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**Business negotiation tendencies of Finnish and
Kosovan negotiators:**

The role of culture

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ABSTRACT:

In today's global economy, international business negotiations play a fundamental and critical role in every aspect of conducting business. International business negotiation does not only involve mastering the issues that are being discussed, but also cultural sensitivity in understanding the characteristics and behaviors of the partners and adapting one's way of negotiating.

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of culture in the negotiating tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators by using Salacuse's framework of ten elements and Hofstede's cultural framework.

As a research approach, the quantitative method was applied. The analysis of Finnish and Kosovan negotiation tendencies was studied through a questionnaire, where 10 Finnish negotiators and 10 Kosovan negotiators participated. The questionnaire was sent to each respondent separately via e-mail.

Findings suggest that only four out of ten elements (personal style, agreement building, team organization, and risk-taking) significantly differ between Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. However, it is found that except for four elements (communication, emotionalism, agreement form, and risk-taking), culture does not explain the similarities as well as differences in remaining elements of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. Therefore, culture does not fully explain the negotiation style of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. In terms of tactics, both literature review and empirical findings indicate that Finnish and Kosovan negotiators use similar tactics, which means that culture fully explains the chosen tactics of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators.

For future research, to get a wider understanding, larger samples should be collected. Additionally, more literature reviews of Kosovan negotiators' behavior should be conducted. Finally, the whole negotiation process of both cultures could investigate to get a more in-depth view.

KEYWORDS: International business negotiations, culture, negotiation tendencies, Finnish negotiators, Kosovan negotiators

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Abbreviations

IBN	International business negotiation
PDI	Power Distance
IND	Individualism
MAS	Masculinity
UAI	Uncertainty avoidance

1 Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

Globalization has had a positive impact on the world economy, which also, has increased the importance of intercultural business negotiations. Because the world becomes more and more interconnected, most companies seek to expand their businesses globally. (Zhang & Zhou 2009.) For a company to survive internationally, it requires not only in-depth technical competence but also competence to interact with people from different backgrounds and cultures because negotiation tendencies differ amongst countries (Graham 2003: 30).

Global business challenges have been witnessed over the decades. (Sheth 1986.) The environment of global business has created an infinite world that consists of intercultural diversity in people's way of thinking and behaving. All around the world, diversity is influencing negotiations. Global negotiators are in interaction between negotiators from different geographical locations. (Ready & Tessema 2009.)

Negotiation is involved in our day-to-day interactions. It happens, either formally or informally. Negotiation can be seen as a process, in which two or more parties with different needs and objectives discuss in order to find a mutual solution. (Khakhar & Ahmed 2017.) Additionally, the goal is to achieve the best possible outcome for one's position. In informal day-to-day interactions such as casual communication with a partner, the stakes are not high, so there is no need for planning the process and outcomes. In turn, informal interactions such as business relationships, the stakes are high, and therefore, a careful plan is necessary. (Ghauri 2003: 3.)

There are countless ways of defining and classifying culture. Because of the complexity of culture, it is difficult to understand the extensiveness, intensity, and dynamics of its influence on all aspects of human behavior. According to Cateora & Graham (2007), there are five elements of culture as cultural values, rituals, symbols, beliefs, and thought processes. (Manrai & Manrai 2010.) Moreover, culture has been identified as a significant factor of strategies and tactics in international business negotiation as negotiations include communication, time, and power, and these variables are different among cultures (Ghauri & Usunier 2003). One of the most popular contributors to the development of the theory of culture is Geer Hofstede, who has identified four dimensions on which various cultures differ. His framework has not only been used in business studies but also in psychology, and sociology. (Manrai et al. 2010.)

International business negotiation is an interaction among negotiators from different countries and regions. Every country has different cultural traditions, which usually influence business negotiations in significant and unexpected ways. Negotiations have become a significant part of developing businesses in any market. (Sebenius 2002; Xhiao-hua & Stephen 2003.) As it covers sales of goods and services, purchase of raw materials and supplies, distribution of products, advertising and market research activities, licensing and technology transfer agreements, setting up franchises and manufacturing operations, strategic alliances including joint ventures, mergers and acquisitions, and many more (Cateora et al. 2007: Manrai et al. 2010). Moreover, in the economic domain, international business negotiation is not seen as communication and cooperation, but the communication of culture among various countries (Ayoko 2007).

International business negotiation is considered a very complex subject in which a wide range of issues must be discussed and to find a mutually acceptable solution. This kind of negotiation happens through face-to-face interaction between the participants with different nationalities who have their own cultural negotiation styles. So, international

business negotiation does not only involve mastering the wide range of issues being discussed, but also cultural sensitivity, which means understanding the characteristics and behaviors of the partners and adapting one's own negotiation style. (Manrai et al. 2010.)

It is very important to understand the strategies and tactics of negotiators from different cultures because otherwise, they will use ethnocentric behavior. In this context, there are hardly any studies on what strategies and tactics Kosovan negotiators use while negotiating. Moreover, there is a limited understanding of Finnish negotiators' behavior. Therefore, this research study focuses on examining what strategies and tactics both cultures use.

1.2 Research question and objectives of the study

The primary objective of the study is to investigate the role of culture in the negotiating tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators. Hence, the main research question is:

How does culture influence the negotiating tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators?

The main research question will be approached with three sub-objectives, which creates a better understanding of this study:

1: To increase understanding about the conceptualization, process, elements, and tactics of business negotiations

2: To study the conceptualization and dimensions of culture

3: To explore the role of culture in negotiating tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators

1.3 Delimitations of the study

In order to clarify the scope of the study for the readers, the delimitations of the study are introduced. Below, four main delimitations are presented that is in the connection with the main topic of the study and the methodology.

In order to keep the research comprehensive and achievable, Finnish and Kosovo negotiators are the only chosen ones in this study.

Secondly, there are different models to analyze the negotiation behavior. Two main frameworks are developed by Ghauri et al. (2003) and Salacuse (1998). However, this study focuses on the framework developed by Salacuse because Ghauri's model is general, and it is not directly linked with the negotiation elements.

Thirdly, in this study, culture is the main factor that influences international business negotiations. Culture has a significant role in influencing international business negotiation (Manrai et al. 2010) therefore; this study focuses only on culture, excluding other factors such as strategic and background factors. The concept of culture can be understood widely; hence, in this study, Hofstede's cultural framework was chosen to clarify the topic of culture.

The final delimitation is concerning the data collection method. In this study, the survey was chosen to collect the data. With the use of surveys, the large amount of data can be gathered from the respondents in a highly economical way. (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2007: 137.)

1.4 Definition of key terms

The following section briefly illustrates the definitions of key terms used in this thesis.

International business negotiation is defined as a problem-solving process, which is accomplished jointly by two or more business parties with different nations (Luo 1999).

Culture is defined as the collective programming of the mind, where the category of people is demerged from another (Hofstede & Usunier 2003: 137).

Negotiation elements. Salacuse (1998) has identified ten factors that people's culture impact the negotiation process. These ten factors are goal, negotiation attitude, personal style, communication, sensitivity to time, emotionalism, a form of agreement, building an agreement, team organization, and risk-taking.

Negotiation tactics are the activities that help to maintain the negotiation strategy in order to achieve goals and objectives (Saner 2003).

1.5 Previous studies

The main studies related to the topic of this thesis are presented in below table 1.

Table 1. Previous studies.

Author(s) / Year	Focus of the study	Theoretical roots	Methodology	Findings of the study
Angelmar & Stern (1978)	Applying content analysis to bargaining communication by use of theoretically sound category system.	Walton and McKersie's bargaining tactics	Para simulation study: Graduate (149) and undergraduate (133) students in business administration were assigned to three-member groups	Three major bargaining tactics have been conducted: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Positive influence tactics 2. Aggressive influence tactics 3. Information exchange tactics

Bird & Metcalf (2004)	To test the relationship between the cultural values and negotiation dimension. Each of twelve-negotiation dimension was related to Hofstede's framework.	Hofstede's cultural dimension and a framework of 12 elements by Weiss and Stripp.	Literature review	The findings shows a support for ten of twelve hypothesized relations: Goal – IND Attitudes – MAS Personal style –UAI Communication –IND Time sensitivity –UAI Emotionalism –UAI Agreement form –UAI Team organization –UAI Risk taking –UAI
Ghauri (2003)	To develop a model of international business negotiation that includes facts and factors that influences the negotiation process.	Ghauri's framework on the process of international business negotiation	Literature review	International business negotiation framework has three groups of variables: a) Background factors b) The process c) The atmosphere
Hofstede (1983)	Work-related values of industrial employees	Hofstede's cultural dimension	Quantitative: questionnaire involving 116 000 IBM students	Survey provided four dimension in which countries / cultures differ: Power Distance Individualism Masculinity Uncertainty Avoidance
Metcalf, Bird, Shankarmahesh, Aycan, Larimo & Valdemar (2006)	Two objectives: 1) Identifying negotiating differences between five selected countries. 2) Identifying specific dimensions on which counties differ	Salacuse's framework (1998)	Quantitative: survey involving business people and university students from (147) Finland, (196) India, (192) Mexico, (327) Turkey, and (327) the USA	There can be identified a significant differences in negotiation orientations both between and within five cultures. Especially significant differences were found in five dimensions: Goal Attitude Personal style Time sensitivity Agreement building
Salacuse (1998)	To identify areas in the negotiation process that culture influences	Culture, and its way to influence individuals negotiation style	Quantitative: questionnaire involving 310 individuals from different nationalities	Identified ten factors in the negotiation process that seems to be influenced by individual's culture. 1. Negotiation goal 2. Attitudes 3. Personal styles

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Communication 5. Time sensitivity 6. Emotionalism 7. Agreement form 8. Agreement building 9. Team organization 10. Risk taking
Terziu (2016)	Explaining the values that dominate the business activities in Kosovo	Hofstede's cultural dimensions	Literature review	Kosovo's work environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Categorized by high hierarchical level, unequal rights, and a centralized structure. 2) individual 3) masculinity traits are highlighted 4) towards risk-taking

1.6 Structure of the study

The first chapter of the master's thesis begins with the introduction. In this section, the background of the study has been examined, where the research problem has been provided as well as, briefly observed key studies that have touched the topic. Additionally, in order to clarify the scope of conducted study, the delimitations of the study were presented.

The second chapter illustrates the literature review. In order to provide the reader, the necessary knowledge of the research study, the two theoretical parts of international business negotiations and culture are described separately followed by an analysis of the present literature where two theoretical parts are combined.

The third chapter the research methodology is presented. Philosophical assumptions, research approach, choice of methodology, and data collection are introduced in this study. Additionally, the credibility of this study is presented.

The fourth chapter illustrates the actual empirical study. The chapter mainly presents the finding that has been conducted from gathered data. Lastly, the fifth chapter concludes the gathered literature and findings. Furthermore, the recommendation for the further study is introduced.

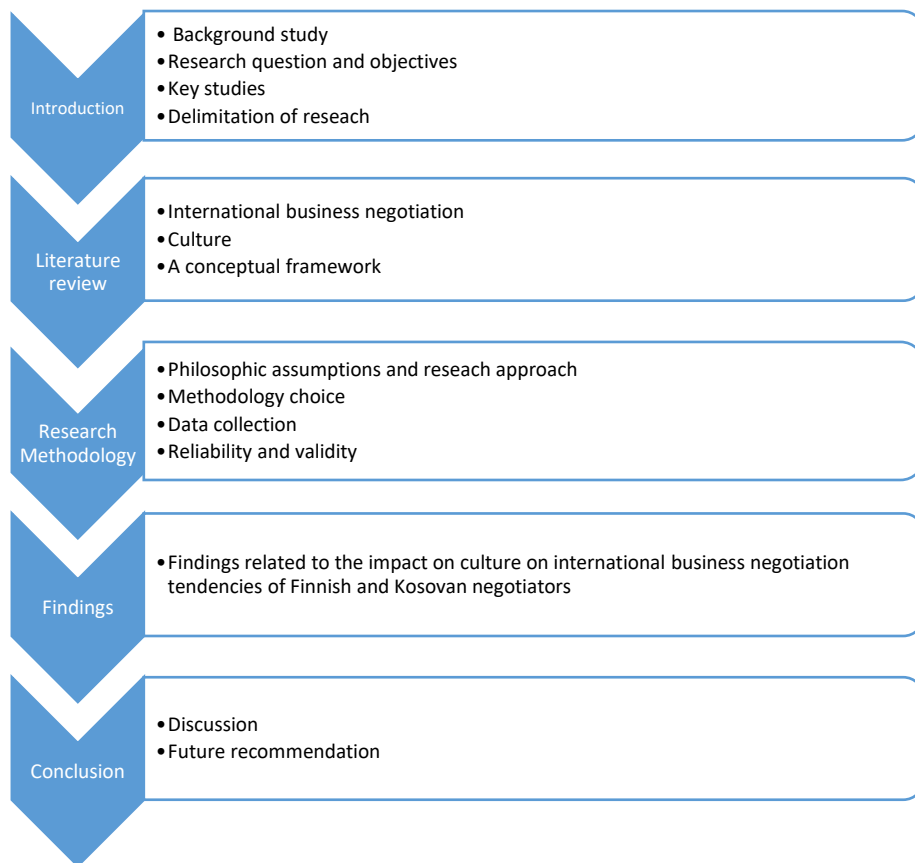


Figure 1. Structure of the study.

2 Literature review

The following chapter provides the theoretical view of this thesis. The chapter focuses on presenting an in-depth review of three main topics – international business negotiation, culture, and the role of culture. Firstly, the chapter examines international business negotiation, its stages, and tendencies used in the negotiations. Then, the chapter continues presenting culture and its role in how it influences business negotiations. Finally, the conclusion of the conceptual framework of the study is presented.

