An Exploratory Study on Negotiating Styles: Development of a Measure

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Executive Summary

Negotiation study as a tool in conflict management has been in vogue since long and spans the disciplinary boundaries. The outcome of business negotiations depends on bargainer characteristics, situation, and the negotiation process, which also drive the style adopted by a negotiator. Negotiation as a universal phenomenon does not have a universal style as the notion of consistent improved results for an individual's business value has multiplicity of measures. Also, when it comes to negotiation style studies, they have either been packaged with other constructs or have been confused with them. For the clarity of the construct therefore it is essential that separation needs to be maintained between the definition of negotiating style as a construct and other closely related constructs. It is therefore proposed that works in negotiation need to be broadly divided into three types, involving the constructs of:

- Negotiating style
- Negotiating ability
- Negotiating strategy.

Literature review suggests that the researchers are divided regarding the number of dimensions of negotiating style. In most of the studies, the proposed dimensions range from one to five. Also, no scale on negotiating style has been validated. In recent years, there has been an increased recognition of need to look at negotiations in Asia-Pacific context. Therefore we developed a scale to measure negotiating style of people and tested it in the Indian context.

The sample included a cross-section of working executives and management students and the research design for the exploratory study included item generation, scale development, and assessment of scale's psychometric properties. On analysis, the scale showed robust psychometric properties. Based on the results obtained, there are four types of negotiation style adopted by people:

- Analytical
- Equitable
- Amicable
- Aggressive.

The findings can be used as a diagnostic tool to evaluate the extent to which one would like to have an attribute on a particular kind of negotiating style as well as a tool to enable in bridging the gap in the value systems.

Confrontation of interests or incompatibility in activities between two parties manifest themselves as conflict in social situations (Deutsch, 1973); and, disputes on account of increased conflict need to be resolved (Fenn, Lowe and Speck, 1997). In order to preclude negative impacts of dispute on task performance, it is important to manage the conflict proactively through targeted early settlement. The need for negotiating therefore arises for the dispute settlement to enable us to continue to transact. Reaching a settlement through negotiation helps in preventing dispute and keeping a harmonious relationship between the disputants (Ren, Anumba and Ugwu, 2003). Conflict and negotiation therefore lie at the very heart of the wide array of social interactions ranging from daily routine transactions to complex business activities, to international diplomacy. Accordingly, conflict and negotiation are studied in many disciplines, including social and personality psychology, organizational behaviour, communication sciences, economics, and political science (Carsten and Carnevale, 2005) as well as in legal circles (Blumoff, 2005; Schneider, 2002).

We all negotiate. Yet, most of us differ from each other with respect to the degree of effectiveness with which we negotiate. Negotiating skill was ranked as the third most important skill to be possessed by future CEOs in the Korn/Ferry International and Columbia University Graduate School of Business Study of 1,500 top executives in twenty countries (21st Century Report, 1989). On similar lines, it has been estimated that over 50 per cent of an international manager's time is spent negotiating (Adler and Graham, 1989). Therefore as a skill, negotiation is essential to professionals, particularly those at managerial positions. All managers need to be aware of the content (types) and form (ways of conduct) of negotiation (Curhan, Elfenbein, and Xu, 2006). Based on its utility to managers, negotiation has been a topical research area that is of value to both academics and practitioners.

From the traditional assumption of being *bred in the bone*, negotiating skill as a process has now got the attention of academics and professionals and as a result, programmes are being developed to improve the negotiation skills of individuals in both professional and non-professional contexts (Boskey, 1993). The outcome of business negotiations would depend on *bargainer characteristics, situation, and the negotiation process* (Adler and Graham, 1989). While the *bargainers* primarily include face-to-face parties, in many cases, outside consultants, company partners, dealers, competitors, and government institutions also play a role. Brown (1996) considered the role of NGOs and environment in addition to technology in changing the negotiation style of negotiators, be it the government or the private enterprises. It is not only the number of players that is crucial; the variation of interests of each player in a negotiation also needs to be factored in. The interest may range from ensuring the failure of negotiation, or it may be intended as a tool to save face, or as a device to open a new flank in a thorny problem, or as is generally believed, it could be meant to ensure implementation of mutually agreed terms, or for that matter to enhance external prestige for internal consumption (Wills, 1996).

