect, build trust, and encourage creativity” (p. 213). Kumar (1997) also provides a review of the effect of positive and negative emotions and the pros and cons of displaying both. He notes that EI would be a “natural advantage” in negotiations due to the ability of those high in EI to be able to determine the appropriate emotions needed in a particular negotiation situation and to display the correct ones accordingly.

Emotional intelligence has been examined within several frameworks, such as within the context of social relationships. For example, Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) found that

managing emotions positively related to satisfaction with social relationships, positive relationships, perceived parental support, and less negative social interactions. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) state that those who are high on the managing emotions branch of EI are more liked and valued by their peers. EI has also been found to relate to empathy and SAT scores (Mayer & Geher, 1996), life satisfaction and mood management (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000), agreeableness and abstract reasoning ability (Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004), anagram problem solving ability (Schutte, Schuettpelez, & Malouff, 2000), and to less deviant behavior (Salovey & Grewal, 2005) and aggression (Rubin, 1999).

Those who possess a high level of EI were found to be more likely to emerge as leaders (Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002). EI also compensates for low cognitive ability in job performance (Cote & Miners, 2006), and collective group EI was found to heighten performance in a team (Jordan & Troth, 2004). Women tend to score higher on most EI measures (Goldenberg, Matheson, & Mantler, 2006), as do older individuals (McEnrue & Groves, 2006).

Finally, the only empirical study conducted on EI in negotiations (Foo et al., 2004) found that those negotiating dyads with at least one member who was high in EI yielded higher joint gain for the pair, though EI did not help the emotionally capable person to individually claim a higher portion of that gain. Therefore, EI was positively related to joint gain but negatively to individual gain. Dyads with high EI persons in them also reported more positive negotiation experiences. The negotiation task utilized in the study involved a transaction between two companies and contained four issues, which included distributive, compatible, and integrative components. The negotiation was scored based on a payoff table provided to each participant and scores for the dyad were added together to form a joint gain score. A week after their negotiation, participants completed emotional intelligence, empathy, and personality measures.

The experiment was conducted with an all-Asian student sample using Wong and Law's (2002) self-report emotional intelligence measure. In contrast to the study described above, the current study will employ an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence components as opposed to a self-report version, and use a predominantly American sample, in addition to incorporating other individual differences such as PT and Machiavellianism, and considering the usage of negotiation strategies as an outcome.

Negotiation Strategies

There have been many bargaining strategies identified in the literature, and two main categories of negotiation tactics have emerged: cognitive-based strategies and emotion-based strategies (Barry, 1999). Cognitive tactics include soft bargaining, hard bargaining, tit-for-tat, principled bargaining, logrolling, and information usage (Johnson, 1993). Soft bargainers get ahead by being agreeable, flexible and well-liked in order to inspire generosity and concessions in return for their polite and pleasant interactions. Soft negotiators may act in this pleasant manner because it is reflective of their personality or they may understand that there are clear advantages of adopting this strategy and purposely appear agreeable in order to gain payoffs from the other party. These bargainers use their established relationship with the other side as a basis for trading and to inspire sympathy. Hard bargainers, on the other hand, are known for their tough image and liberally employ tactics such as applying pressure, fear, force, and intimidation. They also emphasize power in their interactions and use ultimatums such as "take it or leave" in order to receive benefits. These negotiators appear strong and intimidating, but they must come across as credible to be able to make threats successfully.

Tit-for-tat bargaining refers to reciprocal negotiation in which each party makes concessions if the other party does the same. It is fair and rational and is not as extreme as hard

or soft bargaining. This strategy is cautious and attempts to remove emotions or personality characteristics from the negotiations. It is based on the foundation of trading and assumes mutual cooperation, predictability, and low risks. However, with this strategy, walking away with all of one's desired payoffs is rare. Principled bargaining consists of strategies based on a game plan developed by negotiation theorists (such as *Getting to Yes* by Fisher & Ury, 1981) that is designed to promote bargaining success in any situation against any type of opponent. These principles claim that if followed correctly, they will bring about win-win solutions and promote well-thought-out, objective, and equitable negotiation practices, such as generating options for mutual gain (Johnson, 1993).

Logrolling, another example of a popular cognitive strategy, refers to making tradeoffs with one's negotiation partner so that each party obtains as many of their preferences as possible. For example, if one party values issue "A" more so than issue "B," the second party may allow them to claim all the payoffs for issue "A" in exchange for all the rewards for issue "B." Therefore, both parties get exactly what they want and what is most important to them. Finally, there is the tactic of intentional use of information. Deal (2000) discovered that negotiators are more likely to use this strategy in a competitive negotiation. Participants reported using this tactic less than they were actually observed to do, indicating a possible unawareness of its utilization or a failure to report the strategy. For the purposes of this paper, the strategies described above will be referred to as cognitive strategies since they involve the use of reason and information, as opposed to emotional tactics, which will be discussed next. Furthermore, cognitive strategies can be further divided into distributive and integrative strategies. Distributive strategies are competitive and manipulative in nature and usually involve tactics such as hard

bargaining and withholding information. On the other hand, integrative strategies are more cooperative in nature, and include tactics such as logrolling, soft bargaining, and tit-for-tat.

Although there has been only minimal previous interest in emotional management in negotiation (Barry, 1999), the idea of using emotions as a negotiation strategy has recently surfaced in a number of studies (Kumar, 1997; Ogilvie & Carsky, 2002). The strategic use of emotions generally refers to the knowledge of the appropriate moments to express and suppress certain emotions, as well as knowing the amount and form of expression necessary (Kumar, 1997). Although several emotional negotiation strategies have been proposed in the literature, they have not been empirically tested. Some possible problems with the measurement of emotional tactics are that people may not be fully aware of their own or other people's emotions, leading them to misunderstand or fail to notice emotional tactics, or to be unable to perform them (Thompson, Medvec, Seiden, & Kopelman, 2001). For this reason, emotional intelligence is the first step to being able to successfully carry out emotional tactics and recognize such attempts by others. A negotiator who is emotionally skilled can use this information to portray positive emotions and therefore foster a more pleasant and financially beneficial negotiating environment (Barry, 1999).

Possibly the best and most cohesive discussion of emotional strategies in negotiation comes from Barry (1999). He relates the use of emotions in negotiation as voluntary manipulation tactics. Specifically, emotional tactics can alter the intensity of one's own or others' emotions, mask certain unwanted emotions, and/or substitute them for desired ones. Examples of these emotional strategies are pretending to be furious with one's partner, falsely responding with enthusiasm to a partner's remark, and making the other party think that one is sad and having a bad day.

Negotiation Characteristics and Outcomes

There are two types of negotiations identified in the literature: distributive and integrative. According to Thompson (1990b), a distributive scenario refers to a fixed-sum situation (one person's loss is the other person's gain) where there exists a conflict of interests and interests are not compatible. Integrative negotiations, on the other hand, are more common in real life situations and contain the potential for both parties to jointly profit from the transaction. Integrative situations are also variable-sum because they can improve the outcomes of all parties participating due to the compatibility of some interests. Integrative bargaining also fosters better relationships with the other parties present and helps bring about an agreement when a distributive task may have ended in an impasse. The nature of a negotiation scenario can fall anywhere between the two extremes of pure conflict situations, where the parties' interests are perfectly negatively related, and pure coordination, where the parties' interests are perfectly compatible (Thompson, 1990b). Real bargaining situations usually fall somewhere in the middle range of the spectrum, such as integrative or variable-sum situations, though distributive negotiations are closer to the pure conflict side of the continuum.

Negotiations can end in an impasse, which is a failure to reach an agreement, or in an agreement acknowledged by all parties. There is, however, significant variability within mutual agreements and many solutions are not optimal. Outcomes are often broken down into individual gain (distribution of resources for each party) and joint gain (distribution of resources for all parties combined). Joint gain is sometimes referred to as creating value while individual gain is referred to as claiming value (Foo, et al., 2004). Distributive situations lead negotiators to attempt to maximize their own individual outcomes because there are no compatible interests and most situations are single-issue, buyer-seller scenarios. For example, if an individual wants

to buy a couch at a garage sale, the buyer will try to drive the price down and the seller will attempt to make the buyer pay a higher price. In this situation, either the buyer or seller gives in or there is a compromise and each leaves with less than their desired outcome. Integrative solutions, on the other hand, usually increase joint gain as they offer each party more than would a pure compromise. In a classic example of integrative bargaining, two sisters argue over how to split an orange. One needs the peel to bake a cake and the other needs the juice and the pulp (Follett, 1940, as cited in Thompson, 1990a). If the sisters would split the orange in half, neither would get as much as they would if one took all of the peel and the other took all the pulp. This is the cornerstone of integrative bargaining: finding compatible issues and cooperating in a way to maximize each party's gain. Not all integrative tasks yield integrative solutions however, and bargainers need to understand the task in order to use appropriate tactics to arrive at a cooperative solution.

Hypothesis Development: Negotiation Strategies

Machiavellianism. Christie and Geis (1970) outlined the conditions under which Machiavellianism would have the most salience in negotiations, including the presence of face-to-face interaction, opportunities for innovative solutions, and an emotionally charged atmosphere. Since the proposed negotiation task will include all three of these conditions, I expect that Machiavellianism will have a direct influence on all negotiation outcomes tested. According to Harrell (1980), Hegarty and Sims (1979), and Vecchio and Sussmann (1991), those high in Machiavellianism are much more likely to use exploitative tactics than low Machs. The characteristic of high Machiavellianism in itself dictates the usage of negotiation strategies high in manipulation such as deliberately deceiving negotiating opponents (Geis & Moon, 1981; Kleinman, Palmon, & Lee, 2003). Since high Machs are opportunistic, they are capable of using

a wide variety of tactics, including soft and hard bargaining. Although more comfortable in a competitive atmosphere, high Machs have also been known to feign cooperation when it is to their advantage to do so (Kleinman, Palmon, & Lee, 2003). The Machiavellian personality would be more appropriate for the use of cognitive strategies than emotional ones because high Machs have been identified as sometimes having trouble identifying their own and other's emotions (if they are not emotionally intelligent) and show a disconnection with them (Wastell & Booth, 2003). Since they are hardly affected by emotions (Forgas, 1998) and cannot handle them effectively, but are fully capable of using cognitive manipulation, I propose that Machiavellianism will work to enhance the usage of cognitive rather than emotional negotiation strategies. To further break down the predicted usage of cognitive strategies, high Machiavellians should be more comfortable using the distributive type of cognitive strategies which emphasize competitiveness, and the usage of power, threats, and facts versus needs or interests (Olekalns, Brett, & Weingart, 2004). This fits with their manipulative personality and their unwillingness to cooperate unless it is necessary. However, since the negotiation task at hand is not purely cooperative, Machiavellian negotiators can still succeed by employing the more competitive and opportunistic cognitive tactics such as information withholding, deliberate deception and hard bargaining. Due to the variety of strategic possibilities available to high Machs, I propose that highly Machiavellian negotiators will choose to engage in distributive cognitive tactics most frequently in order to manipulate and deceive their partners for their own benefit.

H1a: An individual's level of Machiavellianism will be positively related to the usage of distributive cognitive strategies

Perspective Taking. The advantages associated with PT should also enable the usage of certain negotiation tactics. For example, PT can enable logrolling if the individual gathers

through their perception abilities that one issue is more important to his/her opponent while knowing that a different one is more important to themselves. Those high in PT are at an advantage for cooperative potential within the negotiating dyad due to their perceptiveness and sensitivity to the subtle information relayed by other parties. Also, since the notion behind this individual difference is that the desires of the other party are important (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005), it should be more likely that those who possess this trait would engage in more integrative bargaining strategies that would benefit both parties. Those high in PT attempt to cooperate with, sympathize with, and understand other people, leading to a greater potential for fair and principled bargaining and for employing cooperative tactics such as logrolling and soft bargaining. Although it is possible that those high in PT would employ either distributive tactics if they were opportunistic (i.e. Machiavellian) or emotional strategies if they were high on emotional management or understanding, as a main effect relationship, PT should be highly related to integrative cognitive strategies that focus on the needs and desires of the dyad (Olekalns, Brett, & Weingart, 2004).

H1b: An individual's level of perspective taking will be positively related to the usage of integrative cognitive strategies

Emotional Management and Emotional Understanding. According to Barry (1999), the expression or suppression of certain emotions can be used tactfully in a negotiating context. However, he indicates that this strategy has some prerequisites, specifically in the form of emotional capabilities. Emotional control, or emotional management, emotional expressiveness (Barry 1999), and emotional understanding (Opengart, 2005) all facilitate and enable the emotional labor process, which in turn serves as a negotiation strategy. If an individual is emotionally intelligent, he/she can engage in faking certain emotions in order to attain desired

outcomes. For instance, one who understands emotions and is capable of accurately expressing them may opt to simulate an angry or upset reaction to an opponent's offer even though the offer was satisfactory in order to acquire even larger concessions.

Another way in which emotional tactics may help bargaining results is by inducing certain moods in the other parties. For example, it may be beneficial to promote a positive mood in the other party because the literature has shown that negotiators in positive moods are better at determining creative solutions that would benefit the joint gain outcomes of the interaction (Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006; Kumar, 1997). According to Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) and Opengart (2005), emotional intelligence is a necessary step prior to engaging in effective emotional labor. This is due to the notion that emotional intelligence on its own, is an ability, not a behavior. If one possesses emotional intelligence, it does not necessarily guarantee an overt usage of the skills that are associated with the ability. However, if one has a solid understanding of emotions and is aware of how to manage them, he/she can effectively engage in emotional strategies, which would be the behavioral outcome of the abilities. The emotional negotiation strategies described by Barry (1999) focus heavily on emotional labor in that faking or suppression of emotions is critical. Therefore, I propose a direct relationship between one's level of emotional understanding and emotional management and the usage of emotional strategies. Emotional management would be very closely related to the deliberate expression of emotion as a negotiation strategy because being able to display certain emotions voluntarily as well as inducing them in others is necessary to correctly engage in this behavior. For example, an individual must be capable of correctly displaying a positive mood via facial expressions and verbal dialogue in order to be able to portray those appropriate emotions. Knowing how others will react emotionally to specific stimuli will help negotiators choose which emotional strategies

are most appropriate to employ. For instance, if a negotiator understands that showing positive regard toward another will in turn induce reciprocal positive emotions in the target individual, the emotionally-skilled negotiator may choose to approach their partner in a friendly and open matter, or use humor in order to break the ice and put their opponent in a positive mood where they will be most likely to want to maintain that mood by being cooperative or providing concessions (Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990).

H1c: An individual's level of emotional understanding will be positively related to the usage of emotional strategies

H1d: An individual's level of emotional management will be positively related to the usage of emotional strategies

Hypothesis Development: Individual Gain

Machiavellianism. Machiavellianism has been shown to have an effect on negotiation payoffs in past literature. For example, those high in Machiavellianism claimed greater individual gain in a variety of negotiation tasks (Fry, 1985; Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, & Smith, 2002; Huber & Neale, 1986). Since high Machs are opportunistic and competitive, it should be natural for them to claim a higher portion of the payoffs because they are driven towards maximizing their own gain at the expense of others (Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, & Smith, 2002; Mudrack & Mason, 1995). Therefore, high Machs would be able to manipulate their negotiation partners in ways that would be ultimately beneficial for themselves.

H2a: An individual's level of Machiavellianism will be positively related to individual gain

Perspective Taking. Although perspective taking is still in the early stages of development and clarification, its focus is on interpersonal relations and interacting with others

(Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005). Because there is not much information on how PT operates within individuals, there is no clear evidence to support a main effect hypothesis between PT and individual gain. Examining PT and Machiavellianism together would be an interesting way of explaining the PT and individual gain relationship. Since those who are high in Machiavellianism usually aim toward satisfying only themselves and their competitive nature would not promote much concern for or attempts to understand others, it would be expected that PT and Machiavellianism would be negatively correlated. However, there may be an interaction effect between PT and Machiavellianism such that having a high level of Machiavellianism would cause an individual who knows how to take the perspective of others to claim a large portion of the profit. Those with a high level of PT have the ability to use verbal and non-verbal cues in order to effectively understand another individual's position and needs, in essence enhancing the quantity and quality of information received from a negotiating partner. For those high in Machiavellianism, PT would be a great advantage because it would provide the negotiator with additional information and insight into the other party's situation and payoff table (Kemp & Smith, 1994), making it easier to exploit and manipulate him/her. Without the added benefit of PT, negotiators may not have as good of an idea about which components of the negotiation would be more financially beneficial for them to pursue. For example, possessing a high level of PT would indicate to a negotiator if certain issues are more important and valuable to their partners than others. If the negotiator is also Machiavellian, this type of knowledge opens up doors for manipulative behaviors that increase one's individual gain. Thompson (1990c) found that negotiators may use a compatible portion of a negotiation task (an issue on which both parties' interests are completely in line) as a bargaining tool by pretending that they want the opposite of what their opponent wants and then "giving in" to their opponent, meanwhile

obtaining the same outcome as their partner because the issue was compatible. Then the negotiator can use the argument that they conceded to their opponent on the last issue and that the partners should now concede on the next issue in return. In addition, those with high PT and Machiavellianism may be able to feign compassion and understanding for the other party in order to obtain more concessions, which also increases individual gain.

H2b: The relationship between an individual's level of perspective taking and individual gain will be moderated by Machiavellianism such that higher levels of Machiavellianism will lead to higher individual gain.

Emotional Intelligence Components. Since studies focusing on emotional intelligence in negotiation have examined the concept as a whole as opposed to individual components (Foo, et al., 2004), the impact of the branches of emotional understanding and emotional management as separate concepts have not been previously considered. Nevertheless, both of these components may serve a unique role in achieving payoffs in negotiation. Specifically, it would be difficult to manage one's own emotions as well as the emotions of one's negotiating partner when one does not have an adequate understanding of what emotions are currently at play and how they can evolve (Opengart, 2005). Therefore, although the final negotiation outcomes should be similar for both emotional understanding and emotional management, the reasons behind the relationships need to be individually explained.