2.1 International business negotiation

Negotiations are seen in people's basic daily activities. It is a way to manage relationships. In those negotiations where interaction is informal, the stakes are not that high, which means that pre-planning the process or the outcome, is not required. In turn, informal negotiation cases such as business relationships, the stakes are generally high; therefore, proper planning is needed. (Ghauri et al. 2003: 3, Reynolds et al. 2003.) In a business relationship, the parties are involved in the negotiation process, as this will ensure a better outcome for the party (Ghauri et al. 2003: 3).

Over the decades, the business relationships between parties from different nations have increased significantly. In the international business environment, negotiation is an ongoing process that needs constant development to have a successful outcome (Salacuse 2010). Although, business relationships are increasing rapidly, remains international negotiations one of the most challenging tasks in the business world (Reynolds et al. 200).

Over a decade, the topic of international business negotiation has been attractive for researchers. With this increasing globalization trend, international business negotiation

has become an important business function for creating and maintaining successful relationships. Because many global companies rely on the effectiveness of negotiation for their growth and survival, it has tempted researchers to examine in-depth the topic over the last decades. (Reynolds et al. 200.)

2.1.1 Definitions of international business negotiation

The concept of international business negotiation is wide and popular globally, therefore, it has been defined differently by many researchers. According to Ghauri et al. (2003: 3), international business negotiation is a voluntary process where two or more business parties unite their common interests in order to reach an agreement. In turn, Carnevale & Pruitt (1992: 532) defines business negotiation as a "social interaction" between two or more parties for dealing with one's preferences. Moreover, Luo (1999) sees negotiations as a problem-solving process where two or more business parties from different countries take part.

According to other researchers such as Weiss (1993), international business negotiations is an interaction where two or more parties, origin from different nations or cultures, meet to determine their terms of business to achieve a common goal. Enlich and Wagner (1995) add that negotiation can be defined as a process where parties give and take by avoiding arguments and creating constructive interaction regardless of interest differences. The optimal negotiations have reached when one party can make concessions that mean little to them while giving something that means a lot to the counterparty (Ehlich et al. 1995). Parties in the negotiation process aim to get a better deal, therefore, parties have to prepare, plan and conduct carefully the negotiation process (Ghauri et al. 2003: 3). Ghauri et al. (2003: 5) presents the framework for the international business negotiation, which is divided into three variable groups: the background factors, the process, and the atmosphere. The framework gives an overall overview of the negotiation process. In the following section, the groups of a variable are presented.

2.1.2 Process of international business negotiation

Ghauri (1986: 2003:5) has developed the negotiation framework, in which the negotiation process is divided into three main stages: pre-negotiation, face-to-face negotiation and post-negotiation, with each being influenced by two groups of variables: the background factors and the atmosphere (Richardson & Rammal 2018). The process of international business negotiation is illustrated in figure 2.

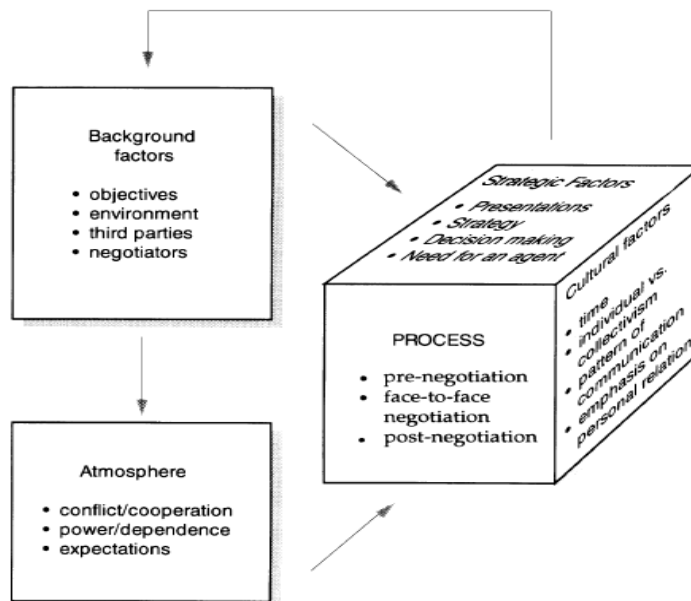


Figure 2. The process of international business negotiation. (Adapted from Ghauri & Usunier 2003: 9.)

Figure 2 illustrates the framework of the international business negotiation developed by Ghauri (1996; 2003) which includes three major variables: background factors, atmosphere, and process. The process consists of three major stages: pre-negotiation, face-to-face negotiation, and post-negotiation, besides that, the process has cultural factors such as time, individualism versus collectivism, patterns of communication, and emphasis on personal relations, and strategic factors such as presentation, strategy, decision making, and need for an agent. These factors of the process are conceptualized to be present at all three stages of the process. Not forgetting the background factors that include objectives, environment, third parties, and negotiators, and the atmosphere that includes conflict/cooperation, power/dependence, and expectations. All three variables

interact with each other throughout the process, therefore, cannot be separated from each other. (Ghauri et al. 2003; Manrai et al. 2010.)

In his earlier studies, Ghauri (1986) has divided the process of international business negotiation into five different stages, which later on, he has combined into three main stages. All of these three stages are influenced by the above-mentioned variables: background factors and the atmosphere. One stage of the process ends when parties decide to proceed further to the next stage or terminate it because they do not see any point in further negotiations (Ghauri et al. 2003: 8).

The negotiation process begins with ***the pre-negotiation stage***. The first stage consists of tentative offers, informal meetings, and strategy formulation. The tentative offer and informal meetings are a value-adding phase of the process because it is the first contact between parties where the interest in doing business is shown. As Luo (1999) has defined this process as problem-solving, the main aim of this stage is to jointly define the problem, which will be solved. Often, informal meetings are more important than formal negotiations in international business relationships since parties' relationship starts with an examination of each other. During the informal meeting, if parties achieve to gain trust and confidence, the chance of conclusion of agreement increases. Furthermore, parties need to understand each other's strengths and weaknesses because they can influence one's negotiation position. (Ghauri 1986: Ghauri et al. 2003.) Additionally, in order to gain their relative power, parties should gather relative information about the operating environment, such factors as third parties involved, influencers and competitors. The more time and effort is to spend on the party, the more likely to enter into an agreement. (Ghauri 1986.)

The pre-negotiation stage ends with strategy formulation, which should be implemented very carefully because it indicates the direction the party needs to take in order to achieve its goals. (Ghauri 1986: Saner 2003: 51.) Each party should develop a plan that

includes possible problems, available solutions, preferred choices, and several alternatives (Ganesan 1993: Ghauri 2003: 10). It is very important to include the objectives of the opposite party in the strategic planning in order to anticipate tactics in the next stage of the negotiation process. In order to increase the relative power, the party must try to foresee the predictable events. (Ghauri 1986.) If this point has a positive influence, the stage ends with success and leads to the next stages of the process.

The next stage is known as ***face-to-face negotiation***. At the beginning of this stage, both parties know their objectives, that need to be discussed and how to negotiate in order to achieve them. The aim of this stage is the belief of parties, to work together to find a solution for the jointly defined problem. (Ghauri 1986: Ghauri et al. 2003: 11.) Every party has a different perception of the process, but has also different expectations of outcome; therefore, it is very crucial at this point to have several alternatives strategies to align with the opponent. The party employs a tough strategy when the intentions are to start with a high offer and avoid making concessions. In turn, a softer strategy allows concessions, which helps to facilitate negotiations. (Ghauri 1986.) Besides conducting the strategy, parties should negotiate the contract gradually in order to achieve success. This will reduce potential conflicts and, on the other hand, find common interests. In order to continue the process, both parties must be flexible, in the balance between firmness and credibility, and send clear signals for willingness to move forward. (Ghauri 1986: Ghauri et al. 2003: 11.)

There are different groups of negotiators, depending on their age, race, nation, or culture. Therefore, parties should be aware of these differences to understand and adjust with the opposite party. (Ghauri et al. 2003: 21.)

In the final stage, ***the post-negotiation stage***, the parties sign the agreement on terms that have been agreed upon. It is preferred for both parties to use a language that is easily understandable and value-free. In order to avoid unnecessary delays in the process, parties should summarize the discussion after each negotiation. This ensures that

all relevant information is on paper before the implementation of the agreement. During this stage, troubles may arise which may lead to renewed face-to-face negotiations. However, avoiding troubles is always possible, if parties understand the agreements they have made. The main aim of this stage is to focus on terms that have been agreed upon. (Ghuri 1986: Ghauri et al. 2003: 12-13.)

2.1.3 Elements of international business negotiations – Salacuse model

There are few studies, which have examined the effects of cross-cultural differences in international negotiation (Metcalf, Bird, Peterson, Shankarmahesh & Lituchy 2007). More than 20 years ago, Weiss & Stripp (1985) formulated a comprehensive framework, which had the potential to yield comparable information across countries on 12 negotiating tendencies. The micro-behavioral paradigm was recognized by these authors, which directs attention to the face-to-face interaction, with a particular interest in the orientations and behaviors of negotiators. (Metcalf et al. 2007.) Later, Salacuse modified Weiss & Stripp's (1998) framework by removing overlapping dimensions. In addition to Salacuse, Ghauri has also developed a framework that analyses the negotiation behavior. However, Ghauri's framework is general and is not directly linked to the elements of international business negotiations. (Ghuri et al. 2003.) Hence, this study only focuses on Salacuse's framework.

The author Salacuse (1991) identified in his earlier work ten factors that impact the negotiation process and are influenced by a person's culture (Salacuse 1998; Manrai et al. 2010). These ten factors are negotiation goals, negotiation attitude, personal style, communication, sensitivity to time, emotionalism, agreement form, building an agreement, team organization, and risk-taking (Salacuse 1998; Manrai et al. 2010). In his later work, Salacuse (1998) empirically examined cultural differences in negotiation style, by developing a survey for 310 individuals of different nationalities and occupations. Survey took place in twelve countries such as Argentina, Brazil, China, France, Germany, India, Japan,

Mexico, Nigeria, Spain, United Kingdom, and the United States. He noted that participant's cultural responses to these negotiation factors appear to vary between the two polar extremes. Salacuse aimed to identify specific negotiator factors, which are affected by culture, and to show the possible variations that each factor may take (Salacuse 1998).

Table 2. The impact of culture on negotiation (Adopted by Salacuse 1998; Bird et al. 2003).

Negotiation Factors	Range of Cultural Responses	Relation to Hofstede's dimensions
Goal	Contract ↔ Relationship	IND
Attitudes	Win/Lose ↔ Win/Win	MAS
Personal Styles	Informal ↔ Formal	UAI
Communications	Direct ↔ Indirect	IND
Time Sensitivity	High ↔ Low	UAI
Emotionalism	High ↔ Low	UAI
Agreement Form	Specific ↔ General	UAI
Agreement Building	Bottom Up ↔ Top Down	-
Team Organization	One Leader ↔ Consensus	UAI
Risk Taking	High ↔ Low	UAI

Table 2 illustrates Salacuse's framework that indicates differences in negotiation style between various cultures along with ten factors and their relation to Hofstede's dimensions. In the next paragraph, ten previously mentioned factors are thoroughly scrutinized.

The negotiation goal is the first negotiation factor. The purpose of negotiation can be viewed differently by negotiators from different cultures. For some cultures, the negotiation goal is to reach a signed agreement between the parties. (Salacuse 1998; Salacuse 2003; Salacuse 2004.) A signed agreement strictly binds two sides with a set of rights and duties. Negotiators in these cultures spend most of their time discussing the operational details of the project rather than broad objectives. Additionally, they need to have a clear understanding regarding the control, use, and division of resources. (Bird & Metcalf 2004.) On the other hand, other cultures consider that the negotiation goal is not a signed agreement but the creation of a relationship between the two sides. The essence of the deal is the relationship itself although the signed agreement expresses

the relationship. (Salacuse 1998.) In the countries, where relationship issues are more important spend most of their time focusing on building trust and friendship between the members (Salacuse 2004; Bird et al. 2004).

Salacuse's negotiation goal factor is related to Hofstede's individualism dimension. The author states that in individualist cultures tasks are priority over any personal relationship, in turn, in collectivist cultures the focus is more on a personal relationship. (Bird et al. 2004.)

Due to the different cultures and personalities, the negotiator can approach two basic *attitudes* during the negotiations (Salacuse 2003). For some countries, negotiation is a process in which both parties can gain, this is called a win-win situation, while, to others, it is a struggle in which one party wins and the other party loses, this, in turn, is called win-lose situation. These two factors represent two paradigms of the negotiation process: integrative (win-win) and distributive (win-lose). Negotiators, who aim for win-win negotiations, see deal-making as a collaborative and problem-solving process while win-lose negotiators see the process as confrontational by seeking to meet only their own goals and interest, in order to maximize the benefit for their side. (Salacuse 1998; Salacuse 2003; Bird et al. 2004.)

The attitude factor adopted in the negotiation process is equivalent to Hofstede's observed behaviors of masculinity and femininity. According to Bird et al. (2004), people in masculine societies aim for winning and are more likely to resolve conflict through competition, while people in feminine societies practice cooperation and are more likely to resolve conflicts through problem-solving.

The third factor that Salacuse (1998) has identified is a *personal style* that concerns the way a negotiator communicates with others, identifies itself, and uses dress codes. The personal style of negotiators is influenced strongly by culture. Salacuse has identified two extremes; a formal style where a negotiator insist on addressing counterparts by

their titles avoids personal anecdotes, follow dress codes and seating arrangement, and an informal style where negotiators try to use various ways to respond to particular situations, start the discussion on a first-name basis, and not following the strict dress code. (Salacuse 2003; Bird et al. 2004.)

According to Hofstede and Usunier (2003), cultures that score high in the uncertainty avoidance dimension will demonstrate a high concern for formal protocol during negotiations, in turn; cultures with a low score will concern less. (Bird et al. 2004.)

