

**UNIVERSITY OF VAASA
FACULTY OF BUSINESS STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS**

Nicolas Baranowski

**THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON NEGOTIATION – DIFFERENCES
AND SIMILARITIES IN CONDUCTING A NEGOTIATION IN FRANCE
AND POLAND**

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UNIVERSITY OF VAASA**Faculty of Business Studies**

Authors:	Nicolas Baranowski
Topic of the Thesis:	The Influence of Culture on the Negotiation process – Differences and similarities in conducting negotiation in France and Poland
Name of the Supervisor:	Olivier Wurtz
Degree:	Master of Science in International Business
Department:	Marketing
Major Subject:	International Business Negotiations
Line:	International Business
Year of Entering the University:	2015
Year of Completing the Thesis:	2016

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this thesis is to analyze both French and Polish negotiation styles and to determine in what extent a specific culture influences the negotiation process. The analysis of the French and Polish negotiation styles was studied through interviews of French and Polish negotiators with various negotiation experience. Moreover, the aim is to examine the negotiation process and to highlight the similarities and the differences between France and Poland in negotiation.

The theoretical part explores the existing literature regarding the influence of culture on negotiation and also regarding the negotiation process. This is why theories developed by Hofstede, Lewis or Gauri are mentioned. Several models of negotiation are also explained.

For the qualitative part, negotiators with a knowledge whether of both Polish and French cultures or just of one of them were selected.

Following a case study research strategy, the findings from five semi-structured interviews reveal that a particular culture has an important influence on the negotiation process. The findings also revealed that the main differences between Poles and French in business negotiation lay in three categories: communication, the negotiation process, and the relationship between negotiators. However, those differences seem to be less important than the similarities. Indeed, France and Poland have two cultures that are similar in many ways and the result is that the main characteristics of negotiation remain similar. For instance, the approach to time, the process of the negotiation and the general framework for negotiation are quite similar for both countries.

KEYWORDS: Negotiation, Culture, France, Poland

1. INTRODUCTION

Negotiation is used every day by everyone. Often, people do not even know they are negotiating. However, it happens constantly: at home, with friends, at work, etc. Negotiation is thus a phenomenon that is very important for everyone. Yet, the art of negotiation is still a great mystery to lot of people. It is known by few people who practice it in an almost daily basis. The context in which those people, called negotiators, use negotiation is what this paper focuses on. Indeed, as negotiation is used so often, its context varies. It is then necessary to delimitate the study. This is why this paper focuses on business negotiation.

In the present context, business has become global. According to Adler (2002), globalization is a reality. It is characterized by the internationalization of business and particularly of firms. This phenomenon means that firms are not just operating in one country anymore. An outstanding example is the conception and fabrication of an iPhone. Indeed, it has components that came from several countries and it travels trough other countries for its assembly. This internationalization has changed the way managers do business. Indeed, they needed to adapt to such changes. Among other changes, the field of negotiation was impacted by this globalization. Negotiations with different cultures became something very common and negotiators should have adapted to other cultures.

This increase of negotiations with different cultures became important in Europe after the Wall of Berlin was destroyed in 1991 and when communist influenced countries of Eastern Europe have changed their economies into capitalistic ones. This transition to capitalistic economies was painful at first but from several years, some Eastern European countries are doing very well economically. The best example is Poland as it is the only European country that has know economic growth since the global economical collapse of 2007. Moreover, the forecasts are very good regarding Poland for the next couple of years (OECD).

My particular interest in negotiation and in France and Poland has several origins. First, I was born in Poland and when I was three years old, my family moved to France. Since then, I have leaved all my life in France. However, I still

have a frequent contact with my family who stays in Poland. Therefore, I have very deep connections with those two countries. I also wanted to write this thesis about negotiation because of my professional project. I indeed would like to have a professional experience with both France and Poland and due to my formation, it is more than likely that I will have to use negotiation skills. Due to those elements, I decided to write a thesis about negotiation and relate it to France and Poland.

1.1. Research objectives and research questions

This thesis focuses on the relation between culture and the negotiation process with a case study of France and Poland in order to highlight how culture influences negotiations in those two countries. The goal is to explain and understand the negotiation process, how culture can affect it and present a case study of France and Poland.

The main objectives of this thesis are thus the following:

- Understand the negotiation process
- Understand the role of culture in negotiations
- Highlight the cultural specificities of Poland and France in negotiation

For achieving those objectives, the thesis will describe the existing theories regarding the negotiation process, culture and how it influences the negotiation process and the cultural specificities of both Poland and France. A second part will be dedicated to the interviews conducted with French and Polish people who have experience in negotiations. The interviews will be then analyzed regarding the thesis research questions and the conclusions explained. Finally, some practical advices will be shared on how negotiations are conducted in France and Poland for people who would have to negotiate in those countries.

Thus, the research questions are the following:

- What are the key steps of negotiation?

- To what extent a specific culture influences a negotiation?
- How are negotiations conducted in France and Poland?
- What are the differences and similarities in negotiation in France and Poland?

1.2. Structure of the thesis

The thesis was designed in two main parts. The first one concerns the existing theories while the second is about testing the hypothesis selected. The first part was divided into two chapters in order to make the literature review clearer. The first chapter describes the negotiation theories and how culture can influence it. The second chapter is about cultural theories and presents the main cultural aspects relevant to this paper.

Concerning the second part, it is divided into two main chapters also. The first presents the interviews and the analysis. The second chapter presents the findings from the interviews and explains what are the main differences and similarities between France and Poland in negotiation.

2. NEGOTIATION

2.1. Definition of the term negotiation

Negotiation is used and practiced everyday by nearly almost everyone. Yet, when it comes to define it, a consensus is rarely reached.

Henry Kissinger defines negotiation as “a process of combining conflicting positions into a common position, under a decision rule of unanimity” (Kissinger, 1969). Negotiation is seen here as a conflict where two positions seem to be antagonist. However, Kissinger indicates that despite this antagonism, negotiation is characterized by a search of a common position that could satisfy both parties.

Ghauri tends to agree with this definition as for him, negotiation is “a voluntary process of give and take where both parties modify their offers and expectations in order to come close to each other” (Ghauri, 1996: 3). For Ghauri it is also a two parties process but he introduces the fact that each party gives and takes along the process. Negotiation implies then concession.

Kilgour and Eden define negotiation as “a process in which two or more independent, concerned parties may make a collective choice, or may make no choice at all” (Kilgour and Eden, 2010: 2). We find again the notion of collaboration in order to achieve a collective outcome but this definition introduce the notion of failure. A common agreement is not necessarily reached.

Vetschera adds a new dimension to negotiation when he defines it as “a process at the group level, in which the parties mutually influence each other and which, in successful negotiations, converges toward some point of agreement” (Vetschera, 2013: 136). He adds that it is a decision of one negotiator that influences each move during the negotiator. In other words, negotiation is a group decision process resulting from an individual decision process. Negotiation is thus more complex than just two parties with opposite interests

that try to achieve a common position. Negotiation is also about influences and each party is influenced by one another.

Negotiation is then a complex process in which at least two parties want something from one another and try to reach a common agreement. This process is characterized by various influences and I will try to explore it in order to have a broad view of how it works and how it can be influenced. This is why this part about negotiation is also linked with cultural factors. However, the part focuses on the negotiation process, mentioning how it can be influenced by other cultures.

2.2. The negotiation process

The negotiation process is a part of negotiation but it does not represent the entire phenomenon known as negotiation. Indeed, the negotiation process can be seen as the core of negotiation but it is also related to several factors that have to be known in order to understand negotiation. I will thus try to highlight how the negotiation process occurs and what is its environment. This is why I will explain the framework for negotiation developed by Ghauri (2003), explain how can negotiation be divided according to their nature and how it is difficult to categorized negotiation. I will also do a quick literature review concerning international business models. They are very interesting because they present the negotiation process by taking into account the influence of culture.

2.2.1. *A negotiation framework*

According to Ghauri (2003), a framework with three variables characterizes negotiation: background, the negotiation process and the atmosphere.

Background factors are variables that can affect positively or negatively either the process of negotiation or the atmosphere. Objectives are the first factor identified by Ghauri and he defines them as “the end stage each party desires to

achieve" (Ghauri, 2003: 5). Objectives are classified according to their nature in negotiation: common, conflicting or complementary. The second background factor is the environment which "refers to the political, social and structural factors relevant to both parties" (Ghauri, 2003: 6). Some environmental characteristics influence the negotiation process (political and social) whereas the market structure influences the atmosphere. Negotiators are also obviously influencing the negotiation process through their skills and experience. Negotiators act within a two-dimension frame. The first dimension is to increase common interests whereas the second dimension is to maximize their own interests. The negotiator personality has also a role in the negotiation process and a great personality is defined as "an individual with the ability to make others understand his position, to approach strangers with ease and confidence and to appreciate the other person's position" (Ghauri, 2003: 6).

The atmosphere in which the negotiation process and the relationship occur is also very important. The atmosphere and the negotiation process influence each other at each step. The atmosphere can be defined as what surrounds the interaction, the properties of the negotiation process and how each negotiator assess the other participant's behavior, meaning the perception of reality of each participant. The emphasis is then on the perception of reality and not on reality itself. Negotiation is a very particular phenomenon as it is characterized by an ambiguity: it is both a conflict and a cooperation. Both parties have to protect their own interests and at the same time preserve their common relationship. The conflicted or cooperative atmosphere depends on how both parties handle problems of the negotiation process whereas the degree of conflict or cooperation of every step of the negotiation process depends on the issues dealt with at this time. The power/dependence relation is also a characteristic of the atmosphere in negotiations which is based on the perceived power by both parties. Expectations also shape the atmosphere, and they are divided in two categories: long-term and short-term expectations. Long-term expectations focus on the possibilities and values of future business whereas short-term expectations focus on prospects of the present matter.

According to Ghauri, the negotiation process is divided in three parts: pre-negotiation, face-to-face negotiation and post-negotiation. The first stage of the negotiation process begins when the two parties initiate the first contact. During this phase, both parties start to getting to know one another's needs and demands. It is during the first stage that negotiators are gathering as much relevant information as possible on variables that can alter the negotiation process at any time. This first stage is crucial as it the basis for the whole negotiation process and the problem to be solved has to be defined jointly. The second stage according to Ghauri is called the face-to-face negotiation. If negotiation succeed at this stage, it means that both parties believe they can find jointly a solution to the problem. However, each party views the situation from its own point of view, which means that very often both parties see the situation from two opposite points of view. Additionally, both parties have different and often opposite expectations regarding the outcome of the negotiations. Thus, during this stage, both parties developed their own vision and expectations and try to find a common ground in order to satisfy both expectations and demands. This stage is mostly about exploring the possibilities of reaching an agreement or at least getting close to it by satisfying both parties. The last stage according to Ghauri is post-negotiation. At this stage, both parties have reached a common ground and have reached an agreement.

The following presents all the parameters presented earlier according to the framework for negotiations developed by Ghauri.

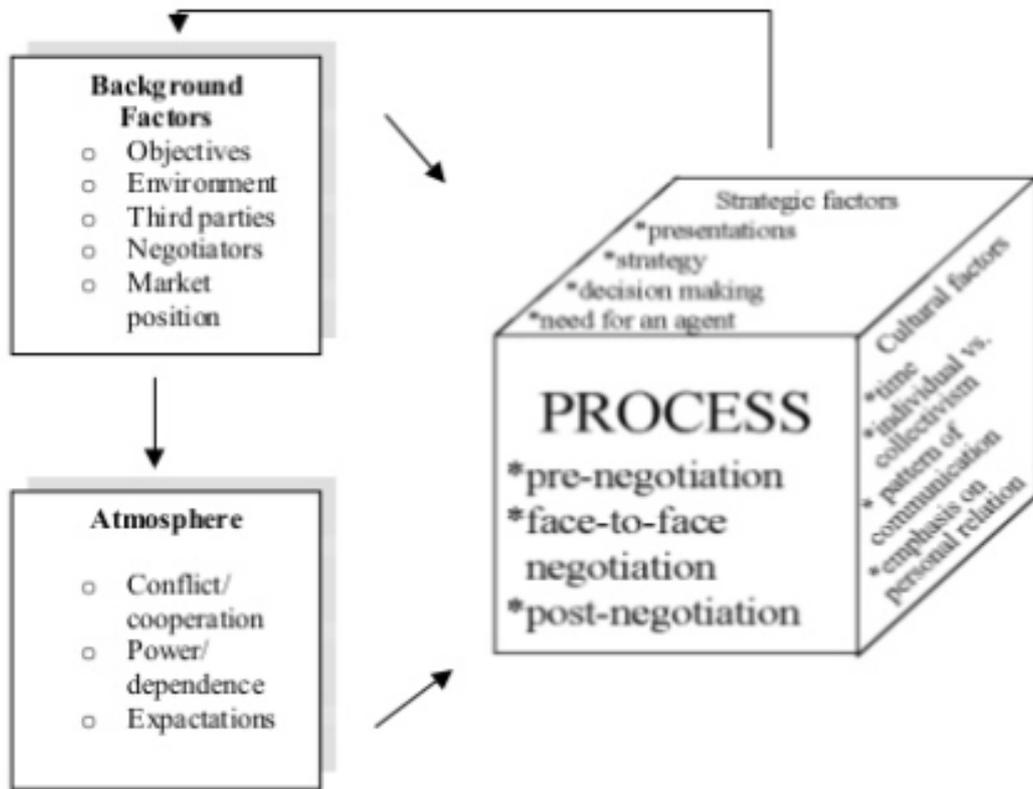


Figure 1: The negotiation process

From Ghauri (2003: 9)

The negotiation process is then characterized by three main steps that can be completed in a variable number of stages and it is influenced by a number of factors as the atmosphere and the background factors. Now that we have the overall framework for negotiation, let us focus on how negotiations can be categorized according to their nature. The existing literature is very abundant regarding the categorization of negotiation and major disagreements exist. This is why lot of categorizations exist. I thus tried to focus on those relevant to this paper, by highlighting the categorizations that can be used for understanding how culture can influence negotiation.

2.2.2. Task vs non-task interactions

The negotiation process has been studied extensively during the last decades and lot of theories exist about it. This review does not pretend to be exhaustive but tries to highlight some important theories that have been developed and that are linked with the current paper. Among them, the division of the negotiation process between non-task and task related interaction by Simintiras et al. (1997) is quite interesting and highlights the negotiation process through a particular perspective. Indeed, it divides negotiations according to the priority set by negotiators and it is highly culturally sensitive.

According to these divisions, the first stage is about knowing each other. It is when two negotiators start a negotiating relationship and do not know each other. During that face-to-face interaction phase, the matter of the negotiation is not mentioned. The first stage concerning non-task related interaction can be influenced by status distinction. Status regroups several characteristics such as sex, age, intrapersonal rank, education, or the position in the company. Graham's research (1988) has shown that status distinction has an important impact over international negotiations and can influence the outcome. The non-task related stage can also be influenced by the impression formation accuracy. Indeed, even in every day life, when one meets a person until then unknown, one has some impressions about attitudes and characteristics. The same occurs during negotiation when two negotiators meet for the first time. According to Simintiras et al. it is crucial that the first impression is accurate as it can be the basis on which the relationship is built. According to Zajonc (1980), the first impression that one may have often precedes rational thoughts and is often based on minimal information. It is then obvious that cultural background is very likely to influence one's first impression. At last, the first stage of non-task related interaction can be influenced by interpersonal attraction. The first impression may indeed be influenced "by any feelings of intrapersonal attraction or liking between negotiators" (Simintira, 1997: 19). Moreover, when two negotiators from similar cultural backgrounds negotiate together, it can create trust which leads to interpersonal attraction. However, the influence of interpersonal over the outcomes is unclear. It may indeed facilitate it or not. Personal relationships may indeed be more important to the negotiators at the expense of the economical outcome of the negotiation.

The first stage is then not about the negotiation matter but about the negotiators themselves. During this phase, they are trying to know if they can rely on one another and if they can carry on for further negotiations. It is then highly cultural sensitive. This phase is crucial when people from different cultures negotiate because if they perceive what the partner is doing or its attitude negatively, it may jeopardize the negotiation. This phase is interesting regarding my theme but from my point of view, Polish and French have a similar approach to negotiation at this phase. This is why I will not focus on this matter in the empirical part.

According to the author, the task-related interaction represents the second phase of the negotiation process. First of all, this phase is about exchange of information. The negotiators try to understand what are the needs and expectations of the opponent. Communication has then a crucial role during this particular phase. The next step of the task-oriented interaction is then persuasion and bargaining strategy. During this phase, negotiators, through different tactics, try to change one another's expectations. According to the literature, three broad styles of persuasion exist: the affective-intuitive (emotions), the factual-inductive (logic) and the axiomatic-deductive (ideals). This step focuses on the bargaining strategy that can affect the negotiation outcome. Two main bargaining strategies based on communication exist according to Anglemar and Stern (1978): representational and instrumental. Representational strategies focus on the problem identification, the search of solutions and the selection of the most appropriate one whereas instrumental strategies consist in influencing the behavior and attitudes of the opponent. The last step of the task-orientated interaction consists in concession and making an agreement. However, concessions can be made during the entire negotiation process, even though there are cultural differences, as seen earlier.