It is difficult to argue for a main effect relationship between emotional management or emotional understanding and individual gain, especially since the only empirical article to examine EI in negotiations discovered results that contradicted the authors' hypothesized relationship. Although, Foo and colleagues (2004) proposed that those possessing high EI would claim greater individual gain, results indicated that they earned less. Some of the arguments

made in their hypothesis development discussion, however, could be interpreted to include Machiavellianism as a moderating variable. Foo and colleagues argued that those high in EI would be able to increase individual gain by using emotional cues. For instance, high EI negotiators can see when their partner is satisfied and not offer more payoffs to them after that point or see if they have demanded too much and have made their partner unhappy. If their partner is satisfied, emotionally competent negotiators can then aim to increase their own payoffs through means such as evoking norms of reciprocity and only appearing satisfied when they have reached their outcome goal. High EI can foster a positive environment and positive affect in the other party, which can lead the negotiating partner to make more concessions and therefore increase the individual gain of the emotionally competent negotiator (Fulmer & Barry, 2004; Kumar, 1997; Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006). It seems that there are hints of manipulation and deception embedded in these proposed behaviors such that Machiavellianism may be a driving force in strengthening or weakening the relationship between emotional intelligence and individual gain. If the behaviors exhibited by emotionally competent negotiators are indeed stemming from manipulative and competitive personality characteristics (such as that of Machiavellians), then adding Machiavellianism as a moderator variable may clarify the relationship between emotional intelligence components and individual gain.

Emotional Understanding. Emotional understanding is similar to perspective taking in that it allows the negotiators to obtain clues about their partner. However, while perspective taking focuses more on the cognitive aspect of understanding one's partner by looking into their mind (Epley, Caruso, & Bazerman, 2006), emotional understanding focuses on the emotional cues that the other party displays, such as slight changes in facial expression that may signify that a norm violation was made or that the current offer is unfavorable. Individuals who are

competent in emotional understanding may also use their ability to determine what kinds of actions would lead to specific emotional responses such as happiness and what the consequences of those emotions would be (Reilly, 2005). One distinguishing feature of emotional understanding is the ability to grasp slight variations in emotional information such as facial expressions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). It has been found that emotions play a significant role in negotiation proceedings even though many still try to hide them (Allred, et al., 1997; Barry, 1999; Gray, 2003). Therefore, glimpses of emotional reactions may be seen as the other party's attempts to hide their true feelings. For instance, if a negotiator who demonstrates high levels of emotional understanding sees that their partner's face tenses up or that they frown slightly at the mention of a certain component of the negotiation task, he/she might understand that the particular issue may be more important to their partner and may use it to offer a slight concession on that issue in exchange for one from the partner.

It is important to note that as a construct, emotional understanding is not laced with opportunistic undertones. It is usually described as a deeper understanding of how emotions arise due to certain situations, how they evolve within the situation, and what their consequences are (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Using this ability for one's individual gain would require the negotiator to have a competitive and cunning mindset, much like that of a high Machiavellian. Zeidner, Roberts, and Matthews (2002) mentioned that increasing one's emotional intelligence if one has a low level of empathy can lead to a highly manipulative personality combination. Therefore, a person who is both Machiavellian and exhibits high emotional understanding would have a great advantage when it comes to claiming individual gain. They have the ability to understand how their partner is feeling and to know what actions would alter those feelings, while being motivated to use emotional information to obtain more profit for themselves. Thus, I

propose that Machiavellianism will moderate the relationship between emotional understanding and individual gain so that those high in Machiavellianism may use emotional understanding to achieve higher individual outcomes.

H2c: The relationship between an individual's level of emotional understanding and individual gain will be moderated by Machiavellianism such that higher levels of Machiavellianism will lead to higher individual gain

Emotional Management. Emotional management can also be particularly useful for obtaining higher levels of individual profit. Those who are competent at emotional management can control the emotions that they express as well as promote the experience of certain emotions in others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Hence, those who possess high levels of emotional management skills could appear angry or upset in order to obtain more concessions from their partner or promote positive emotions in their partner in order to achieve similar outcomes of increased individual gain. As is the case with emotional understanding, emotional management is not a construct based on manipulation and selfishness, but rather on emotional development and reflection (Reilly, 2005). However, although it is difficult to predict how this ability would play out in a direct relationship with individual gain, using Machiavellianism as a moderator may better explain some of the possible outcomes for those who manage their emotions well. For example, if negotiators skilled in emotional management are also high on Machiavellianism, they would be able to manage their own emotions in such a way as to seem either unhappy with the negotiation progress in order to gain the other party's sympathy, or to falsely display signs of positive affect in order to create a pleasant negotiating environment. This displayed positive affect would be helpful to the negotiator since previous literature states that creating a pleasant environment aids in obtaining concessions from one's opponent (Forgas, 1998; Kopelman,

Rosette, & Thompson, 2006). Negotiators possessing high levels of emotional management ability and Machiavellianism may also be able to induce positive emotions in their opponent to make them feel like the negotiation is going in their favor when it actually is not. Overall, those who possess this emotional ability, along with a Machiavellian personality, should be at an advantage to sway the negotiation in a way to benefit themselves and thus earn a higher individual profit.

H2d: The relationship between an individual's level of emotional management and individual gain will be moderated by Machiavellianism such that higher levels of Machiavellianism will lead to higher individual gain.

Hypothesis Development: Joint Gain

Machiavellianism. Conceptually, the Machiavellian trait does not lend itself to high joint gain because the nature of the variable indicates a tendency toward selfish and opportunistic behavior. To illustrate, Fry (1985) found that dyads that consisted of a low Mach and a high Mach negotiator earned the lowest joint payoffs, lower than any other dyad type. If a high Mach has an opportunity to be competitive, he/she will choose to be so instead of striving for mutual profit and cooperation. In Fry's study, low Mach participants paired with high Mach negotiating opponents reported that their high Mach counterparts were unyielding and unlikable.

Furthermore, Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, and Smith (2002) discovered that high Machs tend to claim more profit for themselves at the expense of their partner. This demonstrates that high Machs are openly opportunistic and thus leave their partners with smaller gains, which consequently leads to lower joint profit for the pair since the low Mach partner is left with little to contribute to the joint gain of the dyad. However, high Machs would be less likely to suffer much in the loss of joint profit because they can still claim a substantial portion of payoffs for

themselves. Achieving high joint gain involves cooperation from both parties, and it has been acknowledged that individuals who negotiate with high Machs sometimes realize they are being manipulated and respond by retaliating, causing an impasse, or leaving the negotiation table (Wilson, et al., 1996). These reactions are by no means conducive to achieving a collective goal and will therefore lead to decreased joint gain for the dyad.

H3a: A dyad's level of Machiavellianism will be negatively related to joint gain.

Perspective Taking. On the other hand, perspective taking ability should lead to the opposite negotiation outcome and facilitate the attainment of high joint gain. One study determined that perspective taking ability led to increased joint gain for the negotiating dyad (Kemp & Smith, 1994). Kemp and Smith showed that those high in PT were able to accurately gauge their partner's priorities when they were not explicitly disclosed, giving them clues about their partner's payoff sheet. Having this kind of information is crucial because it allows negotiators to discover each other's interests and can allow individuals high in PT to engage in cooperative behavior that increases the joint gain of the dyad (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 1991). Perspective taking involves seeing a situation from another person's perspective, which aids one in the ability to empathize and help others. Perspective taking has been shown in the literature to be a characteristic that leads to a better understanding of others and genuine and appropriate responses to the needs of other people (Kemp & Smith, 1994). Galinsky and colleagues (2005) also state that "perspective-takers utilize information...to coordinate their behavior with others" (p. 109) and engage in a cognitive overlap between themselves and others that helps to support social bonds. Having a cognitive connection with one's negotiating partner should promote collective and integrative interaction within the dyad. These cooperative inclinations that characterize those high in PT should lead to attempts (along with the capability) to increase the

dyad's collective profit. In other words, helping the dyad collectively will be more in line with the nature and inclinations of those high in PT. They will be more likely to use their deeper understanding and additional knowledge of the other party's situation and payoff sheet in order to achieve a better outcome for both negotiators by engaging in behaviors such as logrolling.

H3b: A dyad's level of perspective taking will be positively related to joint gain

Emotional Understanding. Foo and colleagues (2004) showed that EI can have direct effects on both individual and joint gains in bargaining contexts. In their study, dyads containing negotiators high in EI were able to create higher joint gain than those without high EI negotiators, although these high EI participants also claimed less individual profit than their low EI counterparts. Foo and colleagues suggested a variety of reasons for why emotional intelligence and its components may be responsible for higher joint gain for the dyad. These include the ability of high EI individuals to gain trust during the negotiation, which leads to integrative bargaining, and to stimulate positive emotions in others, which leads to creative and integrative responses.

Emotional understanding can be considered an essential part of negotiation proceedings, especially ones that deal with emotionally sensitive topics (Reilly, 2005). It takes a good deal of this ability in order to be able to process the emotional connotations of the situation, the emotional reactions of one's negotiating partner, and one's own emotions in order to effectively handle a sensitive scenario. Understanding emotions also facilitates the comprehension of the progression of emotions, which makes it easier to interpret even slight changes in the reactions of one's negotiating partner. Those able to understand emotions can pick up on subtle emotional nonverbal cues from their partner to judge if their needs have been taken into account. Knowing how one's partner feels about the events of a negotiation may provide valuable information as to

how to proceed with the bargaining. Whereas PT helps individuals cognitively gauge their partner's payoff information (Kemp & Smith, 1994), emotional understanding helps negotiators use changes in their partner's emotional reactions in order to discern their values and preferences (Foo, et al., 2004). According to Foo and colleagues (2004), this is particularly important when looking at the pitfalls of creating value in negotiations, including lack of communication, understanding, and information. Emotional understanding can help negotiators overcome some of these limitations by using the emotional information to guide the dyad in creating collective value, thereby increasing joint gain and fulfilling both parties' needs.

Emotional understanding gives the negotiator additional cues as to how his/her partner is truly feeling about the progress of the negotiation. For example, an individual who is high on emotional understanding would be able to notice a slight change in facial expression from his/her partner and understand that the last proceeding was not viewed favorably. They may then use the information to acknowledge a possible problem or to attempt to rectify the situation by conceding to their partner on that issue. This would create a positive and cooperative environment because emotionally competent negotiators can grasp the meaning behind their partner's emotional reactions and use the information to guide their subsequent actions in the negotiation. The negotiating partner will also feel that their feelings are being taken into account and should in turn, be more likely to cooperate in order to increase payoffs for both parties.

H3c: A dyad's level of emotional understanding will be positively related to joint gain

Emotional Management. An individual who possesses the ability of emotional management can engage in a kind of emotional negotiation tactic by suppressing those emotions that would be detrimental to the situation, expressing more appropriate ones, and influencing the negotiating partner to feel emotions more advantageous to a successful negotiation. Emotional

management also involves handling emotions correctly when they arise, which can be a crucial ability in emotional contexts such as negotiations. For example, negotiators can become angry and irrational when things aren't going their way, and a person high in emotional management ability can calm the person down and sway them into pursuing a more cooperative and positive temperament. Without the ability to manage the emotions that arise, negotiations can often go sour, leaving the parties involved disappointed and unsatisfied (Kumar, 1997). Those high in emotional management are also capable of regulating their own emotions so that they do not get out of hand or are unhelpful to the situation (Reilly, 2005). An individual who can manage his/her emotions well should be able to maintain focus and concentration on the task at hand, no matter how emotional the situation becomes. Managing emotions in this way should, in general, create a more peaceful and friendly environment, thus contributing to mutual understanding and facilitation between negotiating partners, which is a prerequisite to acquiring high joint gain. Ryan (2006) discusses several uses for managing emotions in order to foster a better bargaining environment where both parties feel satisfied with the outcomes, including regulating emotions in order to soothe, support and encourage one's partner and to win their trust and respect. Furthermore, Lopes, Salovey, and Straus (2003) empirically showed that those high in managing emotions experienced more positive and satisfying relationships, indicating that perhaps those individuals are more apt at handling personal interactions, of which negotiation is just one example. More positive experiences and cooperative interaction induced by individuals with high EI should consequently lead to reciprocal behavior and higher joint gain.

H3d: A dyad's level of emotional management will be positively related to joint gain

Chapter 2

Method

Participants

One hundred and seventy-six (176) undergraduate university students (88 dyads) in a large Northeastern university participated in this study. Students were recruited from upper-level business and management courses, upper level psychology courses, and the university subject pool. The mean age of these students was 20.2, and 55 per cent of these students were female. Eighty-three per cent of the students were Caucasian, with the remaining students being African American (4.5 per cent), Hispanic (5.1 per cent), Asian (3.4 per cent), and other ethnicities (4 per cent). All participants received extra credit or study participation credit in exchange for their involvement in the study. In addition to extra credit, dyads were also entered in a lottery for one of 6 \$10 gift certificates to local restaurants, with the number of raffle tickets allotted to each dyad being dependent on their collective performance on the negotiation task (assessed by their joint gain score). Furthermore, the individual in each dyad that earned the higher individual gain received a candy bar. This sample was chosen because the negotiation task in this study (salary and benefits negotiation) is similar to ones that many undergraduate students will experience soon after graduation, if they have not done so already. Therefore, they would easily identify with the task and be able to perform well on it.

Negotiation Exercise

The role play scenario designed for this study involved a salary negotiation between a prospective employee and a manager who recently took a position in his/her family business (see

Appendix A). The task consisted of two components that are purely distributive, one that is purely compatible, and two with integrative potential (one issue was more important to one party while the other was more important to the other party). Those randomly assigned to the role of the job candidate were given information regarding their incentives for wanting the new job, what they had been earning previously as a basis for comparison, and their goals for obtaining a competitive job offer package. Those randomly assigned to the role of the manager were provided with a different set of information and incentives for hiring the candidate, along with knowledge of average compensation rates, and goals for offering a package that would save the company money. Both roles were infused with emotional undertones by incorporating the role of family. The manager just started to work for a company of which his/her father is the president, and the candidate is trying to get the best package possible in order to help his/her family with finances. Participants were asked to negotiate a total of 5 issues: salary, vacation days, annual raises, a start date, and medical insurance coverage. Both negotiators were provided with explanations of each issue and given payoff schedules for their role that include five options to choose from for each issue and a point value assigned to each option. Based on point values, participants were able to identify which issues were more important to them and which options would earn them the most points.

Procedure

Upon arrival at the experiment site, participants were paired with a partner of the same gender and signed an informed consent form. Participants were then administered a demographic information sheet, the Perspective Taking subscale of the IRI, the Mach IV scale, the Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU), the Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM), and the measure of previous negotiation experience, all in paper and pencil format.

Participants were identified by a code on all materials so that their responses were kept confidential and anonymous, since no identifying information except the code number appeared on any materials. After completing all measures, participants were randomly assigned to one of two negotiation roles: candidate or manager. Participants then received a packet containing their respective roles for the negotiation and were allowed as much time as needed to review them. A research assistant explained the negotiation procedure to the participants. Participants were told that they should stay in character throughout the whole exercise and to refrain from showing their payoff sheet to their partner. They were also told that there will be a lottery drawing after data collection. The higher the joint gain earned by the dyad, the more raffle tickets will be allotted to them in order to increase their chances of winning. The prize was one of 6 \$10 gift certificates to local restaurants. The research assistant explained that they are eligible to participate in the raffle only if their dyad comes to a mutual agreement. In addition, the research assistant also explained that the person in each dyad that earned the higher individual gain will receive a candy bar at the end of the task. These incentives will encourage participants to engage in competitive as well as cooperative strategies and should serve as a motivator to perform well in the task from both an individual as well as dyadic perspective (Hollingshead & Carnevale, 1990). When participants felt ready to negotiate, they were provided with a brief quiz about their roles and payoff tables in order to ensure that they understood the information and instructions for the negotiation (see Appendix B).

The negotiating dyad was allotted 45 minutes to negotiate but was informed that if they needed more time, it would be provided. A research assistant was present in the room at all times to ensure that participants followed instructions and were not sharing their payoff table information with each other. At the conclusion of the negotiation exercises, participants were

asked to jointly mark the negotiation outcomes on a “contract” and initial it. This was done in order to ensure that participants were clear as to which options were agreed upon during the negotiation and also provided a record of outcomes that was later used to calculate point values for each participant and each dyad. Participants were then administered the Cognitive Strategies Measure and the Emotional Strategies Measure, which asked them to think back on the negotiation they had just completed and indicate the strategies they used to achieve their goals during the task. They also received the negotiation satisfaction items asking them about the extent to which they would want to work with their partner in the future and how they felt about the negotiation proceedings in the end. Participants were then given a debriefing form to inform them about the purposes and procedures of the study and the candy prize was awarded. Lottery tickets were determined when data collection was complete, and the winners were notified.

Materials

Perspective Taking. Perspective taking ability was measured with the PT subscale (see Appendix C) from the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1980). The PT measure assesses one’s ability to take on another person's perspective in real-life everyday situations. The subscale consists of 7 items asking participants to indicate on a scale of 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”) how accurately each statement describes them. Possible scores range from 7 to 35, with high scores indicating higher perspective taking ability. The PT subscale of the IRI shows discriminate validity with empathy measures (Oswald, 2003). According to Davis (1980), internal consistency coefficients range from .71 through .77 for the scales and test-retest reliabilities range from .62 through .71. An example of an item from the PT scale is “I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.”

Machiavellianism. Machiavellianism was assessed using the Mach IV (see Appendix D), 20-item scale developed by Christie and Geis (1970). It is the most widely-used measure of Machiavellianism available (Reimers, 2004) and there have been no known acceptable alternatives. The scale items are based on teachings from Niccolo Machiavelli's book The Prince and measure a person's view of others, the world, human nature, and social situations. Participants must indicate the extent to which they personally agree or disagree with a series of statements on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). Scores can range from 20 to 140, with higher scores indicating stronger Machiavellian orientation. An example of an item from the Mach IV is: "The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear."