Communication styles differ among cultures. In some cultures, the direct and simple style of communication is emphasized while in others, indirect and complex communication (Salacuse 1998). Those negotiators who rely on indirect styles, communicate with oblique references, facial expressions, gestures, vague allusions, and other kinds of body language. On the other hand, in cultures that value directness, negotiator prefers definite, precise, and clear language. (Salacuse 1998; Salacuse 2003; Bird et al. 2004.)

Non-verbal cues are hardly noticeable and understandable in low-context cultures. Hofstede states that in collectivist cultures, high context communication is used while individualist cultures use the low context of communication (Bird et al. 2004).

As a fifth factor, Salacuse (1998) has examined the negotiator's *attitude towards time* in the negotiation process. Salacuse's survey revealed that most cultural groups have high sensitivity to time. For those groups time is money, therefore, they prefer strict agendas, are always punctual, and try to negotiate a deal as quickly as possible. In turn, for groups with low time sensitivity, the time is never wasted. These groups are not particularly punctual and do not feel the urge to negotiate a deal right away. (Bird et al. 2004.)

The time factor identified by Salacuse (1998) is connected to Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. According to Bird and Metcalf (2004), cultures high in uncertainty

avoidance are more likely to prefer high time sensitivity, while cultures with low prefer low time sensitivity.

Salacuse's sixth factor is called *emotionalism*, and it refers to emotions that negotiators use to develop persuasive arguments. Negotiators with high emotionalism show their emotions freely, appeals to sympathy, and react to emotions displayed by the opposite party. On the other hand, negotiators with low emotionalism tend to hide their feelings because it is considered an inappropriate gesture. (Salacuse 1998; Salacuse 2003; Bird et al. 2004.)

This factor is also linked to Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. Hofstede states that negotiators with high uncertainty avoidance favor high emotionalism, which means that they are more likely to use abstract theories, ideas, and appeals to sympathy. On the other hand, cultures with low uncertainty avoidance prefer to hide their emotions. (Bird et al. 2004.)

The form of agreement that parties try to make can be influenced by cultural factors. Some negotiators prefer general agreements, which include general principles in the contract and broad and vague language. The contracts are viewed as a rough guideline because the relationship between the parties is considered more essential. In turn, others favor specific agreements within the detailed written form and legally binding. Negotiators prefer written agreements because it provides stability that allows organizations to make investments and minimize risk. (Salacuse 1998; Bird et al. 2004.)

There has been seen a link between Salacuse's form of agreement factor and Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. Hofstede notes that cultures with high in uncertainty avoidance will prefer explicit and specific agreements. In turn, cultures with low in uncertainty avoidance will prefer more general agreement. (Bird et al. 2004.)

Salacuse's eight-factor *building an agreement* is related to the form of agreement when negotiating a deal. According to him, there are two ways how to approach this factor. Some negotiators follow a deductive approach so-called bottom-up building agreement where they prefer to discuss specifics such as price, delivery date, product quality that forms general specific agreement. In turn, others follow an inductive approach, called top-down, where agreement is created from general principles and proceed to specific items. (Salacuse 1998; Salacuse 2003.)

Like Salacuse's other factors, the authors Bird and Metcalf (2004), did not manage to relate, "Building an agreement" with any of Hofstede's four dimensions.

Salacuse's ninth factor is related to *team organization* and who makes the decisions within a negotiation party. Based on a range of responses in the survey, Salacuse noticed that in organizations decision-making power is distributed differently in cultures. In some cultures, there is one leader or individual who makes decisions on behalf of other members in the decision process. On the other hand, in other cultures, the whole team is involved in the decision-making process. It is supposed that the team leader supports its team members and listens to their advice. (Salacuse 1998; Bird et al. 2004)

Based on the study, Salacuse's team organization and decision-making factors are connected to Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. According to him, cultures that score high in uncertainty avoidance will probably adopt decision-making processes that require consensus, while cultures with low uncertainty avoidance will adopt the independent internal decision-making process. (Bird et al. 2004.)

The final factor concerns *risk-taking* in negotiations. According to Salacuse, some cultures are more risk-averse than others. Negotiators, in certain cultures, are tolerant towards risks because they think there is a level of acceptable risks that should be taken in a negotiation. Additionally, these negotiators are likely to choose a strategy that offers higher rewards but has a lower probability of success. In turn, other negotiators are risk-

averse who will do anything to avoid the risks. Moreover, these negotiators are more likely to accept lower rewards for a higher probability of success. (Salacuse 1998; Bird et al. 2004.)

It has been found a noteworthy relationship between risk aversion and uncertainty avoidance. Negotiators from cultures with high uncertainty avoidance are more probably to employ risk-averse negotiation behavior, while those with low uncertainty avoidance will employ risk-tolerant negotiation behaviors. (Bird et al. 2004.)

In this section, Salacuse's ten cultural factors were thoroughly reviewed. The author aims to show that culture can influence the way people perceive and approach certain key elements in the negotiation process. If cultural differences can be acknowledged, it can help negotiators better understand and interpret their opposite's negotiation behavior and find ways to fill gaps caused by cultural differences. (Salacuse 1993: 199-200.)

2.1.4 Tactics of international business negotiation

After identifying the party's own and partner's needs, it is time to make a careful decision about strategy and tactics in order to achieve a successful negotiation. Saner (2003: 51) divides these two concepts separately. According to him, a strategy is an overall guideline, which indicates the direction the party needs to take from its wishes and needs to its objectives. In turn, the strategy is always followed by tactics, which gives a concrete line of action. Party should understand that tactics are oriented towards strategy, not objectives. Therefore, surprising turns can occur along the way, which may seem to be at odds with the direction the party is going. (Saner 2003: 51.) The following figure 3 illustrated the context of these two.

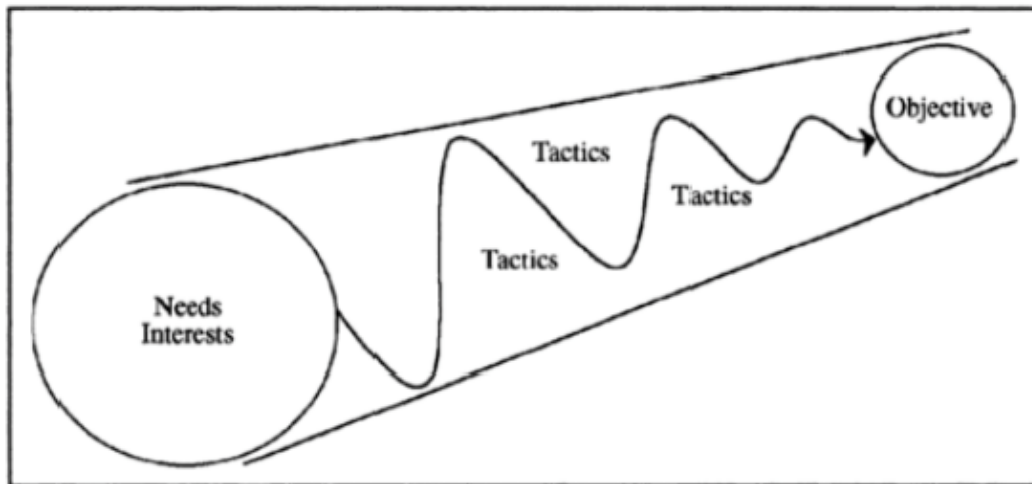


Figure 3. Strategic context of negotiation (Saner 2003: 52.)

The negotiation tactics were studied by Graham (1983; 1993), using videotaped negotiations in eight cultures. According to him, the results of the study show that cultures use very similar negotiation tactics. The majority uses tactics based on an exchange of information, by either self-disclosed or questions. They simply ask the question, search for information, and conceal any eagerness they may feel. On the other hand, results show that few cultures favor negative tactics that include threats, warnings, punishments, and negative normative appeal. (Usunier 2003: 126.) Moreover, Usunier (2003) states that tactics are related to the ambiguous atmosphere of business negotiations when warm human relations are mixed with business. Negotiation usually involves both friendship and enmity for personal and cultural reasons.

The following section provides an in-depth view of three bargaining tactics used by various countries. These three tactics are divided according to the approach taken by negotiators when negotiating with the opposite party. According to the researches Angelmar and Stern (1978), these tactics are major influence modes through which a negotiator tries to change an opponent's attitudes, attributions, or actions. They also add that bargaining effectiveness increases when the opposing parties may communicate freely with one another.

Positive influence tactics

Negotiators apply many persuasive tactics during the negotiation process, and usually, to change opponents' minds. Angelmar et al. (1978) have listed four positive influence tactics that negotiators can apply during the negotiation phases. These tactics are promise, recommendation, reward, and positive normative appeal.

One of the positive negotiation tactics that a negotiator can apply is a promise. By promising, the negotiator indicates his intention to provide to the opponent with a reinforcing consequence which the negotiator anticipates the opponent will evaluate as pleasant, positive, or rewarding. For example, a negotiator promises to his/her opponent another order right away, if they can deliver a certain product in a given time. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

In turn, the negotiator can also apply the recommendation tactic in which he or she predicts that pleasant consequences will happen to the opponent. In this case, the opponent is not able to control the occurrence of the predicted event. A negotiator, for example, can suggest to its counterpart that if they keep the party's name after negotiation, they may continue to cooperate with their present customers. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

In addition to these, negotiators can apply rewarding tactics. The negotiator applies this tactic to create pleasant consequences for the opponent. According to Walton and McKersie (1965: 245), rewards can be seen as part of the attitudinal structuring tactics. In this tactic, it is common to praise an opponent for an affirmative performance during negotiations (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405).

Finally, a positive normative appeal tactic is mostly used when negotiators' temptation is to positively affect opponents' feelings and emotions. By applying this tactic, negotiators have the power to manipulate the opponent's utilities. (Walton et al. 1965: 47; Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

Aggressive influence tactics

Not every researcher sees the negotiations in the same way. Some view negotiations as cooperative while others describe it as a competitive process in which negotiators will attempt to seek whatever possible advantage may be available. This often leads to applying tactics that are categorized as aggressive. (Graham et al. 2003: 405; Elehee & Brooks 2004.) Angelmar et al. (1978) have listed five aggressive influence tactics that are opposite to the above-mentioned four positive influence tactics. These tactics are a threat, warning, punishment, negative normative appeal, and command.

Threats are opposite from promise. The intention is to provide the reinforcement consequences that are thought to be noxious, unpleasant, or punishing. By threatening the opponent, the negotiator signals that he has more power in a particular negotiation. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

The next tactic is the opposite of recommendation. Speaking of warnings by which the consequences are thought to be harmful, unpleasant, or punishable. In this case, the opponent does control the occurrence of the predicted event. Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

Some negotiators prefer to apply tactics that are more beneficial to punish than rewarding. By applying the punishment tactic, the consequences are thought to be unpleasant. As a reward, punishment is also seen as a part of the attitudinal structuring tactics. (Walton et al. 1965: 47; Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.) Opposite to positive normative appeal, the negotiator applies negative normative appeal when observing that the opposite party's behavior violates social norms. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405.)

Command is the final tactic that has been listed as aggressive influence tactics by Angelmar et al. (1978). When negotiators expect the opposite party to perform a certain behavior, he/she commands. According to Bonoma and Rosenberg (1978), all commands

are categorized as threats and an implicit message that punishment will be forthcoming if the command is not obeyed.

Additional to these, Lewicki and Roberson (1998) have developed and validated a five-factor classification scheme of negotiation tactics, which include traditional competitive bargaining, false promises, misrepresentation of position, attacking opponent's network, and inappropriate information gathering.

In traditional competitive bargaining, the negotiator uses such tactics as hiding the real bottom-line from the opponent or making an opening demand so high (or low) that it significantly undermines the opponent's confidence that a satisfactory settlement will be negotiated. Another tactic is false promises where the negotiator expresses intentions to perform some action but has hardly any actual intentions to follow through. One example of making false promises is bluffing. In turn, by utilizing misrepresentation of position, the negotiator distorts his or her preferred settlement point in order to create a rationale for the opponent to make concessions. The negotiator attracts an opponent's network when he or she tries to create dissension in the opponent's network or tries to lure the opponent's people to join the negotiator's group. Finally, inappropriate information gathering means when the negotiator seeks to gain information about the opponent through payments or bribes. (Lewicki et al. 1998; Elehee et al. 2004.)

Information exchange tactics

In negotiation, negotiators use co-operation, collaboration, and information exchange in order to reach a solution (Money 2003: 164). According to Beaufort and Lempereur (2003: 291) parties can be more successful by efficient communication and information exchange, which can also determine the negotiation strategy. Angelmar et al. (1978) have listed three mostly used tactics during the negotiation process. This includes commitment, self-disclosure, and question (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405-406).

The first one is a commitment, which is related to a self-prediction by a party that its future bidding behavior will not go below or above a certain level. There is no specific behavior for commitment because it does not contain polarization. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405-406.)

The second one is self-disclosure, where a party reveals information about itself such as the company's situation, needs, and preferences. Commonly, parties attempt to misrepresent their true interest by lying. Moreover, parties see this tactic as a useful weapon for problem-solving. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405-406.)

The final, but one of the most important is the use of questions as persuasive tactics. The idea is to ask questions in order to find out about the opposite party's utility function or to solicit information that contributes to the problem-solving. Usually, the party tries to find the opposite party the weak point by questions so that they will be obligated to concede. Additionally, by using questions, the party can reveal key information about the opposite party. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405-406.)