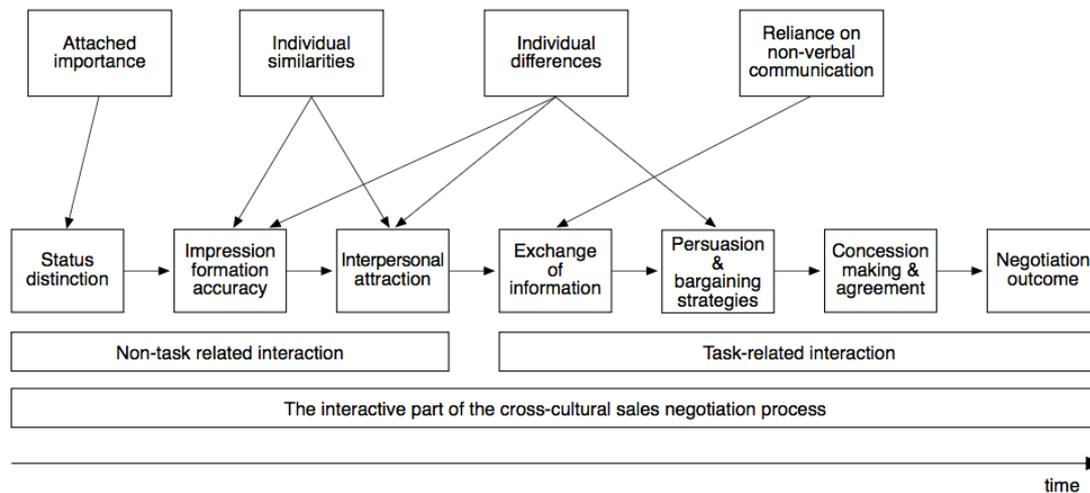


Figure 2: The negotiation process and suggested relationships

From Simintira et al. (1997: 15)

2.2.3. *Prescriptive vs descriptive models*

As said before, negotiation is a field that has been studied extensively. From those studies, numerous models of negotiation have been created. However, researchers have never reached a common agreement on how to classify those models. I choose the prescriptive and descriptive division for this study as it highlights the main negotiation models and help to understand the main negotiation models that have been created. Moreover, this division is clear enough for a literature review about negotiation models. As this study does not claim to review all the negotiation models that have been created, a choice had to be made.

For prescriptive models of negotiation, “phases are coherent periods of activity that center on a particular subgoal or milestone in the negotiation” (Holmes, 1992: 86). The prescriptive approach is more outcome orientated whereas the descriptive approach is process orientated. Four models are representative of the prescriptive approach: Atkinson (1980), Carlisle & Leary (1981) that are collective bargaining models, Zartman & Berman (1982) which is a model for

negotiation groups and Michigan State Police (Donohue, et al.) which guides for hostage negotiations. The last one has no use for this paper.

<i>Atkinson (1980)</i>	<i>Carlisle & Leary (1981)</i>	<i>Zartman & Berman (1982)</i>	<i>Michigan State Police (Donohue, et al., see below)</i>
INITIATION PHASES			
Exploration	Preliminaries	Diagnostic	Introduction and Relationship Development
PROBLEM-SOLVING PHASES			
Expectation Structuring	Positioning	Formulation	Problem Clarification and Relationship Development
	Bargaining		
Movement and Solution Development	Exploration		Problem Solving
RESOLUTION PHASES			
Conclusion	Settlement	Details	Resolution Structuring

NOTE: Prenegotiation phases have been omitted.

Table 1: Prescriptive phase models of negotiation

From Holmes (1992: 87)

The number of phases differ from one model to another but all the models identify three main stages: initiation, problem-solving, and resolution phases. According to Holmes, the first two phases (initiation and problem-solving) focus on the discovery of each goals and intention as well as on the incompatibility of the parties' goals. They are characterized by "each party's efforts to acknowledge the dispute, to specify priorities, to emphasize points of difference between the parties, and to posture for positions" (Holmes, 1992: 86). Problem-solving and resolution phases focus on managing the incompatibility of each party's goals and at the same time their interdependence. More precisely, problem-solving phases are characterized mainly by debate, information exchange and movement toward a joint agreement, whereas resolution phase are characterized by the last details of a joint agreement and its realization. Prescriptive models of negotiation are constituted of phases that aimed a joint agreement. However, as there are no models of sequences of unsuccessful negotiations, prescriptive models assume

that negotiations are successful. Moreover, prescriptive models do not focus on the transactional nature of negotiation. Negotiations are seen as distinctive phases that can be controlled by the negotiator.

Descriptive models of negotiation are based on the work of Douglas (1962) when he described negotiation as a sequence of phases that can not be changed. As for the prescriptive models, negotiations are divided in three phases: initiation phases, problem-solving phases and resolution phases. The first phase, Establishing the Range, is characterized by the appearance of opposite goals between parties. Parties explain their position and are rarely interrupted. Demands and counter demands are made, both parties try to discredit each other. Phase two, Reconnoitering the Range, is more about solving the problem and negotiators look for a common ground. During this phase, both parties try tactical maneuvers and try to make the other to capitulate. The last phase, Precipitating the Decision-Making Crisis, ends the negotiation with a common agreement. An other model was developed by Putnam et al. (1990) and is a spin-off of the Douglas model. According to the author, negotiation phases are "effective predictors of argument types" (Holmes, 1992: 89). The Gulliver model (1979) is also inspired by the Douglas model with more detailed sub-phases. His model can apply to a wider range of negotiation as it was developed from negotiation case studies in different contexts and cultures. The model developed by Putnam et al. (1990) is based on the distributive and integrative bargaining of Walton and McKersie (1965). At the origin, the models were formed of two dimensions: distributive bargaining meaning the "efforts to maximize gains and minimize losses within a 'win-lose' or self gain orientation (Putnam, 1990: 3) whereas integrative bargaining "aims to reconcile the interests of both parties, reach joint benefits, or attain 'win-win' goals (Putnam, 1990: 3). According to Putnam, models of distributive and integrative negotiation are divided into three phases: separate, interdependence and stage phases. The separate models represent the entire negotiation as integrative or distributive; the interdependence models represent the intertwining of the two kind of negotiation during the process; and the stage models are sequential models of negotiation formed with distinct phases of distributive and integrative negotiation. According to Putnam, the negotiation begins as distributive when

parties are getting to know each others, then gets integrative when parties are trying to solve the problem and ends as integrative when parties are reaching a common agreement. The model developed by Bednar and Curington (1983) identifies some behaviors that threat the interaction between negotiators independently of its function. This means that parties can engage in integrative or distributive interaction independently of the negotiation phase. Those models are presented in the following. The model developed by Abbott (1986) has no interest for this study, that is why it was not mentioned.

<i>Douglas (1962)</i>	<i>Gulliver (1979)</i>	<i>Putnam, Wilson, & Turner (1990)</i>	<i>T. Abbott (1986)</i>	<i>Bednar & Curington (1983)</i>
INITIATION PHASES				
Establishing the Range	Search for Arena	Agenda Definition and Problem Formulation	Introduction	Distributive
	Agenda and Issue Identification			
PROBLEM-SOLVING PHASES				
Reconnoitering the Range	Exploring the Range	Narrowing Differences	Demands Made, Met, or Refused	Integrative
	Narrowing the Range		Impasse	
	Preliminaries to Final Bargaining		Suicide Threat	
RESOLUTION PHASES				
Precipitating the Decision- Making Crisis	Final Bargaining	Testing Agreement and Implementation	Surrender	Distributive
	Ritualization Execution			

Table 2: Descriptive models of negotiation

From Holmes (1992: 89)

Those different models are interesting as they help us understand the negotiation process and how negotiation occurs. However, with the integrative and distributive dimensions of negotiation, we enter into a crucial characteristic of negotiation: tactics and strategies. Indeed, every negotiator, before negotiations,

prepare themselves and plan some strategies and tactics in order to maximize their outcome and defend their interests.

2.3. Tactics and strategies

Strategy and tactic are two different concepts according to Saner (Usunier, 2010). Strategy is “the overall guideline, indicating the direction we need to take from our wishes and needs to our objectives” (Usunier, 2010: 51) whereas tactic “always follow strategy, fleshing it out with a concrete line of action (Usunier, 2010: 51). In other words, tactics are orientated toward strategy and not objectives. That is why sometimes tactics seem to not be orientated towards objectives at all because in some situations, tactics need to take a different direction of the objectives in order to achieve them, as illustrated by the following.

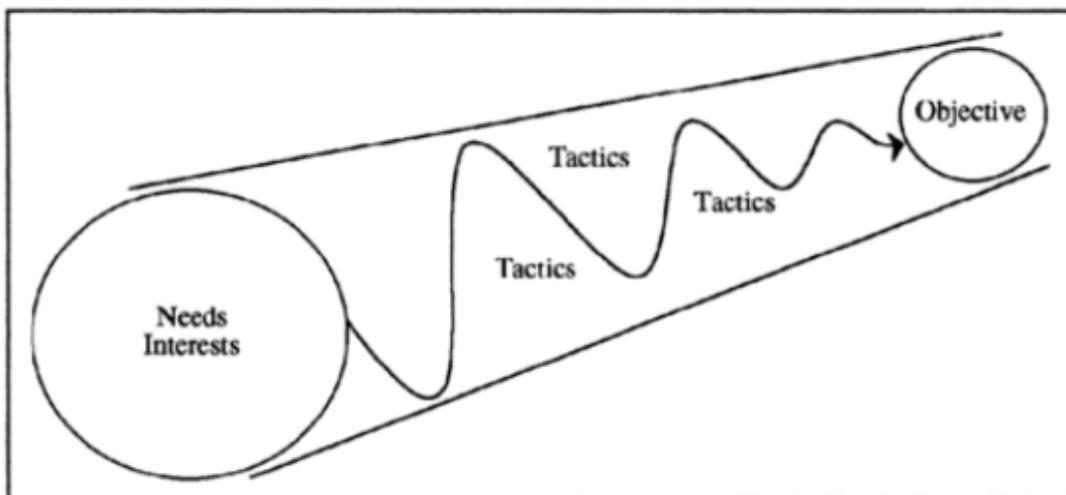


Figure 3: Strategic context of negotiations

From Usunier (2010: 52)

Blake & Mouton (1964) have developed a managerial grid that represent different management styles. This grid can be applied to negotiation and more specifically to strategy. The grid is composed of two axes: assertion (the fervor manifested by someone who wants to have his wishes fulfilled) and cooperation (to what extend

the other party uses the same approach, the result would be a pure battle of will, at the expense of the relationship quality and probably the final outcome.

Collaboration is characterized by cooperative and assertive approaches. It is when one party tries to find a solution through cooperation with the other party. This situation is characterized by the fact that both parties' interests and desires are taken into account. It is an integrative approach of negotiation. This situation requires a good level of understanding and empathy from both parties.

Compromise lays between cooperation and assertiveness. Typically, this situation occurs when both parties meet one another half way. Both interests and desires are partly fulfilled, but not entirely. It is a situation when both parties agree to an agreement, but an agreement that is not fully acceptable. Compromise does not avoid confrontation but does not seek it either.

Avoidance situation occurs when being uncooperative and unassertive. "Instead of insisting on his demands or cooperating, the negotiator withdraws from the conflict and forgoes an agreement" (Usunier, 2010: 55). The negotiator thus just avoids to face the problem of the negotiation. It is sometimes used in order to postpone delicate matters in order to wait for a better moment. The relationship would then be safe. This position should be used in particular contexts of a negotiation as it is very versatile.

Accommodation is the opposite situation of competition: not assertive and cooperative. In such situations, the negotiator gives up his own interests but accept the opponent's conditions. It could be necessary to use this position in order to defuse some situations, as an escalating conflict or just in order to keep the relationship safe. But it can also be interpreted as a weakness or allow for greater demands.

It is hard to know what position to use during the negotiation process and the complexity lies in the context of the negotiation. Saner identified four criteria that can help in order to choose the best strategy when confronted with a particular situation during the negotiation process.

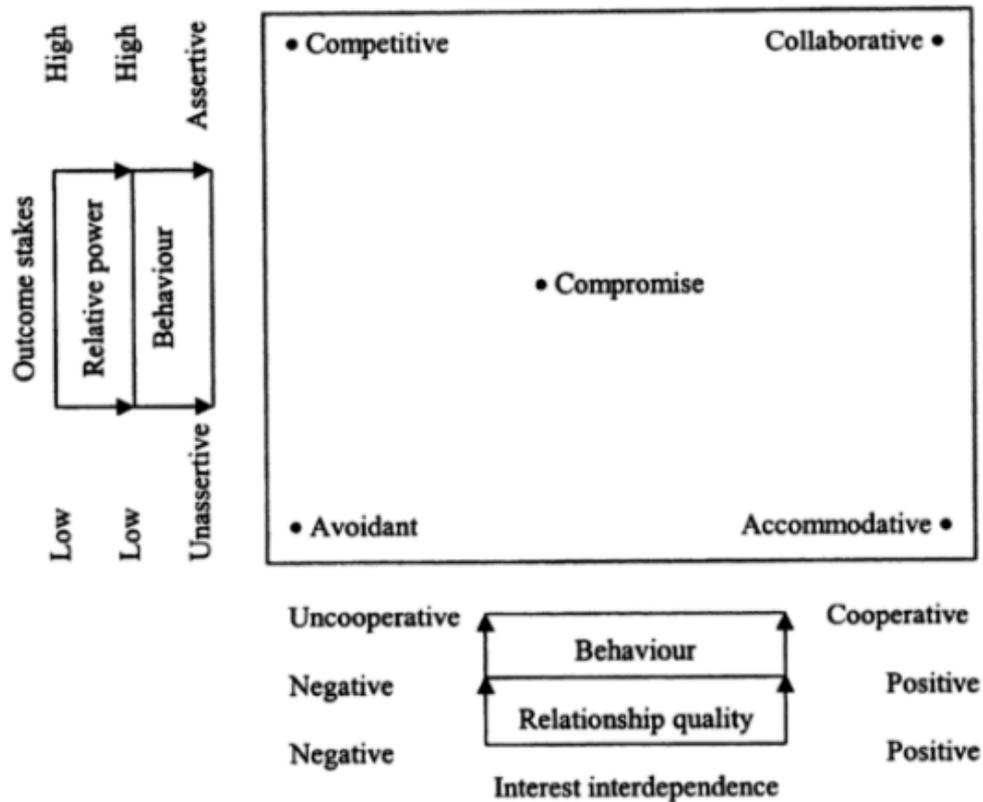


Figure 5: Determinants of conflict behavior

From Usunier (2010: 57)

The first criterion is to know to what extent is the negotiation important for the negotiator. If the negotiation is vital, it is not the same as if it is a less important negotiation. A competitive approach would be typically for an important negotiation where the negotiator is willing to put everything that he can in order to achieve his interests. A collaborative approach would even be better in order to achieve a joint outcome that satisfies both parties. At the very least, a compromise approach could be considered as an acceptable compromise which is always better than anything at all during an important negotiation. However, an accommodative approach would not be considered relevant as it would mean giving up own interests. The avoidant situation could be applied in some particular cases. Moreover, the power balance between the negotiators is also important.

The second criterion to take into account according to Saner is common interests. It is obvious that the more both parties have common interests, the more they will cooperate. If the objectives are similar, it is more likely that both parties will work together to achieve them. However, if both parties have opposite interests and objectives, it is more likely that they will confront one another.

The last criterion highlighted by Saner is the relationship quality. According to Saner, the relationship quality depends on the personal relationship between the negotiators. When negotiating with a partner known and with whom negotiations have been conducted with positive outcomes and based on trust, it will be easier to negotiate. The opposite is also true. Moreover, it may occur that despite a good personal relationship, the negotiation goes wrong because of too different interests. In such a case, a compromise would be seen as the best option.

2.4. International business negotiation models

Numerous models of international business negotiations have been developed during the last decades. It is not my purpose to be exhaustive and thus, all the existing models will not be presented. Only relevant models will be. Moreover, international business negotiation models are a frame for international negotiations. My goal is not to analyze international negotiations but those frames are a helpful tool to understand how culture can affect negotiations. This is why I present in the following some of those models.

The first model was developed by Sawyer and Guetzkow (1965) and is called the social-psychological model of international negotiation. This model was extensively applied in the field of negotiation. It is characterized by different variables and their interaction during the different stages of the conflict management process. According to this model, the conflict management takes place within three dimensions: antecedent, concurrent, and consequent. The first dimension, antecedent, includes two factors, the participant' goals and background. The concurrent variable is formed by two factors, the negotiation process and conditions. The last dimension, consequent, refers to the outcome

and the perception of the outcome by the negotiators. This model has highlighted the influence of different factors over negotiations, as for instance that the background affect goals and process or that the process affects the outcome, or that conditions affects the process.

A second model was developed by Graham (1987), the model of interorganizational negotiations. He conceptualized negotiations as four categories of constructs: negotiator characteristics, situational characteristics, processes and outcomes. By making a parallel with the model of Sawyer and Guetzkow (1965), the first two categories (negotiator characteristics and situational characteristics) represent the antecedent factors and influence the process; the processes represent the concurrent factor which influence the outcomes; and the outcome that is the consequent factor.