The Mach IV measure's internal consistency coefficients have ranged from .59 to .88 (Barbuto & Reimers, 2002), depending on the sample used. Christie and colleagues (1970) have also determined that the Mach IV has discriminant validity with several measures including intelligence tests, measures of authoritarianism, political preference, racial attitudes, human nature philosophy, Big 5 personality, motivation, anxiety, and psychopathology in a wide variety of samples. Several researchers have determined the Mach IV scale to be psychometrically sound and confirm its construct validity (Ramanaiah, Byravan, & Detwiler, 1994).

Emotional Intelligence Component Measures. It is possible that the EI construct has not been more thoroughly examined in negotiation because of measurement issues (Fulmer & Barry, 2004). Most of the measures available today for measuring EI are self-report (ECI; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; EQ-I; Bar-On, 1997; SREIS; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998) which assume that most individuals have a high level of emotional self-awareness concerning their emotions (Thompson, Medvec, Seiden & Kopelman, 2001).

These tests have also been found to perform poorly psychometrically and have shown questionable validity and reliability (Conte, 2005). Additionally, many of the instruments seem to measure concepts that may not be related to emotional intelligence, such as conscientiousness (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, & Schutte, 2005; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2002) and therefore do not account for much variance above personality. Popular EI measures such as the EQ-I and ECI are representative of the trait model, or mixed model, of EI (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005), which incorporate several approaches to conceptualizing the construct. For instance, Goleman (1995) indicated that EI is everything that is not cognitive ability.

There are currently two widely-used ability measures for EI: the MEIS and the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004). Both analyze a person's abilities on all four branches (Perceiving, Using, Understanding, and Managing Emotions) with items such as identifying the emotional content of a musical fragment. Although these tests demonstrate better psychometric properties than their self-report counterparts, they still only show moderate levels of validity and reliability. Some items also exhibit little face validity as well. In addition, they are also substantially lengthy (421 items for the MEIS and 141 for the MSCEIT) and very expensive to administer.

Several researchers have attempted to correct some of the measurement problems by creating new EI tests. Two of these measures are the Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM) and the Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU) created by MacCann (2006). Although both of these measures are quite new and have yet to be used in an empirical study aside from the one in which they were outlined and developed, both show respectable psychometric properties and can be considered promising new alternatives to the existing measures. Both of these instruments were utilized in this study.

Emotional Understanding. The Situational Test of Emotion Understanding (STEU; MacCann, 2006; see Appendix E) was used to assess the emotional understanding individual difference in this study. The measure follows a multiple-choice format and uses a standards-based scoring system based on emotional structures (Roseman, 2001). Scores represent competence in the following four factors: understanding emotions in life situations, understanding emotions in work situations, understanding positive emotions, and understanding negative emotions. Scores on the STEU from a sample of psychology students were positively related to vocabulary test scores, agreeableness, psychology grades, emotionally-oriented thinking, and fluid and crystallized intelligence. These relationships demonstrate both convergent and discriminant validity; Cronbach alpha reliability for the measure was .71.

Emotional Management. Emotional Management was assessed with the Situational Test of Emotional Management (STEM; MacCann, 2006; see Appendix F). It is based on a situational judgment test (SJT) paradigm with a multiple choice response format and includes work and life situations that represent the management of sadness, fear, and anger. The test indexes the knowledge of dealing with situations of an emotional nature effectively. A participant may be allocated a ranking score for each question based on the level of effectiveness of the answer chosen. In other words, the most effective answer would receive a score of 3, the next best answer a score of 2, the one following a score of 1, and least effective answer would receive a score of 0. Alternatively, 1 point may be awarded for the most effective answer and 0 points for any other answer chosen. For the purpose of this study, scores on the STEM were determined using the rank scoring system due to its superior reliability coefficients (MacCann, 2006). Answers were determined based on judgments made by psychology undergraduates, community volunteers, and expert panels, which included emotions researchers, psychologists, therapists,

and life coaches. Females scored higher on this measure than males. Psychology students' scores on the STEM were related to vocabulary test scores, agreeableness, emotionally-oriented thinking, life satisfaction, fluid and crystallized intelligence, and lower levels of stress and depression. These relationships demonstrate both convergent and discriminant validity; Cronbach alpha reliability for the measure when using ranking answer choice scoring was .86.

Cognitive Negotiation Strategies. A measure of distributive and integrative cognitive negotiation strategies was assembled for the purpose of this study (see Appendix G). It includes items adapted from the following measures: The Influence Tactics Inventory (Lewicki, Saunders, & Minton, 1999), the Self-reported Inappropriate Negotiation Strategies (SINS) scale (Robinson, Lewicki, & Donohue, 2000), the Negotiation Evaluation Survey (NES; Coleman & Lim, 2001), and the Personal Bargaining Inventory (Lewicki, Saunders, & Minton, 1999), as well as several additional items created to cover strategies that were not included in the existing scales. The self-report measure includes a total of 29 items asking participants to indicate on a scale from 1="never" to 5="very often" the frequency with which they engaged in each strategy during their recent negotiation. Some example items are, "I was sincere and trustworthy at all times. I did not lie, for whatever ends" and "I made an early minor concession so the other side would reciprocate on something I wanted later on." This measure also includes 7 items asking participants to evaluate their negotiation partners. Some example items are "To what extent do you think your partner was deceptive during the negotiation?" and "To what extent do you think your partner took your view into account?"

Emotional Negotiation Strategies. Barry's (1999) Emotion Management Tactics measure (see Appendix H) was adapted to assess negotiators' usage of emotional tactics during the negotiation. Although Barry pilot tested this measure, he asked participants how appropriate they

considered each tactic and the extent to which they thought they would be able to employ the strategies in a negotiation. He did not ask participants to indicate the extent to which they actually performed each strategy in a past negotiation, although it was his suggestion for the logical next step in negotiation research. The self-report measure includes 16 items asking participants to indicate on a scale from 1="never" to 5="very often" the frequency with which they engaged in each tactic during their recent negotiation. An example item is, "I feigned a melancholy mood in order to get the other party to think I am having a bad day." Barry found that two factors emerged when looking at the measure in terms of appropriateness of strategies and efficacy to employ the strategies. The two factors were positive emotion tactics and negative emotion tactics, with coefficient alphas of .84 and .85, respectively.

Negotiation Satisfaction. Feelings toward one's negotiation partner and desire to work together in the future were measured with several items taken from an article by Allred and colleagues (1997). Participants were asked to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale (1= "would not like to work with her/him" to 7= "would like to work with her/him") the following: "Based on your experience with your negotiation partner throughout the negotiation, to what extent would you like to work with him/her in a work setting?" and "Based on your experience with your negotiation partner throughout the negotiation, to what extent would you like to work with him/her in another negotiation in the future?" These two items made up the viability portion of negotiation satisfaction. The general satisfaction portion was assessed by the following two items: "What kind of mood were you in by the end of the negotiation" (1="negative mood" to 7="positive mood") and "How satisfied are you with the outcome of the negotiation" (1="not at all satisfied" to 7="very satisfied").

Individual and Joint Gains. Two dependent variables of interest in this study are individual and joint gain values from the negotiation exercise. Once participants indicated their agreed-upon outcomes on the contract, a research assistant referred back to the payoff tables for each negotiation role and added the points associated with each option chosen by the dyad. The five point values associated with the options chosen were summed together in order to establish a single value measuring individual gain of each role player. The individual gains of the two players were also added together in order to determine the joint gain value of each dyad. Motivation to reach an agreement rather than an impasse was increased by informing participants that failure to reach mutual agreements will earn them a score of 0 for the exercise, making them ineligible for the lottery drawing or candy prize. This was effective and no dyad ended in an impasse.

Control Variables

Gender. Several studies have inspected gender as an important individual difference in negotiations. For example, Bowles, Babcock, and McGinn (2005) found that men are more successful at negotiating in highly ambiguous and competitive situations. Similarly, King and Hinson (1994) and Watson (1994) discovered that males outperform females in negotiations when they are in a mixed-sex dyad. Therefore, it is possible that there are differences between the sexes with regard to negotiation performance that are highlighted by certain situational components. Given the possibility of gender effects in negotiation strategies and performance, this study controlled for gender effects by matching each negotiator with a negotiation partner of the same sex during initial sign-up for experiment sessions. Analyses also controlled for gender effects.

Cognitive Ability. Cognitive ability has also been examined in negotiation settings and may influence the negotiation outcomes (Barry & Friedman, 1998; Fulmer & Barry, 2004). Therefore, cognitive ability was controlled for by measuring self-report SAT scores and grade-point averages (GPA). This measure of cognitive ability was included in the demographic sheet.

Previous Negotiation Experience. Although it has been noted that very little research has actually explored the role of negotiator experience in negotiations (Thompson, 1990b), results from several studies conclude that more experienced negotiators make higher initial demands, fewer concessions, fewer offers in general, claim more of the outcome for themselves at the expense of their partner, offer more creative and integrative solutions (Thompson, 1990c), and have better logrolling skills than their non-experienced counterparts (Thompson, 1990b). Previous negotiation experience was measured by self-report items asking participants to indicate (on a scale of 1="not at all experienced" to 5="very experienced") how experienced they are with formal and structured (work or class-related; roles clearly laid out) negotiations, as well as informal negotiations (buyer/seller bargaining, family and sibling bargaining, etc.). There was also an open-ended question asking participants to indicate other types of negotiations in which they have participated and the amount of experience they have in each additional category listed (see Appendix I).

Chapter 3

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Exploratory factor analyses. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted for each of the individual difference and negotiation strategy measures. As expected, Machiavellianism, perspective taking, emotional understanding and emotional management each loaded on one factor. Since the negotiation strategy measures were new and have not been used previously in other studies in the form that they were utilized in the current study, an exploratory factor analysis with a principle axis extraction method and promax rotation was conducted with all 3 types of negotiation strategy items together in one factor analysis. It was expected that they would load on three separate factors (emotional, cognitive integrative, and cognitive distributive strategies). The scree plot revealed a 2-factor solution with cognitive strategies loading on 2 separate factors (integrative and distributive) as predicted, and emotional strategies loading on the same factor as distributive strategies (see Table 1). While this finding was not expected, it should also be interpreted with caution due to the range restriction in the emotional and distributive strategy measures. The maximum average score for emotional strategy usage was a “3” out of a possible “5,” indicating that participants did not engage in these strategies nearly as often as they did in integrative tactics. Similarly, the maximum score for distributive strategies was a “3.78” out of “5” indicating the presence of some range restriction. The correlation between emotional and distributive strategies ($r = .572$) shows that they are significantly correlated, but still distinct variables. This correlated finding, along with the consideration that

hypotheses were structured to test emotional strategies as a stand-alone variable led to the decision to keep emotional and distributive strategies as separate factors.

The emotional strategies variable was constructed using all 16 items, while the integrative strategy measure revealed several items that failed to exhibit simple structure (items 2, 3, 14, 23) and those items were removed from further analyses. Two items that loaded on multiple factors were discarded from the distributive strategy measure as well (items 6 and 8).

Table 1. Pattern Matrix for Exploratory Factor Analysis of Negotiation Strategies

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
CS1(I)	0.09	0.43
CS2	-0.35	0.34
CS3	0.13	0.33
CS4(I)	-0.21	0.48
CS5(D)	0.53	0.02
CS6	0.36	0.19
CS7(D)	0.41	0.16
CS8	0.40	0.11
CS9(D)	0.38	0.05
CS10(D)	0.51	0.00
CS11(D)	0.52	-0.03
CS12(I)	-0.21	0.63
CS13(I)	0.00	0.54
CS14	-0.24	0.47
CS15(D)	0.31	-0.01
CS16(I)	0.04	0.41
CS17(I)	0.02	0.69
CS18(I)	0.03	0.72
CS19(I)	-0.09	0.48
CS20(I)	0.23	0.53
CS21(I)	0.08	0.43
CS22(D)	0.41	0.09
CS23	0.15	0.32
CS24(I)	0.00	0.62
CS25(I)	-0.06	0.65
CS26(I)	0.07	0.59
CS27(I)	0.03	0.71
CS28(D)	0.45	-0.09
CS29(D)	0.36	-0.02
ES1	0.55	0.07
ES2	0.61	0.01
ES3	0.57	0.16

ES4	0.67	0.06
ES5	0.60	0.17
ES6	0.53	0.12
ES7	0.51	0.10
ES8	0.63	-0.16
ES9	0.44	-0.13
ES10	0.40	-0.08
ES11	0.37	-0.12
ES12	0.48	-0.10
ES13	0.40	-0.06
ES14	0.28	-0.11
ES15	0.46	-0.18
ES16	0.30	0.08

Note: $N = 176$; CS = cognitive strategies; ES = emotional strategies; Factor 1 (D) = Distributive and emotional strategies; Factor 2 (I) = integrative strategies

Alphas. A Cronbach's alpha internal reliability analysis was conducted for every variable scale measure. While negotiation experience ($\alpha = .720$), integrative ($\alpha = .867$), distributive ($\alpha = .726$), and emotional strategy measures ($\alpha = .844$) displayed alphas of acceptable magnitude, Machiavellianism ($\alpha = .693$), perspective taking ($\alpha = .649$), emotional understanding ($\alpha = .515$), and emotional management ($\alpha = .450$) failed to show acceptable alphas. However, when one item was removed from the Mach IV scale (item 16), the alpha increased to an acceptable level ($\alpha = .705$). This new 19 item measure was used in all subsequent analyses. This was not the case for the remainder of the independent variables and therefore no items were removed from those scales. The low internal consistencies of these measures indicate that results involving these variables should be interpreted with caution.

Control Variables. Several control variables were chosen for inclusion in the subsequent analyses, specifically SAT score, previous negotiation experience, and gender. While SAT score (used as an indicator of cognitive ability) and previous negotiation experience were not significantly related to the dependent variables, using these variables as controls was

conceptually necessary since they were found to predict negotiation outcomes in the past (Barry & Friedman, 1998; Fulmer & Barry, 2004; Thompson, 1990c). Participants come into the study with various levels of cognitive ability and prior experience which may put them at different levels of negotiation ability. Therefore, these differences should be controlled for in order to ensure that results are a product of the individual differences hypothesized and not cognitive ability or previous experience. Additionally, gender was found to significantly correlate with individual and joint gain and cognitive and emotional negotiation strategies and was included as a control variable as well. Findings from previous studies (e.g. Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005) also indicated that gender is an important variable to control for because it is related to numerous negotiation outcomes.

Correlations. The correlation matrices below (see Tables 2 and 3) show several noteworthy findings both at the individual and the dyad level. It was found that Machiavellianism and PT were negatively correlated ($r = -.283$ at the individual level, $p < .01$; $r = -.311$ at the dyad level, $p < .01$), signifying that they are not opposite ends of one spectrum and are indeed distinct constructs. A similar finding occurred with emotional understanding and emotional management ($r = .445$, $p < .01$). Although they are moderately and positively correlated with each other, they still tap different aspects of the emotional intelligence construct. Another noteworthy finding is that use of integrative strategies was positively related to distributive strategies ($r = .163$, $p < .05$) showing that usage of one type of strategy does not necessarily impede utilization of the other even though the strategies are contradictory in nature. Surprisingly, emotional understanding ($r = -.213$ at the individual level, $p < .01$; $r = -.223$ at the dyad level, $p < .05$) and emotional management ($r = -.183$ at the individual level, $p < .05$; $r = -$

.218 at the dyad level, $p < .05$) were negatively related to emotional strategy usage at both levels of analysis.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations at the individual level

	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1.55	0.5	1										
2. Age	20.22	2.13	-0.033	1									
3. SAT	1181.70	161.07	0.005	-.235(**)	1								
4. Neg Exper	2.98	0.72	-0.036	-0.09	-0.009	0.72							
5. Mach	2.84	0.38	-0.113	-0.06	0.055	-0.137	0.705						
6. PT	3.58	0.47	0.089	-0.038	0.041	0.04	-.283(**)	0.649					
7. EU	0.64	0.09	0.104	-0.116	0.116	-0.043	0.027	0.122	0.515				
8. EM	0.57	0.10	.198(**)	-0.051	0.026	-0.017	-.190(*)	.175(*)	.445(**)	0.45			
9. Int strat	3.13	0.66	-.223(**)	0.037	0.06	.193(*)	-0.036	0.116	-0.021	-0.072	0.867		
10. Distr strat	1.70	0.53	-.302(**)	-0.001	-0.137	0.109	.266(**)	-0.121	-.194(*)	-.288(**)	.163(*)	0.726	
11. Emo strat	1.53	0.45	-.286(**)	-0.005	-0.008	0.139	.386(**)	-0.111	-.213(**)	-.183(*)	0.1	.572(**)	0.844
12. Ind Gain	694.72	117.24	-.158(*)	.188(*)	-0.084	-0.05	-0.115	0.036	0.042	-0.053	.263(**)	0.016	-.185(*)

**p<0.01; *p<0.05.

Note: N=176; SD = standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females); alphas on the diagonal.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations at the dyad level

	Means	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1.56	0.5	1										
2. Age	20.32	2.25	-0.016	1									
3. SAT	1180.31	138.75	-0.188	-.366(**)	1								
4. Neg Exper	2.95	0.73	-0.075	-0.182	-0.09	0.768							
5. Mach	2.86	0.40	-0.204	-0.06	0.042	-0.14	0.76						
6. PT	3.51	0.49	-0.006	-0.096	0.097	-0.004	-.311(**)	0.678					
7. EU	0.64	0.07	0.063	-.223(*)	0.099	0	-0.064	0.196	0.4				
8. EM	0.57	0.08	0.191	0.003	0.022	-0.044	-.272(*)	0.21	.452(**)	0.437			
9. Int strat	2.97	0.61	-.362(**)	0.049	-0.067	0.054	0.17	-0.027	-0.001	-0.039	0.831		
10. Distr strat	1.78	0.58	-.335(**)	0.104	-0.199	0.169	.281(**)	-0.05	-0.116	-.264(*)	0.172	0.76	
11. Emo strat	1.65	0.49	-.431(**)	0.074	-0.118	0.129	.328(**)	0.035	-.223(*)	-.218(*)	0.199	.486(**)	0.845
12. Joint Gain	1389.43	112.90	-.359(**)	0.14	0.176	-0.073	0.118	-0.17	-0.127	-0.105	.363(**)	0.099	0.152

**p<0.01; *p<0.05.

Note: N=88 dyads; SD = standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females); alphas on the diagonal.