Outside of Angelmar et al. (1978) list, a few more tactics have been noticed to be used by most of the negotiators during negotiations. Some negotiators use a silencing tactic to allow rethinking the proposal if the first one did not please. Another tactic is to change a subject. If one party does not see concessions, it is a signal to change the subject or call a recess and put the informal communication channel to work in order to proceed. Finally, the use of time can be used as a tactic. Usually, this tactic requires cooperation and understanding from the opposite party. It is useful for a party to give to the opposite party to consider new information and to reach a consensus, additionally, can lead to effective negotiation. (Angelmar et al. 1978; Graham et al. 2003: 405-406.)

This section thoroughly reviews the various and most used tactics by different cultures. As a reminder, the company defines and creates tactics that they find useful. In this study, it is seen as necessary to list only the used ones.

2.2 Culture

The following section illustrates the second part of the literature review, where the conceptualization of culture and one of the main cultural frameworks developed by Hofstede is presented.

2.2.1 Conceptualization of culture

Over the decades, the concept of culture has been defined and classified in countless ways by various researches. Because the term culture is complex and comprehensive, it impedes a comprehensive understanding of the extent, intensity, and dynamics of cultural factors and their impact on human behaviour. (Manrai et al. 2010.) One of the earliest researchers Linton (1945: 21) defines culture as a configuration of learned behaviour and its results whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a specific society. In turn, for White (1959) culture is a psychic defence mechanism, which includes different social signals correlated with different responses. Moreover, according to Hogan (2005), culture can be defined as the norms and values that a group of individuals shares. Finally, Cateora and Graham (2007) list five elements that describe the culture, namely, cultural values, rituals, symbols, beliefs, and thought processes.

Most of the research is based on cultural frameworks and theories. According to Manrai et al. (2010), two major contributions to the development of cultural theory are Edward Hall and Geert Hofstede's works. However, this paper will only focus to examine on Hofstede's cultural dimensions.

2.2.2 Hofstede's framework of national culture

Several researchers have developed various frameworks for conceptualizing and operationalizing culture. However, Hofstede's framework is one the most used cultural frameworks in psychology, sociology, marketing, and management studies. (Steenkamp 2001; Soares, Farhangmehr & Shoham 2007; Manrai et al. 2010). Additionally, it has been noticed that framework have implications for negotiation and ethical behaviour (Volkema and Fleury 2002). The culture, according to Hofstede (1982: 13-14) is a collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another. He states that definition is appropriate because every human being has a culture (Hofstede 2015). Furthermore, Hofstede (1982: 14) adds that culture can be seen as a component of our mental programming, which we share with more of our compatriots as opposed to most other world citizens.

Between 1967 and 1973, Hofstede launched a survey containing a total of 116 000 questionnaires of employees of the multinational business IBM. The survey was conducted in 72 countries, in 20 different languages (Hofstede 1984; Minkov & Hofstede 2014). IBM employees were chosen because they were similar in many aspects such as sex, age, and occupation but different by nationality, which has made the effects of nationality and cultural differences stand out clear (Hofstede and Minkov 2010). Due to the study, Hofstede revealed that 53 cultures differed mainly of four dimensions, which are Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, and Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede et al. 2003: 140). Hofstede (2006) does not see useful the dimensional models that are too complex because human minds have a limited capacity for processing information. Therefore, Hofstede developed the dimensions from the IBM study that are coherent and can predict and explain important and interesting factors (Minkov & Hofstede 2011). He also adds that developed dimensions describe basic problems that every human face. While the four dimensions are basic, they offer a fair opportunity to identify all in-depth research of culture across societies. (Hofstede 2006.)

The dimensional approach developed by Hofstede (1980) represented an entirely new and unrepresented paradigm in social science research, which analysed survey-based values data by quantifying differences between national cultures. As a result, Hofstede's new approach was initially criticized, ridiculed and, rejected (Minkov et al. 2011; Hofstede 2016). From the early 1980s until now, Hofstede's cultural framework has become the dominant approach to cross-cultural analysis, which is adapted by many other researchers in various studies (Hofstede 1980, 2016; Minkov et al. 2014).

Although Hofstede has expanded his cultural dimensions by two (with Long-Term Orientation and Indulgence), this study will focus only on four above-mentioned dimensions.

Power Distance

Power Distance is the first dimension of Hofstede's framework, which describes the extent to which the members of a society or institutions and organization accept that power is distributed unequally. The behaviour of the less powerful as well as the more powerful member of society is affected by this dimension. It is often reflected in limited interaction among social classes and restricted movement from one social class to another. (Hofstede 1984; Volkema et al. 2002.) Moreover, some of the researchers see high power distance as "Hierarchy" and low power distance as "Egalitarianism" (Brett 2000).

Considering the PDI in the working place, the index informs whether employer and employee consider each other equally or unequally. When a country scores low on a power distance scale, the dependence of employees on employers is limited, which means that both components strive for power equalization and demand justification for power inequalities. The aim is always consultation before making further steps. The relationship between them is relatively close: employees can easily approach and contradict their employers. (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov 2010: 61; Uljin, Duysters & Meijer 2010: 40.)

On the other hand, in countries that score high on the power distance scale, the dependence of employees on employers is considerable, which means that both components consider each other unequal. In large power distance countries, in the organization, the people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place that needs no further justification. Therefore, the relationship between these two is extremely distant: employees do not approach easily or contradict directly with their employers. (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov 2010: 61.)

Individualism

Hofstede's second dimension's fundamental issue is to address the degree of the interdependence that society maintains among its members. This has to do with how people define their self-image: "I" or "We". In the other words, the dimension poles are individualism versus collectivism. People who belong to individualist societies are supposed to look after themselves and their closest family members only whereas people from collectivist societies belong to groups that look after them in exchange for loyalty. (Soares, Farhangmehr & Shoham 2007; Hofstede Insight 2018.)

In a workplace, the dimension of individualism has a significant impact. In an individualist culture, the employees are expected to follow their interests and organize the work that is coincidental with self-interest and the employer's interest. Employers should act as economic persons, but not forgetting to act also as individuals with their own needs. The relationship between employers and employees is calculative, mainly it can be considered as a business transaction, where both parties can terminate if one gets a better deal elsewhere. In individualistic cultures, employers receive bonuses and other incentives based on their performance. (Hofstede 1984; Uljin et al. 2010.)

Employer, in a collectivist culture, never hires just an individual, but rather an employee who belongs to the in-group that will act according to the interest of the in-group, which means that individuals have to sacrifice their interest for the group. The relationship be-

tween employer and employees involves both personal and business aspects; it resembles a family relationship that includes the mutual obligation of protection in exchange for loyalty. Additionally, it is expected that an individual share their earnings with relatives. (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede et al. 2010: 119-120; Uljin et al. 2010: 40.)

Masculinity

Gender roles are taken into consideration at the level of societies. The dimension of masculinity indicates that competition, achievement, and success drive society. On the other hand, the dimension of feminine the aim is caring for others and quality of life. The sign of success is a quality of life and standing out from the crowd is not admirable. (Hofstede Insight 2018.)

Conflicts should be played down and not settled in open conflicts. However, both dimension (masculinity-femininity) affects ways of handling the conflicts in the working place (Hofstede et al. 2010: 166). It is assumed in masculine societies that conflicts can be resolved by fighting. This approach is considered a good way to achieve a better result. Because the competitiveness between people is seen as a good thing in masculine society, the reward is earned based on performance. Usually, in masculine society, men are taught to be assertive, decisive, and ambitious in order to achieve their needs and goals, while women being gentle and not all are eager to have a career. (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede et al 2010:159; Uljin et al. 2010: 41; Hofstede 2015.)

On the other hand, in feminine societies, conflicts are preferred to resolve by cooperation and negotiation rather than competition (Uljin et al. 2010: 41; Hofstede et al. 2010: 166). Solidarity between people is seen as a good thing in a feminine society: the people in need should get help from people who are strong enough. The aim of a feminine society is equality that is why people are not rewarded by their performance, but according to their needs. Additionally, feminine societies value more free time over money and people work to live. Furthermore, in feminine society, children are socialized toward

modesty and solidarity, where both are encouraged to be ambitious and to have a career. (Hofstede 1984; Uljin et al. 2010: 55; Hofstede et al. 2010: 168.)

Uncertainty Avoidance

Handling uncertainty is part of any human institution. All human beings live with fear not knowing what will happen. Therefore, Hofstede's final dimension is called Uncertainty avoidance that shows the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and try to avoid these situations (Hofstede et al. 2003: 141; Hofstede et al. 2010: 189; Hofstede 2018). Countries that avoid uncertainty, try to prevent situations by implementing strict laws and rules, safety and security. Furthermore, in these countries, people are more emotional and motivated by inner nervous energy (Hofstede et al. 2003: 141).

The workplace societies that avoid uncertainty have more formal laws and informal rules that controls the rights and duties of employers and employees. In a high uncertainty avoidance society, the emotional need for laws and regulations can result in rules that are inconsistent or dysfunctional. On the other hand, workplace societies with low uncertainty avoidance are opposite to those who try to avoid it. In societies with low uncertainty avoidance, rules and regulations are implemented only in absolute necessity. Employees believe that the best way of solving a problem is not following rules. Additionally, employees think that without formal rules many problems can be solved. (Hofstede 1984; Hofstede et al. 2010: 209.)

There are noticeable differences between high and low uncertainty avoidance working places. Employees, in high uncertainty avoidance societies, like to work hard or at least to appear busy, which may complicate controlling their work-life balance. In turn, employees in low uncertainty avoidance societies work hard when it is necessary and take a break when there is no rush finishing the tasks. For people in low uncertainty avoidance societies, time is a framework only for orientation, not for constantly watching. (Hofstede et al. 2010: 210.)

2.3 Role of culture in the negotiation tendencies (i.e. elements and tactics) of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators

The last section of this literature review combines two selected countries, Finland and Kosovo, and previously discussed topics – culture and international business negotiation tendencies. The chapter compares and examines the behavior of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators at the negotiation table.

2.3.1 Culture and negotiation elements of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators

First, Finnish and Kosovan cultures will be explored and compared through Hofstede's cultural framework. Continuing to compare the elements used in the negotiations by reflecting the results of Hofstede's framework. Note that Hofstede has not directly examined the culture of Kosovo, because during Yugoslavia and beyond until its independence, Kosovo was part of the Serbian country, so this study partly uses combinations of conclusions by Hofstede's model and other scholars.

Finland belongs to the countries with a low score of power distance (33). According to Hofstede, the Finnish style of working environment is having independent working tasks, low hierarchy levels, equal rights, superior accessibility, empowerment of managers, and few control mechanisms. Supervisors take into account the opinions of employees during the decision-making or problem-solving process. (Hofstede Insight 2018.) In turn, Kosovo is listed to be a country with high power distance (78 based on Hofstede 1983: considering as a part of Yugoslavia.) A Kosovan work environment is characterized by high hierarchy levels, unequal rights, centralized structures, and high control mechanisms. Employees' ideas and opinions are not taking into consideration in the decision-making or problem-solving process. Even though a company has powerful employees, they will not make any changes without the concession of the superior. (Hofstede 1983; Terziu 2016.)

On the individualism vs collectivism scale, Finland scores high (63) which means that Finland is an individualist society. Finnish people are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. In the working environment, the supervisor–employee relationship contracts and based on mutual advantages. Additionally, promotions and hiring are aimed at based on performance and qualification. On the other hand, Kosovo scores low (27 based on Hofstede 1983: considering as a part of Yugoslavia) and is considered as a collectivistic society. However, in terms of the working environment, Kosovo has moved from a collective to an individual environment. This is due to the reflection of the emergence of private entrepreneurship, self-management, individual performance problems, and free competition. Based on the result, the supervisor–employee relationship is contact-based which means that there is no emotion involved between two opponents. Tasks and responsibilities are fulfilled only by special members of the group. It is very common that Kosovo businesses tolerate the absence of harmony and loyalty. Moreover, the individual prefers to protect his interest rather than those of organizations. The work is done because of financial factors, not social ones. (Hofstede 1983; Avramaska 2007; Terziu 2016.)

In terms of the Masculinity-Feminine dimension, Finland scores (26) which is considered a Feminine society. Feminine societies value equality, solidarity, and quality in their working lives. For society, the proper way to solve the conflict is negotiating and compromising. The focus in Finnish people is on working in order to live and, therefore, emphasizes free time and flexible working conditions. The management style is supportive and involves others in the decision-making process. (Hofstede Insight 2018.) According to Hofstede (1983) Kosovo scores low (21) in the masculinity dimension, and therefore is considered as a Feminine society, however, in the working environment, the masculine traits are highlighted. In Kosovo, a slight inequality between women and men in employment can be noticed. Men are combative than women and therefore, women have a lower status than men. People in Kosovo have not been taught to be fully independent; therefore, the level of aggressiveness is relative. The more responsibility and reward people gain, the merrier they are motivated to do the work. However, while masculinity slightly

dominates the working environment, Kosovars emphasize leisure time as well as flexible working condition. The aim is to gain more reward with little work. Additionally, people drive more for personal success and achievement rather than the success of the company. (Hofstede 1983; Terziu 2016.)

In the uncertainty dimension, Finland scores high (59), and therefore, is a country that prefers to avoid uncertainty. In order to feel comfortable, Finns have emotional needs for rules and regulations. In the working place, Finnish people maintain rigid codes of belief and behavior and are intolerant when it comes to unorthodox behavior and ideas. Finns are hardworking people, precise, and prioritize punctuality. (Hofstede 2018.) On the other hand, Avramaska (2007) states that Kosovo scores low (39) on uncertainty avoidance. According to Terziu (2016), Kosovo is going towards risk-taking and a lower level of avoidance of level. This is because, Kosovars desire new things and for things that were unknown and forbidden for them, the lack of economic and political stability, and irresponsible and responsible avoidance of uncertainty. People of Kosovo are known as conservative who takes a moderate level of risk, due to the relationship that is open with others. Additionally, Kosovars are satisfied with fewer rules and regulations. People are not oriented totally toward their work, which means that they will not do any additional work unless is necessary. This has mostly created communication problems within the company and that is why Terziu (2016) emphasizes that an urgent plan for uncertainty has to complete.