Weiss and Strip (1985) have developed also a famous framework for negotiations which integrates cultural comparisons. This analytic framework describes twelve dimensions of behavior that differ in international business negotiations and five categories. In the following, I describe the categories and the dimensions related:

1. The general model of the negotiation process. It regroups the following dimensions: basic concept of the negotiation process, most significant type of issue.
2. The role of the individual with the following dimensions: selection of negotiators, the individual's aspirations, and the internal decision-making process.
3. The disposition in interaction which regroups orientation toward time, risk-taking propensity, and the basis of trust.
4. The interaction process: concern with protocol, style of communication, and the nature of persuasion.
5. The last category is the outcome with the form of agreement as dimension.

According to Salacuse (1991), ten factors exist that are related to the negotiation process and on which the negotiation style varies depending on the culture. He analyzed those ten factors for twelve countries and examined cultural differences

in negotiating styles. France is one of the countries analyzed, but Poland is not part of the analysis. Compared to the Weiss and Stripp model, seven items are similar: most significant type of issue, basic concept of negotiation, style of communication, orientation toward time, form of agreement, internal decision-making process, and risk-taking propensity. The three remaining factors are personal style (how a negotiator interacts with others), emotionalism, and agreement building.

Foster (1992) presents cultural differences according to different national styles referring to the four dimensions developed by Hofstede (power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity vs. femininity). He developed nine components that characterize international negotiation styles: the basic concept of the negotiation, the selection of the negotiators, the importance of protocol, the type of communication, the value of time, the propensity to take risk, group vs. individual orientation, decision-making systems, and the nature of agreements.

Manrai and Manrai (2015) have developed a new conceptual framework that takes into account the influence of culture over international business negotiations. This framework is based on the existing models and it is characterized by six constructs. Twelve relationships are identified among those six constructs. The six constructs are the following: negotiator's goals, negotiator's inclinations, negotiator's qualifications, non task activities, negotiation processes, and negotiation outcomes. The first three refer to the negotiators' characteristics whereas the last three refer to the negotiator's behaviors.

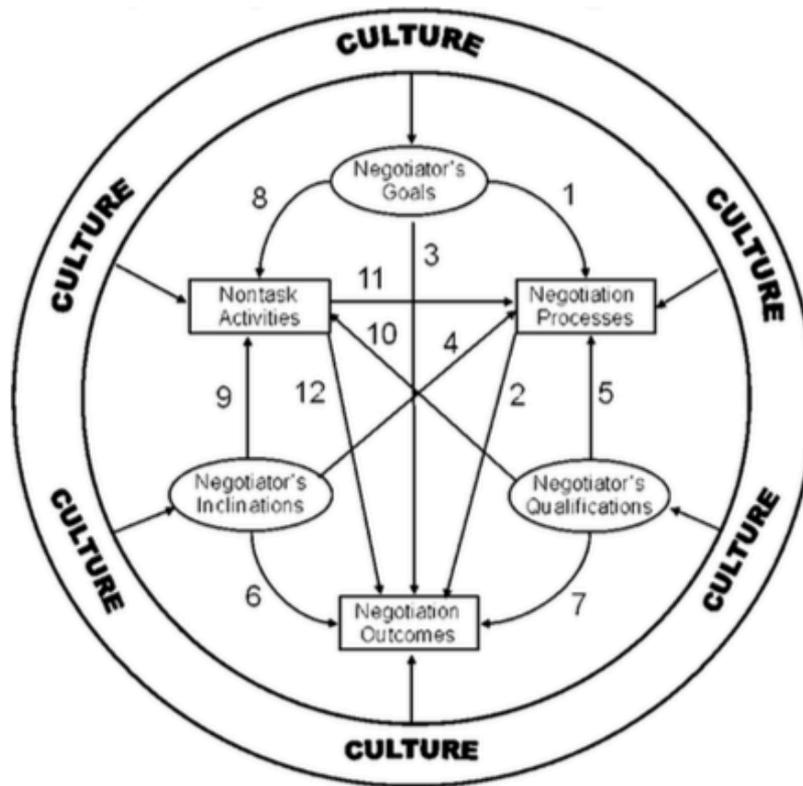


Figure 6: A conceptual framework of culture's influence in international business negotiations

From Manrai et al. (2015: 82).

The relationships among negotiator's goals, negotiation processes, and negotiation outcomes developed by Manrai and Manrai are based on several researches. Among those researches, the work of Graham and its colleagues (Graham, 1986, 2002; Graham, Mintu & Rodgers, 1994) are the most important. Graham (2002) demonstrated the relationship Goals → Processes → Outcomes. Graham et al. (1994), based on the work of Hofstede (1984) have highlighted that a negative correlation exists between individualistic personal values and negotiator's problem-solving approach that is positively correlated with the partner's problem-solving approach. Graham (2002) work supports the relationship culture → values → goals → processes → outcomes. The relationships are marked (1), (2), and (3) in the framework in Figure 6.

On their framework in Figure 6, Manrai and Manrai suggest that "the negotiation process is influenced by negotiator's inclinations and negotiator's qualifications

also in addition to negotiator's goals" (Manrai and Manrai, 2015: 88). This is based on existing literature such as Brett (2001), Weiss (2007), Weiss and Stripp (1985/1998), Usunier (1996), Salacuse (1991, 1998). Therefore, the framework identified the relationship inclinations → processes, marked (4) in the Figure 6. The relationship qualifications → processes identified by Manrai and Manrai (2015) and marked (5) on the Figure 6 is based on the work of Foster (1992), Weiss & Stripp (1985/1998), Salacuse (1991/1998), Mintu-Wimsatt and Gassenheimer (2000) and Hall (1976) which contributed to the relationship between negotiator's qualifications and negotiation processes.

According to Manrai and Manrai, Negotiator's Inclinations and Negotiator's Qualifications have a direct effect on the Negotiation Outcomes. They define the Negotiator's inclinations as "their attitudes, preferences, and predispositions related to various issues such as time, risk, type of communication, interpersonal orientation, etc." (Manrai and Manrai, 2015: 89). They base their assumption mainly on the works of Hall (1960) on silent language and Foster (1992) on the decision-making and agreement-building style comparison between Americans and Japanese. They illustrated the relationships inclinations → outcomes and qualifications → outcomes in their framework by the marks (6) and (7).

Nontask activities are characterized by two areas in the framework of Manrai and Manrai (2105): preliminary talk before actual business talks and protocol related issues (greetings, addressing, business cards, dress, eating, gift giving, body language, eye contact, silence periods, behavior in social settings, etc.). Culture influences those factors in different ways and they are perceived differently according to cultures. Thus, Manrai and Manrai (2015) have identified the relationship goal → nontask activities which is supported by the works of Hall (1976, 1979, 1983), and Hofstede (1980, 1984, 2001). It is illustrated in Figure 6 by the mark (8). Nontask activities are also characterized by Negotiator's Inclinations (attitudes and predispositions on several relevant factors to international business negotiations such as time, risk, people or communication). Manrai and Manrai (2015) have identified the relationship negotiator's inclinations → nontask activities based on the works of Usunier (1996), Hofstede

and Usunier (1996) and it is marked (9) on Figure 6. The authors of the study also characterized the selection of negotiators by abilities and status, which was studied extensively (Foster, 1992; Salacuse, 1991, 1998; Weiss & Stripp, 1985/1998). Manrai and Manrai (2015) thus identified the relationship qualifications → nontask activities, marked (10) on the Figure 6. They also based this relationship on the works of Hall (1976, 1979) and Hofstede & Usunier (1996).

At last, the authors of the paper studied the effects of nontask activities on negotiation processes and negotiation outcomes. To do so, the work of Cateora and Graham (2007) which discusses the importance of nontask sounding was studied. The work of Cateora and Graham (2007) concludes that insights identified during the preliminary talks are extremely important in the interaction processes and impact the outcomes. Manrai and Manrai (2015) thus identified the relationships nontask activities → processes and nontask activities → outcomes marked (11) and (12) in Figure 6.

The framework conceptualized by Manrai and Manrai (2015) is very interesting as it summarizes all the cultural factors that influence international business negotiations but it also explains the interactions between the different components of the phenomena. It shows how culture influences in a very complex manner international business negotiations.

3. CULTURE

3.1. Definition of culture

To define culture is to confront with various problems. Culture is indeed a concept that everyone is aware of, but there is no consensus concerning its definition as it covers lot of variables and concepts.

For instance, Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (2012: 8) state that “culture is the way people solve problems”. This definition focuses on the manner that people approach a particular problem. The problem may be common but the approach to solve it differs from one culture to another. The problem with that definition is that it defines how culture manifests itself but not what it is. This definition explains the how but not the what.

The definition elaborated by Hall (1990: 29) tends to have also this approach as he states that “culture hides more than it reveals, and strangely, what it hides, it hides most effectively from its own participants”. This definition also focuses on how culture reveals itself but not what it is. However, it is interesting to note that Hall highlights the fact that culture is characterized by its ability to hide its specificities from its members.

Let us now try to define what culture is by focusing on the what and not on the how. “Culture includes everything that people have, think and do as members of a society” according to Francesco & Gold (1998: 18). The authors try to reveal what are the components of a particular culture. They define culture by what people have in common.

An other definition tries to list the components of culture in a more specific manner. Indeed, culture is defined as “patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically

derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values” (Kluckhohn & Hall. Kluckhohn, 1951: 86). The authors introduce here the notion of history. Culture is the result of a particular history and the amount of characteristics that are the legacy of this history. Moreover, culture seems to be intimately linked with a certain number of values that shape it.

House, Henge, et al. (2004: 15) tend to agree with the historical aspect and that culture is a result of a long process. They define it as “shared motives, values, beliefs, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members or collectives that are transmitted across generations”.

Culture can be thus defined whether through its manifestation or its common characteristics. Regardless of the approach, culture is nevertheless a result of a long process, a legacy of a particular history. Culture is what is left of past generations and the beliefs that survived and that influence the present members of a society in their approach to life. Culture is characterized by a set of symbols (as the language or beliefs for example) and norms and values that structure a society.

3.2. Hofstede’s dimensions on cultural variability

For Hofstede, culture is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede 1991: 4). Hofstede makes a clear difference between the “human nature” which is the common denominator of all human beings, and the “personality” which is specific to every human. The “personality” is what differentiates every human being, it is what is learned or assimilated. Basically, culture influences the personality and not the human nature according to Hofstede.

Hofstede’s theory about cultural influences is very important and opened a lot of new possibilities in a field that was not explored intensively yet at the time. He

conducted a research for International Business Machine (IBM) that was about the differences among national cultures. He thus constructed a survey which was answered by IBM employees all over the world in 57 different countries. For the 17 remaining countries without any answers, Hofstede calculated the results thanks to replications or similar surveys. As mentioned, the field of research of culture was revolutionized by the theory of Hofstede. Nevertheless, as every research study, his work was not based on nothing but on already existing researches. Among others, he based his study on an assumption popularized by Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead. The assumption is that all societies face the same basic problem, and that it is only the answers that differ (Hofstede 1991: 22). The next logical step was to identify what was the problem.

In 1954, Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson suggested from their survey that the followings were the basic problems that all societies face:

1. Relation to authority
2. Conception of self and the individual's concept of masculinity and femininity
3. Ways of dealing with conflicts

Twenty years later, a survey constructed by Hofstede concerning the values of people working for IBM in more than 50 countries was analyzed. He pointed out that the answers to the questions revealed common problems, but different solutions from country to country regarding the following areas:

1. Social inequality, including the relationship with authority (Power Distance)
2. The relationship between the individual and the group (Individualism vs. Collectivism).
3. Concept of masculinity and femininity: social and emotional implications of having been born as a boy or girl (Masculinity vs Femininity).
4. Ways of dealing with uncertainty (Uncertainty Avoidance).

Those four problems identified by Inkeles and Levinson and confirmed empirically by Hofstede represent dimensions of culture. It eventually became part of what is now known as the Hofstede's dimensions on cultural variability. Hofstede added later two other dimensions of culture:

5. The relationships a culture has with its past (Long Term Orientation vs. Short Term Orientation).
6. The degree of acceptance of free gratification of basic human drives (Indulgence vs. Restraint).

Hofstede defined the dimension as "an aspect of a culture that can be measured relatively to other cultures". Those six dimensions of culture can be integrated into a 6-D-model of differences among cultures (Hofstede 2010). Each culture gets a specific score in each dimension of culture. In the Appendix, we have put the scores of France and Poland.

3.2.1. *Power Distance*

Hofstede defined Power Distance as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede 1991: 46).

Inequality exists in every society. Indeed, the people forming the society are not equal: some are stronger, richer, bigger than others. Based on those inequalities, it appears logical that some people have more power than others. But power is not seen the same way in every society. In some, it is normal that people are not equal, depending on their abilities, or status. Nevertheless, in other societies, inequality is seen as something to attenuate. The approach each society has to power is what Hofstede calls Power Distance.

The Power Distance Index scores (PDI) was constructed around three questions: the first two questions were about the perception of the respondents about their daily work environment whereas the third question was about their preference

about their work environment. The PDI scores show us what is the dependence relationships in a country. Countries with a low score on the PDI (a small-power distance) show less dependence of subordinates on bosses. They are characterized by a more consultative decision-making style. Bosses and their subordinates have interdependent relationships with each other and are characterized by a small emotional distance between them. This allows subordinates to consult their bosses more frequently and more spontaneously.

At the opposite, countries with a large-power distance are characterized by a larger dependence of subordinates on bosses. In those countries, subordinates show sign of counterdependence as they responded either preferring such dependence or rejecting it entirely. It is then very unlikely that subordinate would approach their bosses or contradict them directly.

A table summarizing the principle characteristics of Power Distance is shown below and it is from the Master thesis "The Impact of National Culture on International Business Negotiations – Analysis of the German and Finnish Negotiation Styles" from Daniel Johannes Kopp.

Small Power Distance	Large Power Distance
Inequalities among people should be minimized	Inequalities among people are expected and desired
Interdependence between powerful and less powerful people	Less powerful people are dependent on more powerful people
The ideal boss is a resourceful democrat	The ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or good father
Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon	Privileges for managers are expected
Narrow salary range between top and bottom of organization	Subordinates expect to be told what to do
Subordinates expect to be consulted	Teachers are gurus who transfer personal wisdom
Teachers are experts who transfer impersonal truths	The powerful have privileges

All should have equal rights	Powerful people show their power
Powerful people try to be modest	Power is based on family or friends, charisma and the ability to use force
Power is based on formal position, expertise, and the ability to give rewards	

Table 3: Power distance

The differences among countries regarding Power Distance could be explained partly by the role of family according to Hofstede. He argues that in a large-power distance family, children are expected to be obedient. This implies that there is a high authority, and there is even sometimes a hierarchy among children. Respect is thus a fundamental value that is learned by observation as children see how family members can be respectful towards members with a greater authority. Hofstede talks about the mental software that is acquired immediately after birth and that is influenced by the family. In families with a lower-power distance, every child is considered as equal to others. In such families, children are more likely to affirm themselves, even if it is in contradiction with the parents. The same analogy can be made with school and the relation teacher-student as well as at the workplace.

Hofstede also points out the apparent relation between the language and the score in Power Distance. For instance, the countries where the native language is Romance have a medium or high score in Power Distance. He explains this relation through History as the Romance language is a heritage from the Latin. Indeed, the countries characterized by Romance language were part of the Roman Empire. Latin America was not part of the Roman Empire but was a colony of Spain and Portugal, which were under the Roman Empire influence. On the other hand, countries with a Germanic native language have a low score in Power Distance. During the Roman Empire, those countries were not part of the Roman Empire, they were called barbarians. The Roman Empire was ruled by a single power center. Thus, the population was used to receive orders from one authority and to obey, whereas Barbarian countries were divided into several tribal groups and the power was in the hands of local lords. According to

Hofstede, History also influenced people and culture to adopt a particular approach towards power. The same goes for the Chinese Empires which were ruled by a single power. The survey demonstrates that those countries have a high score in Power Distance.

According to Hofstede, an other explanation would be the level of latitudes, the population size and the national wealth. The geographic latitude allows Hofstede to predict 43% of the differences in PDI scores whereas latitude and population size allow him to predict 51% of the differences and the latitude, the population size and the national wealth can predict 58% (Hofstede 2010: 84). Those factors are thus very important in explaining the differences in the PDI scores among countries. The explanation is that at lower latitudes, it is easier to have an abundant nature as the climate is more adequate for agriculture. The main threat come from other groups of individuals that would want the same territory. It is then easier to protect a land if the society is well organized and structured into a hierarchy and depends on a central authority. For areas situated in higher latitudes, nature is less abundant. It is then harder to have enough food. The main threat comes thus from nature. In those areas, people have better chance of survival if they do not depend on others more powerful. People are then less obedient towards authority.

Concerning the wealth of nation, Hofstede have identified phenomena with a spiral causality. Poorer countries would have a higher score in Power Distance than richer ones. This could be explained by a more traditional agriculture, less modern technology, less urban life, less social mobility, an educational system not so performant and a smaller middle class. The more people are educated, the richer they become, and they become more independent.

The last argument is about the population size. According to Hofstede, in a more populated country, people would have to accept a political power which would be more distant than a political power from a smaller country.

Regarding the field of negotiations, we could argue that a negotiator from a low-power distance country would have more responsibilities and would not be

afraid to take some risks during the negotiation process. Nevertheless, a negotiator from a high-power distance country would stick to the objectives settled and would not take some liberties during the negotiator process. Such a negotiator would permanently seek his boss approval.