Tests of Hypotheses

All hypotheses were tested with regression analyses. Control variables (gender, SAT score, and negotiation experience) were first entered into the regression equation. All four of the individual difference variables (Machiavellianism, PT, emotional understanding, and emotional management) were entered second. Interactions were entered third. For the hypotheses that involved moderators (H2b-d), all independent variables were centered by subtracting the mean from the variable and then multiplied to form the interaction terms. The interaction terms were mean centered in order to reduce any multicollinearity effects that may have emerged in this study (Aiken & West, 1991). For hypotheses tested at the dyad level (H3a-d), individual level data was aggregated by the mean according to the team ID number. Therefore, each dyad had an aggregated value for all variables analyzed that represented the combined scores and scale responses of both individuals of the negotiating team.

Hypotheses predicting Negotiation Strategies. Hypothesis 1a predicted that Machiavellianism would be positively related to the reported usage of distributive strategies and was supported (see Table 4). Machiavellianism was found to lead to higher reported engagement in distributive strategies in the predicted direction ($b = .242$, $p = .007$). No other individual difference variable significantly predicted usage of distributive strategies. However, gender was related to distributive strategy use in that males reported engaging in more of these strategies than did females ($M_{\text{males}} = 1.87$; $M_{\text{females}} = 1.55$; $t = 4.17$, $p < .001$).

Table 4. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on distributive strategies

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.24**	-.17*
SAT score	-.15†	-.13

Negotiation Experience	.06	.10
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.02
Machiavellianism		.24**
Emotional Understanding		-.10
Emotional Management		-.12
R^2	.08	.17
F	3.99**	3.74**
R^2 increment		0.09*

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 176$; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Hypothesis 1b predicted that perspective taking would lead to increased reported use of integrative negotiation strategies. Perspective taking did not significantly predict integrative strategy usage as was anticipated ($b = .074$, $p > .05$; see Table 5). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was not supported. Furthermore, none of the four individual difference variables significantly predicted reported integrative strategy utilization. Again, gender was a significant predictor of integrative strategies and males reported utilizing more integrative strategies than females ($M_{\text{males}} = 3.30$; $M_{\text{females}} = 3.0$; $t = 3.061$, $p = .003$). In addition, negotiation experience positively predicted integrative strategy usage. In other words, more experienced negotiators were more likely to report using integrative strategies.

Table 5. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on integrative strategies

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.27**	-.28**
SAT score	.04	.04
Negotiation Experience	.23**	.21*
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.07
Machiavellianism		-.12
Emotional Understanding		.01

Emotional Management		-0.07
R ²	.13	0.16
F	6.70**	3.40**
R ² increment		0.03

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 176; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Hypothesis 1c, which predicted that emotional understanding would lead to increased use of emotional strategies (see Table 6), was not supported ($b = -.119$, $p > .05$). Furthermore, Hypothesis 1d, which predicted that emotional management would also lead to greater emotional strategy usage, was also not supported ($b = -.034$, $p > .05$; see Table 6). Perspective taking was also not related to reported emotional strategy utilization. Surprisingly, Machiavellianism was significantly related to the strategy outcome ($b = .443$, $p < .001$) although this relationship was not originally hypothesized. Gender once again emerged as a significant predictor, indicating that males reported using more emotional strategies than females did ($M_{\text{males}} = 1.67$; $M_{\text{females}} = 1.41$; $t = 3.769$, $p < .001$). It was also found that negotiation experience significantly predicted emotional strategy usage but only when individual differences were considered in the regression. More experienced negotiators were more likely to report utilizing emotional strategies than their less experienced counterparts.

Table 6. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on emotional strategies

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.27**	-.18*
SAT score	-.06	-.05
Negotiation Experience	.12	.19*
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.08
Machiavellianism		.44**
Emotional Understanding		-.12

Emotional Management		-0.03
R ²	.09	0.28
F	4.39**	6.74*
R ² increment		0.18**

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 176; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Hypotheses predicting Individual Gain. Hypothesis 2a predicted that Machiavellianism would be positively related to individual gain, but was not supported ($b = -.110$, $p > .05$; see Table 7). Furthermore, none of the individual difference variables significantly predicted individual gain beyond the effects of the control variables. Gender was the only control variable to be even marginally related to individual gain. The finding indicates that males earn more individual gain than females ($M_{\text{males}} = 715.19$; $M_{\text{females}} = 678.04$; $t = 2.111$, $p = .036$).

Table 7. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on individual gain

Independent variables	Model		
	1	2	3
<i>Controls</i>			
Gender	-.14	-.16†	-.17†
SAT score	-.07	-.07	-.05
Negotiation Experience	.02	.00	-.00
<i>Individual Differences</i>			
Perspective Taking		.02	.02
Machiavellianism		-.11	-.11
Emotional Understanding		.03	.05
Emotional Management		-.01	-.01
<i>Interactions</i>			
Machiavellianism X PT			-.08
Machiavellianism X EU			-.03
Machiavellianism X EM			.11
R ²	.03	.04	.05
F	1.12	.71	.68
R ² increment		.01	.01

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 176; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Hypothesis 2b stated that Machiavellianism would moderate the relationship between perspective taking and individual gain, but was not supported (see Table 7). The interaction term of Machiavellianism and perspective taking failed to predict individual gain beyond the effects of the two independent variables alone and control variables ($b = -.083, p > .05$).

Similarly, Hypothesis 2c predicted that Machiavellianism would moderate the relationship between emotional understanding and individual gain, but was also not supported ($b = .028, p > .05$; see Table 7). The interaction term of Machiavellianism and emotional understanding failed to predict individual gain significantly after the independent variables were individually accounted for.

As predicted by Hypothesis 2d, Machiavellianism also failed to moderate the relationship between emotional management and individual gain (see Table 7). The emotional management Machiavellianism interaction term did not contribute significantly to the variance explained after Machiavellianism and emotional management were accounted for ($b = .109, p > .05$).

Hypotheses predicting Joint Gain. Hypothesis 3a, predicting that dyads with individuals higher in Machiavellianism would earn lower joint gain, was not supported ($b = -.049, p > .05$; see Table 8).

Contrary to Hypothesis 3b, a dyad's level of perspective taking was only marginally related to joint gain ($b = -.208, p = .071$; see Table 8). This relationship was also in the direction opposite to the one predicted in that a dyad's level of perspective taking led to lower, as opposed to higher, levels of joint gain.

Hypothesis 3c stated that dyads with individuals higher in emotional understanding will earn higher joint gain, but was also not supported ($b = -.086, p > .05$; see Table 8).

Contrary to Hypothesis 3d, dyads with individuals higher in emotional management did not earn higher joint gain ($b = -.011$, $p > .05$; see Table 8). Overall, none of the individual differences proposed significantly predicted the joint gain variable. Gender significantly predicted joint gain. Males earned significantly higher joint gain than females ($M_{\text{males}} = 1434.62$; $M_{\text{females}} = 1353.47$; $t = 3.568$, $p = .001$).

Table 8. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on joint gain

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.37**	-.37**
SAT score	.10	.14
Negotiation Experience	-.09	-.09
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		-.21†
Machiavellianism		-.05
Emotional Understanding		-.09
Emotional Management		-.01
R^2	.16	0.22
F	4.88**	2.82*
R^2 increment		0.05

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 88$ dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Ancillary Analyses

Dyad Level Strategy Use. Although not an *a priori* prediction, analyses were conducted to test the relationship between the individual difference variables and reported integrative, distributive, and emotional strategy usage at the dyad level. Similar findings appeared for these dyad level analyses as did for the individual level analyses (see H1a-d). Specifically, none of the individual difference variables were related to integrative strategy usage (see Table 9). However,

the significant gender finding shows that males reported engaging in more integrative strategies than females.

Table 9. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on integrative strategies at the dyad level

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.39**	-.37**
SAT score	-.14	-.13
Negotiation Experience	.04	.06
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		-.03
Machiavellianism		.12
Emotional Understanding		-.03
Emotional Management		.04
R ²	.16	0.17
F	4.69**	2.13†
R ² increment		0.02

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 88 dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Similar to the individual-level findings, the dyad-level analysis showed that Machiavellianism was the only individual difference that significantly predicted reported engagement in distributive strategies beyond the effects of the control variables (gender, SAT scores, and negotiation experience; $b = .246$, $p = .038$; see Table 10). Gender significantly predicted distributive strategy usage at the dyad level. Again, males reported engaging in more distributive strategies than females. Furthermore, SAT score negatively predicted distributive strategy utilization. Those with higher SAT scores reported utilizing less distributive strategies.

Table 10. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on distributive strategies at the dyad level

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.33**	-.25*
SAT score	-.26*	-.25*
Negotiation Experience	.12	.16
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.09
Machiavellianism		.25*
Emotional Understanding		-.02
Emotional Management		-.08
R ²	.17	0.24
F	5.20**	3.16**
R ² increment		0.07

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 88 dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

While Machiavellianism also significantly predicted reported use of emotional strategies ($b = .296$, $p = .005$) as it did at the individual level (see Table 11), emotional understanding also significantly but negatively predicted emotional strategies ($b = -.230$, $p = .028$). Perspective taking positively, but marginally, predicted emotional strategies ($b = .198$, $p = .051$). Males were once again found to report engaging in more emotional strategies at the dyad level and those with lower SAT scores were more likely to report utilizing these strategies as well.

Table 11. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on emotional strategies at the dyad level

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.47**	-.36**
SAT score	-.21*	-.19†
Negotiation Experience	.12	.19†
<i>Individual Differences</i>		

Perspective Taking		.20†
Machiavellianism		.30**
Emotional Understanding		-.23*
Emotional Management		-.08
R^2	.25	0.39
F	8.55**	6.69**
R^2 increment		0.14**

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 88$ dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Negotiation Strategies as Predictors of Objective and Subjective Negotiation Outcomes

In order to establish what strategies lead to higher individual and joint gain outcomes, two regression analyses were conducted with all three strategy types (integrative, distributive, and emotional) predicting individual gain and joint gain. Integrative ($b = .339$, $p < .001$) and emotional strategies ($b = -.321$, $p = .002$) significantly predicted individual gain while distributive strategies failed to predict the outcome ($b = .136$, $p > .05$; see Table 12).

Table 12. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of negotiation strategies on individual gain

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.14	-.11
SAT score	-.08	-.08
Negotiation Experience	.01	-.03
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Integrative Strategies		.34**
Distributive Strategies		.14
Emotional Strategies		-.32**
R^2	.03	.20
F	1.23	5.24**
R^2 increment		.17**

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 176$; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

At the dyad level of analysis, integrative strategy usage was the only type of strategy to significantly predict joint gain ($b = .284$, $p = .013$; see Table 13).

Table 13. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of negotiation strategies on joint gain

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.36**	-.25†
SAT score	.10	.15
Negotiation Experience	-.08	-.09
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Integrative Strategies		.28*
Distributive Strategies		.06
Emotional Strategies		-.03
R^2	.16	.23
F	4.80**	3.66**
R^2 increment		.07†

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; † $p < 0.10$.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 88$ dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Viability

Dyad viability was assessed by averaging two items that asked participants about the extent to which they would want to work with their partner in the future. This variable, along with negotiation satisfaction, can be thought of as a subjective outcome to negotiation that compliments the objective criteria of individual and joint gain. The same regression analyses that were performed with individual and joint gain were performed for viability as a dependent variable. The control variables of gender, SAT score, and negotiation experience were entered first and the individual difference variables of perspective taking, Machiavellianism, emotional understanding, and emotional management were entered second. The analysis revealed that only Machiavellianism significantly predicted viability in a negative direction ($b = -.210$, $p = .028$; see

Table 14). Of the control variables, SAT score positively predicted viability, indicating that those with higher SAT scores were more likely to want to work with their partners in the future.

Table 14. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on viability

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.03	-.05
SAT score	.20*	.19*
Negotiation Experience	.01	-.03
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.05
Machiavellianism		-.21*
Emotional Understanding		.03
Emotional Management		-.09
R ²	.04	.09
F	1.78	1.75
R ² increment		.05

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 176; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Interestingly, when the same analysis was conducted at the dyad level, it was revealed that only perspective taking significantly and negatively predicted dyad viability ($b = -.276$, $p = .025$; see Table 15). It was also found that prior negotiation experience negatively predicted viability at the dyad level of analysis. More experienced negotiators were less likely to want to work with their partners in the future.

Table 15. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on viability at the dyad level

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.03	-.04
SAT score	-.03	-.01
Negotiation Experience	-.25*	-.28*
<i>Individual Differences</i>		

Perspective Taking		-.28*
Machiavellianism		-.06
Emotional Understanding		.13
Emotional Management		-.13
R^2	.06	.15
F	1.66	1.73
R^2 increment		.08

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 88$ dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Negotiation Satisfaction

General satisfaction with the negotiation was also calculated with the average of two items. None of the four individual difference variables significantly predicted negotiation satisfaction at the individual level (see Table 16). It was also found that previous negotiation experience negatively predicted negotiation satisfaction. Therefore, more experienced negotiators were less satisfied with their negotiation experience in this study.

Table 16. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on negotiation satisfaction

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.15†	-.15†
SAT score	.03	.02
Negotiation Experience	-.18*	-.19*
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		.00
Machiavellianism		-.06
Emotional Understanding		.02
Emotional Management		-.09
R^2	.05	.06
F	2.40†	1.17
R^2 increment		.01

**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; $N = 176$; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

At the dyad-level of analysis, the same finding emerged in that none of the individual difference variables significantly predicted general negotiation satisfaction (see Table 17).

Negotiation experience also led to significantly less negotiation satisfaction at the dyad level.

Negotiation experience was found to negatively predict negotiation satisfaction so that more experienced negotiators were less likely to be satisfied with their negotiation experiences.

Table 17. Hierarchical regression analysis for testing the effects of individual differences on negotiation satisfaction at the dyad level

Independent variables	Model	
	1	2
<i>Controls</i>		
Gender	-.08	-.07
SAT score	.09	.12
Negotiation Experience	-.24*	-.23†
<i>Individual Differences</i>		
Perspective Taking		-.19
Machiavellianism		.00
Emotional Understanding		.05
Emotional Management		-.01
R ²	.07	.13
F	1.90	1.52
R ² increment		.06

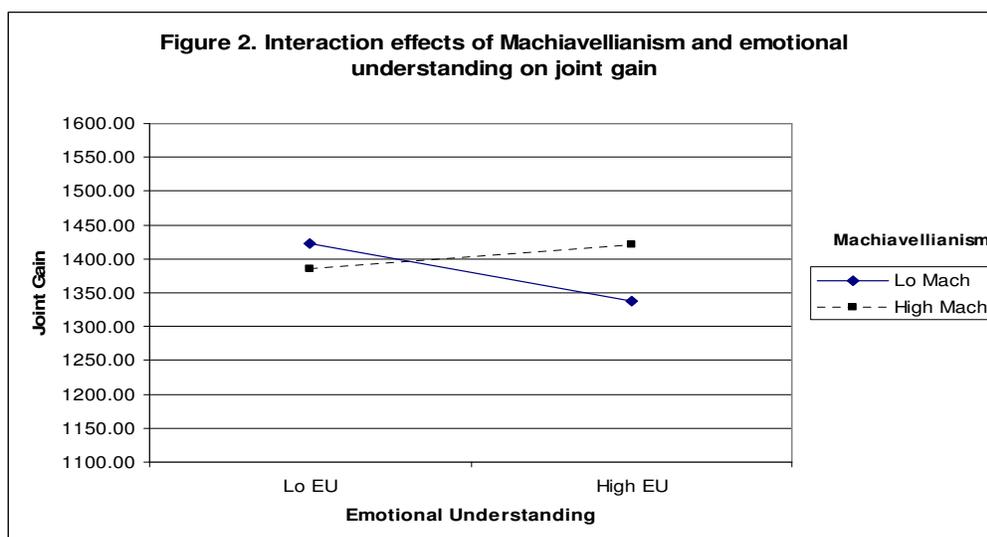
**p<0.01; *p<0.05; †p<0.10.

Note: Entries are beta weights; N = 88 dyads; SD=standard deviation; Gender (1 = males; 2 = females).