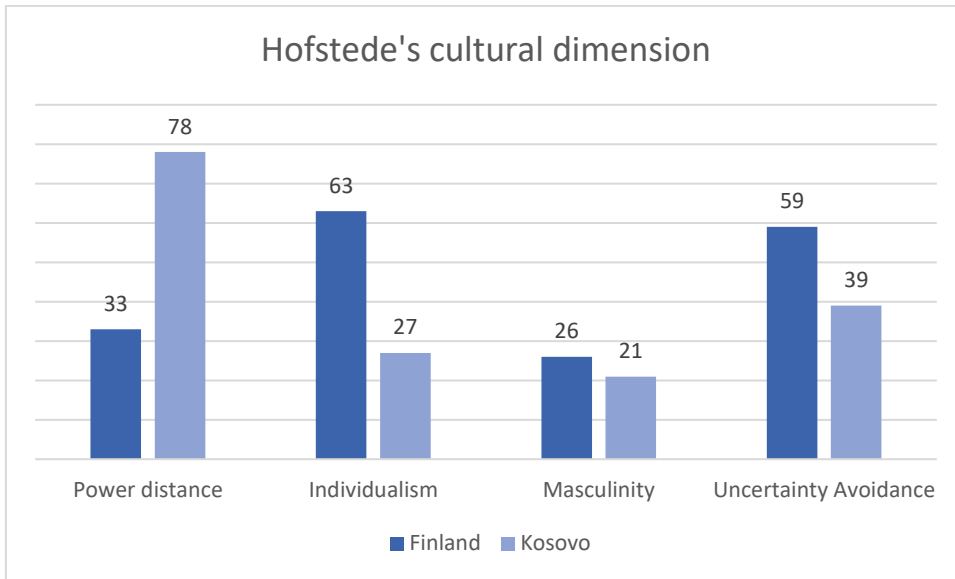


Figure 4. A country comparison of Finland and Kosovo (Terziu 2016; Hofstede Insight 2018).

Elements can be used by negotiators, to systematically identify possible areas of tension, which makes it possible to appropriately adjust their expectations and negotiation practices accordingly. With the framework, we will be able to reveal the varied and complex nature of the negotiation element within and between the Finnish and Kosovan cultures.

Each culture has a primary goal of a business negotiation. Some aim to arrive at a signed contract, others to build a relationship (Salacuse 2003). According to the previous research, Finnish negotiators are more oriented toward building a relationship (Metcalf, Bird, Shankarmahesh, Aycan, Larimo, and Valdelamar 2006). Kosovo, on the other hand, has transferred from building to a relationship to a contract-based goal. It is easier for Kosovan negotiation to trust their counterpart and work effectively when all the necessary details are written on paper. (Terziu 2016.)

As Salacuse (2003) refers, negotiators have their styles of negotiation. Due to the low PDI score, Finnish negotiators use informal style while negotiating (Metcalf et al. 2006). Communication is very open, and counterparts are called based on names. In turn, Kosovo has a high PDI score, which means that Kosovar negotiators use a formal style in negotiations. People use titles when communicating, additionally, at meetings, the dress

should be business attire (Business Travel 2020). However, negotiators are trying to reduce the power distance, which also means that they seek for informal style (Terziu 2016) because the assumption is that informal style helps to create a close relationship with counterpart. Each negotiator also has a communication style, which they use during the negotiation. Some prefer more direct while others use indirect style. Finnish negotiators use direct communication style. They prefer that their counterparts' express issues directly, not circumventing themes (Metcalf et al. 2006). According to Finns, the more direct, the more effective the negotiation. On the other hand, there is no empirical research, on what kind of communication style Kosovo uses. According to Hofstede's framework (1983), Kosovo is a collectivistic society from which we could deduce that Kosovan negotiators use an indirect communication style. However, this country is moving toward an individualistic society, which in turn indicates that Kosovan negotiations could also use direct communication.

It takes time to come to the final part of the negotiation process. One of the factors, developed by Salacuse (2003) focuses on how negotiators use time. Some countries are precise and fast, others late and slow. Finland is one of those cultures that begin a business immediately without small talk. They consider a counterpart disrespectful and not serious if they appear late at the negotiation table. (Metcalf et al. 2006.) Based on the UAI score, it can be assumed that Kosovans' pace of negotiation is slow. Additionally, Kosovan negotiators like to small talk, so it is not expected to get right down to business (Terziu 2016.)

Commonly, emotions are showed during negotiations. Some show them freely, others tend to hide it. The results from Bird et al. (2004: 809) show that countries with a high score of UAI are more likely to show their emotions during negotiation. Because Finland belongs to a high UAI society, it is assumed that Finns show their emotions. However, the results of Metcalf et al. (2006) show that emotions are rarely shown in public. Finns do not prefer talking with hands and often it is hard to read their facial expressions. On the other hand, Kosovo is considered a country with low UAI. In this aspect Kosovans

should avoid any emotions, however, Kosovan negotiator shows freely their emotions during negotiation. (Terziu 2016.) Talking with hands is very common and Kosovan is known for high tone voice.

There are two basic attitudes in which negotiators can approach a negotiation. It is either a win-win situation, where parties gain or win-lose, which is seen more as a competition. (Salacuse 2003.) Finns always attempt that both parties gain equally, so they have a greater preference for a win-win approach (Metcalf et al. 2006), while Kosovan negotiators prefer a more win-lose approach because they see business as a competition where the winner takes all (Terziu 2016).

Parties will enter into a final agreement containing immediate details, which seeks to take into account possible risks and future events. Finnish negotiators have no preference as to whether they constitute a specific or general agreement. However, it is notable that if negotiators had to choose one of the agreement forms, they would constitute a specific agreement. Even though, Bird et al. (2004: 810) state that countries with high UAI are likely to seek specific agreement, however, this form of agreement gives the impression that the counterparty is not trusted. There is no empirical evidence, which agreement Kosovan negotiators would prefer. Additionally, negotiators can build an agreement in various ways. For example, Finnish negotiators prefer strongly to build an agreement from top to down. This means that general principles are discussed first, and then continuing to specific items. (Metcalf et al. 2006.) In turn, there is no study made that would indicate which agreement form Kosovan negotiators would prefer to use, therefore, we are not able to provide a concrete comparison between these two cultures.

Negotiation groups can be led in two ways: one individual who has full authority to decide matters or the decision-making is made unanimously within the group (Salacuse 2003). According to Hofstede's cultural framework, Finland scores high in UAI, which means that decisions are made within groups. However, study results indicate that Finns

do not have preferences in either direction but appear to lean toward the "one-leader" scale. (Metcalf et al. 2006.) This may be because Finland is an individualistic country with an emphasis on independent work rather than group work. Kosovo, on the other hand, scores low in UAI. Cultures with low UAI prefer "one-leader" practice (Bird et al 2004: 805). This is also reflecting in Kosovan's behavior. As earlier mentioned Kosovo is moving toward an individualistic society, which explicitly emphasized having one leader in the organization. Negotiators believe that this practice would lead to an effective solution, without causing disagreement within the organization. (Terziu 2016.)

Some cultures think that the negotiation process involves risk-taking. For example, Bird et al. (2004: 806-807) state that those cultures with a high score in UAI are more likely to embrace risk-averse negotiation behavior. As mentioned before, Finland is a country with low UAI, and therefore, is a country that does not favor risk-taking. Finnish negotiators avoid divulging sensitive information and try to stick to established courses of action. Cultures with low UAI prefer to take risks. According to Terziu (2016), Kosovan negotiators are more likely to take a risk in the negotiation process. These people are not afraid of new approaches, contrariwise, they are open to trying new things constantly.

Table 3. Elements used by Finnish and Kosovan negotiators (Salacuse 2003; Bird et al 2003; Metcalf et al. 2006; Terziu 2016).

<i>Elements</i>	Nationality	
	Finland	Kosovo
<i>Negotiation goal</i>	Relationship	Contract
<i>Attitudes</i>	Win/Win	Win/Lose
<i>Personal Styles</i>	Informal	Formal
<i>Communication</i>	Direct	Direct/Indirect
<i>Time Sensitivity</i>	High	Low
<i>Emotionalism</i>	High	High
<i>Agreement form</i>	Specific	No evidence
<i>Agreement building</i>	Top Down	No evidence
<i>Team organization</i>	One Leader	One Leader
<i>Risk-taking</i>	Low	High

Table 3 demonstrates the elements favored by both cultures when negotiating with counterparts. Even though we find that Finland and Kosovo as countries completely differ culturally, there are no significant differences in the negotiation behavior.

In the following, the negotiation tactics used by these two cultures are examined and compared.

2.3.2 Culture and negotiation tactics of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators

Culture is a basic variable that directs the negotiation process (Lin & Miller 2003). The negotiation behaviors can be interpreted differently by individuals from various cultures, which may result in unethical behavior (Triandis, Carnevale & Gelfand 2001; Volkema et al. 2002). Individuals with various cultural backgrounds use different negotiation tactics in order to reach their goals (Anton 1990; Lewicki et al. 1998). In this section, we have examined tactics used by Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators. There are hardly any studies on negotiation in Kosovo, therefore, the information may not be accurate.

As mentioned before, Hofstede has developed a cultural framework, where he has discovered that countries differ culturally. According to him, Finland has a low Power Distance (PDI), is considered an individualistic (IND) and feminine (MAS) society. Additionally, Finland has a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. (Hofstede Insight 2018.) On the contrary, Kosovo is a hierarchical society, which means that they have a high PDI. Additionally, Kosovo is considered as a collectivistic and feminine society, but this may differ in a couple of years because they are moving toward an individualistic and masculine society. Moreover, Kosovo has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty. (Hofstede 1983; Terziu 2016.)

Negotiation to Finns is usually a joint problem-solving process. Therefore, the main tactic used by Finnish negotiators is to do every possible thing to reach an agreement. Finns prefer to approach their counterparts cooperatively and may be willing to make compromises if viewed as helpful in order to move the negotiation forward. Because Finns have a greater preference for a win-win approach, are they using mostly positive influence tactics, such as rewarding counterparts, promising to have mutual benefit of agreement

and, being committed throughout the process. (Katz 2006; Metcalf et al. 2006.) Additionally, Finns try to avoid conflict situations, so they try to remain calm, insensitive, patient, and tenacious throughout the process.

Finnish negotiators believe that sharing information is a key tool to build trust. However, they will not necessarily reveal everything during negotiations, only those things that might help them move forward with the process. Negotiations become difficult if one party appears to hide information from the other. In these kinds of situations, Finns may want to discontinue the process, as they feel that the other party hides important information from them. (Beaufort et al. 2003: 294; Katz 2006.)

Finns prepare for negotiation carefully. Therefore, they tend to ask as many questions as possible from their opponent to gather enough information and create a detailed agreement. (Graham et al. 2003: 404; Katz 2006.) Finns are aware that this may annoy some counterparts especially with those cultures that possess high aggressiveness.

When negotiating, Finnish negotiators prefer a straightforward and honest negotiation style. Commonly, they use few deceptive negotiation tactics, such as pretending to be disinterested in the whole deal or single concessions. However, aggressive sales tactics are not valued, nor other negatively influenced tactics such as telling lies, sending a non-verbal message, false promising, or misrepresenting an item's value. Adapting these tactics may undermine trust and damage negotiation with Finns. Additionally, Finns does not approach their counterparts with emotional tactics. The aim is to maintain a formal negotiation, so appealing to a personal relationship can work only if it is long-standing and very strong. (Lewicki et al. 1998; Katz 2006, Metcalf et al 2006.) On the other hand, pressure tactics are used by Finnish negotiators as long as they can be applied in a non-confrontational fashion. For example, they may open the negotiations with their best offer, show some intransigence or make a final offer quite early in the negotiation process, however, are also willing to make small compromises. Furthermore, Finnish negotiators do not use silences as a negotiation tactic (Katz 2006). If they are not satisfied

with the opponent's answer, will they continue to ask more questions or change the subject. Being silent would not change the opponent's position according to Finns, but with promises that benefit both parties. (Graham et al. 2003: 404; Katz 2006.) Finally, Finnish negotiations usually prefer to open negotiations with written offers and introducing written terms and conditions because it has shown to be an effective tactic to shorten the negotiation process (Katz 2006).

Although, there is hardly any research about negotiation tactics used by the Kosovan negotiator, are we able to infer some of them through Hofstede dimensions. (Hofstede 1983; Terziu 2016.)

As mentioned before, Kosovans are moving towards a competitive society. In addition, Kosovans are aggressive. (Terziu 2016.) This is because a family does not allow its children to grow independently, as well, the war has also left its marks. Through these, we can at least conclude that Kosovan negotiations might favor aggressive tactics. Competition is has become very important to Kosovan negotiators, therefore, they are willing to do everything to achieve their aim. (Phinnemore 2003.) In some situations, Kosovan negotiators might approach an opponent with a threat. They often use a practice: nothing is given without a return (Konica 2019). Although the approach might be aggressive, Kosovans are very committed to the work. They put effort into preparing for negotiations. One of the tactics used by Kosovan negotiations is a carefully implemented plan. It is planned carefully so the opposite does not have the opportunity to modify it. However, there are some situations, where Kosovan negotiators are willing to compromise. (Terziu 2016.)

Terziu (2016) notes that the people of Kosovo are very curious, which means that in negotiation they will ask questions from their opponents in order to get the necessary information. Sometimes questions may be personal because in this way it is possible to create trust between counterparts. Additionally, Kosovan negotiators share information about themselves too, because the more information is given to the opposite, the more

powerful it makes the company. However, sometimes, the shared information might be exaggerated or even false.