3.2.2. *Individualism and Collectivism*

Hofstede defines individualistic societies as “in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him- or herself and his or her immediate family” (Hofstede, 2010: 92). At the opposite, he defines collectivist societies as “in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (Hofstede, 2010: 92).

In his survey, Hofstede constructed a set of question about work goals and after analyzing the answers, he realized that the answers reflected two underlying dimensions: individualism versus collectivism and masculinity versus femininity. Concerning the dimension on individualism versus collectivism, Hofstede pointed out the importance to the following goal items:

For the individualist pole

1. **Personal time:** have a job that allows you to have sufficient time for your personal or family life
2. **Freedom:** have enough freedom to be able to adopt your own approach to the job
3. **Challenge:** have challenging work to do and from which you can get et personal sense of accomplishment

For the collectivist pole

1. **Training:** have training opportunities in order to improve your skills or learn new ones
2. **Physical conditions:** have good environment working condition as good ventilation and lighting or adequate space

3. Use of skills: use your skills and ability fully on the job

The first three items are easily linked with individualism as they all three indicate the importance of independence of the employee from the organization. The last three, at the opposite are linked with things that the company does for the employee and therefore, the dependence between the organization and the employee is reinforced. Hofstede also points out that individualistic countries tend to be rich, while collectivist countries tend to be poor. Indeed, in rich countries, training, physical conditions or the use of skills are not so important as they are taken for granted, while in poor countries, they are not. This is why they are quite important as one's work goals, because they make quite big difference between a good job from a bad one.

The following table from the Master thesis "The Impact of National Culture on International Business Negotiations – Analysis of the German and Finnish Negotiation Styles" from Daniel Johannes Kopp summarize the key differences between collectivism and individualism.

Collectivism	Individualism
People belong to in-groups which protect them in exchange for loyalty	Everyone is independent and looks after himself and his immediate family
Children learn to think in terms of "we"	Children learn to think in terms of "I"
Harmony should be maintained and direct confrontations avoided	Speaking one's mind is seen as honest
High context communication (read between the lines)	Low context communication (explicit)
Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for self and the group	Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect
Purpose of education is how to do	Purpose of education is how to learn

Diplomas provide entry to higher status groups	Diplomas increase economic worth and/or self-respect
Relationship between employer and employee is perceived in moral terms	Relationship between employer and employee is a contract based on mutual advantage
Management of groups	Management of individuals
Relationship prevails over task	Task prevails over relationship
Collective interest prevails over individual interest	Individual interest prevails over collective interest
Opinions made in the group	Opinions are individually made
Harmony and consensus are ultimate goals	Self-actualization as an ultimate goal

Table 4: Collectivism vs. individualism

Hofstede seems to explain the differences about collectivism and individualism among societies by geography, economy, and History.

Through History, human societies have developed themselves according to three steps: groups of hunter-gatherer nomads, group of farmers, and groups that became cities, and finally modern megalopolis. It has been found by comparing the evolution of societies that family complexity first increases and then decreases. It means that family becomes very complex and extended for farmers and when moving to cities, family becomes reduced to its nuclear original form. Modern societies are then more individualistic and it can be correlated to the evolution of family.

Wealth of societies also might explain why they are more collectivist or individualistic. Hofstede results show that wealth (GINI per capita at the time of the IBM surveys) explain 71 percent of the differences in Individualism vs. Collectivism scores for the original fifty IBM countries. But it is not clear what is the relation even if national wealth causing individualism is more likely.

History could also explain partly why a society is more collectivist or individualist. Indeed, in East Asian countries, the teachings of Confucius had and still have a great influence over those cultures. On the other hand, Western European countries were characterized by a large poverty among the populations. Economies were in grand majority rural and thus individualistic values were more important than collectivist ones.

Applying this dimension to negotiations is interesting as it helps us to understand how confrontation is handled in countries. For example, Japan is a country seen as collectivist and one of its characteristic is that Japanese never say no because because of their culture. Several examples of failed negotiations can be explained by this aversion of saying no. Western negotiators, due to the absence of a categorical refusal, could understand the answer as an approval and it would lead to a misunderstanding. Just because of a difference in handling direct confrontation.

An other dimension to take into account in negotiation is how societies treat people according to their status. It is called particularism and universalism. In individualistic societies, everybody is treated alike, while in collectivist societies, people are not equals. In negotiations, individualist negotiators might not be aware of this kind of particularity and it can jeopardize a negotiation.

3.2.3. *Masculinity vs Femininity*

For Hofstede, "a society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, and concerned with the quality of life. A society is called feminine when emotional gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life" (Hofstede 2010: 140).

Hofstede associate the following items depending on the pole (Hofstede 2010: 139):

For the masculine pole

1. Earnings: have an opportunity for high earnings
2. Recognition: get the recognition you deserve when you do a good job
3. Advancement: have an opportunity for advancement to higher-level jobs
4. Challenge: have challenging work to do - work from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment

For the opposite, feminine pole

5. Manager: have a good working relationship with your direct superior
6. Cooperation: work with people who cooperate with one another
7. Living area: live in an area desirable to you and your family
8. Employment security: have the security that you will be able to work for your company as long as you want to

The name of the dimension might seem surprising, that is why Hofstede added that "this dimension is the only one on which the men and the women among the IBM employees scored consistently differently" (Hofstede, 2010: 139).

Sexes equality or inequality has always been a source of concern. Even the Bible presents two contradictory versions of the creation of men and women. In one version, it is written that God created a male and a female at the same time, without any differences. But in the Genesis, it is written that God created first a man, Adam, and then, from his ribs, he created a woman, Eve. The second version seems to presented the woman as less important as the man and it has influenced the position of women compared to men for centuries.

The femininity in Nordic European countries can also be explained by History. During the Vikings era, when the men were sailing to conquer new lands, the women had to stay home and they were managing the villages. Surely it is not the only reason of the role of femininity in those societies but it has surely influenced the perception of women and their role.

The following table from the Master thesis “The Impact of National Culture on International Business Negotiations – Analysis of the German and Finnish Negotiation Styles” from Daniel Johannes Kopp summarize the key differences between masculinity and femininity.

Femininity	Masculinity
Dominant values are caring for others and preservation	Dominant values are material success and progress
People and good relationships are important	Money and things are important
Everybody is supposed to be honest	Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious and tough
Men and women are allowed to be tender and concerned about relationship	Women are supposed to tender and they take care of relationships
Less role distinction between men and women	Role distinction between men and women is more clear
Work in order to liver	Live in order to work
Managers use intuition and strive for consensus	Managers are expected to be assertive and decisive
Resolution of conflicts by compromise	Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out
Welfare society ideal	Performance society ideal

Table 5: Femininity vs. Masculinity

This dimension can be related to negotiation particularly during the phase of resolving conflicts. Indeed, feminist cultures would tend to resolve conflicts through compromise and cooperation, whereas masculine culture would rather tend to open conflict and try to resolve conflicts by strength. Feminist cultures have a vision of a long term relation when masculine cultures have more a short-term view of negotiations.

3.2.4. *Uncertainty Avoidance*

Hofstede defines uncertainty avoidance “as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations” (Hofstede, 2010: 191). He claims that every society tries to handle the uncertainty they face, and it is done mostly through technology, law and religion. Indeed, technology helps to avoid the uncertainty from nature; rules prevent uncertainty from humans by settling a legal framework in which everyone is free to move; religion tries to avoid uncertainty from beyond death and also about the meaning of life.

Through its questionnaire, Hofstede highlighted the differences about uncertainty avoidance among countries. He noticed a correlation about uncertainty avoidance in the following items:

1. If people are stressed at work
2. The feeling about the rules and if they should be broken, even if it would be in the company’s interest
3. The intention to stay at the company for a long period

Hofstede links the uncertainty avoidance with anxiety, that can be defined as “the state of being uneasy or worried about what may happen” (Hofstede, 2010: 195). Hofstede noticed that there is a high correlation between uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) scores and a study held by Richard Lynn. Lynn showed that some indicators were related as the suicide death rate, the rate of prisoner per ten thousand population, alcoholism or the accident death rate. He called this group of factors anxiety. On the other hand, other indicators were negatively correlated to anxiety as the average daily intake of calories of food, the occurrence of chronic psychosis, the consumption of caffeine or the death rate due to coronary heart disease. The scores of anxiety as calculated by Lynn are very similar to the UAI scores of Hofstede’s study. In countries where the UAI score is low, anxiety tends to be low too. Compared to the study done by Lynn, more people die from coronary heart disease in those countries. It can be explained by the fact that low-anxious societies are characterized by a low-level of expression.

It is not socially accepted to be expressive, to raise the voice or to talk with hands. Emotions are not shown in those societies, they are kept hidden. Thus, stress has to be internalized what may cause cardiovascular damages. This is an example of characteristics shown by countries with a low score in uncertainty avoidance. And that is why people from strong uncertainty avoidance countries might be seen by others as emotional, aggressive or busy, whereas people from weak uncertainty avoidance can be seen as quiet, controlled or lazy. This is important when applying to negotiations as negotiators from strong uncertainty avoidance countries might not understand negotiators from weak uncertainty avoidance countries or have a wrong impression.

Hofstede insists on differentiating uncertainty avoidance and risk avoidance. Risk is about something specific whereas uncertainty is something diffuse. Uncertainty is what precedes risk as anxiety precedes fear. It is when a diffuse feeling becomes clear and real.

The following table from the Master thesis "The Impact of National Culture on International Business Negotiations – Analysis of the German and Finnish Negotiation Styles" from Daniel Johannes Kopp summarize the key differences between masculinity and femininity.

Weak Uncertainty Avoidance	Strong Uncertainty Avoidance
Uncertainty is normal feature of life and people approach it relaxed	Uncertainty is a threat which must be fought
Low level of stress	High level of stress
Aggression and emotions should not be shown	Aggression and emotions may at proper time and places be shown
What is different is curious	What is different is dangerous
There should not be more rules as necessary	Emotional need for rules even if they do not work
Time is a framework for orientation	Time is money

Precision and punctuality must be learned	Precision and punctuality come naturally
Tolerance and moderation	Conservatism, extremism, law and order
Believe in generalist and common sense	Believe in experts and specialization
Truth can vary among people	There is only one truth
Few and general laws and rules	Many and precise laws and rules

Table 6: Uncertainty avoidance

As for the power distance differences, uncertainty avoidance differences can be partly explained by History, and mainly by the two main empires back then: The Roman Empire and the Chinese Empires. The Romance language countries have a low UAI score while the Chinese-speaking countries (including countries with important minorities of Chinese origins people) have a high UAI score. Those differences can be explained by the difference regarding the law of the two empires. The Roman Empire applied its rules to all citizen regardless of their origin and that was not the case for the Chinese Empires. The Chinese Empires concept was described as a “government of man” where the Roman Empire concept was described as a “government by law”.

Uncertainty avoidance influences the negotiation process in different ways. For instance, negotiator with a strong uncertainty avoidance might see any change during the negotiation process as a threat and thus react to it. On the other hand, a negotiator characterized with a low uncertainty avoidance might see any change during the negotiation process as merely relevant and adapt to it. Another influence of the uncertainty avoidance dimension could be the agenda planning for negotiations. For a high uncertainty avoidance influence negotiator, this would be seen as necessary and both parties would have to stick to the agenda. Any change of it or if it would not be respected by the other party, it could influence the negotiation and even jeopardize it as one negotiator would see the other as not reliable and disrespectful.

3.2.5. *Long-term versus short-term orientation*

For Hofstede, long-term orientation is “the fostering of virtues orientated toward future rewards – in particular, perseverance and thrift”, whereas short-term orientation is defined as “the fostering of virtues related to the past and present – in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of “face”, and fulfilling social obligations” (Hofstede, 2010: 239).

This dimension was added later and does not come from the IBM survey but from the Chinese Value Survey (CVS) that was constructed by Michael Bond and his Chinese colleagues. The scores are thus from this survey and the problem is that the survey concerns only twenty-three countries. Some replications and extrapolations have been made to make the results more consistent. The score for Poland is from the CVS survey but the French score is from extrapolation, and more particularly from the World Value Survey, held by Misho Minkov in 2007.

Short-term Orientation	Long-term Orientation
Efforts should produce quick results	Perseverance, sustained efforts toward slow results
Concern with social and status obligations	Willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose
Concern with “face”	Having a sense of shame
Humility is for women only	Humility is for both men and women
Managers and workers are psychologically in two camps	Owner-managers and workers share the same aspirations
Personal loyalties vary with business needs	Investment in lifelong personal networks, guanxi
Proud of my country	Learn from other countries

Table 7: Short term orientation vs. long term orientation

Societies with a low score at the Long Term Orientation Index (LTOI) are normative and see societal changes with suspicion and they stick to their own traditions and norms. On the other hand, societies with a high score at the LTOI are pragmatic and see societal changes as an opportunity and modernity. Applying this dimension to negotiations might not seem easy and not so obvious as for the previous dimensions. However, we could make some assumptions, as for example that normative societies are concerned with truth and see truth as unique. Moreover, they show great respect to traditions, this could mean that negotiators from those societies see negotiations as a zero-sum game and a fixed pie. Moreover, those negotiators might see negotiations as a battle between two parties that have diametrically opposite interests. On the other hand, negotiators from pragmatic countries might be more sensitive to changes during negotiations and might propose new solutions, outside the traditional zero-sum game view.

3.2.6. *Indulgence vs. restraint*

Hofstede defined indulgence as “a tendency to allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun”, whereas restraint is defined as “a conviction that such gratification needs to be curbed and regulated by strict social norms” (Hofstede, 2010: 281).

Originally, Hofstede did not take into account this dimension. It appeared from several analyzes of the World Value and later, Hofstede integrated it to its theory about culture.

Hofstede argues that there is a correlation between indulgence and national wealth, even if it is weak. The following presents the main characteristics of both dimensions.

Indulgent	Restrained
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Higher percentages of very happy people	Lower percentage of very happy people
Higher importance of leisure	Lower importance of leisure
Thrift is not very important	Thrift is important
Loose society	Tight society
Less moral discipline	Moral discipline
Positive attitude	Cynicism
Smiling as a norm	Smiling as suspect

Table 8: Indulgent vs. restraint

3.3. The impact of culture on negotiation

Culture has not always been seen as an important component of international business negotiations. In fact, it has even been seen for a period of time as something not important in negotiation. The argument was that when one knows how to handle negotiation, it is the same, more or less, every time and in every context. Nevertheless, the field was studied extensively and researches have revealed the crucial importance of culture in international business negotiation. In this context, Usunier have presented the key components of culture that impact international business negotiations.

3.3.1. *Important cultural components*

The first component of culture that has an impact on international business negotiations is communication and language. This seems obvious but tends to be forgotten. When two people from different cultures are negotiating, the language is rarely the same (unless for some exceptions). Often, at least one of the negotiator has to speak a different language than his native one. This has consequences over the negotiating process as it might be a source of

misunderstandings. Moreover, this is just when one of the negotiator has to speak in a foreign language. Often, both negotiators have to speak a foreign language that is English. Moreover, speaking a foreign language might also be very confusing in a negotiation as communication aspects might also differ from one culture to another. For example, in some cultures, it is normal to not be explicit and left some things unsaid but that are implicit, while in other cultures, it is the custom to say things explicitly and if they are not said, they are not taking into account. This might lead to misunderstandings between two different cultures.

An other component that influences international business negotiations is the institutional and legal system. This factor has influence more on the context of the negotiation process than on the process itself. At this level it shows how societies are organized regarding the rules and the decision-making process. For example, in some cultures, giving one's word is enough and it is considered as a commitment. But in other countries, a written contract is necessary.

The value system has also an important influence as it affects important negotiation aspects. For instance, it indicates to what extent a negotiator can take some risks, or to what extent leadership is important in a specific culture. It could also indicate what is a typical relation between a superior and his subordinate. All those particularities are helpful in a negotiation as they help to understand the other side.

The relation to time is different between cultures. It is crucial in negotiation because it shapes the structure of actions that a negotiator has. The most significant example of differences between cultures regarding time is punctuality. But it is not as important in negotiations as differences in time orientations, especially toward the future. The relationship between time and negotiation is developed further due to its importance.

Mindsets are the way people reflect on issues (Usunier: 101). What is the preference of the negotiator: data, ideas or speech? On what does he prefer to

rely on and in what combination? The logic of functioning of people is very important in negotiations.

The last component is relationship pattern. The way that people relate to the group and what relationship are framed in a particular culture are very important in the negotiation process as they may be helpful in resolving some conflicts for example.

3.3.2. *Important factors of negotiation influenced by culture*

Usunier (2010) have also presented the main negotiation factors that are influenced by culture. The first negotiation aspect on which culture has influence is credibility. This might seem surprising but the first impression is very important especially in negotiation. The first impression negotiators gave is the basis on which credibility is judged. Of course, it happens only during the initial building of credibility and therefore the importance is relative. But signs as age, sex, height, tone of the voice, perceived activity, self-esteem, etc. are signs that can determine a priori a credibility. Culture has an impact on those criteria as for instance in some countries, it is positive to be fat because of the malnutrition.

Interpersonal orientation is also a component of the negotiation process that is influenced by culture. There is for instance a huge difference between Western countries and Japan concerning this matter. In Japan, *ningensei* is a very important concept that shapes the Japanese society. This concept places human beings as the first concern in society and it has great consequences over the negotiation process. Indeed, Japanese negotiators spend lot of time and money during the first stage of negotiation in order to know better the persons they are negotiating with. The goal here is to build a relation of trust and confidence. This philosophy is a sign of a collectivist society and is different of the individualist Westerns countries.