Moderator Analyses

The same moderation analyses were conducted for joint gain as were for individual gain in Hypothesis 2b through 2d. Perspective taking, emotional management, and emotional understanding were all centered and multiplied together with the centered variable of Machiavellianism to form three interaction terms. Joint gain was the dependent variable in the regression analyses while gender, SAT score, and negotiation experience were entered on the first step as controls. The centered Machiavellianism variable and the other centered individual

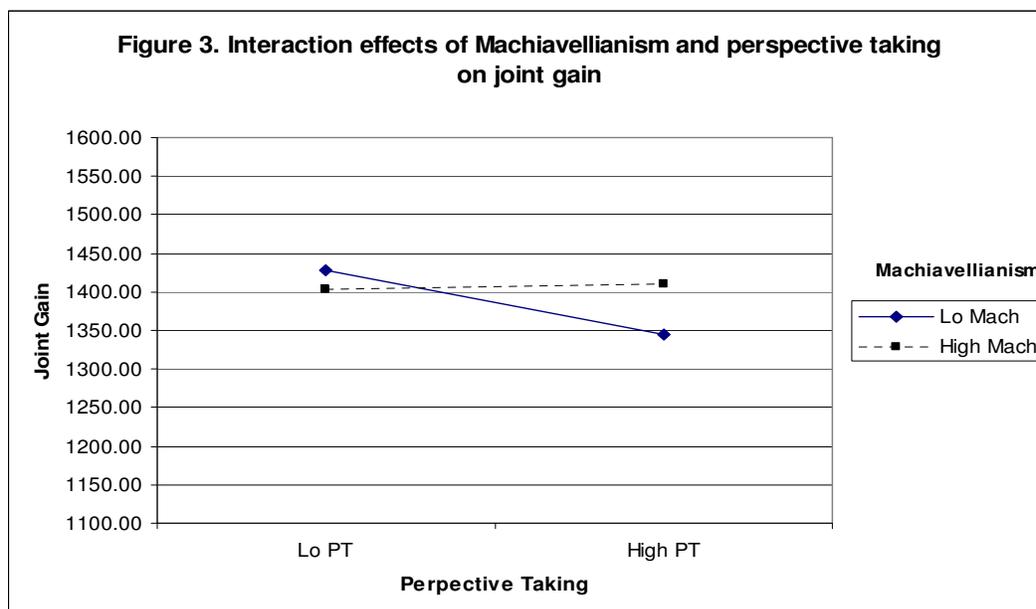
difference variables of interest (PT, EU, or EM) were entered on the second step, and the interaction term with Machiavellianism and the individual difference of interest was entered on the third step. The interaction term of Machiavellianism-emotional understanding did not significantly predict joint gain beyond the variables entered separately and the controls ($b = .138$, $p > .05$). However, the interaction term became a significant predictor of joint gain after the control variables were removed from the analysis ($b = .231$, $p = .031$). The interaction plot (see Figure 2) shows that dyads that are low in both Machiavellianism and emotional understanding or high in both individual differences earn the highest joint gain. Those low in Machiavellianism and high in emotional understanding earn the least. It also appears that emotional understanding has more of an influence on low Machs than on high Machs. For those low in Machiavellianism, low emotional understanding resulted in higher joint gain than high emotional understanding. Overall, it seems that dyads that have similar levels of Machiavellianism and emotional understanding (either both high or both low) are more successful in achieving higher joint gain. However, a simple slope analysis revealed that EU does not predict joint gain when Machiavellianism is low ($b = -.171$, $p = .179$) or when it is high ($b = -.087$, $p = .510$).



With control variables in the equation, the interaction term of Machiavellianism and emotional management was also not a significant predictor of joint gain ($b = .166, p > .05$).

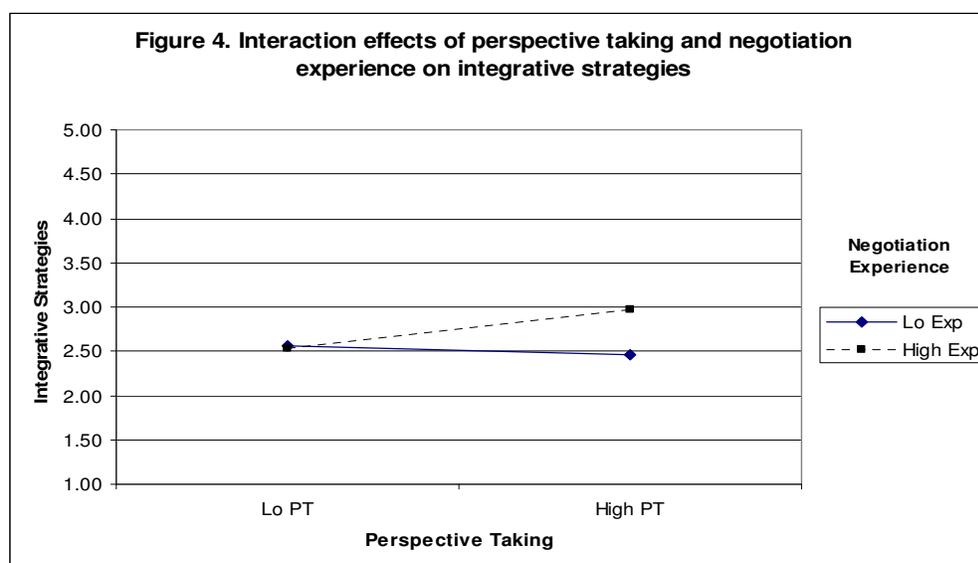
When control variables were removed, the interaction term only marginally predicted joint gain ($b = .208, p = .056$).

Although the PT-Machiavellianism interaction term was not a significant predictor when the control variables were included in the equation ($b = .169, p > .05$), it became significant when control variables were taken out ($b = .247, p = .024$). The graph below (see Figure 3) shows that for dyads that are high in Machiavellianism, perspective taking makes little difference. However, for low-Mach dyads, a low level of PT yielded the highest joint gain earning while those with a high level of perspective taking seem to earn the lowest joint gain. A simple slope analysis, however, revealed that PT does not predict joint gain when Mach is low ($b = -.221, p = .101$) or when Mach is high ($b = -.073, p = .500$).



Several analyses were also conducted using the variable of negotiation experience as a moderator. The four individual difference variables were centered and multiplied by the centered

variable of negotiation experience, and these new interaction terms were entered on the last step of each regression. Gender and SAT scores served as control variables and were entered on the first level of the regression. Negotiation strategies served as the dependent variable since prior negotiation experience would most directly affect the process by which people negotiate, more so than a more distal outcome such as individual or joint gain. The interaction variable of PT-negotiation experience significantly predicted integrative strategy usage at the individual-level above the effects of the control variables and the PT and negotiation experience variables alone ($b = .239, p = .003$). The interaction plot below (see Figure 4) shows that individuals low in perspective taking use an average number of integrative strategies, regardless of their prior negotiation experience level. Those with high levels of PT and low levels of experience engage in about the same average level of strategy usage as well. However, individuals high in PT and high in prior experience utilize significantly more integrative strategies. A simple slope analysis revealed that PT predicts reported integrative strategy use when previous negotiation experience is high ($b = .329, p = .002$), but not when it is low ($b = -.075, p = .444$).



None of the other individual difference variables predicted any of the three types of negotiation strategies when multiplied by prior negotiation experience.

The same moderation analyses were conducted at the dyad level. However, none of the interaction variables significantly predicted negotiation strategies above and beyond the individual difference variables entered separately and the control variables. When control variables were removed from the regression, the same non-significant results were observed.

Chapter 4

Discussion

This study examined the role of individual differences (Machiavellianism, perspective taking, emotional understanding and emotional management) on cognitive and emotional negotiation strategy usage and individual and joint gain in negotiations. The previous negotiation literature has been unclear as to what types of individual differences contribute to negotiation outcomes. This study examined four personality variables that are conceptually relevant to negotiation outcomes, but that have not been given much attention in the negotiation literature in the past. Therefore, the results of this research help to illuminate the individual differences that should be considered in future negotiation studies and that may be helpful in terms of selection and training for negotiation roles in applied settings.

The results of this study reveal that Machiavellianism leads to higher reported distributive and emotional strategy utilization at both the individual and dyad level, but does not predict individual or joint gain. On the other hand, perspective taking, emotional understanding and emotional management did not predict any strategy usage at the individual level or individual or joint gain outcomes. However, emotional understanding did lead to lower utilization of emotional strategies at the dyad level of analysis. Furthermore, integrative strategies predicted increased individual and joint gain, whereas emotional strategies had a negative effect on individual gain. Additional analyses on negotiation satisfaction and dyad viability showed that while no individual difference variables predicted negotiation satisfaction, Machiavellianism negatively predicted viability at the individual level and perspective taking negatively predicted viability at the dyadic level. It was also found that males performed better overall in terms of both objective outcomes and self-reported strategy usage. Finally, a moderation analysis revealed

that prior negotiation experience enabled those with high perspective taking to report engaging in more integrative strategies.

There are several overarching reasons for which numerous non-significant findings appeared in this study. For example, although a proportion of participants were upper-level business students, the remaining participants were either upper-level psychology students or students in introductory psychology classes, both of whom have little, if any, formal negotiating experience. Based on anecdotal evidence collected through observing the dyads negotiate, many students failed to take the negotiation task seriously and did not put much effort into completing the task to their maximum capabilities. Even though the negotiation task was constructed in a way to be relatable to undergraduate students and involved a situation that many will likely experience soon after graduation, many participants still did not take the task seriously. It is likely that results would have been different with more experienced negotiators who cared about the task. Also, the negotiation task in this study did not allow for the possibility of a future relationship with one's partner because it was a one-time negotiation. Since most students finished the task very quickly and knew that they would not have to negotiate again with the same partner, individual differences may not have had the opportunity to show themselves fully in this study.

Lack of participants' previous negotiation experience may have resulted in several problems. While the mean for negotiation experience was approximately a three on a five-point scale ($M = 2.98$), representing an average amount of previous experience, frequencies show that few participants reported anything greater than an average amount of prior familiarity with negotiations in various settings. Specifically, 37% of participants had no formal job negotiation experience and only 12.5% had a high level of experience (4 on a 5-point scale) in that area; no

participant was extremely experienced (5 on a 5-point scale) in this negotiation setting. Furthermore, 15% were not at all experienced with class negotiations and 4.5% were extremely experienced, while over 80% of participants reported an average amount of experience with formal class negotiations. Participants had more experience overall with informal negotiations and frequencies show that no one claimed no experience with family negotiations while 33.5% reported being extremely experienced in this area. Finally, 11% of participants reported no experience at all with sales negotiations and only 8% reported being extremely experienced with this type of negotiation.

This lack of substantial experience is particularly relevant when considering the fact that many of the negotiation strategies tested in this study are complex and difficult to carry out. Emotional strategies, in particular, are challenging to accomplish, and the participants' overall low levels of experience may help explain why the base rate for these strategies was so low. Specifically, the mean for emotional strategy use was 1.53 on a five-point scale and no participant averaged anything higher than a three. Frequencies show that 10% of participants reported engaging in no emotional strategies at all, 73.5% reported using these strategies only occasionally, and the remainder of the participants reported using them fairly often. Although the task chosen was meant to create experimental realism by providing a scenario that undergraduate students could connect with, this sample may have been too young and inexperienced to fully understand the implications of the task and to be serious about performing well on it. A major insight into the issue of experience lies in the ancillary analyses that showed that experience moderated the relationship between perspective taking and integrative strategies. There were no main effects, however, for individual differences for integrative strategies. Since it was found that reported integrative strategy usage seems to be the key to earning greater amounts of both

individual and joint gain, experience should be a crucial consideration for negotiation studies, especially when it is considered alongside individual differences like perspective taking.

Another reason for the lack of significant findings in this study can be attributed to poor scale psychometrics. Although the scales used in this study were previously validated and have shown acceptable reliability coefficients (Christie & Geis, 1970; Davis, 1980; MacCann, 2006), the data gathered from the current sample was not as internally consistent. With the exception of Machiavellianism ($\alpha = .705$), the alpha levels for each of the four individual difference variables ($\alpha = .649$ for PT; $\alpha = .515$ for EU; $\alpha = .450$ for EM) were below the acceptable value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The analyses were therefore conducted with three out of four independent variables measured by scales of low internal consistency. It is possible that the reason for the significant findings involving Machiavellianism were helped by the more psychometrically sound measurement of this individual difference as compared to the other three constructs. In contrast, emotional understanding and management had particularly low alphas, and hypotheses concerning these constructs were generally not supported. A possible reason for several of the low alphas observed was that the survey materials were lengthy and many participants displayed visible fatigue at having to complete them. Therefore, many participants either did not take the surveys seriously or were irritated with the number of items to be completed and may not have responded consistently. On a similar note, range restriction was also an issue with the study, especially for the variables of reported emotional and distributive strategy usage. Many participants did not employ these tactics or rarely utilized them. As range restriction attenuates correlations, it is not surprising that most of the hypotheses dealing with emotional strategies were not supported. All findings involving these constructs should be interpreted with caution.

Finally, the lack of significant findings at the dyad level may be attributed to mean aggregation. Averaging data from two individuals has the potential to mask certain differences in characteristics that could be important to achieving outcomes. For example, aggregating data by the mean does not distinguish between dyads consisting of an individual that is low on an individual difference and one that is high on that individual difference, from a dyad where both individuals are average on that trait. Therefore, dyads could be either homogenous or heterogeneous in individual differences but have a similar dyadic mean.

The hypothesis (1a) stating that Machiavellianism would predict utilization of distributive strategies was supported, indicating that those higher in Machiavellianism reported engaging in a greater number of distributive strategies with their partners. Participants who identified themselves as high in Machiavellianism displayed manipulative behaviors by engaging in distributive tactics in an attempt to increase their own gain. This finding is consistent with the prediction made in previous studies (Harrell, 1980; Hegarty & Sims, 1979; Vecchio & Sussmann, 1991) in that those high in Machiavellianism would be more likely to use tactics in which they can exploit the other party since the other individual differences examined in this study do not entail self-interest and manipulation. It is appropriate that no other individual differences contributed significantly to distributive strategy usage. Therefore, those high in Machiavellianism were the only ones who reported engaging in these strategies.

Unlike Hypothesis 1a, Hypotheses 1b through 1d were not supported. Perspective taking did not predict reported integrative strategy utilization and neither did the rest of the individual difference variables. This unexpected finding makes more sense when examining the characteristics of the PT construct, which do not include acting on the understanding of another person's position or view. It simply indicates that an individual high in PT is able to see multiple

viewpoints (Goreflo & Crano, 1998; Johnson, 1975). Although the construct implies that the desires of the other party are important (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005), the measure utilized in this study did not tap the value that individuals attach to the other party's perspective. Individuals high in perspective taking may not actually act in an understanding or compromising manner, especially if their partners fail to reciprocate these behaviors initially. Taking a partner's perspective may have been unfavorable to the participants' goals for the negotiation and so it is possible that having understood their partner's position, the high PT participants simply chose not to compromise or actively attempt to work with their partners in creating integrative goals. Therefore, simply having the ability may not be enough to produce tangible negotiation results. Having a measure of how much participants understood and agreed with their partner's perspective would have been more helpful in understanding these results.

The benefits of perspective taking may only be relevant with time and when a relationship is at stake. In addition, perhaps individuals high in PT would only be motivated to put forth the effort to work with their partners' perspective if they were building a long term relationship as opposed to engaging in a short, one-time negotiation. Finally, moderation analyses may also shed light on the failure of perspective taking to significantly predict integrative strategy use. Ancillary analyses found that only individuals high in both perspective taking and prior negotiation experience were able to reportedly increase their integrative strategy utilization. Therefore, perspective taking alone is not enough to enable an individual to utilize complicated integrative strategies; only when one has prior negotiation experience can perspective taking abilities be effectively put to use to affect the employment of integrative strategies.

Additional findings showed that neither emotional understanding nor emotional management predicted reported emotional strategy usage. This was likely due to the poor internal consistency of both measures. Both emotional understanding and emotional management had alpha levels that were well below the acceptable level, making these findings difficult to interpret. However, similar to perspective taking, possessing emotional understanding and management may not necessarily cause an individual to use his/her abilities to engage in emotional strategies. For example, participants may not have been invested enough in the task to put forth the effort to display certain emotions or may not have gotten the chance to engage in emotional regulation because the negotiation happened too quickly. However, Foo and colleagues (2004) were successful in demonstrating significant results for emotional intelligence's impact on negotiation outcomes with a Chinese sample, which may indicate that college students in the US are less able to use emotional abilities for their own benefit at the negotiation table.

On the other hand, an interesting finding emerged in that Machiavellianism positively predicted emotional strategy usage even though this relationship was not originally hypothesized. An exploratory factor analysis revealed that emotional and distributive strategies loaded on the same factor. In light of these results, it is likely that emotional and distributive strategies are tapping a similar (though not identical) construct and therefore may have similar predictors. Participants could have also interpreted a partner's faking of emotions as a form of manipulation and therefore responded similarly, as they did for distributive strategies. Overall, it seems that utilization of emotional strategies does not require emotional understanding and management ability, but rather the desire to use emotions to one's own manipulative advantage as evidenced by the Machiavellianism predictor.

It is interesting to note that there was no significant correlation between self-rated and partner-rated negotiation tactics. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which their negotiation partner engaged in a subset of cognitive negotiation tactics that corresponded to several questions in the self-report strategies measure. When overall scores on this subset of items were correlated with self-report measures, there was no relationship between scores. Therefore, it seems that either participants' strategies were not manifesting themselves to their partners or that the partners were not paying enough attention to the strategies being used because they were so focused on their own negotiation performance.

The partner ratings of integrative and distributive strategy use replaced self-report ratings as the criterion in several exploratory analyses. The same control variables (gender, negotiation experience, and SAT score) were entered first into the regression and all four individual difference variables (Machiavellianism, PT, EU, and EM) were entered second. These analyses were done for both distributive and integrative strategy usage. Results showed that Machiavellianism was still the only variable that significantly predicted distributive strategy use ($b = .287, p = .002$), consistent with findings using the self-report measure of distributive strategies. However, findings also indicate that Machiavellianism is the only individual difference variable to predict integrative strategies as well ($b = -.221, p = .017$), but in the negative direction. Therefore, when negotiating with high-Mach partners, individuals indicated that their partners used more distributive strategies and less integrative strategies. This is consistent with what we know about the construct of Machiavellianism in that those high on this trait chose to act in a more manipulative and competitive way as opposed to a cooperative manner.

Because the results do not clarify which source is more trustworthy (self or partner ratings), the self-report measure was used for analyses because it was more comprehensive and because the alphas for the partner rating scales ($\alpha = .525$ for distributive strategies; $\alpha = .639$ for integrative strategies) were much lower than those found for the self-report measures. If, however, participants were less able to identify their own strategies, the inaccuracy of the self-report responses could explain the non-significant findings discussed above. A solution to this issue would be to videotape the negotiations and code them for instances of each type of strategy used. This may be the best way to get at the performance of tactics because previous research has shown that participants can be inaccurate when reporting their own perceptions of their employment of negotiation strategies (Deal, 2000).