Table 4. Tactics adapted by Finnish and Kosovan negotiators (Graham et al. 2003; Katz 2006; Terziu 2016).

<i>Tactics</i>	Nationality	
	Finland	Kosovo
<i>Questions</i>	Yes	Yes
<i>Self-disclosure</i>	Yes	Yes
<i>Commitment</i>	Yes	Yes
<i>Positive influence tactics</i>	Yes	-
<i>Aggressive influence tactics</i>	No	Depends of situations. May use a little bit
<i>Deceptive tactics</i>	Yes	-
<i>Emotional tactics</i>	No	-
<i>Pressure tactics</i>	Yes	-
<i>Silence</i>	No	-

Table 4 illustrates the tactics used by both Kosovan and Finnish negotiators. We can see from the table that although these two countries are culturally different, they use many similar tactics. Unfortunately, due to the lack of empirical research on Kosovo negotiations, it is no guarantee that the information provided is correct.

2.3.3 Conceptual framework of the study

The conceptual framework of the study is demonstrated in Figure 5. The framework combines the relevant theories employed in this study. All the elements of the research questions are covered and can be found within the conceptual framework.

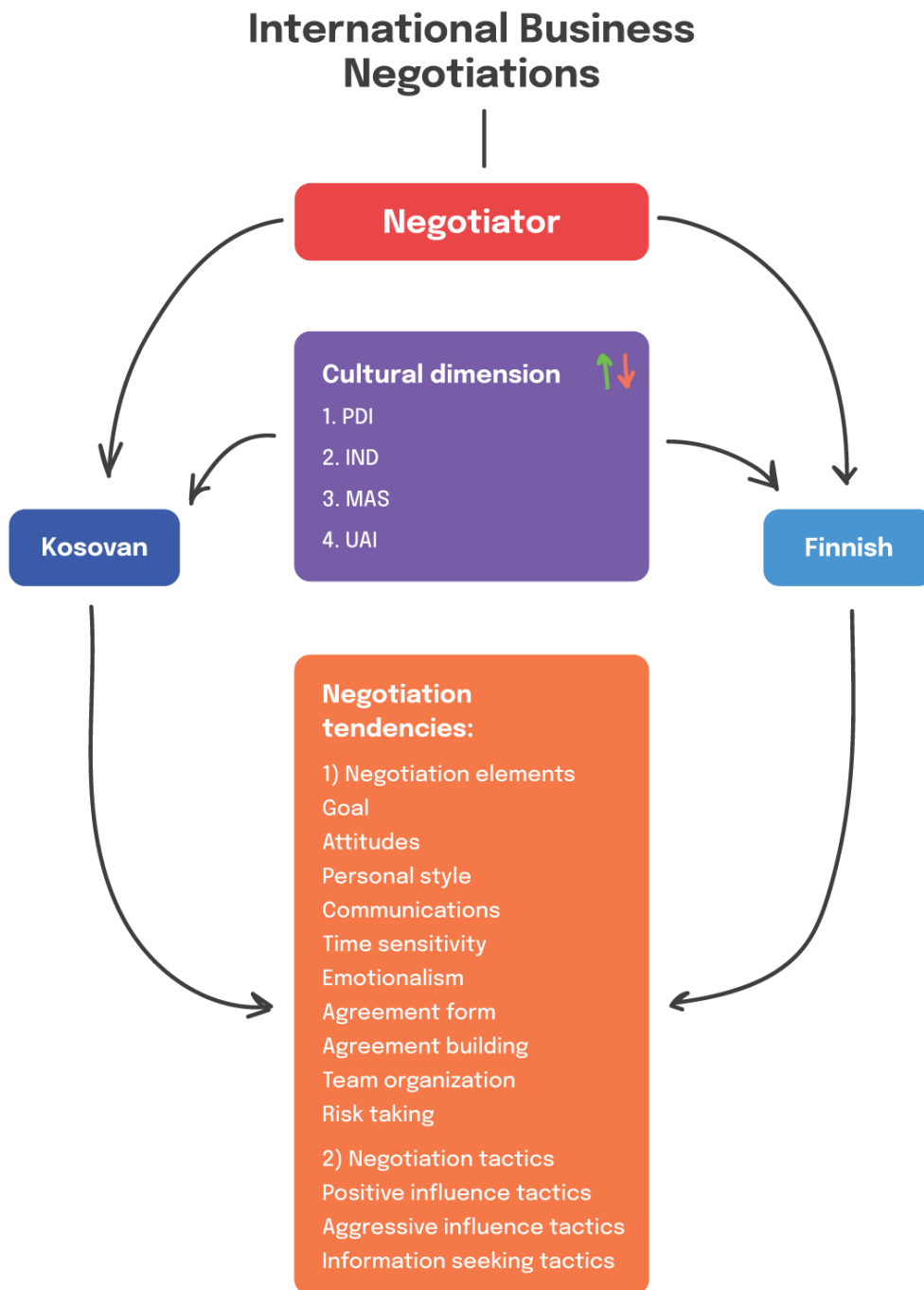


Figure 5. A conceptual framework of the study.

3 Research methodology

In the following chapter, the layers of research onion is illustrated (figure 6). This framework emphasizes the alternative methods and strategies that were conducted in this research. The onion is divided into six layers, the first two of which are research philosophy and research approach. The third layer is a methodological choice, and the fourth and fifth are research strategies and time horizons. Finally, the onion ends up with data collection and data analysis.

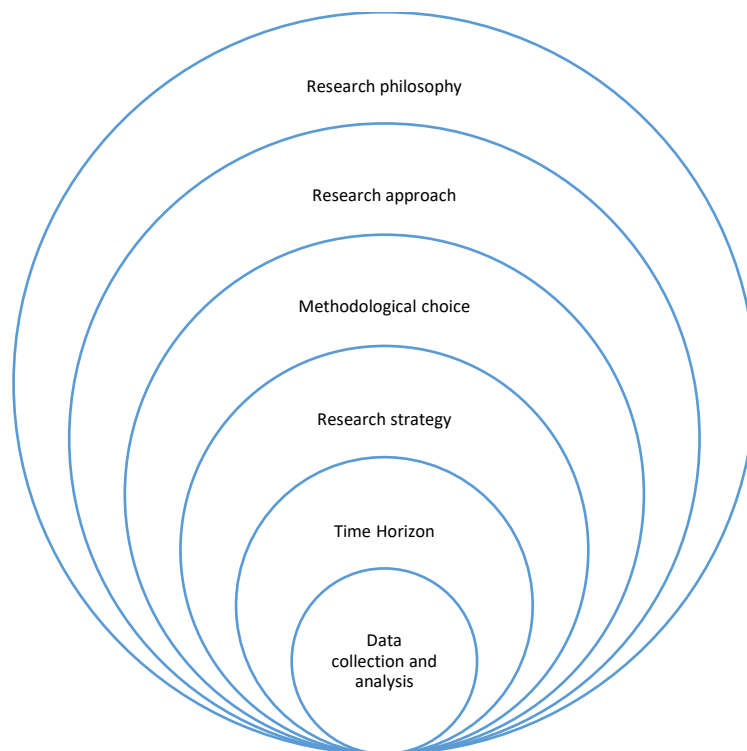


Figure 6. The Research onion. (Saunders, Lewis & Thomhill 2007.)

3.1 Philosophical assumptions and research approach

The research philosophy refers to assumptions and beliefs in the development of knowledge. The assumptions researchers choose will underpin their research strategy and methods as a part of that strategy. The philosophy that the researcher embraces will, partially, be influenced by practical considerations. The main influence, however, might be the particular view of the relationship between knowledge and the process by which it is developed. According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thomphill (2007), the researcher should make epistemological, ontological, or axiological assumptions before the research process. These three assumptions include important differences, which influence the way that one thinks about the research process. (Saunders et al. 2007.)

The research philosophy of this research is *interpretivism*. Farquhar (2012: 6) states that interpretivism is based on the belief that humans interpret the world and acknowledges the subjective meanings of social interaction. Researchers are most likely interpretive when they focus more on complexity, richness and, interpretations. The researcher, in the interpretivism philosophy, is not an aloof observer, as positivism indicates, but an active factor in building specific ideas and themes into the relevant form of knowledge. Researchers who are interpretivist see that it is valuable to understand the cultural realities. Moreover, they aim to be normal and achieve transparency in their research but at the same time, create a new and unique understanding of the social concept. (Saunders et al. 2007:106-107; Farquhar 2012: 6.) The interpretivism perspective is suitable in the case of business and management research because business situations are often complex and unique and involve interactions between individuals (Saunders et al. 2007: 107).

After choosing the research philosophy, the next step is to think of an appropriate research approach to the study. Saunders et al. (2007: 117) state that the extent of the use of the theory determines the research approach. There are two approaches that the researcher can choose. The researcher either uses the deductive approach, in which theory and hypothesis are developed based on already existing facts and theories in a cer-

tain field, and testing through research, or the inductive approach, in which data is collected first and based on results of data analysis the theory is developed. (Saunders et al. 2007: 117.)

Although this study may lean slightly more into the inductive approach, this study follows the *deductive approach* because there are already many existing theories about international business negotiations and culture and thus, the survey questions are developed based on the existing theories. The aim of this study is not to create a new theory, but to refine the existing theory and discover it.

3.2 Choice of Methodology

In the research project, the research design is necessary. The research design is not a specific plan with detailed instructions such as a building plan, but it is a tentative plan which gives space to modifications, as circumstances demand. In addition, it guides the one in the right direction. (Krishnaswami & Satyaprasad 2010: 41.) To have a good research design, the focus should be on the research question and objectives as well. The research design becomes more comprehensible when the research question and objectives are clear and well defined. (Toledo-Pereyra 2012.) Because the research design is seen as a complex concept, there are various research choices from which any given study can be viewed such as experimental and inferential designs, sample surveys and field studies, survey research, pre-experimental and quasi-experimental designs (Krishnaswami et al. 2010).

There is a wide range of ways to approach business research studies (Greener 2008: 15), however, the two approaches that are widely used in researches to differentiate both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures are quantitative and qualitative (Saunders et al, 2007: 145, Krishnaswami et al. 2010: 5, Adams, Khan & Raeside 2014: 6).

The quantitative and qualitative research methods differ significantly from each other since one focuses on numeric and the other on non-numerical data (Saunders et al. 2007: 145). Quantitative research is used to generate or use numerical data for any data collection technique or data analysis procedure. For example, these are a questionnaire, graphs, or statistics. In turn, qualitative research is used to generate or use non-numerical data for any data collection technique or data analysis procedures. These, for instance, are interview and categorizing data. Moreover, the data collected as qualitative can refer to other than words, such as pictures and video clips. (Saunders et al. 2007: 145, Krishnaswami et al. 2010: 5.) For the scope of this study, the *quantitative method* is applied because it is suited better for the research. The quantitative method was implemented by surveying international business negotiations.

3.3 Data collection

For this thesis, the quantitative method was used by creating the semi-structured survey. Usually, the survey strategy is linked to the deductive approach. Moreover, it is very common to use a survey strategy in business and management research. This is because they enable to collection of a huge amount of data from a sizeable population economically. Furthermore, the survey strategy is considered authoritative and it is relatively easy to explain and understand. (Saunders et al. 2007: 138.)

In the following sections, an in-depth view of whom and how the data has been collected is presented.

3.3.1 Target group of data collection

Sometimes it is impossible to collect and analyze data from every possible case and group member. That is why; sampling is considerable in the research project whether

there are research question(s) and objectives. With the sampling techniques, the researcher can use a range of methods that enables to reduce the amount of data that is needed to collect by considering only data from a subgroup rather than all possible cases or elements. (Saunders et al. 2007: 204.)

As a sample, in this study, Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators were selected. Candidates, who were selected, were those who had experience in international business negotiations and with origins of one of those cultures. There was not required a minimum experience in the international business negotiations as respondents differed from novice negotiator to senior negotiator. One of the reasons for choosing these two countries is the adoption of both cultures. Furthermore, these two countries completely differ culturally, so it is interesting to study how the negotiation tendencies differ.

As Finns and Kosovars hardly negotiate together because of the different nature of business, it was no necessary to find Finnish and Kosovan negotiators who have negotiated with each other. The target was to reach Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators who are involved in international business negotiations with any nationality. Thus, ten (10) Finnish negotiators and ten (10) Kosovan negotiators who are involved in the international business negotiation have been chosen to get responses to the research study.

3.3.2 Survey – semi-structured questionnaire

In this study, a semi-structured questionnaire was conducted. The questionnaire is a popular data collection technique within the survey strategy. It provides an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample before quantitative analysis because each respondent is asked to respond to the same set of questions. (Saunders et al. 2007: 355.) The questionnaire was sent as an attachment to an e-mail to all 20 respondents. Sending the questionnaire via e-mail has the advantage that there is no social tension between

the interviewer and the interviewee, and the respondents answer more honestly. Furthermore, respondents can fill the questionnaire in their own time, going away from it if they are interrupted and returning to it later. (Brace 2013: 38-39.)

The questionnaire is one part of the survey process and is considered a vital part of the process. Therefore, it is essential to prepare the questionnaire thoroughly because how the questionnaire is written will affect the remaining survey process. (Brace 2013: 6-9.)

The conducted questionnaire in this study was divided into three sections. The first part of the questionnaire begins with questions where we try to familiarize ourselves with the respondent's background. The second part was developed to get background information of the company the respondent is working/has been working in during the negotiations process. Finally, the third part was the main questionnaire, in which respondents were asked to select an answer from a provided list of possible responses. In each question, the respondent was either able to agree or disagree with the questions provided. The questions were conducted according to the existing literature by aiming to highlight the tendencies (elements and tactics) both cultures use and see the differences.