The relation between persons and the concern for the other party have then a crucial importance in order to understand people from different cultures during

negotiations, but in-group orientation also needs to be understood. Foster have developed the concept of "limited good". He states that when there is a clear distinction between the in-group and the out-group, the interests of both groups are perceived as diametrically opposite. This point of view is a typical zero sum game orientated as the benefits for the in-group are perceived as disadvantages for the out-group. Any action or concession in favor of one group means its opposite for the other group. It is for example quiet common to find this kind of thinking among Mediterranean countries.

Power orientation is of course very important when it comes to negotiation. But there is a difference between the formal power orientation and the real decision-making. The first one is about status that one can have as for example be a member of certain clubs that give him a certain power status. Nevertheless, the real power/decision-making is entirely different. It is about persons that actually have the power of decision. It is not always the persons with a formal power orientation who have the power of decision. Three aspects need to be taken into account when negotiating: status can be shown differently according to culture; individual influence is exerted differently according to culture; the decision-process making differs from culture to culture. The power orientation aspect developed by Hofstede demonstrates that a larger power distance implies a more centralized control and thus a decision-making structure. However, Fischer (1980), through an example, demonstrated that this relation is not systematic.

Negotiation is a risk associated business activity. Risks are not perceived the same way according to culture. Weber and Hsee (1998) have shown that the attitudes toward risk are shared but that the perception of risk differ. This dimension can be related to the Hofstede theory explained earlier and its dimension of uncertainty avoidance.

3.4. Time and negotiation

Time is a cultural aspect that is very important to take into account, especially when it comes to different cultures. For example, when negotiating with

Japanese, it is often very surprising from a Western European point of view as the first phase of negotiating, which is getting to know each other, is very long and during this phase, the negotiating problem is rarely mentioned. For Western negotiators, this might seem as a waste of time whereas for Japanese negotiators, this is a crucial moment that can decide the entire process of negotiation and the outcome of it. This example is well-known and the matter of time in negotiation has been studied in detail. Time is the same for everyone but according to people, it is organized in very different ways. Hall (1960) identified a component that influences negotiations: the silent language of time. He identified five insights that differentiate cultures concerning time: punctuality and adherence to agendas, influences of relationships concerning the time needed in order to get things done, influence of the importance granted to decision regarding decision time, how individuals respond to delays and time pressure, and finally, is time perceived as elastic or fixed.

Usunier tries to explain in more details to what extent time and negotiation are related. Time can influence negotiations on four levels: the structure of negotiation, the negotiation strategy, the negotiation phases as a process variable and the outcome. The following table from Ghauri and Usunier's book (Usunier, 2011: 174) presents how time can affect a negotiation.

Starting the negotiation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Time for preliminaries (getting to know each other) - Setting the agenda/scheduling the negotiation process
Time in the negotiation process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Making appointments and setting deadlines - Managing temporal clash in IBNs - Temporal clashes between negotiating organizations - Time pressure in the bargaining process - Timing of concessions
Relationship time frame	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Long-term orientation favoring an integrative orientation - Making plans together; dealing with deadlines and delays

	- Discrepancies in the partner' temporal cultures
Time as an outcome variable	- Relationship vs deal: continuous vs discontinuous view of time - Written agreements as a time-line for negotiation

Table 9: Time in international business negotiations

From Usunier (2010: 174)

According to Usunier, time in negotiation is about four main questions and the differences between cultures regarding time are to be found in the answers at those four questions (Usunier, 2011: 176):

- (1) To what extent should time be regarded as a tangible commodity? (economicity of time);
- (2) How should tasks and time be combined? (Monochromic vs polychromic use of time);
- (3) Should time be seen as a single continuous line or as a combining multiple cyclical episodes? (Linearity vs cyclicity of time);
- (4) What are the appropriate temporal orientations: towards the past, the present and the future?

(1) In Western countries, time is perceived as money and thus is planned very carefully. In those cultures, time is perceived as a scarce resource and is then managed as optimally as possible. This vision of time is intimately linked with business negotiation and waiting is perceived as a waste of time. That is why Western negotiators are often irritated by the approach of Japanese negotiators, particularly concerning the phase where they get to know each other. For Western negotiators it is a waste of time, and the faster a deal is reached, the better.

(2) According to Hall (1983), two ideal-types of behavior in time managing exist: M-time (monochronism) and P-time (polychronism). People characterized by a M-time point of view are planning their tasks and do one thing at a time. When confronted with a dilemma, they choose to stick to their original task in order to finish it as it was planned. On the other hand, people with a P-time influence

easily change their plans and rarely see those changes as a waste of time. They do several things at the same time. M-time people are more focused on schedule than people whereas P-time people are more concerned with people. For Hall, Americans are typical M-time people and Japanese, Chinese, Middle-East and to some extent French people are typical P-time people. However, some studies from Conte (1999), Prime & Bluedorn (1996) seem to disconfirm Hall's assertion about French people being P-time people. In fact, those studies tend to demonstrate that French people are more M-time people than P-time people.

(3) The linear point of view of time describes time as a line with a point at the center that represents the present. From a business point of view, time can be divided and each portion has a certain money value. This vision is supported by Christianity. Indeed, life is seen as unique and there is no reincarnation possible. At the end of the life, there is the Final Judgment that would decide whether the soul goes to heaven or to hell. On the other hand, Asian religions assume that after death, the soul is reincarnated in another body until it is pure. Christianity thus supports a linear perspective of time whereas Asian cultures support a cyclic perspective of time. Besides the religious influence, elements of cyclicity of time have origins in natural rhythms of years and social division of time periods.

(4) People can be past-orientated, present-orientated or future-orientated. Past-orientated people assume that the past explains where we are now, which is typical from European countries and some countries from Asia. Present-orientated people emphasize on the present moment, here and now. This orientation means that the past is over, that the future is uncertain and that we can only master the present. At last, future orientation is linked with the belief that it is possible to master nature and that the future can be controlled and to some extent predicted.

3.4.1. *Time and the beginning of the negotiation process*

Many authors have highlighted the importance of the period in which negotiators spend time in order to know each other in some countries, especially in Asia and South America (Hall 1983; Graham & Sano 1990). The reasons for this phase of negotiation can be explained by many factors. Among them, we can find the need to establish the context of communication (Hall 1976), a separation not so clear between personal and professional lives that it is in the West, the need to know the person with whom we are negotiating with, a better knowledge of other persons in order to avoid offence, etc. For instance, Americans have an economical vision of time and when time is not spent negotiating about the matter, it is a waste of time. On the other hand, Japanese strongly believe that it is necessary to know one's past in order to understand them and thus make the negotiation process easier.

Setting the agenda and scheduling the negotiation process is for some cultures considered as necessary to the negotiation process whereas it is considered irrelevant for other cultures. Hall's theory about monochronic and polychronic time is here relevant: negotiators from monochronic cultures tend to settle an agenda and cut the process of negotiation into pieces whereas negotiators from polychronic cultures see the negotiation process as a whole and not as several pieces put together. Therefore, the second kind of negotiators are more likely to skip from one issue to another, coming back to some points that were discussed earlier.

3.4.2. *Time and the negotiation process*

Temporal clashes occur when there are different time perspectives. In other words, it happens when people from different cultures can not manage to synchronize their differences in dealing with time. This occurs for instance when at a meeting, a negotiator arrives late and do not apologize and when the other negotiator has been waiting and is irritated.

Business negotiators are accountable to a constituency and the main consequence of time pressure is that the behaviors are more competitive. This means that

negotiators are more likely to use aggressive tactics during the negotiation process and that they are more likely to break negotiation talks. Moreover, the place of negotiations has also an influence over the perception of time. For the host, it is possible to monitor the daily work and participate at the negotiation at the same time. On the other hand, the negotiator who is far from his home society is more likely to perceive the time as a waste if things are not going as planned. However, this does not apply for instance for most African cultures as they do not conceive time as a thing, therefore, it can not be wasted. Time has to be experienced, and it is not possible to waste it, just live it differently.

Concessions are a powerful tool in the negotiation process. However, it is a dangerous tool, especially concerning its use. For instance, Asian cultures do not offer any concession before an agreement is close. Asian negotiators need to discuss all issues before considering any concession. Americans, on the contrary, see concessions as a give and take process that has to start during the earlier phases of the negotiation process. Moreover, this process of give and take as to be balanced. This means that if Americans make any concession, they expect to receive a concession in return, whereas Asian negotiators, when making a concession do not think or wait for a concession in return. It is then obvious that the moment when concessions are made is critical and can lead to misunderstanding and jeopardize the negotiation process.

3.4.3. *The time frame of relationship between negotiators*

Rao & Schmidt (1998) have founded that the negotiator' horizon is affected by the fact of forming alliances. It is indeed logical that the expectations of a future collaboration affect current negotiations. When this is the last negotiation with a partner, it is more common to find aggressive tactics and threats are used more often. It is also interesting to see how the concept of friendship is perceived among different cultures, particularly, the difference of meaning for Americans and Chinese (Pye, 1986). For Americans, friendship is a concept limited in time based on feelings and a natural mutual exchange whereas Chinese see it as a bound of loyalty that can last for a long time. On one hand, Americans see

friendship as a principle of reciprocity whereas Chinese see it as a principle of loyalty.

3.4.4. *Time and outcome*

The difference made earlier between the linear point of view and the cyclical point of view of time is relevant here because for many Western negotiators, the negotiation process stops when the contract is signed. The limit of the process seems to be clear. However, for cyclical orientated cultures, the negotiation process limits are not so clear. It is seen as a recurrent relational process. For those cultures, a signed contract does not mean the end of the negotiation process. This is particularly true for Americans and Chinese. For an American, when the contract is signed, the negotiation ends and he moves on to the next step which is the concretization of the contract, whereas for a Chinese, a signed contract is seen as a part of the negotiation, not the end, and after it, the negotiation keeps going on.

Written agreements are also to be mentioned as for task-orientated negotiators, it is natural, like for Americans, whereas for relationship-orientated negotiators, this could be seen as a fracture in the negotiation process. Indeed, once a written agreement exists, it has to be complete and if one side does not stick to it, this could jeopardize the negotiation process.

3.5. Language and negotiation

3.5.1. *Review of existing researches*

The theories presented in this chapter are not exhaustive, but are interesting because they are linked directly with the negotiation process.

Hall (1979) have developed a theory called the Cultural Context of Communication. It highlights the importance of the context of communication in

different cultures. He states that the verbal communication is not enough and the context in which the verbal communication takes place is also very important, if not more important than the verbal communication itself. He differentiated two situations: high and low context cultures. In high context cultures, people tend to be more implicit and left things unsaid, whereas in low context cultures, people are explicit and tend to say or explain a lot of things. According to Hall, France is a high context culture. Poland was not part of the study but it is assumed that it is also a high context culture.

Cicourel work (1988) is about the importance of the various cognitive, linguistic and organizational contexts that influence negotiation through language. According to him, the expectations of negotiators about the language produced are influenced by the speech community (from the company for instance) and the specific speech event (during the negotiation for example).

Francis (1986) argues that the conversational analysis can be used during a formal negotiation. His research reveals the number of interpersonal negotiations that can occur within negotiations.

Neu (1988) have found that some language features are linked with a particular phase of the negotiation process. His work has a significant importance for the field of negotiation as it demonstrates the effects of some particular language features on the negotiation process but also on the outcome.

According to Grobe (2010), argumentative talk has a crucial role in negotiation, this is why he has developed a theory of rational persuasion which he calls functional persuasion theory. He states that argumentative-based changes in negotiation are not the result of a reformulation of agent's preferences, but that they are exclusively belief-driven. Grobe has based his research on constructivist's approach that claims the process of argumentation facilitates agreement in negotiations. This approach driven by the belief that argumentation is a key to reach an agreement in negotiation differs from the rationalist's approach in which negotiators try to maximize their own utility functions.

Schoop, Kôhne and Ostertag (2010) focus on communication quality and wonder how can the quality of communication be measured in negotiation. Traditionally, the quality of a negotiation process is evaluated by its economic outcome. Pareto efficiency and Nash equilibrium are indeed very important in this field. However, according to the authors, those methods are not taking into account an important part of the negotiation process which are the communication processes that also have an impact on the final outcome. The research thus focuses not only on the individual gain but also and mostly on the relationship between negotiating partners. According to the authors, a “good communication quality in business negotiations is associated with high levels of coherence and transparency, a jointly positive evaluation of the interaction, and the absence or successful management of communication conflicts on all semiotic layers. The fulfillment of these criteria implies a shared understanding of the terms and spirit of the deal and paves the way for the meaningful execution of any agreements reached by the parties” (Schoop et al., 2010: 200). Thus, a good communication quality is characterized by three components: effectiveness, efficiency and relationship management. Effectiveness is about (1) reaching a common understanding of the situation and the negotiation matter for both parties, (2) exploring all the possibilities, (3) and the reasonability of the agreement or rejection. Efficiency concerns the communication quality and is about “clarification efforts, active conflict management, and the adherence to business negotiation standards” (Schoop et al., 2010: 201). Relationship management indicates if the parties were able to build a relationship.

3.5.2. *Threats and promises in negotiation*

According to Gibson, Bradac and Busch (1992), research about threats and promises in negotiation are divided in three categories among researchers. The first one, the social psychological perspective considers threats and promises as costs, rewards and effectiveness of those factors. This analysis considers threats and promises as a coercive mean, which is defined as “the exercise of power through the use of particular tactics that aim to punish or reward the opponent” (Gibson, Bradac & Busch, 1992: 160). In a second approach developed by

Bacharach and Lawler (1981), the focus is on the relative power brought by negotiator in negotiation and its use. This approach is also based on the use of power and the results of their study show that negotiators do not rely on their opponent's power but rather on their own power. The third approach was developed by Deutsch (1973) and is focused on competition and coercion. According to Deutsch, threats are not perceived as effective strategy in obtaining joint profits comparing to others. However, the use of such strategies in negotiation tends to demonstrate the effectiveness of such strategy for resolving conflicts. Those three approaches are focusing on the use of threats in negotiation and more precisely on the negotiation outcome.

However, those approaches do not explain how language differentiates among coercive strategies and the role of intentionality and control in using threats and promises. Threats and promises can be explicit or implicit. When they are implicit, often, the reward or punishment are not said. In other situations, promises imply a threat that is not explicit. Those tactics prevent the person that uses them from unpleasant consequences such as a premature commitment or potential damages on the relationship. However, those tactics are more often used when negotiators understand themselves well and when they have some common ground. Indeed, the use of such implicit tactics is made in order to be understood, or at least to convey a particular message. If the opponent can not understand the message, it is useless.

Threats and promises are a coercive strategy that can not be mistaken with intentionality. For instance, a lie is an intentional coercive strategy because a negotiator wants to make believe something wrong to the other negotiator. Bluff also is an intentional coercive strategy as it happens when for instance a negotiators want the other negotiator to believe that he has the power to implement a threat when in reality he can not. Evasion is also a coercive strategy that can occur when goals of both negotiators are not compatible. The goal of this strategy is to maintain or increase the uncertainty to the other negotiator about the intention of pursuing a threat or a promise.

According to Gibbons, Bradac and Busch, speech acts and intentionality are linked in four ways (Gibbons, Bradac, and Busch, 1992: 167):

- Both distinguish between propositional statements and the force of these acts
- Both must convey the appropriate direction or fit
- The expression of a proposition conveys an intention, except for lying
- The conditions that satisfy a speech act also satisfy intentional states

However, in some cases, the negotiator may not be fully aware of the consequences of a promise or a threat. Indeed, conflicting intentions may occur when for example a negotiator make a promise during the negotiation process in order to reach an agreement and afterwards regret it and can not fulfill it. The question of consciousness of actions has also to be mentioned. Even if a negotiator is fully aware of formulating a threat and of his intentions, he might not be aware of the consequences. It may also occur that a negotiator is not aware of formulating a threat whereas his opponent interprets it as a fully intended threat.

This problem leads to the question of the control of a negotiator over his language. Several studies have shown that the language used is rarely fully controlled (Carver & Scheir, 1981; Kitayama & Burnstein, 1988 for example). The link between intentionality and speech acts is thus unclear, but according to Gibbons, Bradac and Busch, context is crucial in perceptions of intentionality and control.

3.6. Assumptions regarding France and Poland

Theories about culture and its influence over the negotiation process have been presented and in this chapter, I will present the assumptions deduced regarding both France and Poland that will be tested in this paper. Indeed, it is not possible to test all the cultural characteristics of the aspects of negotiation. This is why I decided to focus on the main common or different points between France and

Poland. Those points were selected regarding the different theories presented in this paper as well as my personal experience of both cultures.

First of all, I will focus on the theory developed by Hofstede and present the scores of both countries in the six dimensions.

3.6.1. *Assumption based on Hofstede theories*

	Power Distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty Avoidance	Long Term Orientation	Indulgence
France	68	71	43	86	63	48
Poland	68	60	64	93	38	29

Table 10: Scores of France and Poland in the 6-D model

The main differences in the comparison between France and Poland are concerning masculinity, long-term orientation and indulgence. The other dimensions tend to be similar for both countries.