According to Graham (1984; 1985), negotiations consist of four major *processes* or stages: relationship building; task-related exchange of information; persuasion and compromise; and concessions and agreement. Weiss (1993) talked of pre-negotiation, negotiation, and implementation of the post-negotiation phases of the negotiation process.

In terms of *situations*, Condon (1974) classified cross-cultural communication issues into four categories: those relating to language and language behaviour, non-verbal behaviour, values, and patterns of thought. As for values, Lefebvre (1982 as quoted in Graham, Evenko and Rajan, 1992), in a series of studies, found that the Americans and Soviets were governed by two different *ethical systems*. Graham *et al.* (1988) believed the negotiator's role as a buyer or a seller to be the most important factor in negotiations among the Japanese.

When it comes to research on negotiation outcome, researchers have often found it difficult to measure and compare. In terms of profit, various studies have used sale *vs* no sale, an obvious measure of bargaining effectiveness, profits obtained by bargainers, and a combination of individual and joint profits; beyond profits, negotiator satisfaction has been considered an important measure of success, especially if partners desire a continued relationship (Adler and Graham, 1989). Time too is many a time considered as a negotiation outcome. Green, Gross and Robinson (1967) considered duration of negotiations in terms of economic value. However, Hall (1960) termed such a view to be culture-specific.

Feelings of interpersonal attraction can also strongly influence negotiation outcomes. It may enhance people's bargaining outcomes (Rubin and Brown, 1975) or people may prefer sacrificing economic rewards to preserve personal relationship as social rewards (McGuire, 1968).

With the possibility of wide variations in the number of players, interest of players, stress on different aspects of relationship at different stages of the process of negotiation, situation, and interpretation of outcomes, it becomes very difficult to arrive at one absolute measure of approach to negotiation activity. Therefore, there is no universal negotiating style that will consistently improve the results of an individual's business value. On the contrary, each negotiator needs to use a unique set of personal negotiation tools to improve performance. Inefficient negotiation, on the other hand, restricts the option of resolving conflict to arbitration or litigation, one of the reasons being on account of lack of understanding of the styles adopted during one's own negotiation processes (Cheung, Yiu and Yeung, 2006). Generally, the economic value of negotiation is given importance and is easily measured too, but the subjective and intangible values may be just as crucial to the parties involved. However, the subjective feelings are more difficult to assess and as a result, the subjective value is generally overlooked and understudied in the negotiation studies (Curhan, Elfenbein and Xu, 2006). Also, the negotiating style at the individual level would be based on all the three elements of negotiation: bargainer characteristics, situation, and the negotiation process. Based on these assertions, we felt that there were significant gaps in the study of negotiation style in terms of conceptualization and as a natural corollary the measurement of the construct in the existing literature.

NEGOTIATION STYLE: THE CONCEPTUAL GAP

The more similar the parties are, the more likely is a favourable outcome (Evans, 1963). Negotiators have a tendency to imitate each other's behaviours to balance the outcomes which may result in a compromise between normative results of the differing styles particularly in cross-cultural negotiations (Adler and Graham, 1989). As another perspective, studies on control and cognitive styles relate socially accepted roles to the participants' need for power. A role expected as an exercise of control behaviour is likely to be related to dominating conflict management behaviour and acceptance of control as role requirement would be accepted by avoidance of conflict; therefore, an innovative cognitive style would be followed by a dominating behaviour and an adaptive cognitive style would be followed by a conforming behaviour (Aritzeta, Ayestaran and Swailes, 2005).

While the first line of thought dwells on the importance of adjusting one's bargaining style according to one's impressions of the opponent's negotiation style, the second one talks of the process involved in one's own negotiating style. For example, an adaptive cognitive style is marked by a methodical, prudent, disciplined, conforming, and dependable approach, the agenda being to look for solutions in ways which are tried and tested (Aritzeta, Ayestaran and Swailes, 2005). In the second line of thought, it is not *what* is said is important but *how* it is being said becomes equally if not more important. In negotiation studies, form (the '*how*' aspect) has usually been taken for granted (Graham, Evenko and Rajan, 1992).