There were overall 29 questions in the conducted questionnaire. As above-mentioned, the questions (1-5) were background information about the respondent, following by questions (5-7) where respondents were asked about the company background. Finally, questions (9-29) were about international business negotiation, where especially in questions (11-29), the focus was on which elements and tactics the respondents lean more. So, ten negotiation elements developed by Salacuse (1998) and tactics developed by Graham et al. (2003) and Angelmar et al. (1978) were transformed into questions that measured the respondent's degree of agreement and disagreement with given statements.

The questionnaire was sent as an attachment via e-mail to the potential 20 respondents. In the e-mail, the aim of the research study and the topic were addressed to the re-

spondents. The questionnaire was sent to ten Finnish negotiators and ten Kosovan negotiators during March 2021. The deadline for responding to the questionnaire was sent at the beginning of April 2021. The reminder was sent to all the e-mail addresses after the first e-mail as soon as the first deadline was reached. Because of the few numbers of respondents, I got to collect all responses by the beginning of April 2021, so there was no need to send a third reminder.

The questionnaire was designed only in English and it was not translated into Finnish nor Albanian, because all of the respondents master perfectly the English language.

3.4 Reliability and Validity

In the research process, it is hardly possible to identify whether the results are true or false. However, Saunders et al. (2007: 149) note that the only way to reduce the chances of getting the wrong answers is to improve the research design. Moreover, to do so, attention should be paid to two emphases: *reliability and validity*. With these two, the quality of research can be evaluated. (Saunders et al. 2007: 149.)

The extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings, the more reliable the study is. For example, the study is considered reliable if another researcher can repeat the same study and provide similar findings. (Saunders et al. 2007: 147; Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008: 3.) Saunders et al. (2007: 149-150) state that there are four threats to reliability which are subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error, and observer bias. In this study, the questions in the questionnaire were conducted to be similar for all the respondents in order to ensure that the survey results were reliable. However, the questionnaire has not been translated into another language, as it has been assumed that each respondent speaks English fluently. Moreover, consistency has been increased by conducting questions in a way that it is easy for everyone to read and understand. Additionally, this study has sought

to minimize the participant bias, so the respondents have been able to answer the questions anonymously. Finally, the idea of this study is to explore how culture influences business negotiations, so most of the questions are conducted that measure respondents' attitudes. Despite the small sample (10 Finnish and 10 Kosovan negotiators) used in this study, it is considered that the results are reliable as people's cultural way of thinking is the same. Even though there would be more than 20 respondents, the result would remain the same.

On the other hand, according to Saunders et al. (2007: 150), internal validity refers to whether the research measures what it intended to measure. It outlines whether the relationship between two variables is casual. Additionally, it refers to the extent to which provided conclusions and findings of the study give a precise explanation of what happened. In other words, the research is valid if the findings are true and certain. (Saunders 2007:150; Eriksson et al. 2008: 4; Heale & Twycross 2015.) However, there are six threats to internal validity, which are history (an event that changes respondent's opinion), testing (how testing impacts views and actions of respondent), instrumentation (how research instrument affects the comparability of results if there is a change between different phases of a research project), mortality (the withdraw of the respondent from the study), maturation (the change of respondent's attitude and behavior because of the external party), and ambiguity about causal direction (The ambiguity of cause and effect). Saunders et al. 2007: 150-151.) In turn, external validity is referred to as generalizability. It means that whether a finding of the research study is generalized to other research settings (Saunders et al. 2007: 151).

First, the validity of the structure of the questionnaire is achieved by adapting questions from existing literature. Second, the questions in the questionnaire were designed to gather information about elements and characteristics mentioned in the research question and objectives. Thirdly, the survey was monitored, as the questionnaire was sent directly via e-mail to the respondent, thus ensuring that the right person has responded. Finally, questionnaire questions were designed in a way that respondents could relate to

his/her personal experience in international business negotiations. All the contacted respondents completed the questionnaire. However, the findings of the research study cannot be generalized because the sample size is too small.

4 Empirical findings

In this chapter, the main findings of the empirical research is presented. This section is divided into two sub-chapters. In the first chapter, the results of general background information of both Finnish and Kosovan negotiators are presented, and the second chapter focuses on the results of business negotiation tendencies between Finnish and Kosovan negotiators.

4.1 General background information

In this survey, 20 respondents have been included, from which 10 were Kosovars and 10 Finns and who have participated in international business negotiation. The first few questions of the survey were demographic questions to get background information of the respondents.

4.1.1 Finnish negotiators

This study involved 10 Finnish negotiations, most of whom were men. (70 %). In turn, respondents were of all ages, of which the youngest respondent being 26 years old and the oldest 60 years old. The average age of the respondents was 35 years, indicating that young people at workplaces are encouraged to participate in business negotiations.

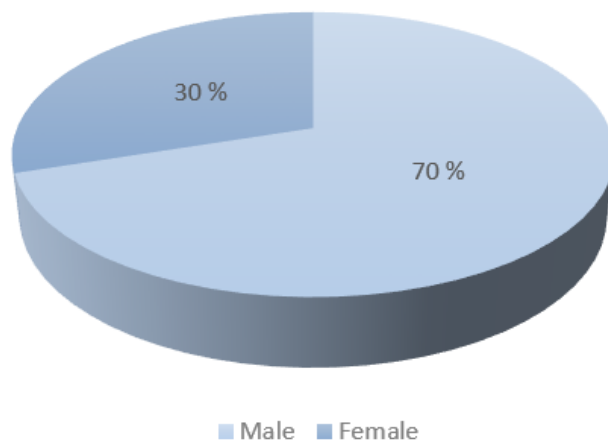


Figure 7. Gender distribution of Finnish respondents.

All the respondents had enough work experience. 90 % of the respondents have been in their current company for more than one year and only 10 % have been less than one year in their current company. All of the 10 respondents have been involved in international business negotiations. On average, the respondents have participated in 10-20 business negotiations within two years. Around two-third of the respondents (66, 7%) describe their business negotiation partners as buyers, in turn, the rest describe their partners as suppliers or exporters (22, 2%).

4.1.2 Kosovan negotiators

Kosovan negotiators were other 10 who participated in the survey. Compared to Finnish, 80% of the respondents were men. There are too few women in managerial positions, which explain the lack of women respondents as almost all the respondent hold either CEO or Entrepreneur as a job title (Shein 2007). The average age among the respondent was the same as Finnish respondents, 35 years, of which the youngest was 22 years old and the oldest 50 years old.

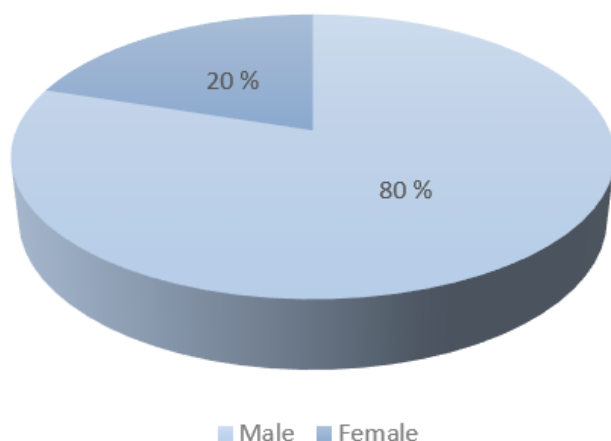


Figure 8. Gender distribution of Kosovan respondents.

All the Kosovan respondents have been in a workplace for some time and thought that they have enough work experience. All of the ten respondents have been working in their current company for more than one year and have been involved in international business negotiations. In general, Kosovans have a low threshold to change their workplace, so a person can work in the same workplace for decades (Terziu 2016.) 40 % of the respondents state that have been participating in more than 40 business negotiations. Furthermore, around two-fifths (40 %) of the respondents describe their business negotiation partners as distributes, while other 60 % of the respondents describe their partners, as a supplier, buyer, exporter, service provider, joint venture, and alliance partner.

4.2 Findings of differences related to negotiation tendencies between Finnish and Kosovan negotiators

The last part of the questionnaire is the core of the study. It seeks to investigate what tendencies each culture uses while negotiating. To address these tendencies, we have adopted ten elements and six most used tactics. First, the results obtained from the negotiation elements are analyzed.

The question (Q11) was related to the negotiation goal. It sought to see whether the negotiation considers it more important to build the relationship with the negotiation partner or focus only on the task and accomplish an agreement. 80 % of Finnish respondents agreed that it is more important to build a relationship. The remaining 20 % also strongly agreed with the sentence. Results indicate that the negotiation goal for Finnish negotiators is to build a relationship. Kosovars' responses, on the other hand, are evenly distributed between agree (50%) and strongly agree (50%), which means that Kosovars have the same negotiation goal as Finns, to build a relationship.

Table 5. Distribution of negotiation goal.

Negotiation goal: Build a relationship rather than accomplishing an agreement

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	-	-	8	2
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	-	-	5	5

Questions (Q12 & Q14) were about negotiation attitude. The aim was to investigate whether the negotiators cooperate with their negotiation partner to find a common solution (win-win solution) rather than just pursuing their own interest (win-lose solution). 60 % of Finnish respondents agreed that it is important to reach an agreement that benefits both parties rather than just one. In turn, 20 % of respondents were more likely to prefer to maximize their own interest. Lastly, 20 % were neutral. Kosovars, on the other hand, consider it important to find a mutual solution with partners, because 70 % of respondents agreed with the sentence. The remaining 30 % disagreed with the sentence, and the focus is more on achieving the company's own interest. Despite the few disagreements, the results show that both cultures seek a win-win solution.

Table 6. Distribution of attitudes***Attitudes: Finding a common solution rather than pursuing own interest***

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	2	2	6	-
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	3	-	7	-

The question (Q15) was related to personal style. The aim was to find out does the negotiator uses formal or informal style while negotiating with the partner. 50 % of Finnish respondents prefer to use a formal style, which includes dress code, addressing the party with a title name, etc. In turn, 40 % of respondents were neutral about it. One of the respondents had written at the end of the questionnaire that it depends with whom you negotiate. If it is your long-term partner, there is no need for a formal style. The remaining 10 % prefer more to address themselves in an informal way. In this question, a significant difference was found between these two cultures, as 60 % of Kosovar respondents resist using formal ways but are more likely to address themselves in an informal way.

Table 7. Distribution of personal style.***Personal style: I like to address myself in formal way while negotiating***

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	1	4	5	-
<i>Kosovo</i>	3	3	-	4	-

The question (Q16) was related to communication style. The purpose was to investigate whether the negotiator uses a direct style of communication or relies on an indirect style where gestures and facial expressions are acceptable. 50 % of Finnish respondents prefer to state their opinions in direct and explicit manners. 30 % of respondents do not have a preference whether to use direct or indirect. Moreover, the remaining 20 % prefer to use indirect style. In turn, Kosovar respondents highly prefer to use a direct communication style and prefer to avoid gestures and facial expressions.

Table 8. Distribution of communication style.***Communication style: using direct communication style rather indirect style***

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	2	3	5	-
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	-	1	5	4

The question (Q17) was related to time sensitivity. In this section, the fragmented responses were received. 40 % of Finnish respondents strictly prefer to follow the schedule that has been set for the money, however, the other 40 % of respondents have no specific opinion about the time schedule, and they are fine with both ways. Additionally, the remaining 20 % prefer to be more flexible when considering time. However, based on the result, it can be stated that Finns lean more toward high sensitivity to time. On the other hand, most of the Kosovar respondents (70 %) prefer to follow strictly the schedule. 20 % of Kosovan respondents prefer to be more flexible with time. Additionally, 10 % does not have a preference. However, results indicate that Kosovar negotiators have highly sensitive to time.

Table 9. Distribution of time.***Sensitive to time: Strictly prefer to follow the schedule***

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	2	4	2	2
<i>Kosovo</i>	1	1	1	3	4

The question (Q18) was related to emotionalism. The aim is to determine whether the person has a high emotionalism where they express their feelings freely or have a low emotionalism where feelings are hidden (Salacuse 2003). 50 % of Finnish respondents prefer to hide their emotions while negotiating. In turn, 20 % of respondents prefer freely to express their emotions. The remaining 30% does not have a specific opinion. On the contrary, Kosovar respondents consider as an inappropriate gesture to show their

emotions, therefore, 70 % of the Kosovar respondents highly prefer to hide their emotions. The results indicate that both Finnish and Kosovar negotiators have high emotionalism.

Table 10. Distribution of Emotionalism.

Emotionalism: hiding emotions rather than expressing them

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	3	2	5	-
<i>Kosovo</i>		1	2	-	7

In turn, question (Q19) was related to the form of agreement. Some negotiators prefer general agreement, while others the specific agreement. All ten Finnish respondents prefer to reach an agreement, which is a detailed description of all decisions agreed during negotiations, and strictly avoid an agreement, which is more of a statement of general principles. In turn, 90 % of Kosovar respondents have the same opinion as Finnish respondents. The remaining 10 % of Kosovar respondents do not have an opinion on whether they prefer a specific agreement or general agreement.

Table 11. Distribution of form of agreement.

Form of agreement: preferable to reach a specific agreement rather than a general one

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	-	-	-	10
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	-	1	4	5

The element: agreement building was measured in question (Q20). The aim was to investigate whether the negotiator follows the bottom-up building agreement or top-down agreement. 50 % of Finnish respondents prefer to negotiate each issue separately meaning to discuss issues such as price, delivery, date, and product quality (Salacuse 1998). In turn, 40% of Finnish respondents more prefer an agreement, which is created

from general principles and proceed to specific items. The other 10% does not have a specific opinion about the statement. However, the difference from the element: agreement building was found as 60 % of Kosovar respondents prefer more to negotiate all the issues at once. In turn, 20 % of Kosovar respondents prefer to negotiate the issues separately, and the remaining 20 % do not have an opinion. As a result, we can state that Finnish negotiators follow a bottom-down agreement, while Kosovan negotiators a top-down agreement.