Concerning Power Distance, both France and Poland have the same score. It means that both countries are hierarchical in which people have a very precise place and where subordinates expect to be told what to do. In negotiations, this would mean that negotiators from both countries would not take responsibilities or decisions without their boss approval. They would stick to the objectives defined. Hofstede also added that Polish and French cultures have some tensions as both countries score high in both individualism and in power distance. In negotiation this would be translated as a need of a second level of communication among a team of negotiators. The responsible of the group would have to make each participant important but with a deep sense of inequality as everyone has a defined position.

Both countries score high concerning individualism, with a higher score for France (71). Applying this dimension to the field of negotiations would mean that Polish and French negotiators would not be afraid to say no and are not afraid of direct confrontations. Moreover, anyone negotiating with them would be considered as an equal. Those characteristics would be more present for French negotiators.

Masculinity is a dimension that differentiates clearly both countries. France has a score of 43 whereas Poland scores 64. Poland is thus a masculine country whereas France is rather a feminine one. This would mean that during negotiations, if a conflict occurs, Polish negotiators would rather show their strength in order to end the conflict whereas French negotiators would search toward a more peaceful resolution. Polish negotiators would only seek victory over their opponent. Moreover, French negotiators would be more careful about the long-term relationship whereas Polish negotiators would rather focus on the negotiation in progress.

France and Poland score high for the uncertainty avoidance dimension. Poland is a particular uncertainty avoidant country with a score of 93 and France has a score of 86. In negotiations, it would mean a very codified process, a contract for every concession and a preference for avoiding unexpected moves or events during the negotiation process.

France has a score of 63 in long-term orientation whereas Poland has a score of 38. French negotiators are thus more pragmatic and they can adapt to changes during the negotiation process whereas Polish negotiators are normative which means that they have a vision of the negotiation process and they expect it to be as it has to be.

Indulgence is a dimension that differentiates Poland from France. Poland scores 29 and France 48. It is hard to apply this dimension to negotiations but I could assume that Polish negotiators would be focused on the resolution of the negotiation and would not spend a lot of time in knowing their partner through non-related negotiation activities as going to the restaurant with their partners. The emphasis would be more on the pure negotiation phase. France would be more favorable for non-related negotiation activities but not as much as other countries.

3.6.2. *Assumptions based on cultural specificities of both countries*

In his book "When Cultures Collide: Leading Across Culture" (2005) Richard D. Lewis tries to describe the specificities of several cultures, including France and Poland. His analysis can be used and applied to the negotiation field. I will highlight the main characteristics of both countries that can be useful for this paper.

According to Lewis, "the Polish communication style is enigmatic, ranging from a matter-of-fact pragmatic style to a wordy, sentimental, romantic approach to any given subject" (2005: 285). This means that in communication, Poles can be whether pragmatic or sentimental. This paradox can be very hard to understand

when negotiating with them. Moreover, they often use metaphors, implied meanings and can be ambiguous. This particular communication style can be verified during the negotiation process. They also are aggressive when under pressure. In terms of negotiation, this could be illustrated by a tendency to threaten to end the negotiations when feeling pressured. However, they are also pragmatic. Indeed, Lewis highlights the fact that Poles can be whether pragmatic or sentimental. Lewis also mention that they can seek a close personal relationship if they feel comfortable with someone. Applying this to negotiation, one might think that Poles would try to have a personal relationship in order to facilitate the negotiation process. However, according to Lewis, Poles maintain a certain distant between conversation partners.

In conclusion, Poles are characterized by some ambivalence between pragmatism and sentimentalism. This is particularly clear when looking at the negotiation process and how they use communication during this process. This is why the role of communication will be tested during the interviews in order to confirm or infirm the theories of Lewis.

Regarding the French culture, Lewis describes it as quiet hierarchical (as the Polish one) and the importance of politeness in negotiations. This could be illustrated by a certain distant maintained in the negotiation process because of the formality and politeness. Moreover, French are characterized by logic and it is logic that dominate their arguments. In this particular point, we can see a difference in French and Poles: French are more logical during the negotiation process whereas Poles have a tendency to be sentimental. This assumption could be interesting to test during the interviews. Lewis also highlights the fact that French tend to retain information as long as possible and reveal their hand only late in the negotiation process. As no information is given for the Poles, we can assume that there is a difference in both cultures regarding the disclosure of information. French are also known to be long during negotiations. Poles, by being more frank could be faster. This assumption will also be tested and analyzed in order to establish if French tend to be long during the negotiation process compared to Poles and why would be the reason. Lewis states that French tends to establish "firm personal relationships" (2005: 257). This approach

seems to differ from the Poles who want to establish a personal relationship but also keep a discreet distance. In other words, Poles want to establish a personal relationship with some ambiguity whereas French want to have a firm personal relationship. This assumption will also be tested as it could be an important difference in both negotiation styles.

In conclusion, the assumptions tested will be the following:

- The role of communication (how it is used, is the person talkative or not, is it seen as a weapon in negotiations, etc.)
- The role of personal relationships in negotiation (is it important to have one, why, how, etc.)
- How negotiation is seen? (a confrontation, a cooperation?)

4. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

In this chapter I will explain how the study was conducted and what methods were used and why. Since the goal was not to test theories but to understand to what extent the negotiation process is influenced by culture in France and in Poland, an inductive approach was considered most appropriate.

4.1. Case study as research strategy

A case study is a method of research that analyzes a person or a group and its relation with a phenomenon in real life context. Gerring (2004: 341) defines case study as “an intensive study of a single unit with an aim to generalize across a larger set of units”. In this particular study, the aim is to analyze how French and Polish negotiators behave during the negotiation process and to highlight the differences and similarities between the two cultures in a business negotiation context. The case study thus aims to answer to “why”, “what”, and “how”.

Three kinds of case study can be differentiated: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. The exploratory research is used for studies that do not have or very few previous studies. The main goal of this research category is to familiarize with a topic that is still unknown and it can be used later as a basis for further researches. The explanatory study is very open and the goal is to gather as many possible information, data and impressions. This is why explanatory researches are rarely conclusive and do not answer to the problems. Finally, the descriptive research is about describing a particular phenomenon and the variables involved in a specific situation. The goal is to better describe an opinion or behavior held by a person or a group of persons toward a particular phenomenon. Hence, the methodology is more rigorous and planned than for an exploratory research. Descriptive methods go thus deeper into a subject than exploratory researches. The focus is on studying a situation and highlighting the relationships between the different variables involved in the situation.

However, this study is a good example of the complexity of those three approaches as it shows that they can overlap with each other. Indeed, this case study has an exploratory nature as there is no significant literature about the comparison of the negotiation process between France and Poland. It is also descriptive as this paper explains the negotiation process and the influence of negotiation over it based on the existing literature. At last, it is also partly explanatory as it searches to identify the specificities of both Polish and French influences over the negotiation process and to explain how to negotiate in both countries.

4.2. Qualitative method for collecting data

Qualitative research includes an “array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena on the social world” (Cooper & Schnidler, 2006: 196). Qualitative research emphasizes thus on subjective perceptions and allows flexibility and interpretation. Moreover, a qualitative approach is necessary when it comes to the influence of culture on the negotiation process and its manifestations in both Polish and French cultures.

Interviews are commonly used in order to collect data when qualitative methods are used. This method was selected for this study. The interviews can be conducted face-to-face, by telephone, or online. Due to the distant geographic locations of the people interviewed and my location at Vaasa during the interviews, most of them were conducted online (thanks to Skype) and one in a face-to-face meeting. Three kinds of interviews exist: unstructured, structured, and semi-structured. Given the exploratory nature of the research, the topic of the study (culture’s influence on the negotiation process), I have chosen to conduct the interviews according to a semi-structured questionnaire.

A semi-structured questionnaire is between a unstructured and a structured interview. This is why it is characterized by the influence of both types of

interviews. The semi-structured interview is thus conducted thanks to core questions, and, according to the answers of the person interviewed, one subject may be more discussed than another. Moreover, some questions may remain unasked and other added. The important in the interviews was to create a bond with the person and to talk about how the person feels and how the person perceives the negotiation process.

4.3. Data collection

The sample used for the study was self selected. The criteria for the selection was French or/and Polish managers with an experience in business negotiation. The best candidates were the ones that had an experience in business negotiation with both Polish and French cultures and with origins of one of those cultures. No minimum time of experience in business negotiation was required as it was interesting to see if the perception of a novice negotiator would differ from the perception of a senior negotiator. The people interviewed were contacted through my personal network and are from various business sectors. The initial contact was made by e-mail in which the aim of the study was explained and I asked for the possibility and the availability for an interview. Fifteen people from various business fields were reached in both Poland and France. Among them, six responded positively to the email. One interview was not conclusive and thus not integrated. One person made the travel to Vaasa in order to make the interview face-to-face. Five interviews were considered enough as the data collected was rich and relevant.

All five persons interviewed were male. Three have a very good knowledge of both cultures in a business context. One negotiator mostly negotiated in only one country (France).

Persons	Positions	Age	Experience in negotiation
A	President	64	30 years
B	Vice President	45	26 years

C	CEO	41	20 years
D	International Development Manager	28	5 years
E	Packaging Buyer	25	3 years

Table 11: Interviewees characteristics

The sample is quite heterogeneous as it covers all the age categories (from 24 years-old to 64 years-old). Moreover, various business sectors are covered (automobile industry, pharmaceutical industry, consulting company, engineering firm). This variety helps the study as it covers a large range of sectors and age categories. It is also helpful because the differences or similarities in the findings would not be biased by the business sector.

The interviews were based on a semi-structured questionnaire designed to be of half an hour / an hour duration. In practice, the interviews lasted between half an hour and one hour. The questions were selected according to the literature review and aimed to highlight the similarities and differences in conducting a negotiation in Poland and France. As the literature about the comparison of both negotiation styles is almost inexistent, the questions were also selected based on my knowledge of both cultures. Thus, the main themes tackled were the role of communication (how it is perceived and used), the perception of the negotiation process, and the role of relationships in the negotiation process. The semi-structured questionnaire allowed the interviewees to express and develop their own perceptions of the negotiation process in order to highlight the cultural specificities. Indeed, by giving some freedom to the interviewees in their answers, the research would identify more easily the cultural specificities in conducting a negotiation in France and in Poland.

The questionnaire was originally designed in English but due to the native languages and the language specificities, it was considered best to translate it in French. The questionnaire was not translated in Polish as the two Polish person interviewed master perfectly the French language. Four interviews were conducted by Skype and one in face-to-face in Vaasa. Only one face-to-face interview was possible because the person interviewed was kind enough to make the trip to Vaasa. The four remaining people were either in France or in Poland

and due to their agenda, only a Skype interview was possible. At the beginning of each interview it was asked if it would be possible to record it. Moreover, due to the sharing of business experience and in order to not prejudice the interviewees, some information regarding the interviewees were kept confidential.

4.4. Data analysis

The approach adopted in order to analyze the data was the deductive one, even if an inductive approach was also incorporated. This approach was adopted as two broad themes were discussed (culture and negotiation) and those themes have theoretical backgrounds with causal relationships. This is why this study aims to identify similar findings than in the theoretical background through the analysis of the primary data, but due to the fact that both French and Polish cultures are analyzed, an inductive approach was also necessary in order to explore new explanations to patterns of outcomes.

Moreover, it is necessary to analyze the data by avoiding impressionistic points of view, meaning that the real meaning of the data has to be found. This is why the data needs to be categorized. The transcription of data was thus done just after the interviews were finished in order to optimize the analysis as the researcher had still everything on mind. The interviews were recorded thanks to Garage Band, an Apple's Mac application that allows to record interviews, and one interview was recorded through the Dictaphone available on the Iphone 4S. The transcription was done exactly according to what the interviewees said. Approximatively, the transcripts were about two and half and three pages. After the transcription of all five interviews, the researcher categorized them by main themes and he then summarized and verified conclusions according to the assumptions made in the theoretical part. When the categorization and verification phase was completed, the researcher translated the results from French to English.

4.5. Validity and reliability

The current study is based on both primary and second data. Indeed, an extensive literature exists on the influence of culture on the negotiation process. However, it was not possible to base the study just on second data as it is not possible to control its data quality. This is why a sufficient amount of secondary data was needed and cross-analyzed in order the study to be reliable.

Nevertheless, due to its exploratory nature, primary data was also needed in order to study the phenomena in its environment. The secondary data thus allowed to see the possible influences of culture over the negotiation process whereas the primary data abled the study to answer the research questions and objectives. Both data collections were complementary for this study.

Concerning the finding, the question of its generalization has to be asked. This concern is about to know if the findings of this study can be applied to other research settings, as for example other negotiators from France or from Poland. Since this case study only analyzed the answers and the perceptions of five people, it is important to know if their appreciations about how culture influences the negotiation process in France and/or in Poland can be generalized to other negotiators in France or Poland. The aim of the study was not to generalize the appreciations of the interviewees, but to understand their feelings and understandings of the cultural influences over the negotiation process and how cultures manifests itself in negotiation in France and in Poland. However, the findings can to some extend be identified with the current literature about how culture may influences the negotiation process in both countries. Hence, it is possible to generalize the findings at some extend to the analytical level. Thus, it is possible to generalize some commonly admitted cultural influences in the negotiation process in France and in Poland that are identified in this study.

Despite the relatively small sample used for this study, it is possible to consider it reliable as similar results could be obtained with an other similar sample, which is French or Polish negotiators. Indeed, if other Polish or French negotiators were interviewed in order to identify how French culture influences the negotiation

process in France and how Polish culture influences the negotiation process in Poland, globally same results would have been found.

5. INTERVIEW RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the empirical findings from the five semi-structured interviews. The chapter presents each interviews at a time in order to allow a comparison between the interviews. The interviews were analyzed and divided into the following themes: (1) the negotiation process and style, (2), communication, and (3) the relationship between negotiation partners. The categorization was made in order to reflect the main similarities and differences in conducting a negotiation in France and in Poland according to the research questions. The second part of the chapter is about the findings and its discussion in comparison to the findings highlighted in the existing literature.

5.1. The interviews analysis

In order to give a background of the interviews, a quick presentation of each interviewee will be given before the analysis of the interview. Indeed, those information regarding the job, the gender or the experience in negotiation might highlight the interviews. Moreover, quotations are used in order to reflect the comments of the interviewees and to provide a better understanding of the meaning of the answer.

5.1.1. *Negotiator A*

Negotiator A is a French male of 64 years-old and he is the former CEO and actual president of a firm specialized in the protection of wires in cars. He has developed the firm over the years which is now present in four continents. Hence, he has a very important experience in negotiation (thirty years) and with many different cultures (Spain, United-States, England, Japan, China, Mexico, Portugal, Egypt).

Theme 1. The negotiation process and style

When asked about negotiation and how it was perceived, he stated that the negotiators need to be clear about what they want in order to negotiate.

“Negotiation is possible only if one has a precise idea of what one wants.”

Moreover, Negotiator A highlighted the fact that in negotiation, it is crucial to know what is the current position of the negotiators. Who is in position of strength? Who is in position of weakness? What are the reasons for those positions? All those questions are crucial in order to adopt a strategy. According to Negotiator A, it is very important to be flexible during the negotiation and to not overuse a particular position.

“It is necessary to take into account if someone is in position of strength or weakness during the negotiation process. Be being in a position of strength, it is possible to use it in order to get what one wants. However, a flexibility needs to be achieved in order to not jeopardize future negotiations in which ones could be in position of weakness”

He also added that negotiations are so different that one’s position changes constantly. From one negotiation to another but also within a same negotiation. This is why flexibility is needed. However, even if one is in position of strength, one must ask oneself if by adopting a strong position, one will obtain what one wants. The primordial role here is tactics and strategy. As described in the theoretical part, the strategy consists in what one wants to achieve whereas tactics are the mean to achieve it and in some occasions, a tactic may seem opposite to a strategy but the purpose is still to reach the objective fixed. That is why Negotiator A stated that even if one has a position of strength in a negotiation, adopting a position of strength is not always the best way to reached the objective. Sometimes it can even jeopardize the strategy.

“Negotiations are very different from one another. In this context, a key element is to know if it is relevant to adopt a position of strength in order to achieve what I want to achieve.”

Negotiator A sees the negotiation mostly as a combat, a struggle, even if he agrees on the fact that according to the negotiation, it can be a cooperation. By essence, it is a struggle because it is very rare to obtain what is desired smoothly or without any struggle.

“Negotiation can be as well a confrontation as a cooperation. However, it is always a struggle. The goal is to bring the opponent where I want him to be. The question is to know how to bring him where I want”.

Negotiation is then a struggle in order to make one’s position prevail over the opponent’s position. For Negotiator A, this is the essence of negotiation.

“The art of negotiation is to bring the other negotiator where you want him to be whereas I am in a position of weakness”

Theme 2. Communication

When it comes to the role and the importance of communication, Negotiator A divides the negotiation in two parts. The first part consists in creating an atmosphere of trust and making the other negotiator feel positive. This statement matches the importance of the atmosphere as a component of the negotiation process explained in the theoretical part.

“The ability to seduce the other, to make him feel comfortable is crucial in negotiation”

This ability to make the other negotiator feel comfortable is possible only if one understands the other negotiator. Without understanding it is not possible to make him feel comfortable. This understanding varies from one culture to another. For Negotiator A, it was for instance very specific with Indians.