In addition, the works on negotiating styles have been either on the lines of individual differences, cross-country differences, or a concoction of individual differences among countries. Graham (1985) reported that Brazilian negotiators appeared to have a more *aggressive* style of conversation than the Japanese or American bargainers. At the firm level, in order to ensure the better attainment of targeted outcome of a negotiation, the managers from different cultures must understand the negotiation styles of their counterparts. In order to be able to do so, the managers would have to consider all the three elements of negotiation of their counterparts which would get reflected in their behaviours, attitudes, and expectations. Better accuracy in the prediction of the other party's behaviour and tactics would allow each side to modify its negotiation stance accordingly and achieve greater returns (Graham, Evenko and Rajan, 1992).

Although a good number of literature has documented negotiating styles, most of them are descriptive or comparative, restricted to describing the behaviour of managers in a particular country or comparing behaviours across a range of cultures (Adler, 1983). To further complicate the matter, the role of individual differences in negotiation is generally inconclusive. However, earlier dearth of positive findings in relating personality to ne-

gotiation processes and outcomes have been replaced by some promising exceptions suggesting that the search should be continued. Backed by this support, Foo, Elfenbein and Aik (2004) asserted that the question was no longer whether individual differences mattered but it was the type of individual difference that mattered.

Any style of negotiation is tempered and influenced by the *personality* and the *ability* of the individual negotiator, as well as the *cultural, political, emotional, and physical situations* surrounding the negotiations; however, in addition to *style,* many other factors like tactics and strategy, structure of the negotiations, and external influences are instrumental in shaping the process and outcome of negotiations (McDonald, 1996). While most of the studies have clubbed negotiating style with other constructs, some studies have even mistaken other constructs for style (discussed elsewhere in the article). Therefore, maintaining a separate construct of negotiating style has been difficult on the part of researchers. We in this article make an attempt towards the same end.

For the clarity of the construct therefore it is essential that separation needs to be maintained between the definition of negotiating style as a construct and the closely related other constructs. We therefore propose that works in negotiation need to be broadly divided into four types: those involving the construct of negotiating ability, negotiating style, negotiating planning, and negotiating tactics. *Negotiating ability* is the negotiator's inherent and acquired capacity regarding the various aspects of the conduct of negotiation activity. Our interpersonal success is decided by the manner in which we receive, explain, and present information while we negotiate. By *negotiation style*, one means the overall approach to negotiation that an individual uses rather than the strategy or tactics adopted in a particular negotiation or segment of a negotiation (Boskey, 1993). Hayes (1994) stated that most people learnt how to relate with others on the basis of experience, through trial and error, and if the results fulfilled the expectations or were pleasant, the behaviour would be reinforced on to the cumulative experience. If we were to draw a parallel between personality and style, then we would say an individual's negotiation style is that aspect of his personality which relates to the sum total of ways in which one reacts to and interacts in interpersonal situations (rather than personality as a whole). However, our definition of negotiating style takes into consideration the

behaviour as an approach with the intention to satisfy the inherent need orientation. One's preference for certain types of outcomes based on social motives determines the negotiating style that one adopts (Weingart, 2007). On similar lines, Schein (1985) talked of the need for inclusion, the need for control, power, influence, and the need for acceptance and intimacy in determining one's negotiation style.

Therefore negotiating style of a person is the "sum total of ways in which one reacts to and interacts in interpersonal situations with the intention to satisfy one's inherent need orientations."

Now, in addition to our negotiating ability and style, we adopt to achieve results, whether or not we as individuals are in a position to align the complexities of many a time conflicting values so as to achieve a specific goal or the result, will be decided by our capacity to integrate them. Therefore, for a successful negotiation, we not only need to support our negotiating style with our ability, but also be adept at prioritizing and ordering the values by choosing the appropriate negotiating plan. However, our plans might get upset as we may feel that it is not possible to achieve the goal that we intended to arrive at. In that case, we may have to make adjustments in our negotiating plans by utilizing short-term negotiating tactics. Planning and tactics both can be clubbed together as an individual's negotiating strategy. It is to be kept in mind that our attempt at these definitions is from the perspective of an individual.

NEGOTIATING STYLE: THE MEASUREMENT GAP

Many models have been developed to analyse the way in which individuals approach and handle conflict. Aritzeta, Ayestaran and Swails (2005) stated that some researchers approached taxonomies from the one-dimensional approach of cooperation and competition styles (Deutsch, 1949; Tjosvold, 1998) while a few others took a two-dimensional approach with either four styles of conflict management behaviour (Pruitt, 1983), or involving five styles (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Rahim and Bonoma, 1979); and some even went for a three-dimensional model of moving away, moving toward, and moving against (Horney, 1945).