Table 12. Distribution of agreement building.

Agreement building: Preferable to negotiate the issues as whole package rather than negotiate each issue separately

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	5	1	3	1
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	2	2	6	-

In question (Q21) the element: team organization was adopted. The purpose is to determine how decision-making is distributed. Whether one individual decides on behalf of the whole team or the whole team is involved in the decision-making process. 70 % of respondents lean more on consensus meaning that they prefer involving the whole team in the decision-making process. 20 % of respondents prefer more one-leader tactics, where one individual decides on behalf of the whole team.

A difference can be noticed as 60 % of Kosovar respondents lean on one-leader orientation, where they prefer that one individual such as the CEO or Manager decides on behalf of the whole team. In turn, the remaining 40 % prefer more that the whole team is involved. Although the percentage difference is small between the opinions of Kosovar respondents, it can be stated that in Kosovan companies the decision-making power is in one individual while in Finnish companies the power is on the entire team.

Table 13. Distribution of team organization.

Team organization: Preferable that whole team is involved in the decision-making process rather than one individual decides for the whole team

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	2	1	5	2
<i>Kosovo</i>		6	-	3	1

The question (Q22) was related to the element: risk-taking. The purpose was to determine whether the negotiators are risk-tolerant or risk-averse. An interesting result occurred among Finnish respondents as the answers were evenly distributed. 50 % of Finnish respondents are risk-averse, which means that they try to avoid any possible risks. However, the other 50 % of Finnish respondents are risk-tolerant who consider that acceptable risks should be taken in the negotiations. In contrast, it is clear from the answers of Kosovar respondents that this culture tolerates risk and thus is considered risk-tolerant.

Table 14. Distribution of risk-taking.

Risk-taking: Preferable to stick the plans rather than being spontaneous and flexible for unforeseen turns

<i>Nationality/ Opinion</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
<i>Finland</i>	-	5	-	5	-
<i>Kosovo</i>	-	8	-	2	-

Table 15 illustrates the results of the elements used by Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. The results show that only four out of ten elements significantly differ between Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. These elements are personal style, agreement building, team organization, and risk-taking. Kosovan negotiators prefer to use a more informal style while Finnish negotiators formal style. Moreover, Kosovan negotiators prefer to follow more top-down agreements while Finnish negotiators bottom-up agreements. According to Kosovan negotiators, it is more preferable that one individual makes the decision

on behalf of the team while Finnish negotiators prefer to include the whole team in the decision-making. Lastly, Kosovan negotiators are risk-tolerant who are willing to take risks during the negotiations while Finnish negotiators might be risk-tolerant or risk-averse.

Table 15. Results of negotiation elements.

<i>Elements</i>	Nationality	
	Finland	Kosovo
<i>Negotiation goal</i>	Relationship	Relationship
<i>Attitudes</i>	Win/Win	Win/Win
<i>Personal Styles</i>	Formal	Informal
<i>Communication</i>	Direct	Direct
<i>Time Sensitivity</i>	High	High
<i>Emotionalism</i>	High	High
<i>Agreement form</i>	Specific	Specific
<i>Agreement building</i>	Bottom Up	Top Down
<i>Team organization</i>	Consensus	One Leader
<i>Risk-taking</i>	High/ Low	High

Questions (Q23-Q29) in the questionnaire were related to negotiation tactics. The purpose was to discover what tactics the negotiators of both cultures prefer to use and whether there are significant differences.

80 % of the Finnish respondents prefer to use the question tactics because they believe that they can get the necessary information about the opposite party's intentions. In addition, the majority of Kosovan respondents (60%) prefer to approach the opposite party with the questions. However, the remaining 40 % believe that it is not necessary. Moreover, 70 % of Finnish respondents think that it is important to tell all the necessary information to the opposite party in order to build trust. However, 20 % of the respondents are slightly against it and believe that you can build trust in different ways. One of the Finnish respondents has written that you can also build trust by being committed to your work and your opposite party. In turn, 60 % of the Kosovan negotiators prefer to tell the necessary information about the company as it gives an overview of being a powerful company (Terziu 2016.) Furthermore, 70 % of Finnish respondents are committed

to their work and partner by making the first concession during the negotiations. On the other hand, Kosovan respondents highly use the commitment tactic, as 90 % of respondents are willing to make the first concession. Finally, results show, that both (90%) Finnish and (70%) Kosovar respondents avoid any kind of aggressive influence tactics by using misleading information or lying and prefer to use positive influence tactics being honest and positive to the opposite party.

Table 16. Results of negotiation tactics.

<i>Tactics</i>	Nationality	
	Finland	Kosovo
<i>Information exchange tactics</i>		
<i>Questions</i>	utilize during negotiations	utilize during negotiations
<i>Self-disclosure</i>	use as a tactic tool	use as a tactic tool
<i>Commitment</i>	use as a tactic tool	use as a tactic tool
<i>Aggressive influence tactics</i>	avoid	avoid
<i>Positive influence tactics</i>	use as a tactic tool	use as a tactic tool

Table 16 illustrates the results of negotiation tactics used by both Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. Notably, there are no differences in the tactics used by these two cultures. Both cultures try to use functional and effective tactics that are beneficial to both themselves and their opposite party. Thus, results indicate that both cultures favor similar tactics.

5 Conclusion

In the final chapter, the conclusion of the findings of the study is presented. In addition, the research question is answered. Lastly, future research areas is proposed.

5.1 Discussion of the findings

The aim of this study was to explore the role of culture in the negotiation tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiators. Hence, the main objective of this research study was to investigate and answer the research question: "How does culture influence the negotiating tendencies of Finnish and Kosovan business negotiations. "

According to Hofstede (1983), Finland and Kosovo are culturally very different. For instance, Finland scores low on power distance, in turn, Kosovo is listed as high in power distance. Due to the high score in the individualism dimension, Finland is an individualistic society, on the other hand, Kosovo is considered as a collectivistic society. Moreover, Finland is a country that prefers to avoid uncertainty, in turn, Kosovo is going towards risk-taking (Terziu 2016). However, in terms of Masculinity-Feminine, both counties are considered as a Feminine society.

According to the literature review, Finnish negotiator's negotiation goal is to build a relationship while Kosovan negotiators focus on accomplishing an agreement by trying to maximize their own interest. However, empirical findings show that both cultures consider it more important to develop a relationship in order to create trust as well as to reach a mutual solution that benefits both parties. Moreover, the findings show that Finnish negotiators prefer to address themselves in a formal way, while Kosovan negotiators in an informal way. This result was a bit surprising as researchers Metcalf et al. (2006) and Terziu (2016) stated in their study that Finnish people prefer a more informal

style while Kosovans formal style. The reason why researchers concluded like this, is because they believe that cultures that score high in uncertainty avoidance (Finland) will concern for formal protocol during negotiations, in turn, cultures with low (Kosovo) will concern less. Furthermore, the literature review indicates that Finnish negotiators prefer to stick to a schedule, while Kosovan negotiators are more flexible with time. However, findings show that both cultures prefer to stick to a schedule that is set for negotiation. Both literature and empirical finding indicate that Finnish and Kosovan negotiators avoid showing emotions during the negotiations as it is considered an inappropriate gesture. In addition, both cultures think that the negotiation process goes effortlessly when there is direct communication, and agreements are in a detailed written form.

Researchers (Metcalf et al. 2006), state that Finnish negotiators prefer strongly to build an agreement from top to down. This means that general principles are discussed first and then continuing to specific items. For Kosovan negotiators, there is no evidence found whether they prefer to build an agreement from bottom-up or top-down. However, findings indicate that Finnish negotiators prefer to follow the bottom-up agreement where each area is discussed separately, while Kosovan negotiators prefer a top-down agreement where all issues are covered at once. Unfortunately, we do not have an exact explanation for why such a difference as we are unable to relate to Hofstede's cultural dimensions or any other research.

Because Hofstede (2018) classifies Finland as an individualistic country, it is assumed that in organizations one individual will have the power in the decision-making process. However, this is not the case as results show that most Finnish negotiators prefer the whole team to be involved in the decision-making process. In turn, Kosovo is listed as a collectivistic society, where the conclusion can be drawn that Kosovan negotiators learn more in team decision-making. However, results show a difference, as Kosovan negotiators prefer more on one-leader. This can be argued that even though Kosovo is a collectivistic society, it is slightly going toward an individualistic society. (Terziu 2016). Lastly, both literature and findings indicate that Kosovan negotiators are the ones who are not afraid

of taking a risk, whereas Finnish people prefer to take risks but at the same time try to avoid them.

Findings suggest that only four out of ten elements (personal style, agreement building, team organization, and risk-taking) significantly differ between Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. However, it is found that except for four elements (communication, emotionalism, agreement form, risk-taking), culture does not explain the similarities as well as differences in the remaining elements of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators. Therefore, culture does not fully explain the negotiation style of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators.

In terms of tactics, both literature review and empirical findings indicate that Finnish and Kosovan negotiators use similar tactics. Even though the literature indicates that Kosovan negotiators slightly prefer aggressive influence tactics because of the past history (Terziu 2016), results show that aggressive tactics are strongly avoided among Kosovan negotiators. The summary of findings is illustrated in table 17.

Table 17. Summary of findings.

Literature review		Elements	Empirical findings	
<i>Finland</i>	<i>Kosovo</i>		<i>Finland</i>	<i>Kosovo</i>
Relationship	Contract	Goal	Relationship	Relationship
Win/Win	Win/Lose	Attitude	Win/Win	Win/Win
Informal	Formal	Personal style	Formal	Informal
Direct	Direct/Indirect	Communication	Direct	Direct
High	Low	Time Sensitivity	High	High
High	High	Emotionalism	High	High
Specific	-	Agreement form	Specific	Specific
Top Down	-	Agreement building	Bottom Up	Top Down
One Leader	One Leader	Team organization	Consensus	One Leader
Low	High	Risk-taking	High/Low	High

		Tactics		
Use	-	Positive influence tactics	Use	Use
Avoid	Avoid	Negative influence tactics	Avoid	Avoid
Use	Use	Information exchange tactics	Use	Use

We can conclude the study by answering the research question, where the aim was to examine “How does the culture influence the negotiation tendencies of Finnish and Kosovo business negotiators?” In terms of elements, culture does not fully explain the negotiation style of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators, however, in terms of tactics, culture fully explains the chosen tactics of Finnish and Kosovan negotiators.

5.2 Suggestion for further study

International business negotiation as the topic is very wide and that is why there are a few interesting aspects for future research. Suggestions for future research would be to conduct the broader research by collecting the larger samples. A wider understanding of research can be provided by using larger samples. Additionally, more literature review should be conducted about how Kosovars negotiate so that the findings can be adapted in the real-life situation. Finally, one could investigate the whole negotiation process of both cultures and find similarities and differences instead of focusing on only one specific area.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Questionnaire



QUESTIONNAIRE

BUSINESS NEGOTIATION TENDENCIES OF FINNISH AND KOSOVAN NEGOTIATORS: THE ROLE OF CULTURE

Background information

- 1) Age:
- 2) Gender:
- 3) Nationality:
- 4) What is your current job title?

Company information

- 5) Name of company you are working:
- 6) How long have you been working in current company?
- 7) Industry of the company?
 - a) energy b) healthcare c) automotive d) chemicals e) food/beverage
 - f) metal g) agriculture h) construction i) entertainment j) services k)
 - other (please specify) _____
- 8) Which of the following describes your negotiations partner?
 - a) supplier b) buyer c) exporter d) distributor e) alliance partner f)
 - joint venture partner g) licensor h) licensee i) other (please specify) _____

International business negotiation

- 9) Have you ever been involved in an international business negotiation?
- 10) How many IBN you have participated during the last two years?
 - a) < 10 b) 11-20 c) 21-30 d) 31-40 e) > 40

<i>Please think of your previous IBNs in general and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statement</i>					
	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
<i>11) It is more important to develop a relationship to create trust with the negotiation partner rather than focusing solely at the task and the accomplishing an agreement.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>12) The primary focus is achieving my own company's interest during negotiations, even if it happens at the expense of my partner.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>13) At the end of the negotiations, the written contract is obligatory.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>14) I rather cooperate with the negotiation partner to reach mutual solution for both parties instead of trying to maximize my own interest.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>15) When negotiation with partner, I like to address myself in formal way.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>16) While negotiating with my counterpart, I prefer to state my opinions in a direct and explicit manner rather than relying on gestures or facial expression.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>17) During the negotiations, I strictly prefer to follow the schedules that have been set for negotiations.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>18) During negotiations, I prefer to hide my emotions such as happiness and anger, because expressing emotions is considered as inappropriate gesture.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>19) My aim is to reach a negotiation agreement, which is a detailed description of all the decisions agreed during negotiations rather than agreement which is more of a statement of general principles.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>20) I prefer more to negotiate the issues as whole package (meaning to cover all the issues at one) rather than negotiation each issue separately.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>21) I prefer that my whole team is involved in the decision-making process (the power to make decisions has spread across many individuals), rather than one individual decides on behalf of the whole team.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>22) I prefer to stick to the plans that are made before entering into negotiations rather than being flexible and spontaneous for unforeseen turns.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>23) In order to build a trust, I prefer to tell all the necessary information to my opposite party.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>24) A work is almost completed when there is a carefully implemented plan.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>25) I try to be as honest as possible with the opposite party. I do not tolerate lying or giving misleading information.</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

26) Usually, I prefer to make the first concession, waiting for the partner to make the concession in return.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27) By asking questions, I believe that I can get the necessary information about opposite party's intentions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28) During negotiations, I prefer more to use aggressive tactics (threats, false promises), as this gives me a competitive advantage from the opposite party	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29) I prefer to use positive techniques because it is essential for achieving winning results and relationships that make agreements valuable for both parties.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for participating in the questionnaire!

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