Machiavellianism and all other individual difference variables failed to significantly predict individual gain. Although those high in Machiavellianism engaged in more distributive strategies, they were not successful in attaining higher individual gain. This lack of a relationship with individual gain is contrary to previous literature (Fry, 1985; Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, & Smith, 2002; Huber & Neale, 1986) that found that those high in Machiavellianism were able to increase their individual gain. Perhaps their partners realized what these participants were trying to do and did not allow them to achieve their outcome goals (Wilson, et al., 1996) or the high-Mach individuals simply did not carry out the distributive strategies well enough to increase their individual gain. Furthermore, it was found that Machiavellianism did not moderate the relationship between the other individual difference variables and individual gain.

It is unclear from the results of this study which individual difference variables, or combination of variables, actually contributed to explaining individual gain. One possibility for the lack of findings is that the outcome was too distal and too dependent on what one's partner

agrees to, whereas utilizing negotiation strategies is much more proximal and dependent on the individual engaging in the tactic. In terms of the moderation analyses, the interaction of Machiavellianism with the other individual differences could have either helped the participants or hurt them, depending on the reaction of their partners. If the partners caught on to the attempts to use emotions or perspective taking to benefit oneself, the individual difference interactions would have been harmful to one's final goal. However, if one's partner did not catch on to the manipulation of using other individual differences and abilities to one's advantage or allowed it to happen in spite of that realization, the participant may have achieved their goal of higher individual gain quite successfully. These two possible scenarios may therefore have annulled a clear relationship between the interaction variables and individual gain and therefore caused the results to be non-significant.

The hypotheses that focused on joint gain as the outcome variable were all unsupported; the individual difference variables used in this study did not predict joint gain. The finding that perspective taking was unrelated to joint gain contradicts the results of Kemp and Smith (1994), which showed that perspective taking leads to higher levels of joint gain. An explanation for this lack of support may come from ancillary analyses that showed that integrative strategy usage was the only significant joint gain predictor. Integrative strategy use was associated with higher levels of joint gain. No other type of strategy utilization or any individual difference predicted the joint gain outcome. Since none of the individual difference variables predicted integrative strategy utilization, it is possible that the predictor variables chosen for investigation in this study were not ones that lend themselves to cooperative tactics and subsequent dyad level gain. Another potential reason for the lack of findings with this set of hypotheses is that the individual difference predictors were too distal to directly predict an outcome that is so contingent upon the

actions of one's partner. Although this analysis was conducted at the dyad level which aggregated individual differences between the two participants in each dyad, individuals within the dyad may not have employed these characteristics in the same way or utilized them at all in order to achieve joint gain. Non-complimentary individual differences between partners or the presence of a participant who was very competitive or manipulative may have led to increased conflict and less joint gain (Fry, 1985), while complimentary cooperative personalities between partners could have increased it. Two ancillary moderation analyses also showed the importance of complementary individual differences between partners. Specifically, dyads that had partners that were either both high or both low on Machiavellianism and emotional understanding simultaneously were able to earn higher joint gain. When the dyad was low on one individual difference but high on the other, joint gain was lessened. Similarly, dyads who were low on both Machiavellianism and perspective taking simultaneously earned the highest joint gain. These findings are consistent with what was discovered in research by Fry (1985) in that partners who were mismatched in terms of Machiavellianism earned the lowest collective payoffs. It seems that the more matched the partners are in terms of individual differences, the more joint gain they can earn. Having similarity in individual differences may free up time to focus on earning more points for the dyad and may lead to faster agreement between partners.

Ancillary Analyses

Several ancillary analyses were conducted for exploratory purposes, but yielded some noteworthy results. For the most part, analyses at the dyad level did not differ from those found at the individual level. No individual differences predicted integrative strategies at this level, and only Machiavellianism predicted distributive strategies as was found at the individual level. However, while Machiavellianism continued to positively predict emotional strategy usage at the

dyad level as well, emotional understanding now emerged as a negative predictor of reported emotional strategy usage at the dyad level. This finding is puzzling since those who are better able to understand the complexity of emotions should in theory be better at using strategies that involve such emotions. Aside from raising questions about the construct validity of the emotional intelligence measures used in the study, it is also probable that having the ability to understand emotions does not necessarily mean that the negotiator will employ emotions in a tactical way. Recognizing and understanding someone's emotions also does not imply that one will empathize with them or desire to connect with the person on an emotional level. Perhaps the dyads who were able to appreciate the emotion involved in the negotiation situation purposely stayed away from using emotional strategies out of concern that they would exploit the situation unnecessarily.

Another important caveat to consider is that emotional strategies demonstrated a low base rate, and descriptive statistics showed that individuals rarely engaged in these strategies. Therefore, differences in emotional strategy utilization between dyads are not particularly meaningful since they were used so rarely to begin with. Also, because building up a believable emotional display may require longer than the experiment allowed, participants who would have otherwise been able to utilize emotions to their advantage simply may not have had the time to invest in carrying out the necessary steps. Since the finding that dyads that were higher on emotional understanding were less likely to report using emotional strategies was only observed at the dyad level of analysis, the possible interplay between the two participants in each dyad could explain why this was not found at the individual level. Individuals in dyads that were emotionally understanding of each other may have spent more time trying to understand their partners rather than engaging in tactics. Finally, many people still believe that emotions should

not interfere in a decision making context such as negotiations (Adolphs & Damasio, 2001; Gray, 2003; Ogilvie & Carsky, 2002). Therefore, participants who were aware of the emotional undertones in the negotiation may have decided to purposely hide their emotions instead of using them to their advantage.

Whereas reported integrative strategy usage was associated with higher levels of both joint and individual gain, distributive strategies were not associated with either outcome. Emotional strategy usage was negatively correlated with individual gain. An examination of the negotiation task's structure may help explain why this occurred. The task's integrative component allowed for a significant amount of increase in a dyad's joint gain if these integrative components were recognized and taken advantage of by participants. The employment of integrative strategies is the most effective way of unlocking a negotiation task's integrative potential (Carnevale & Isen, 1986; Thompson, 1990). Therefore, individuals and dyads who capitalized on the potential for increased gain by using these cooperative strategies were able to increase the outcome for themselves and their dyad. Although high individual gain is not necessarily associated with high joint gain if only one person dominates the negotiation and claims a lot of resources for themselves, integrative strategies take both partners into account and thus encourages high individual gain in both partners and in the dyad as a whole if carried out properly.

The finding that emotional strategies led to lower individual gain was unexpected. However, if individuals were using emotional strategies in a manipulative way, their partners may have been aware of this tactic and retaliated by resisting these strategies and not allowing the emotional strategy users to achieve their desired individual gain.

Interesting findings from the ancillary analyses emerged from the examination of the viability construct. Machiavellian individuals were less likely to want to work with their partners in the future. It is likely that high Machs were met with resistance or retaliation from partners, causing one to avoid a future working relationship with a partner. This finding is consistent with results from other studies that showed that high Mach negotiators have a decreased chance of establishing beneficial future negotiation relationships (Wilson, et al., 1996). More difficult to explain are the results indicating that dyads higher in perspective taking were less likely to desire a future relationship with one another. It would seem intuitive that partners who take the time to see an issue from each other's perspective would want to continue to work cooperatively in the future. However, if there is a mismatch between the partners in terms of perspective taking or if the partners simply did not want to act on each other's perspective because they did not agree with it, working together in the future may not be an optimal option. Participants within dyads may have become frustrated with each other when their attempts at perspective taking were not reciprocated and therefore would be more likely to respond negatively to viability items.

One of the most interesting findings that emerged in this study involved gender differences, which is not surprising considering that several previous research papers have cited gender differences in negotiation outcomes (e.g. Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005; King & Hinson, 1994; Watson, 1994). Males not only earned more individual and joint gain than females, but they also reported engaging in significantly more integrative, distributive, and emotional strategies than their female counterparts. These findings are consistent with previous literature on gender differences in outcomes and strategy use (Stevens, Bavetta, & Gist, 1993). However, there were no significant differences between the sexes in the level of prior negotiation experience. Although the data collected does not help explain the reasons for these findings,

anecdotal evidence may help illuminate this phenomenon. Specifically, male dyads seemed to be more comfortable with the negotiation task and were able to get into their roles more quickly. The female dyads had more trouble accepting the fact that they were being asked to negotiate with someone else, and displayed behaviors such as nervous laughter and giggling, and extended silences where neither female participant moved the negotiation forward. While male participants tended to speak in a confident manner, female participants often appeared shy or uncomfortable, which may have made them less likely to attempt negotiation strategies. This observation is consistent with previous literature, which found that men are more successful at negotiating in competitive situations (Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005). Women were also found to initiate negotiations less often than men, indicating that they may be less comfortable in a negotiation situation (Small, Gelfand, Babcock, & Gettman, 2007). Participants in female dyads also seemed to be more easily satisfied with proposed solutions than males. Male participants were more likely to go through several rounds of negotiating before coming to a final agreement, which would lead to higher individual gain, joint gain, or both. Stevens, Bavetta, and Gist (1993) found that female negotiators set lower goals for themselves and were thus prepared to settle for less, which can explain the willingness of female participants in this study to accept early offers more readily. While these explanations are based on observations and would need to be quantitatively verified in future research, previous research on gender differences has shown that it is the societal norm for females to be more compromising and communal, while males are expected to be more competitive and aggressive and would thus be less likely to accept unsatisfactory offers (Eagly & Karau, 2002). These norms would be expected to be particularly salient when negotiating with someone of one's own sex, where these norms and behaviors have the potential to be constantly reinforced by the other person. It is

possible that different findings would have emerged if the dyads in this study were mixed-sex rather than matched by gender. In that case, females may have become aggressive to compete with the male style of more competitive negotiating or vice versa. However, even if this is the case, King and Hinson (1994) and Watson (1994) still demonstrated that males outperform females in negotiations in mixed-sex dyads.

The gender findings discussed above may not necessarily replicate in a setting of experienced negotiators since both males and females would be more likely to have an arsenal of tactics at their disposal and be comfortable using them. However, these results do have real-world implications. If females enter the job market uncomfortable about engaging in salary and benefits negotiations with future employers (the scenario of this negotiation task), they will run the risk of acquiring lower starting salaries than males, who seem to be much more comfortable in a negotiation setting. Therefore, it is crucial that college-aged females entering the job market be taught proper negotiation skills and build confidence when negotiating with a future supervisor.

Limitations and Future Research Recommendations

This study has some limitations that are worth noting. First, the use of undergraduate students with limited negotiation experience limits generalizability to real world negotiations. Although the original plan was to only use upper-level management students, it was necessary to include introductory psychology students in order to achieve an adequate sample size. It is likely that management students took the task more seriously because it is part of their curriculum and allows for good practice to apply negotiating skills learned in classes. Exploratory data from this study supports this explanation. At the end of the survey packet, participants were asked the extent to which their own desire to do well on the task influenced their motivation during the

negotiation. When business and non-business students' responses to this question were compared using a t-test, it was found that business students were significantly more intrinsically motivated to do well on the task than non-business students ($M_{\text{bus}} = 4.94$; $M_{\text{non-bus}} = 4.30$; $t = 2.04$, $p = .043$). Because it appears that the design of this study was better suited to examine more experienced negotiators, it would be interesting to replicate the results using a large sample of upper level business students or negotiators in organizations.

Another limitation of the study was that participants did not perceive the incentives offered to be sufficient enough to encourage better performance in the negotiation task. The prizes did not motivate participants to employ a large amount of effort and therefore, the incentives did not have the intended effect. Data from several exploratory questions at the end of the second survey packet about the importance of each incentive indicated that most of the participants were not motivated by the candy prize or the gift certificate prize. Specifically, 47.7% of participants were not at all motivated by the candy prize and an additional 19% were very slightly motivated by it. Also, 28% of participants were not at all motivated by the lottery and 24% were very slightly motivated. Participants were motivated by the extra credit granted to them in return for participating (34% were extremely motivated by it), but extra credit was awarded regardless of their performance on the task. Future studies should pay all participants a base rate for participation, but can allow extra money to be earned based on negotiation performance. There were also no consequences for performing poorly, which could have contributed further to the lack of effort to perform well or use negotiation strategies.

Another reason discussed earlier for the lack of findings is the poor psychometric properties of the scales used in this study. Replicating this study with more widely-used measures, such as the MSCEIT may help illuminate the true reason for the lack of significant

findings in this study. More reliable and psychometrically sound scale measures of the variables examined in this research should be utilized in the future. Furthermore, this study should also be replicated with a different sample since the measures used have previously displayed acceptable reliability levels.

It was expected that emotional understanding and emotional management would be particularly prominent in a negotiation task with emotional undertones. While a family situation was embedded in the negotiation task to increase the emotional content, observations of participants during the negotiation showed that they rarely referred to the family issue when performing the negotiation, thus ignoring the emotional content of the task. Therefore, future research should examine negotiation tasks with greater emotional stakes (such as a hostage situation) in order to determine how emotional abilities play out in a truly emotional negotiation.

Future research should continue to investigate the effects of conceptually relevant individual differences on negotiation outcomes and strategies. It is still unclear from this research exactly what factors lead to usage of integrative strategies, which appeared to be the only variable linked to both individual and joint gain. Studying other individual difference variables such as cooperativeness/competitiveness and empathy may give clues to the characteristics needed in order to achieve higher integrative strategy utilization potential. If the goal of organizations is to maximize individual and/or joint gain, researchers should investigate the antecedents of achieving these goals and teach them to employees. Future research should also examine other relevant individual differences, including competitive/cooperative orientation, time urgency, uncertainty avoidance, emotional expressivity, creative disposition, and individualism/collectivism.

Individual differences can play a different role when there is a possibility of a future relationship (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997; Wilson, et al., 1996), so examining the individual differences discussed in this study in a setting of repeat negotiations may yield some interesting results such as reductions in Machiavellian tendencies. Also, since it is possible that the individual differences did not have a chance to manifest themselves in the expected way in this research, employing a lengthier and more complex negotiation task may allow for opportunities for the individual differences to come through and have a stronger effect on outcomes. Although the participants in this study were not given a limit as to how much time they had to complete the task, many dyads finished within the first 15 minutes, which may not have been enough time for individual differences to have a major impact. This also restricts the time necessary to develop and enact the proper negotiation tactics.

Implications

Several noteworthy implications emerged from the results of this study. First, researchers who plan on conducting negotiation studies should account for experience differences between participants. Researchers may also consider examining differences in negotiation tactics between males and females, as this turned out to be one of the most prominent predictors of almost all outcome variables in this study. Gender seems to be an important variable to consider when studying negotiations with a student sample in particular. For this reason, the development of negotiation skill-building programs among college females could erode their apparent disadvantage in this area. Also, organizations should ensure that their negotiators are competent in performing integrative tactics (regardless if the organization's goal is to increase their own gain or the gain of the entire negotiating team) or train them until they are successfully able to engage in these tactics comfortably.

In spite of several limitations, this study did yield beneficial information about effective negotiations. For example, the use of integrative strategies is crucial for success in negotiations with integrative potential. Organizations should also recognize that Machiavellian negotiators may yield both positive and negative outcomes. On the positive side, Machiavellianism leads to distributive and emotional strategy utilization, although these tactics were not found to be connected with individual or joint gain. However, this does not mean that they will not be beneficial in an organizational setting with experienced negotiators. On the negative side, high Machs are also less likely to want to work with their partner in the future so sending someone of this nature to build up strong future professional bonds through the negotiation process should be avoided since this individual difference decreases viability. Overall, Machiavellianism is a construct worthy of further investigation in negotiation studies since it was robustly related to increased usage of several negotiation tactics. However, perspective taking, emotional understanding, and emotional management, seem somewhat less promising. Although EU, EM, and PT did not yield significant effects in the current study, examining them with more psychometrically-sound measures using a more experienced sample may yield fruitful results, as these variables have a strong conceptual connection with negotiation outcomes and should therefore be explored more thoroughly in future research.

Appendix A

Negotiation Task

General Information: *Both you and your partner have this information*

The company “A New Blend” is a coffee house chain. The company was founded 10 years ago as a way of catering to the coffee needs of the community and residents with different lifestyles. For example, those who want to relax and socialize with friends can stay and drink their coffee on colorful couches while the super-speedy counter provides fast service for those who want to grab their coffee and go. The company is successful, popular, and is expanding quickly. The organization currently has 5 locations and is opening up a new (6th) location that is going to be the largest shop. Each of the locations has its own managers who supervise a barista staff of 5 to 7 people, depending on the location size.

The new location is in need of a new, competent manager who has a college degree and will be committed to the new job and the company. Previous managerial experience, especially in the coffee industry, would be ideal as well. “A New Blend” has hired a few people from other local coffee shops such as the “Crazy Bean” and “Jolt Café” and has been very satisfied in the past with the employees that transfer from these smaller companies. “A New Blend” treats their employees well and offers them room for advancement and career development.

Candidate Role

Please DO NOT write on this packet

Confidential Information: *Only you have this information*

You will now be participating in a job placement scenario. You will be playing the role of a job candidate and will be negotiating with a fellow student playing the role of the employer. The purpose of this negotiation is to come to a mutual agreement with your negotiating partner while trying to obtain an outcome with the best score possible.

You have been working at the company “Jolt Café” for a few months after having graduated from college. Although the job has paid you a decent salary, you only took it in order to gain work experience before moving on to a job in which you would like to work long-term. You do not enjoy working at the Jolt Café since it is a very small company and there is little room for mobility. Furthermore, it does not give you the opportunity to take on the amount of managerial responsibilities you desire. You’re simply using your current job as a means of making your resume look more impressive to the companies you really want to work for.

You are also looking for a salary increase and additional benefits that you did not receive at Jolt Café. Throughout your educational career, your family has provided financially for you. However, one of your parents recently lost a job and money is very tight. Your family has asked you to contribute to the family funds, which has put the pressure on you to get a job that would allow you to help out.

You have been applying for several jobs and have gotten a call back from the company you would most prefer to work for, “A New Blend,” and have been asked to come in to discuss your employment opportunities. You are a knowledgeable and well-qualified candidate and after a review of your previous experience and capabilities, the management at “A New Blend” is

seriously considering offering you the job at their new location, if your salary and benefits negotiation goes well. You know “A New Blend” is a rapidly expanding company that treats their employees well. They also provide opportunities for salary increases, medical insurance, and vacation packages. You would love to work there if they give you a good compensation package. This job would be a long-term commitment for you so you need to make sure that you are satisfied with the terms before starting.