“For example, when I negotiated with Indians, it was necessary to talk about spirituality in order to create a positive atmosphere”

Once this atmosphere is set, a more factual negotiation phase begins. During this phase of the negotiation, Negotiator A does not make the actual negotiations. He does not negotiate the terms directly. He let someone do this for him in order to let the less pleasant work to someone. This is a tactic from Negotiator A as he uses the so called good cop / bad cop tactic. He is the good cop who is reassuring, creating a good atmosphere, willing to reach an agreement, whereas the other negotiator of his team, the bad cop, is reticent to make concessions, is more tough in negotiations. Moreover, the bad cop also lets the other party believe that he has the power of decision. But when a delicate decision has to be made, he tells that he needs to see with Negotiator A. This tactic is made to feel the other party confused. The goal is also to pushed them to make concessions. This tactic is possible thanks to communication as Negotiator A is always very kind, very positive and willing to reach an agreement. The other negotiator of his team uses communication to make feel he would not be soft.

“When the atmosphere is set, I usually make room for another negotiator of my team. Therefore, I let the unpleasant work to him whereas I maintain a positive atmosphere. The goal is to separate the technical part of the negotiation and the relational part. I take care of the relational whereas another negotiator of my team is negotiating the technical parts. The other party thinks he is the one who has the power of decision, which allows concessions. The goal of the negotiator of my team is to go as far as possible. When a critical point is reached, I intervene. This allow to confuse the other party”

As for the disclosure of information, Negotiator A says that it is not possible to generalize. It is necessary to feel what can be done and what can not be done during a particular negotiation. If one feels that the other party needs some information about a specific point, it could be smart to give him what he wants to know. But this is possible only if there is an atmosphere of trust.

“One, I gave some information at the beginning of a negotiation because I felt that it was needed. However, I did that only because there was an atmosphere of trust”

Communication can also be a powerful tool but it is dangerous. According to Negotiator A, the less powerful one's position is, the more one must make believe it is strong.

"Once, I remember that I threatened to leave the negotiation if the other party would not give more concessions, whereas I was not in a position of strength. This example demonstrates the power of what things look like. The key point is to be convincing"

This importance of what things look like is powerful in negotiation. Negotiator A for instance talked about when he was tough. He explained this by the fact that he had felt that it would be the easier way to make the other party change his mind.

Theme 3. Relationship

According to Negotiator A, Latin negotiators, and more precisely French negotiators are looking to involve the other party emotionally. If the negotiator is emotionally involved, it will be easier to make him accept concessions.

"Latin negotiators, and even more French negotiators are looking to involve the other party emotionally"

This is why relationship between negotiators is important for French negotiators. Indeed, when French negotiators have friendly relationships, it is far more complicated to adopt tough positions during negotiations.

An other point is that when a negotiation starts to be sensitive, it is very often that French negotiators would try to play on the emotions in order to prevent the negotiations to be too tough and to avoid making concessions.

"When a negotiation is becoming tough, the French negotiator will try to play on emotions in order to calm it down"

According to Negotiator A, with French negotiators, it is very poorly perceived to adopt a tough position while having a trustful and emotional relationship. Another important point is to know that French negotiators are lost if the negotiation is not at least for a moment focused on the relationship.

“If there is no relational building during negotiations, the Latin is lost”

This is why when negotiating with French, Negotiator A always starts the negotiation with talks unrelated to the negotiation matters. This is in order to show that he cares about the relationship. After this phase, Negotiator A talks about positive points that he is pleased with in order to make the other party feel comfortable and pleased. If there is something delicate to say or to ask, it is only after that phase that Negotiator A will talk about it. He also added that it is crucial to state facts, without any emotional linked arguments.

5.1.2. *Negotiator B*

Negotiator B is a forty-five years old male, Vice-President of a company that provides council and support to firms that want to expand their activities in Eastern Europe. He has been in this company almost his entire professional life, allowing him to have a great experience in negotiation. Indeed, he has been negotiated for twenty-six years with several cultures (Sub-Saharan African countries as Mali, Senegal or Ghana; England, Switzerland, the United-States, Brazil, Spain, Germany or Belgium). His experience in negotiation and his perfect knowledge of both Polish and French cultures make him a very interesting person for this study.

Theme 1. The negotiation process and style

When asked about the negotiation process, Negotiator B responded that the first phase of the contact is crucial as it sets the atmosphere for the entire negotiation process.

“The first meeting with a potential client is crucial because it allows me to notice several useful details that could help me understand him: the client’s handshake, how he is dressed, etc..”

The negotiator has to notice all those details in order to understand the other party and then try to influence the atmosphere and also the negotiation process through tactics. Regarding the price, Negotiator B does not mention it before the project is agreed on with the client. Only after this phase the price is proposed. Moreover, Negotiator B does not propose a high price first and then reduce it but he proposes the price he seems the most suitable regarding the project.

“It is not in my habits to propose a very high price and then negotiate it after. My tactic is to propose the price that fits the project et to offer a small discount after.”

Regarding the importance of price, Negotiator B sees a difference between France and Poland. Indeed, while in France when the price is decided, it is a definitive position, in Poland even if a price is decided, it can be renegotiated again further in the project.

Another difference between France and Poland is time. In France, it is possible to renegotiate the delays whereas in Poland it is not. This is particularly true for the realization. During the negotiation process, it is the opposite. When a French negotiator says that he just has thirty minutes for a particular problem, it means that he really has thirty minutes. On the other hand, when a Polish negotiator says he just has thirty minutes, he really has one hour or more for this particular problem.

“The French client is more concerned about quality whereas the Polish client is more interested in the delays”

Theme 2. Communication

When asked about communication, Negotiator B answered that this is the main divergent point between France and Poland regarding negotiation. Indeed, according to him, the French negotiation style is softer and politer than the Polish one.

“In general, in France, the negotiation is politer, with more respect between the actors. The Polish negotiation style is much tougher, with sometimes very violent remarks, negotiation breakings, frequent breaks. In France, both parties want to achieve an agreement, that is all, not like in Poland where a balance of power is needed.”

This balance of power in Poland is characterized by communication in the negotiation process. Indeed, communication is more aggressive in Poland. That is why it is more likely to witness threats of breaking the negotiation or the negotiation to be stopped. The main purpose of this tough communication tactics is simply to obtain a better offer in term of price. In France, communication is much clearer and transparent during the negotiation.

“For instance, it was not rare that I went to a meeting with the President of a firm and at my arrival, I learned that the meeting would be also with additional persons that would not even be introduced to me. It also happened that a meeting of one hour or more was planned and I was said that my interlocutor only had fifteen minutes to discuss. Sometimes, negotiations were also stopped without any reason. The objective is to get a better price.”

Theme 3. Relationship

When it comes to relationship between negotiation partners, Negotiator B said that in both France and Poland, the first contact is crucial in negotiation as it allows to build a trustful relationship. The difference between France and Poland for Negotiator B is that in Poland, there is less time in order to present oneself than in France.

“In Poland, there is less time to presents oneself, it is quiet close.”

Moreover, in France, it is more a relationship between equals or at least between partners, whereas in Poland, it is a hierarchical relationship, often supplier/client.

“In France, there is the notion of partnership that is absent in Poland.”

Regarding trust, Negotiator B believes that it is equally important in both countries. However, the difference lies in the renewal of that trust. Indeed, in Poland, trust need to be proven every time whereas in France, once trust has been established, it is granted for quiet some time.

5.1.3. *Negotiator C*

Negotiator C is a forty-one years old male entrepreneur. After an experience in sales at the beginning of his career, he worked in the environmental sector. For more than ten years now, he is the owner and CEO of an environmental engineering consulting firm that has subsidiaries all over the French territory. Negotiator C has then an extensive negotiation experience as he was a salesman, and now is an entrepreneur that leads him to negotiate several merges or take overs.

Theme 1. The negotiation process and style

When asked about the negotiation process, Negotiator C insisted on the preparation phase. According to him, it is crucial to be well prepared for the face-to-face negotiation because it is very emotional and if one is not ready and has no strategy and tactics, it is very likely one would fail the negotiation.

“The preparation phase is very important because the face-to-face negotiation is a very emotional phase and stressful. If one is not well prepared, one would be tricked by the other party.”

Moreover, Negotiator C insists on the fact that during the face-to-face negotiation, it is very important to know the breaking point. How far can one go? One must know the limits of the negotiation, and also say no. Indeed, saying no is not always easy in negotiation but a negotiator must know how and where to say no.

According to Negotiator C, during the negotiation process, it is better to first negotiate about less important problems and negotiate the critical issues after. Indeed, this tactic can allow to create a positive atmosphere and to get ready for the real negotiation problems.

Negotiator C gave some tactics advice during the interview and those examples are interesting as they underline a particular style. For example, he talked about prices. When negotiating a price, a good tactic could be to cut the gap that separates both parties and to cut it in half.

“People without negotiation training may first make small concessions, and then a big one. This is a bad strategy because the other party can see this as a weakness and will push to get even more concession.”

It seems then cleverer to make bigger concessions at the beginning and smaller after in order to make feel the other party that an agreement is getting closer.

Theme 2. Communication

For Negotiator C, communication is crucial during the negotiation process. Indeed, in order to be successful in a negotiation, one must perfectly master the communication under all its forms. This mean verbal but also non verbal communication.

“Communication is fundamental. It is necessary to know what questions to ask, reformulate sentences, etc. This requires a perfect control of communication, verbal and non verbal.”

Negotiator C also considered that keeping information from the other party is very important as it allows a certain liberty and control over the negotiation process.

“In negotiation, it is everything about things untold. One must retain information in order to convince the other party that he has the best offer.”

Moreover, when it comes to threat and promises, Negotiator C stated that from the point of view of the seller, threats are not very useful and must be avoided.

“Clearly, for the seller, it is forbidden to use threats.”

Theme 3. Relationship

When asked about the relationship between negotiation partners and its influence over the negotiation process, Negotiator C insisted on the fact that it influences it a lot.

“The relationship between negotiation partners influences a lot on the negotiation process, particularly on the will to reach an agreement.”

The beginning of the negotiation between two people is also important as it builds trust for the negotiation process.

“The phase during which partners build trust is very important because the seller tries to make understand to the buyer that he is not just trying a product and a price, but he also is trying to build a relationship. The seller must go beyond the confrontation and try to reach a cooperation.”

Negotiator C insisted then on the relationship that might be built during the negotiation process and insists on the cooperation. This is quiet similar to what told Negotiator B when he said that French are seeing negotiation as a cooperation more than a confrontation.

5.1.4. *Negotiator D*

Negotiator D is a twenty-eight years old male with both French and Polish nationalities who despite his young age already has a significant experience in negotiations. Indeed, he was the founder and director of a firm that provided Polish workers for French firms and assisted them during all the expatriation process until their repatriation. After this experience, he worked in different firms that had connections with both French and Polish cultures. He is currently the International Development Manager for a furniture company based in Poland. His work leads him to travel to France often as the Polish company has lot of French clients. This is why this person was selected for this study, as he has a negotiation experience and has knowledge of both cultures.

Theme 1. The negotiation process and style

When asked about his negotiation experience, Negotiator D answered that negotiation is divided in two parts. The first part is to identify a prospect and to get a meeting in order to convince him to be a client. The second part is to convince him to accept what one has to offer. Both parts are components of the negotiation process, but when it gets difficult, it is when it comes to discuss about money which differentiates France and Poland.

“The money matter is very different between France and Poland.”

Indeed, according to Negotiator D, price is the main differentiator between France and Poland. In Poland we talk about price whereas in France we talk

about costs. In Poland, price is more important in the negotiation process than in France. French negotiators are more interested in the added value and the quality of what is proposed.

“In Poland, negotiation is faster because negotiators talk about the price faster because it is determinant in the process.”

Negotiations are thus going faster because price is not a problem and it is quickly mentioned. But as the negotiations are going faster, relationships last less long. The fact that price is more important in Poland than in France in negotiation was also mentioned by Negotiator B.

Moreover, regarding the negotiation process, Negotiator D sees it more rigid in France than in Poland, but also subtler.

“The negotiation process can last twice more in France than in Poland.”

Nevertheless, Negotiator D insists on the fact that the manner in conducting a negotiation in Poland is more and more similar now to France than it was ten years ago. The Polish negotiation process improved regarding quality.

“Poland is getting closer to France because of what the market expects. This is why there is more steps in the negotiation process. Thus, the Polish negotiation style has lost in sentimentality.”

Theme 2. Communication

The importance of price and communication are related to the communication style of Polish negotiators. Indeed, as the negotiations are going faster, negotiators are more direct when communicating.

“In Poland, negotiators are communicating pretty fast on a first-name basis.”

Moreover, as the negotiation process is longer in France than in Poland, French negotiators often need their superior approval. In communication, this means that negotiators would be more careful and less aggressive than Polish.

“Once, a French client called me panicking about the delays. He needed some projects to be validated fast. I calmed him by saying that our firm was used to this and was able to manage it without problem. I agreed with coworkers and we send the projects at 10 pm.

The next morning, I received an email that informed me the projects would not be validated before three days by the French client.”

This example is very relevant concerning the manner French negotiators communicate during the negotiation process. In this example, the French negotiators pushed the Polish negotiator to send some papers the same day in order to test him and to see if it would fail. French negotiators are thus not as straight as Polish negotiations. Indeed, Polish negotiations would threaten directly without pushing the other party to fail.

Theme 3. Relationship

As negotiations are going faster in Poland, it is impacted in the relationship between negotiators. Indeed, according to Negotiator D, negotiators are very fast using first name in the negotiation process and Polish negotiators are more direct. On the other hand, French keep a certain distance because they are very polite.

“In Poland, negotiators are in a more direct and simple relationship, they are using their first names.”

Negotiator D stated that in France, the quality of the relationship is more important than trust in the relationship. In France, negotiators hardly develop a friendly relationship because of the politeness and the code of conduct that is pretty rigid compared to Poland, where two negotiators can develop a friendly relationship.

“For instance, in France, when I am working with a French on a project and that things are going well between us, we want to call us by our first names but we don’t because of decency.”

In Poland, once the obstacle of the price is passed, the relationship is more important than in France. People are more interested in the person they are dealing with. In France, negotiators look to cover themselves from any possible mistakes which make the relationship difficult.

“In France, it is common that people look to cover themselves at every process of the negotiation process which is not the case in Poland.”

5.1.5. Negotiator E

Negotiator E is a twenty-five years old French male. He is currently working in Praha as Packaging Buyer for a pharmaceutical company. He is in contact with Polish suppliers in his daily work. Previously, he had some professional experiences in Poland as he worked for a bank in Warsaw. Therefore, his profile is interesting as he is young, without any important experience in neither negotiation or dealing with Polish culture. His profile is interesting because his impressions are new and it is interesting to have a large panel of interviewees.

Theme 1. The negotiation process and style

Regarding the negotiation process, Negotiator E talked about the process he faces in his daily work when looking for packaging suppliers. Regarding the importance of the company he is working for, the process is very standardized and potential suppliers are selected by Negotiator E and then are facing a process of selection. They need to present a price and an offer and they are selected for the final stage where just the best offers are selected. Potential suppliers have then possibilities to improve their offer.

What is interesting in this process is that Polish suppliers often propose a very high price at the beginning, much higher than the mean of the suppliers and they lower their offer a lot after. This is a very aggressive approach to price which tends to confirm what Negotiator D told about the importance of price in Poland.

“Often, at the beginning, Polish are the most expensive and at the end they are the less expensive. French do not have such a difference in their first and last offer.”

Theme 2. Communication

Regarding communication in the negotiation process, Negotiator E could not tell us a lot about it as he does not have lot of experience in negotiation. However, he said that he is working for a very important company meaning that potential suppliers are more willing to work with them and thus, there is a clear balance of power in communication when it comes to negotiation.

“We are a big company and in general, companies want to work with us. Therefore, there is a strong balance of power and communication can be seen as a tool for negotiation.”

Communication is then used by Negotiator E as a weapon in the negotiation process because of the balance of power. It is similar to what told Negotiator A when he was talking about the position of strength and to use it to achieve the goals of the negotiation process.

Theme 3. Relationship

When asked about the relationship between negotiators, Negotiator E said than French tend to be more involved emotionally in negotiation as they respond better to emotional argument than Polish.

“With French, a friendly relationship could be build faster and easier than with Polish.”

According to Negotiator E, Polish are very polite but tend to be more distant than French in the negotiation process. This impression is in contradiction with what Negotiator D said about friendly relationships between negotiators with French and with Polish.

5.2. The negotiation process and style

In this part, I will analyze the findings from the interviews. As the analysis of the interviews was divided into themes, it was considered relevant to keep this division when it comes to the analysis of the findings from the interviews. The first theme is then the negotiation process, the second, communication and the third the relationship between negotiator partners.

I also need to add that the analysis was made based on the hypothesis presented earlier. As most of the characteristics described in the book of Lewis (2005), *When Cultures Collide: Leading Across Cultures* were mentioned by the interviewees, those assumptions will be tested first. However, I also tried to mention others theories through the analysis of the findings from the interviews.

When analyzing the interviews, it appears that the findings whether corroborated or invalidated some theories or assumptions made in the first part of this paper. However, as very little literature exists on the influence of culture on the tactics used in negotiation and the Polish and French styles in negotiation, I will present what seems to be important from the interviews. The first point that differentiates Poland from France in the negotiation process and style is price. Indeed, for Polish negotiators and in Poland in general, price seems to be much more important in Poland than in France. According to Negotiators B, D, and E, price prevails in negotiation in Poland over other factors. Negotiator B said that the price can be renegotiated even when both parties agreed on it earlier, whereas in France, once both parties agreed on the price, it is not possible to change it. Negotiator D clearly said that the price is one of the main factors that differentiate Poland from France because in Poland, it is more important to be price

competitive than anything else whereas in France, quality and the added value of what is offered prevail. Negotiator E did not say that the price is more important in Poland than in France but he did say that Polish tend to be more aggressive with price. This would tend to illustrate the importance of price as a decisive factor in a decision in the negotiation process. According to three negotiators interviewed and those three negotiators represent the total of the people interviewed that have an experience with Polish culture in negotiation, price is more important in Poland. It is then obvious that Polish are more price-sensitive than French and that price is a very important factor in the final decision of the negotiation process. This price sensitivity could be explained by History and more precisely by the recent History of Poland. Indeed, Poland was a communist-influenced country during the Cold War and was released from its influence in 1991 when the Berlin Wall was destroyed. Economically speaking, this was a tremendous change for Poland because its economy changed from a planned one to the open market and capitalistic one. As communism was a very tough period for Poles and was characterized by the penury of lot of basic goods, it has surely influenced the perception of money that Poles may have and then surely influenced the importance that Poles give to money and price.

Regarding price, an other issue has been identified based on the interviews. Indeed, the price sensitivity was just explained but the tactics used with price is another problem that emerged and that did not find a consensus. Indeed, according to Negotiator C who has no experience with Polish culture, a good tactic would be to propose a price and then, in order to achieve a price on which both parties would agree on, to make several and concessions. However, those concessions need to be higher first and then smaller and smaller in order to make the other party understand that a consensus is closed. This tactic seems to be used by Polish as Negotiator E said that Polish suppliers first propose a very high price, higher than other competitors, and make big concessions after. Nevertheless, Negotiator B uses a different tactic that could invalidate this theory. He indeed tries to propose the fair price to the client and then make a little discount. The tactics used with price seem to be then different, even among a same culture. It would be then possible to say that tactics used with price are

not influenced by culture in the French and Polish negotiation styles but are influenced by culture regarding its importance.

Regarding the negotiation process, an other important point was mentioned by French negotiators only and thus seems to be a French characteristic of the negotiation style. This point concerns the limits of the negotiator when he negotiates. Indeed, Negotiators A, and C insisted on the importance of knowing the limits of what could be asked during the negotiation process. Negotiator A mentioned this point when talking about his strategy during the negotiation process in order to obtain what he wants. His strategy consists of two negotiators (him and another one). While he is building a trustful relationship with his colleague, the other negotiator negotiates with the other party. This is a good cop/bad cop strategy and it aims for the other negotiator to identify how far he can go about the demands. On the other hand, Negotiator C talked about this particular point as a general tactic during the negotiation process. From the interviews, it seems that this point is more important from a French point of view than from a Polish one as no negotiator with an experience with Polish culture mentioned this point. It is then possible to say that it represents a difference in negotiation between France and Poland.

The last point identified was regarding the length of the negotiation process. According to Lewis (2005), French are known to be long during negotiations. This affirmation is confirmed by Negotiator D when he said that the negotiation process is going faster in Poland than in France. According to him, it is because the French negotiation process requires lot of phases, approvals and meetings. This characteristic of the French negotiation process is explained by Negotiator D by the need to avoid any responsibility in case of any mistake. This point was just confirmed by Negotiator D but was not invalidated by any other negotiators either. Therefore, I can assume that the length of the negotiation process is a French characteristic but that it does not represent a major difference between France and Poland.

Those four elements identified (price sensitivity, price tactics, and knowing the limits of negotiation) are not mentioned in the existing literature as I did not find

any details regarding those particular points. However, as they seem important in defining the similarities and differences in conducting a negotiation in Poland and France, I just highlighted what was found in the negotiation interviews.

5.3. Communication

The second theme identified in the interviews was about communication and how it was used and what were its characteristics. Based on the existing literature, it was possible to cross-analyzed the findings from the interviews and to characterize both French and Polish communication styles.

According to Lewis, "the Polish communication style is enigmatic, ranging from a matter-of-fact pragmatic style to a wordy, sentimental, romantic approach to any given subject" (2005: 285). It is also characterized by the use of metaphors, implied meanings, its ambiguity and its aggressiveness when under pressure. From the findings of the interviews, the first points could not be tested therefore validated or invalidated. Nevertheless, aggressiveness in Polish communication style was mentioned by several negotiators (B, D, and E). Indeed, Negotiator B said that Polish negotiators are more aggressive and direct than French ones. This characteristic needs to be linked with the Polish price-sensitivity: because Poles are more concerned with price, they adopt more aggressive tactics and therefore communication in order to obtain price concessions. This was also confirmed by Negotiator D who said that Poles are more direct and more aggressive. Negotiator E also noticed that Poles are more aggressive with price and that it impacts their communication. Therefore, Poland can be characterized by a more aggressive and direct communication compared to France. This is also partly confirming the assumption made based on the individualism score of Hofstede's theory (2010). Indeed, it was assumed that because both countries score high at individualism, it would mean that in negotiation, Polish and French negotiators would not be afraid of saying no and would not be afraid of direct confrontations. This assumption is partly verified as it seems to be true for Polish negotiators. However, it was not verified for French negotiators. In fact, it was even discredited because when compared to Polish, French would avoid any direct

confrontation and are not as aggressive than Polish. Masculinity dimension of Hofstede's theory (2010) also confirmed the hypothesis that Poles are more aggressive than French. France has indeed a score of 43 whereas Poland scores 64. According to those scores, it was assumed that during negotiations, if a conflict occurs, Polish negotiators would rather show their strength in order to end the conflict whereas French negotiators would search toward a more peaceful resolution. The assumption regarding the aggressive communication style of Polish negotiators is then confirmed and it is possible to say that it is a differentiation point between both countries.

In the theoretical and assumption parts, politeness of French during the negotiation process was mentioned (Lewis, 2005). Indeed, French seem to be characterized by a politeness what was confirmed in the interviews by Negotiators B and D. Negotiator B was comparing Polish and French during negotiation and he highlighted the fact that according to him, Polish were more aggressive and direct than French and that French were softer and politer than Polish. Negotiator D was comparing the communication styles of both France and Poland he felt that Polish were more direct than French and that French were very careful regarding communication and responsibility but also that they were politer. Two out of three negotiators that have knowledge of both cultures indicate that French are characterized by politeness during the negotiation process. The third one (E) did not mention it but he is the youngest negotiator and the one with the less experience in negotiation so it is likely that he did not observed this yet. The two remaining negotiators (B and C) did not mention politeness but one (C) does not have lot of experience with other cultures therefore he does not have any comparison point. Regarding Negotiator B, communication was mentioned but not from a polite point of view which does not indicate that French are not politer than other cultures. It is therefore possible to say than French are characterized by a politer communication during the negotiation process than Polish, which was stated by Lewis (2005) in the assumption part.

One characteristic was observed regarding communication from some French negotiators and supported by the existing literature and more precisely by Lewis

(2005). This point is about retaining information during the negotiation process. Indeed, two French negotiators without any experience with Polish culture mentioned that to them, retaining information during the negotiation process was important and a tactical move. Negotiator A mentioned this when he was talking about trust in relationship. He indeed said that during the first phase of the face-to-face negotiation, sometimes it was important to disclose some information if it helps to build a trustful relationship. However, he said that it is important to retain information as it helps to have the control over the negotiation process and it can help from unexpected moves. As for Negotiator C, he considers the retain of information as very important in the negotiation process because it helps make the other party believe that it is the best offer he can get. It is then perceived as a tactical tool to obtain concessions in the negotiation process. Lewis also highlights the fact that French tend to retain information as long as possible and reveal their hand only late in the negotiation process. As no information is given for Poles from both theoretical and practical point of views, it is assumed that there is a difference in both cultures regarding the disclosure of information. French tend to retain information from the other party, or at least consider it whereas Polish are not as eager to retain information.

One assumption made and based on Lewis' book (2005) was not completely verified. It was indeed assumed that French are based on logic and that they are then very sensitive to logical arguments rather than emotional arguments. However, negotiators A and E said that French were involved emotionally. Even if this argument is not directly linked with logic it is important to mention it. Indeed, French negotiators can be involved emotionally and be logical during the negotiation process. However, as Negotiator A described it, it seems that French are more sensitive to emotional arguments than logical arguments. Indeed, according to him, if negotiators are somehow involved in a deeper relationship than just a professional one, they react negatively to tough arguments even if they are logical. Therefore, the theory of Lewis can be questioned and it is not possible to say that the French negotiation style is based on logic more than the Polish one.

5.4. Relationship between partners

The third variable identified in the interviews is about relationship between negotiation partners. There is very little literature about relations between negotiators and even fewer about relationships among negotiators in France and in Poland. Therefore, the following findings are just based on the interviews and about my experience of both cultures and would need to be tested further. I identified the three following characteristics.

Based on Hofstede's theory (2010) and his score of Poland and France at the Power Distance dimension, both countries are hierarchical. According to the findings of the interviews, it seems to be confirmed. Indeed, Negotiator A explained that his tactic was to negotiate at two levels with a partner and that this partner refers to him when reaching some critical points. This means that despite the liberty of Negotiator A' colleague, he does not have a full responsibility regarding the negotiation. Therefore, without clearly stating it, Negotiator A handles the negotiation process in a pretty hierarchical way. However, for Negotiator B, during the negotiation process, negotiation partners are interacting with each other as equals, whereas in Poland, hierarchy is more pronounced. Other negotiators interviewed (C, D, and E) do not mention hierarchy between negotiation partners. Therefore, based on the findings and also on my knowledge of both countries and cultures, I would say that both countries are characterized by a hierarchical system that also is present in the negotiation process but that hierarchy tends to be more respected in Poland than in France. Thus, this characteristic is more a common point of both countries with a difference in its manifestation. This French particularity is also confirming the assumption made based on the score of both countries at the Individualism score of Hofstede's theory (2010). Indeed, it was assumed that anyone negotiating with French or Polish would be considered as an equal. However, this would be more the case in France than in Poland.

From the findings, it seems that Poland is characterized by a balance of power that is not present in France. Indeed, according to Negotiators B and E, Polish negotiators need to introduce a balance of power. This is linked with

communication and the aggressiveness that Poles demonstrate during the negotiation process.

The findings from the interviews also refer to the importance of relationships between negotiation partners. According to Lewis (2005), French would be more focused on the long-term relationship and search to establish firm relationships, at the contrary of Polish. He also mentioned that Polish can seek a close personal relationship if they feel comfortable with someone. However, they maintain a certain distant between conversation partners. It was no possible to define clearly the importance of relationship between negotiation partners from the findings. Indeed, the negotiators interviewed disagree about the importance of relationship for Poles and French. When analyzing the findings from the interviews of the three negotiators who have an experience of both cultures, there is no consensus reached. According to Negotiator B, there is less time to build a relationship with Poles than with French. Moreover, he said that trust needs to be renewed every time with Poles whereas with French, when trust is granted, it is for a certain period and it has no to be renewed every time. Those elements tend to demonstrate that it is easier to build a relationship with French than with Poles, but it does not mean that relationship is more important for French than for Poles. Poles just seem more suspicious. However, Negotiator D said that when a relationship is built with Poles, it is very strong, even stronger than with French, which would confirm the assumption of Lewis regarding the tendency for Poles to seek a close relationship when they feel comfortable. Nevertheless, Negotiator D also said that there is less barriers between personal life and professional life when negotiating with Poles, meaning that it is easier to build a relationship with Poles than with French. This is the contrary of what said Negotiator B. Negotiator E also said that it is easier to have close relationship with French than with Poles who keep a certain distance. It is then difficult to reach for a conclusion regarding relationship and whether it is easier to establish one with Poles or French. However, regarding the importance given to atmosphere and thus to relationship by Negotiators A, B, and C, it is possible to say that relationship between negotiation partners is important in both countries.

5.5. Summary of the findings

The following table summarizes the main similarities and differences in conducting a negotiation in Poland and France.

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hierarchy - Importance of relationship - Negotiation process (progress) - Phase of getting to know each other 	<p data-bbox="786 573 1217 613"><u>Negotiation process and style</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Importance of price (Poland) - Price tactics (Poland) - Knowing the limits of the negotiation (France) - Length of the negotiation process (France) <p data-bbox="786 913 1023 954"><u>Communication</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aggressiveness (Poland) - Politeness (France) - Retaining of information (France) <p data-bbox="786 1167 1359 1245"><u>Relationship between negotiation partners</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Balance of power (Poland)

Table 12: Similarities and differences between France and Poland

From this table, differences are more detailed than similarities. It is because of the nature of the findings that highlighted the differences in both cultures regarding negotiation. However, regarding similarities, it is harder to go into detail as for differences but both countries are similar regarding culture. Indeed, Poland is the Eastern European country that is the closer one to Western culture. In fact, it is admitted that Poland has more in common from a cultural point of view with France or Western countries than for example with Russia or other Eastern countries. This is due to its History and also its geography. However, when applied to negotiation, it is easier for a French to negotiate with a Pole than with a Russian, because of common cultural background. That is why similarities

are more about the general framework of negotiation and differences are more about details. For instance, the relationship between negotiation partners is important for French and Poles but not as important as for some Arabic countries. Both countries are also hierarchical but without the importance of the hierarchy as it can be in Japan. This is why it is difficult to be specific when it comes to similarities because even in the differences, when compared to other countries, it is pretty close.

6. CONCLUSION

In this chapter I will provide a final conclusion regarding the similarities and differences in conducting a negotiation in French and Poland. I will thus first summarize the key areas and provide a final conclusion. I will then present the theoretical implications of this study, and at last, I will mention the limitations of this study.

The main goals of this study were to understand the negotiation process, the role of culture in negotiation and to highlight the cultural specificities of Poland and France in a negotiation context. The first two goals were completed in the first part during the literature review. Indeed, it is explained how negotiation occurs and how culture influences negotiation. However, the third goal was achieved in the second part, after analyzing the interviews.

6.1. Managerial implications

As mentioned in the findings, the main differences regarding the negotiation process in France and Poland are about the negotiation process, communication, and the relationship between negotiators. This study provided thus an interesting tool in order to negotiation in Poland and France.

Therefore, the first practical recommendation of this study is to be aware of the cultural specificities of both cultures regarding negotiation. Polish negotiators are thus known to be price-sensitive, aggressive in their communication and to act through a balance of power between negotiators. On the other hand, French negotiators are characterized by the length of the negotiation process, their tendency to test the limits, their politeness, and their tendency to retain information.

This study then argues that when negotiating with Poles, ones must be aware of the importance of price and that the tactics used often aim to lower the price. One

must know that Poles are aggressive because they aim to lower the price of the negotiation. This is why this study argues that one must deal with price and consider it as a major variable in the negotiation process. Moreover, this study argues that when Poles threaten to leave the negotiation, it must not be interpreted as a lack of trust or a lack of respect. Once again, it is very likely that Poles would put pressure to lower the price.

Regarding French negotiators, this study argues that one must be aware of the length of the negotiation process and the politeness that French demonstrate during negotiation. This is why this study argues to be as polite as French in order to create a positive atmosphere and to maximize the chances to reach a positive outcome. One must also know that French would probably test how far they can go during the negotiation process. This is why this study argues that when negotiating with French, it is recommended to be firm and to clearly show where the limits lay. Moreover, French tend to retain information during negotiation. The study therefore argues to be careful when sharing information as the disclosure of information may be unbalanced between partners.

This study also argues that one must be aware that when negotiating with French or Polish, a common cultural background exists that creates a common general framework for negotiation. Indeed, Poles and French are both characterized by the importance of the atmosphere in a negotiation. Relationship in negotiation is also important for both cultures.

6.2. Theoretical implications

This study was about a theme that was studied extensively (how culture influences negotiation). However, a case study of France and Poland and the comparison of those countries in order to highlight the similarities and differences in negotiation of both countries was almost entirely new. France was studied as a country in different comparison between different countries but never with Poland. Regarding Poland, some papers exist about the Polish negotiation style or the cultural specificities of Poland in negotiation, as Lewis

(2005) demonstrated it. However, the comparison of those two specific countries is something that was never done before.

Therefore, this study has some theoretical implications as it opened the field for more specific studies. Indeed, based on this paper, other studies based on negotiation, culture and those both countries can be done. As for example trying to characterize both negotiation styles and compare them.

6.3. Limitations of the study

Due to the topic selected for this study, cultural differences were the center of this paper. The aim was to capture cultural specificities of both Poland and France when negotiating. To do so, the data was collected thanks to semi-structured interviews.

Therefore, the first major limitation of this study was the lack of experience in conducting an interview of the interviewer. Indeed, the margin of error would have been reduced if the interviewer would have made previous interviews in order to test himself and to avoid common mistakes.

The double nationality of the researcher could be considered as a limitation of this study. Indeed, the fact that the researcher was born in Poland and grew-up in France made the interviews easier and also helped to ask some cultural related questions that would not have been asked if the researcher would not have had those cultural sensitivities. However, the origins of the researcher might also have been a bias to this study. The risk was that the researcher projected his own cultural beliefs during the interviews.

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