You will now meet with a representative from “A New Blend” to negotiate your starting salary, vacation days, annual raise, start date, and medical insurance coverage. You must come to a mutual agreement with the employer about each issue before you can take the job.

Please refer to the payoff schedule below that lists the possible options for each of the categories. Notice the points (the numbers in parentheses) assigned to each value. This table lists the options that the employer may offer you based on their company standards and policies. Your goal is to earn as many points as possible while still reaching a mutual agreement. Remember that this is an opportunity for you to solve your family's financial problems and may be the start of further career development and mobility.

(Since this negotiation requires that each party has confidential information that the other doesn't know, it is crucial that you **DO NOT SHOW YOUR PAYOFF TABLE TO YOUR PARTNER.**)

Candidate Payoff Schedule: *(In order of issue importance from left to right)*

Salary <i>(most important)</i>	Next Year Raise	Start Date	Medical Coverage	Vacation <i>(least important)</i>
\$46,000 (400)	8% (240)	June 1 (200)	100% (120)	3 weeks (60)
\$44,000 (300)	6% (180)	June 15 (150)	90% (90)	2 ½ weeks (45)
\$42,000 (200)	4% (120)	Jul 1 (100)	80% (60)	2 weeks (30)
\$40,000 (100)	2% (60)	Jul 15 (50)	70% (30)	1 ½ weeks (15)
\$38,000 (0)	0% (0)	Aug 1 (0)	60% (0)	1 week (0)

You may agree to any combination of issues (e.g., \$44,000, 2 weeks vacation, 2% raise) and you may choose any option within each of the 5 issues above without having to select one row across all 5 issues.

Salary:

The first column represents the possible annual starting salary that you can earn while working at "A New Blend." Since you are most concerned with helping your family pay the

bills, this issue is most important to you. Notice that the amount of points you can earn from negotiating the top salary (\$46,000) is 400, which is the highest point value in the table. The higher the salary you can get from this negotiation, the better you will be able to financially assist your family and yourself. The current salary you are earning at Jolt Café is \$40,750. Your ideal salary is \$46,000.

Next Year Raise:

The third column represents the raise that you will receive in your salary next year. This is the second most important issue to you, which is why you earn the second highest amount of points from negotiating the best option (240 points). An 8% raise is the best option since it means that your starting salary will increase a substantial amount next year. This will add 8% of your current salary on top of your current salary. This issue is important because one of the reasons you wanted a new job was for the upward mobility. A raise guarantees that you will be rewarded for staying loyal to the company, which is something that you want as well. Furthermore, a higher raise will also allow you to help your family more financially. At your current job, you do not have a guaranteed raise. Your ideal salary raise rate would be 8%.

Start Date:

The fourth column represents the date on which you would begin your new job. Notice that you will earn the most points from negotiating an early start date. You are anxious to get started on a new job and to be earning more money. Therefore, you would like to start as early as possible in order to take advantage of the benefits that you will receive from the new job. This issue is less important than the monetary issues (salary and raise) but is more important than vacation days and medical insurance coverage. Your ideal start date would be June 1st which would allow you to claim 200 points.

Medical Coverage:

The fifth column represents the amount of medical coverage you will receive for all of your medical procedures. For example, a medical insurance coverage of 60% means that the insurance will pay 60% of your doctor's bill while you pay the other 40%. This isn't as important to you as some of the other issues because you don't usually run up high medical bills and rarely seek expensive medical treatments. This medical coverage would only apply to you, since your parents have their own insurance and you do not yet have a family of your own that could benefit from the insurance. However, it is slightly more important to you than the vacation days since you don't mind being at work. Your previous job paid for 65% of your medical bills. Medical coverage can't hurt, so your ideal medical insurance plan would be 100% coverage, which would allow you to claim 120 points.

Vacation days:

The second column represents the number of vacation days you will be allowed to take during your starting year. It is beneficial for you to have more days off than less, but this issue is not crucial to you, which is why you only earn 60 points from negotiating the best option. You don't have enough extra money to go on vacation anyway and you think that the job will be exciting and challenging, which means that you will not feel the need to take long breaks from it. Your current job gives you 1 week of vacation. Your ideal number of vacation time is 3 weeks.

Overall, you should aim to obtain a \$46,000 salary (for which you will earn 400 points), a 3 week vacation (for which you will earn 60 points), an 8% salary increase (for which you will earn 240 points), a start date of June 1 (for which you will earn 200 points), and 100% medical insurance coverage (for which you will earn 120 points).

Employer Role

Please DO NOT write on this packet.

Confidential Information: *Only you have this information*

You will now be participating in a job placement scenario. You will be playing the role of the employer and will be negotiating with a fellow student playing the role of the job candidate. The purpose of this negotiation is to come to a mutual agreement with your negotiating partner while trying to obtain an outcome with the best score possible.

You have recently been asked to fill a managerial position, in the company “A New Blend,” of which your father is founder and president. Your father has asked that you take your new role very seriously as the company is expanding rapidly and really needs your help. These expansions require the hiring of several new managers to supervise new coffee shop locations. You have not received much training, but have been informed that you are responsible for hiring a new manager for the newest coffee shop location. Although you are still unsure of how exactly to conduct yourself during the hiring process, your father has put a great deal of faith in you and you cannot let him (or the company) down. Hiring someone for the new location is especially critical because there has traditionally been high business turnover in the area, so a good manager is essential to keeping the shop running smoothly long-term.

Since the company is using most of its resources to aid in the opening of new locations, finances are tough and offering top quality compensation packages to the new incoming managers would be taxing on company resources. The company cannot afford to give each new incoming employee everything they request, so you have been assigned to negotiate with potential candidates in order to hire the best one and still try to save the company as much money as possible in terms of starting salary, vacation days allotted, an annual raise, a start date, and

medical insurance coverage. You have also been instructed that time is a bigger issue than money because you need to fill the position as soon as possible and to have the new manager put in as many days as possible in order to ensure the success of the new location.

The job candidate that you will be meeting with shortly seems to be the most qualified of all the applicants and shows the most potential. You believe that this candidate would really serve the company well and are eager to make a job offer today if negotiations go well. If the candidate asks about possibilities to change the agreed-upon options in the future, please indicate that in the future you can discuss it, but that you must come to an agreement for the time being.

You will now meet with the job candidate to negotiate starting salary, vacation days, annual raise, start date, and medical insurance. You must come to a mutual agreement about each issue before you can officially offer the job.

Please refer to the payoff schedule below that lists the possible options for each of the categories and notice the points (the numbers in parentheses) assigned to each value. The table below was provided to you as a guide to the salary options and benefits that you are allowed to offer to the candidate. Your goal is to earn as many points as possible while still reaching a mutual agreement. Remember that this is an opportunity for you to help the family business succeed and you also want to make sure that you hire the best person for the job.

(Since this negotiation requires that each party has confidential information that the other doesn't know, it is crucial that you **DO NOT SHOW YOUR PAYOFF TABLE TO YOUR PARTNER.**)

Employer Payoff Schedule: *(In order of issue importance from left to right)*

Vacation <i>(most important)</i>	Next Year Raise	Start Date	Medical Coverage	Salary <i>(least important)</i>
3 weeks (0)	8% (0)	Aug 1 (0)	100% (0)	\$46,000 (0)
2 ½ weeks (100)	6% (60)	Jul 15 (50)	90% (30)	\$44,000 (15)
2 weeks (200)	4% (120)	Jul 1 (100)	80% (60)	\$42,000 (30)
1 ½ weeks (300)	2% (180)	June 15 (150)	70% (90)	\$40,000 (45)
1 week (400)	0% (240)	June 1 (200)	60% (120)	\$38,000 (60)

You may agree to any combination of issues (e.g., \$44,000, 2 weeks vacation, 2% raise) and you may choose any option within each of the 5 issues above without having to select one row across all 5 issues.

Vacation days:

The first column represents the number of vacation days you will allow the new manager to take during their starting year. It is beneficial for you to give less days off because the new

location is not yet established and needs constant supervision. You need your manager to put in as much time this year as possible in order to make sure that things at the new location run smoothly. This issue is very important to you since letting the new location go without management supervision for too long may cause serious problems for a shop that is just getting started. Notice that the amount of points you can earn from negotiating the shortest vacation (1 week) is 400, which is the maximum amount of points you can earn for this issue. The current average market vacation time for the open position is 2 weeks. The ideal vacation time you want to grant is 1 week.

Next Year Raise:

The second column represents the raise in salary that you can offer the new manager for next year. This is the second most important issue to you, which is why you earn 240 points from negotiating the best option. A 0% raise is the best option since it means that you do not have to guarantee a salary increase next year. The new manager's current salary will stay the same. This issue is very important to you because your father has specifically indicated that the company will have to take on the extra financial burden of all shop location renovations next year and the company will not have enough money to increase the employees' salary's much. If the company spends a lot of money on salary increases, the shop locations will suffer due to lack of quality renovations. The current market rate of annual raises is 5.5%. Your ideal annual raise rate would be 0% so that you can make sure that the company will have enough money to renovate.

Start Date:

The third column represents the date on which you want the new manager to begin his/her new job. Notice that you will earn the most points from negotiating the earliest start date (June 1) which would give you the maximum number of points for this issue (200). This issue is

important to you because you need someone to start at the new coffee shop location as soon as possible. However, this issue isn't as important to you as some of the long-term issues such as vacation time and annual raise. There is still a few weeks to go before the new location opens up and while it would be best to have the new manager involved in the set-up process and initial paperwork, it isn't the biggest priority at the moment. The ideal start date to negotiate would be June 1st.

Medical Coverage:

The fourth column represents the amount of medical coverage you may offer for medical procedures. For example, a medical insurance coverage of 60% means that the insurance you provide will pay 60% of the employee's doctor bill while the employee pays the other 40%. This isn't as important to you as some of the other issues because your company has a good deal with an insurance company who they've been working with for years and the insurance payments do not cost that much. In other words, there isn't a huge difference in terms of the cost of different types of insurance coverage to the company. However, in order to save the company as much money as possible, your ideal medical insurance plan offer would be 60% coverage, which would earn you the maximum number of points for this issue (120).

Salary:

The fifth column represents the possible annual starting salary that you can offer. You want to try to save the company as much money as possible so you would like to settle for a lower salary rather than a high one. Notice that the amount of points you can earn from negotiating the lowest salary (\$38,000) is 60, which is the maximum amount of points you can earn from this issue. This issue is not as important to you as the others because the company has already reserved the money needed to pay the manager at least the average market salary for the

first year. However, the lower the salary you can negotiate, the better you will be able to help the company save money. The average market salary for the position is \$40,750. The ideal salary you'd like to offer is \$38,000.

Overall, you should aim to offer a \$38,000 salary (for which you will earn 60 points), a 1 week vacation (for which you will earn 400 points), a 0% annual salary increase (for which you will earn 240 points), a start date of June 1 (for which you will earn 200 points), and 60% medical insurance coverage (for which you will earn 120 points).

Appendix B

Manipulation Check Quiz

1. What role will you be playing during the negotiation?
2. What role will your partner be playing during the negotiation?
3. Which issue is most important to you?
4. Which issue is least important to you?
5. What other reasons can you think for why the issue of salary would be important to you?
6. What other reasons can you think for why the issue of vacation days would be important to you?
7. What other reasons can you think for why the issue of an annual raise would be important to you?
8. What other reasons can you think for why the issue of medical insurance coverage would be important to you?
9. What other reasons can you think for why the issue of a start date would be important to you?

Appendix C

Perspective Taking Measure

Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you agree with how accurately they describe **you** on average.

- 1= "strongly disagree"
- 2= "disagree"
- 3= "neither agree or disagree"
- 4= "agree"
- 5= "strongly agree"

1. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other person's" point of view.
2. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.
3. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.
4. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.
5. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.
6. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his/her shoes" for a while.
7. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.

Appendix D

Machiavellianism Measure

Please indicate the degree to which you personally agree or disagree with each of the following statements by choosing a number from the scale below that reflects your opinion.

1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

- 1) Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
- 2) The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
- 3) One should take action only when sure it is morally right.
- 4) Most people are basically good and kind.
- 5) It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.
- 6) Honesty is the best policy in all cases.
- 7) There is no excuse for lying to someone else.
- 8) Generally speaking, people won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.
- 9) All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.
- 10) When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
- 11) Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.
- 12) Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking for trouble.
- 13) The biggest difference between most criminals and other people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught.
- 14) Most people are brave.
- 15) It is wise to flatter important people.
- 16) It is possible to be good in all respects.

- 17) P.T. Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
- 18) It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
- 19) People suffering from incurable diseases should have the choice of being put painlessly to death.
- 20) Most people forget more easily the death of their parents than the loss of their property.

Appendix E

Situational Test of Emotional Understanding

[1] A pleasant experience ceases unexpectedly and there is not much that can be done about it. The person involved is most likely to feel:

- [A] Ashamed
- [B] Distressed
- [C] Angry
- [D] Sad
- [E] Frustrated

[2] Xavier completes a difficult task on time and under budget. Xavier is most likely to feel:

- [A] Surprise
- [B] Pride
- [C] Relief
- [D] Hope
- [E] Joy

[3] An irritating neighbor of Eve's moves to another state. Eve is most likely to feel:

- [A] Regret
- [B] Hope
- [C] Relief
- [D] Sadness
- [E] Joy

[4] There is great weather on the day Jill is going on an out-door picnic. Jill is most likely to feel:

- [A] Pride
- [B] Joy
- [C] Relief
- [D] Guilt
- [E] Hope

[5] Regret is most likely to occur when:

- [A] Events are unexpected
- [B] You have caused something you didn't want to happen and cannot change it.
- [C] Circumstances have caused something you didn't want to happen.
- [D] You have caused something you didn't want to happen and are trying to change it.
- [E] Events are getting beyond your control.

[6] Edna's workmate organizes a goodbye party for Edna, who is going on holidays. Edna is most likely to feel:

- [A] Surprise
- [B] Gratitude
- [C] Pride
- [D] Hope
- [E] Relief

[7] Something unpleasant is happening. Neither the person involved, nor anyone else can make it stop. The person involved is most likely to feel:

- [A] Guilty
- [B] Distressed
- [C] Sad
- [D] Scared
- [E] Angry

[8] If the current situation continues, Denise's employer will probably be able to move her job to a location much closer to her home, which she really wants.

Denise is most likely to feel:

- [A] Distress
- [B] Joy
- [C] Surprise
- [D] Hope
- [E] Fear

[9] Song finds out that a friend of hers has borrowed money from others to pay urgent bills, but has in fact used the money for less serious purposes.

Song is most likely to feel:

- [A] Anger
- [B] Excitement
- [C] Contempt
- [D] Shame
- [E] Horror

[10] Somebody is most likely to feel surprised after:

- [A] Something unexpected happens.
- [B] Something unfamiliar happens.
- [C] Something unusual happens.
- [D] Something scary happens.
- [E] Something silly happens.

[11] Leya works as a trouble-shooter. She is presented with a standard looking problem but cannot work out how to solve it. Leya is most likely to feel:

- [A] Confused
- [B] Frustrated
- [C] Surprised
- [D] Relieved
- [E] Distressed

[12] Charles is meeting a friend to see a movie. The friend is very late and they are not in time to make it to the movie. Charles is most likely to feel:

- [A] Depressed
- [B] Frustrated
- [C] Angry
- [D] Contemptuous
- [E] Distressed

[13] Rashid needs to meet a quota before his performance review. There is only a small change that he will be able to do so and there isn't much he can do to improve the outcome. Rashid is most likely to feel:

- [A] Irritated
- [B] Scared
- [C] Distressed
- [D] Sad
- [E] Hopeful

[14] Someone believes that another person harmed them on purpose. There is not a lot that can be done to make things better. The person involved is most likely to feel:

- [A] Dislike
- [B] Rage
- [C] Jealousy
- [D] Surprise
- [E] Anxiety

[15] Phil's workmate Bart asks Phil to lie for him about money Bart has been stealing from the company. Phil does not agree. Phil is most likely to feel:

- [A] Excitement
- [B] Anger
- [C] Horror
- [D] Contempt
- [E] Shame

[16] Jim enjoys spending Saturdays playing with his children in the park. This year they have sporting activities on Saturdays and cannot go to the park with him any more.

Jim is most likely to feel:

- [A] Angry
- [B] Sad
- [C] Frustrated
- [D] Distressed
- [E] Ashamed

[17] If all goes well, then it's fairly likely that Derek's house will increase in value. Derek is most likely to feel:

- [A] Distress

- [B] Fear
- [C] Surprise
- [D] Joy
- [E] Hope

[18] Sheila's workmate intentionally does not give Sheila some important information about applying for a raise. Sheila is most likely to feel:

- [A] Depressed
- [B] Contemptuous
- [C] Frustrated
- [D] Angry
- [E] Distressed

[19] Megan is looking to buy a house. Something happened and she felt regret. What is most likely to have happened:

- [A] She didn't make an offer on a house she wanted, and now she is trying to find out if it is too late.
- [B] She found a house she liked that she didn't think she would find.
- [C] She couldn't make an offer on a house she liked because the bank didn't get her the money in time.
- [D] She didn't make an offer on a house she liked and now someone else has bought it.
- [E] She made an offer on a house and is waiting to see if it is accepted.

[20] Mary was working at her desk. Something happened that caused her to feel surprised. What is most likely to have happened:

- [A] Her work-mate told a silly joke.
- [B] She was working on a new task she hadn't dealt with before.
- [C] She found some results that were different from what she thought they would be.
- [D] She realized she would not be able to complete her work.
- [E] She had to do a task she didn't normally do at work.

[21] Garry's small business is attracting less and less clients and he can't tell why. There doesn't seem to be anything he can do to help matters.

Garry is most likely to feel:

- [A] Scared
- [B] Angry
- [C] Sad
- [D] Guilty
- [E] Distressed

[22] Someone thinks that another person has deliberately caused something good to happen to them.

They are most likely to feel:

- [A] Hope
- [B] Pride

- [C] Gratitude
- [D] Surprise
- [E] Relief

[23] Kevin has been working at his current job for a few years. Out of the blue, he finds that he will receive a promotion. Kevin is most likely to feel:

- [A] Pride
- [B] Relief
- [C] Joy
- [D] Hope
- [E] Guilt

[24] By their own actions, a person reaches a goal they wanted to reach. The person is most likely to feel:

- [A] Joy
- [B] Hope
- [C] Relief
- [D] Pride
- [E] Surprise

[25] An unwanted situation becomes less likely or stops altogether. The person involved is most likely to feel:

- [A] Regret
- [B] Hope
- [C] Joy
- [D] Sadness
- [E] Relief

[26] Hasad tries to use his new mobile phone. He has always been able to work out how to use different appliances, but he cannot get the phone to function.

Hasad is most likely to feel:

- [A] Distressed
- [B] Confused
- [C] Surprised
- [D] Relieved
- [E] Frustrated

[27] Dorian's friend is ill and coughs all over him without bothering to turn away or cover his mouth. Dorian is most likely to feel:

- [A] Anxiety
- [B] Dislike
- [C] Surprise
- [D] Jealousy
- [E] Rage

[28] Although she has been careful to avoid all risk factors, Tina has contracted cancer. There is only a small chance that the cancer will be benign and nothing Tina does now can make a difference. Tina is most likely to feel:

- [A] Scared
- [B] Distressed
- [C] Irritated
- [D] Sad
- [E] Hopeful

[29] Quan and his wife are talking about what happened to them that day. Something happened that caused Quan to feel surprised.

What is most likely to have happened:

- [A] His wife talked a lot, which did not usually happen.
- [B] His wife talked about things that were different to what they usually discussed.
- [C] His wife told him that she might have some bad news.
- [D] His wife told Quan some news that was not what he thought it would be.
- [E] His wife told a funny story.

[30] An upcoming event might have bad consequences. Nothing much can be done to alter this. The person involved would be most likely to feel:

- [A] Sad
- [B] Irritated
- [C] Distressed
- [D] Scared
- [E] Hopeful

[31] It is clear that somebody will get what they want.

They are most likely to feel:

- [A] Pride
- [B] Relief
- [C] Joy
- [D] Hope
- [E] Guilt

[32] By chance, a situation arises where there is the possibility that a person will get what they want. The person is most likely to feel:

- [A] Distress
- [B] Hope
- [C] Surprise
- [D] Joy
- [E] Fear

[33] A supervisor who is unpleasant to work for leaves Alfonso's work.

Alfonso is most likely to feel:

- [A] Joy
- [B] Hope

- [C] Regret
- [D] Relief
- [E] Sadness

[34] The nature of Sara's job changes due to unpredictable factors and she no longer gets to do the portions of her work that she most enjoyed. Sara is most likely to feel:

- [A] Ashamed
- [B] Sad
- [C] Angry
- [D] Distressed
- [E] Frustrated

[35] Leila has been unable to sleep well lately and there are no changes in her life that might indicate why. Leila is most likely to feel:

- [A] Angry
- [B] Scared
- [C] Sad
- [D] Distressed
- [E] Guilty

[36] A person feels they have control over a situation. The situation turns out badly for no particular reason. The person involved is most likely to feel:

- [A] Confused
- [B] Relieved
- [C] Surprised
- [D] Frustrated
- [E] Distressed

[37] Someone believes another person has deliberately caused something good to stop happening to them. However, they feel they can do something about it.

They are most likely to feel:

- [A] Angry
- [B] Contemptuous
- [C] Distress
- [D] Depressed
- [E] Frustrated

[38] The new manager at Enid's work changes everyone's hours to a less flexible work pattern, leaving no room for discussion. Enid is most likely to feel:

- [A] Dislike
- [B] Rage
- [C] Jealousy
- [D] Surprise
- [E] Anxiety

[39] Someone believes that another person has caused harm to them, due to that person's bad character. They think they can probably handle the situation though.

The harmed person is most likely to feel:

- [A] Contempt
- [B] Anger
- [C] Horror
- [D] Excitement
- [E] Shame

[40] Pete gets home late, after his favorite TV show has ended. Pete's partner has taped the show for him. Pete is most likely to feel:

- [A] Surprise
- [B] Hope
- [C] Pride
- [D] Relief
- [E] Gratitude

[41] Matthew has been at his current job for six months. Something happened that caused him to feel regret. What is most likely to have happened:

- [A] He did not apply for a position he wanted, and has found out that someone else less qualified got the job.
- [B] He did not apply for a position he wanted, and has started looking for a similar position.
- [C] He found out that opportunities for promotion have dried up.
- [D] He found out that he didn't get a position he thought he would get.
- [E] He didn't hear about a position he could have applied for and now it is too late.

[42] Penny's hockey team trained hard and won the championship.

Penny is most likely to feel:

- [A] Hope
- [B] Pride
- [C] Relief
- [D] Joy
- [E] Surprise

Appendix F

Situation Test of Emotional Management

1. Pete has specific skills that his workmates do not and he feels that his workload is higher because of this.

What strategy would be the most effective for Pete?

- [A] Speak to his boss about this.
- [B] Start looking for a new job.
- [C] Be very proud of his unique skills.
- [D] Speak to his workmates about this.

2. Mina and her sister-in-law get along quite well, and the sister-in-law regularly babysits for a small fee. Lately she has also been cleaning away cobwebs, commenting on the mess, which Mina finds insulting.

What strategy would be the most effective for Mina?

- [A] Tell her sister-in-law these comments upset her.
- [B] Get a new babysitter.
- [C] Be grateful her house is being cleaned for free.
- [D] Tell her only to babysit, not to clean.

3. A demanding client takes up a lot of Jill's time and then asks to speak to Jill's boss about her performance. Although Jill's boss assures her that her performance is fine, Jill can't put it out of her mind.

What action would be the most effective for Jill?

- [A] Talk to her friends or workmates about it.
- [B] Ignore the incident and move on to her next task.
- [C] Calm down by taking deep breaths or going for a short walk.
- [D] Think that she has been successful in the past and this client being difficult is not her fault.

4. Hannah's access to essential resources has been delayed and her work is way behind schedule. Her progress report makes no mention of the lack of resources.

What strategy would be the most effective for Hannah?

- [A] Tell her boss that the progress report is unfair.
- [B] Learn that she should plan ahead for next time.
- [C] Document the lack of resources in her progress report.
- [D] Don't worry about it.

5. Lee's workmate fails to deliver an important piece of information on time, causing Lee to fall behind schedule also.

What action would be the most effective for Lee?

- [A] Work harder to compensate.
- [B] Get angry with the workmate.
- [C] Explain the urgency of the situation to the workmate.
- [D] Never rely on that workmate again.

6. Blair and Flynn usually go to a cafe after the working week and chat about what's going on in the company. After Blair's job is moved to a different section in the company, he stops coming to the cafe. Flynn misses these Friday talks.

What action would be the most effective for Flynn?

- [A] Go to the cafe or socialize with other workers.
- [B] Don't worry about it, ignore the changes and let Blair be.
- [C] Not talk to Blair again.
- [D] Invite Blair again, maybe rescheduling for another time.

7. Andre moves away from the city his friends and family are in. He finds his friends make less effort to keep in contact than he thought they would.

What action would be the most effective for Andre?

- [A] Try to adjust to life in the new city by joining clubs and activities there.
- [B] Make the effort to contact them, but also try to meet people in his new city.
- [C] Let go of his old friends, who have shown themselves to be unreliable.
- [D] Explain to his friends he is hurt by their lack of contact.

8. Shona has not spoken to her nephew for months, whereas when he was younger they were very close. She rings him but he can only talk for five minutes.

What strategy would be the most effective for Shona?

- [A] Realize that he is growing up and might not want to spend so much time with his family any more.
- [B] Make plans to drop by and visit him in person and have a good chat.
- [C] Understand that relationships change, but keep calling him from time to time.
- [D] Be upset about it, but realize there is nothing she can do.

9. Julie hasn't seen Ka for a long time and looks forward to their weekend trip away. However, Ka has changed a lot and Julie finds she is no longer an interesting companion.

What strategy would be the most effective for Julie?

- [A] Cancel the trip and go home. Leave the trip early and go home.
- [B] Realize that it is time to give up the friendship and move on.
- [C] Move on, realizing that people change, but remember the good times.
- [D] Concentrate on her other, more rewarding friendships.

10. Mallory moves from a small company to a very large one, where there is little personal contact, which she misses.

What strategy would be the most effective for Mallory?

- [A] Talk to her workmates, try to create social contacts and make friends.
- [B] Start looking for a new job so she can leave that environment.
- [C] Just give it time, and things will be okay.
- [D] Concentrate on her outside-work friends and colleagues from previous jobs.

11. Clayton has been overseas for a long time and returns to visit his family. So much has changed that Clayton feels left out.

What strategy would be the most effective for Clayton?

- [A] Nothing, it will sort itself out soon enough

- [B] Tell his family he feels left out.
- [C] Spend time listening and getting involved again.
- [D] Reflect that relationships can change over time.

12. Mei Ling answers the phone and hears that close relatives are in hospital critically ill. What strategy would be the most effective for Mei Ling?

- [A] Let herself cry and express emotion for as long as she feels like.
- [B] Speak to other family to calm herself and find out what is happening, then visit the hospital.
- [C] There is nothing she can do.
- [D] Visit the hospital and ask staff about their condition.

13. Greg has just gone back to university after a lapse of several years. He is surrounded by younger students who seem very confident about their ability and he is unsure whether he can compete with them.

What strategy would be the most effective for Greg?

- [A] Focus on his life outside the university.
- [B] Study hard and attend all lectures.
- [C] Talk to others in his situation.
- [D] Realize he is better than the younger students as he has more life experience.

14. Juno is fairly sure his company is going down and his job is under threat. It is a large company and nothing official has been said.

What strategy would be the most effective for Juno?

- [A] Find out what is happening and discuss his concerns with his family.
- [B] Try to keep the company afloat by working harder.
- [C] Start applying for other jobs.
- [D] Think of these events as an opportunity for a new start.

15. Alan helps Trudy with a difficult task, working as hard as he can. Trudy complains that Alan's work isn't very good, and Alan responds that Trudy should be grateful he is doing her a favour. They argue. What strategy would be the most effective for Alan?

- [A] Stop helping Trudy and don't help her again.
- [B] Try harder to help appropriately.
- [C] Apologize to Trudy.
- [D] Diffuse the argument by asking for advice.

16. A junior employee making routine adjustments to some of Talia's equipment accuses Talia of causing the equipment malfunction. Talia has only ever used the equipment in the correct fashion.

What strategy would be the most effective for Talia?

- [A] Reprimand the employee for making such accusations.
- [B] Ignore the accusation, it is not important.
- [C] Explain that malfunctions were not her fault.
- [D] Learn more about using the equipment so that it doesn't break.

17. Phuong is having a large family gathering to celebrate her moving into her new home. She wants the day to go smoothly and is a little nervous about it.

What strategy would be the most effective for Phuong?

[A] Talk to friends or relatives to ease her worries.

[B] Try to calm down, perhaps go for a short walk or meditate.

[C] Prepare ahead of time so she has everything she needs available.

[D] Think that she just has to get through the day, it doesn't have to be perfect.

18. Mark has an exam in two days time that he really wants to do well on, but he is worried about how he will go. He has regularly done all required work and often reviews his notes. What strategy would be most effective for Mark?

[A] Review the notes a few more times and do some practice papers.

[B] Take these two days as some time out to relax before the exam.

[C] Find out whether he can re-take the course.

[D] Be better prepared by studying more the next time he has an exam.

19. Gladys experiences some chest pain that she thinks could be heart problems.

What strategy would be the most effective for Gladys?

[A] Keep a close watch to see how it develops over the next month and then see the doctor.

[B] Prepare for the worst, making sure that her affairs are in order.

[C] Change her lifestyle so that she can avoid scared like this in the future.

[D] Find out about any family history and then see the doctor as soon as possible.

20. Dorian needs to have some prostate surgery and is quite scared about the process. He has heard that it is quite painful.

What strategy would be the most effective for Dorian?

[A] Look up information about the procedure at the library or on the internet.

[B] Keep busy in the meantime so he doesn't think about the impending surgery.

[C] Talk to his family about his concerns.

[D] Talk to his doctor about what will happen.

21. Wai-Hin and Connie have shared an office for years but Wai-Hin gets a new job and Connie loses contact with her.

What action would be the most effective for Connie?

[A] Just accept that she is gone and the friendship is over

[B] Ring Wai-Hin and ask her out to lunch or coffee to catch up.

[C] Contact Wai-Hin and arrange to catch up but also try to make new friends around the office.

[D] Spend time getting to know the other people in the office, and strike up new friendships.

Appendix G

Cognitive Negotiation Strategies Measure

Please indicate the extent to which **you** engaged in the following behaviors **during the negotiation**.

1=Never, 2= Occasionally, 3=Fairly many times, 4=Often, 5=Very often

1. I effectively used logic and reason to persuade the other party to my point of view
2. I was sincere and trustworthy at all times. I did not lie, for whatever ends.
3. I made an early minor concession so the other side would reciprocate on something I wanted later on.
4. I tried to see the issue from my opponent's point of view.
5. I tried to exploit my opponent's personal weaknesses.
6. I deliberately withheld information from my opponent.
7. I promised that good things will happen to my opponent if he/she gives me what I wanted, even though I didn't deliver these things when the other's cooperation was obtained.
8. I intentionally misrepresented information to my opponent.
9. I made an opening demand that was far greater than what I really hoped to settle for.
10. I denied the validity of the information which my opponent had that would weaken my negotiating position, even though the information was true and valid.
11. I made an opening demand so high/low that it undermined my opponent's confidence in his/her ability to negotiate a satisfactory settlement.
12. I tried to make my opponent feel important and appreciated
13. I offered an exchange and followed it through (e.g. if you do this for me, I will do something for you).
14. I acted very humbly to him/her while making my requests.
15. I threatened to stop working with him/her until he/she gave in to my demands.
16. I explained the reasons for my request.

17. I was willing to ask as many questions as it takes to get the information needed to make the best decision.
18. I tried to uncover the needs, wants and motivations of my opponent so that I could help him/her achieve their goals.
19. I was willing to compromise when necessary to solve problems.
20. I tested my understanding of the other's point of view by summarizing what he/she said.
21. I made my partner feel comfortable by welcoming or greeting them and/or engaging in small talk.
22. I used humor or sarcasm to hurt or humiliate the other person.
23. I conceded on issues less important to me in exchange for concessions from my partner on issues that were worth more to me.
24. I tried to seek out and build on areas of agreement between myself and the other party.
25. I asked questions to learn about which issues were important to the other party.
26. I made suggestions about working more cooperatively together or sharing resources.
27. I tried to find out what was important to the other side before suggesting solutions.
28. I spoke in a hostile and disrespectful manner to scare the other party.
29. I used threats if the other party didn't do what I thought was right.

Please indicate the extent to which **your partner** engaged in the following behaviors **during the negotiation**.

1=Never, 2= Occasionally, 3=Fairly many times, 4=Often, 5=Very often

1. To what extent do you think your partner was deceptive during the negotiation?
2. To what extent do you think your partner took your view into account?
3. To what extent do you think your partner made opening demands that were intentionally too low/high?
4. To what extent do you think your partner made you feel important and appreciated?

5. To what extent do you think your partner tried to compromise when necessary to solve problems?
6. To what extent do you think your partner was hostile and disrespectful toward you?
7. To what extent did your partner use threats and ultimatums during the negotiation?

Appendix H

Emotional Management Tactics Measure

Please indicate the frequency with which you engaged in each behavior **during your negotiation**:

1=Never, 2= Occasionally, 3=Fairly many times, 4=Often, 5=Very often

1. Give the other party the (false) impressions that I care about his/her personal welfare.
2. Get the other party to think that I like him/her personally despite the fact that I really don't.
3. Express sympathy with the other party's plight although, in truth, I don't care about their problems.
4. Respond with enthusiasm to an opponent's remark even though I am actually not enthusiastic at all.
5. Lead the other party to believe that I am delighted about something they said, even though I'm not.
6. Act surprised at a statement by the other party that I actually knew all along was coming.
7. Convey astonishment at an offer by the other party so that he/she will think I wasn't expecting it even though it was really rather predictable.
8. Pretend to be furious at my opponent.
9. Pretend to be disgusted at an opponent's comment.
10. Strategically express anger toward the other party in a situation where I am not really angry.
11. Feign a melancholy mood in order to get the other party to think I am having a bad day.
12. Give the other party the false impression that I am very disappointed with how things are going.
13. Get the other party to think (falsely) that I am nervous about how negotiation will go.
14. Simulate fear on my part so that the other party will think I am tense about negotiating.

15. Pretend to be bored and tired of the encounter so that the other party will think I am losing interest.

16. In a situation where I am actually rather agitated about the negotiation, sit completely still and put on a passive front.

Appendix I

Negotiation Experience Measure

Please answer the following questions about your past negotiation experience

1. How experienced are you with participating in the following types of negotiations:

a. Formal negotiations (i.e. clearly outlined roles and structure; goals agreed upon) *as part of your job*

not at all experienced 1 2 3 4 5 extremely experienced

b. Formal negotiations (i.e. clearly outlined roles and structure; goals agreed upon) *as part of your classes*

not at all experienced 1 2 3 4 5 extremely experienced

c. Informal negotiations (i.e. no specified rules or structure) with *your family*

not at all experienced 1 2 3 4 5 extremely experienced

d. Informal negotiations (i.e. no specified rules or structure) involving *buying/selling*

not at all experienced 1 2 3 4 5 extremely experienced

e. Other (please specify) _____

not at all experienced 1 2 3 4 5 extremely experienced

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