McDonald (1996) used a set of traits and characteristics which, he believed, strongly influenced the negotiating behaviour in the US. According to him, the following

characteristics, both positive and negative, taken collectively, defined negotiating style: impatient; arrogant; listening; insular; legalistic; naive; friendly; fair; flexible; risky; pragmatic; preparation; and cooperative.

In terms of dependability of the opponent, Hung (1998) divided the factors into two parts. The first part, consisting of organizational factors, focuses on compatible objectives, complimentarily of strength and contributions, interdependence, and equitable sharing of benefits, while the human factors emphasize on the importance of commitment, coordination, harmony, and trust. Organizational factors such as dependability are firm-specific and situation-specific.

Greenhalgh and Gilkey (1986) identified *body, mind, and character* as psychological influencers of a negotiation process. The stress level on an individual is often dictated by these three attributes of the individual. Similarly, Nixon (2005) described personality as a dynamic relationship between temperament, character, and life experience. Stressing on *what drives people to get what they want* and adaptation of character to the society against Freudian way of stressing on repressed feelings, Fromm (1947) gave four orientations of individuals' character: accepting orientation, taking orientation, preserving orientation, and exchanging orientation. At the organizational level, Mastenbroek (1987), in his analysis of organizations as networks of independent units, saw effective organizing as the skillful management of interdependencies. He termed relations to be of central importance as social reality was formed by the interaction between social units. He explained the problems and behavioural tendencies in terms of four types of relations: power and dependency relations, negotiating relations, instrumental relations, and socio-emotional relations. Porter (1996), however, talked of character orientation being of three types, which in business parlance could be said to be result-orientation, relationship-orientation, and rationale-orientation. Similarly, people were categorized into three style types: sturdy battlers, friendly helper, and logical thinker (c.f. Schein, 1985).

The often cited conflict management model in the conflict management literature is primarily based on Blake and Mouton's (1964) work which was later developed by many other researchers. It talked of individual styles for handling conflict based on two primary concerns: *concern for self* and *concern for others*. Based on one's concern, conflict management styles could be competing, collaborating, compromising, accommodating, or avoiding. The instruments developed for assessing conflict management styles included Hall's (1969) conflict management survey, Thomas and Kilmann's (1974) conflict MODE instrument, and Rahim's (1983) organizational conflict inventory.

Womack (1988) stated that the five styles reflected an individual's behavioural intentions when facing conflict situations and we have seen in the earlier section that negotiating is just a part of conflict resolution attempts. For the purpose of this paper, we are driven by the above statement and we consider conflict management process to be inclusive of negotiation as a part of the process. Thus we concur with Weiss' (1993) concept of pre-negotiation, negotiation, and implementation of the post-negotiation phases of the process. Hence replacing negotiating style with conflict handling styles may act as a mere substitute and might therefore not address the finer nuances of negotiating. Therefore, we felt the need for a dedicated scale for measuring the negotiating style of people.

Cellich and Jain (2004) believed that the negotiator applied a specific negotiating style which depended upon his/her cultural background, personal responsibilities, and the context in which the discussions took place in addition to whether he/she was seeking a one-time deal or repeat business over the long term. They classified negotiating style as being of five types and developed a scale for measuring negotiating style. The styles suggested by them were: dodgers, dreamers, hagglers, competitors, and problem solvers. They *prescribed* the problem solver style (PSA) to be the *appropriate negotiation style* (Cellich and Jain, 2004).

Our contention with Cellich and Jain's (2004) approach is that the *prescriptive* style of problem solving is a negotiating strategy and not a negotiating style. A style becomes appropriate only when we have analysed the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats; however, the style thus chosen is no longer a style but becomes part of our strategy then. Problem solving strategies tend to maximize the number of alternative solutions considered, thus allowing negotiators to optimize outcomes (Adler and Graham, 1989). Different researchers have used various labels for the PSA concept. Walton and McKersie (1965) termed it as inte-

grative bargaining strategy; Rubin and Brown (1975) and Williams (1983) called it cooperative orientation; Pruitt and Lewis (1975), Menkel-Meadow (1984), and Murray (1986) labeled it as problem solving orientation, while Angelmar and Stern (1978) cited it as representational bargaining strategies; and Weitz (1981) used direct/open influence tactics to address it (Adler and Graham, 1989).

On the basis of the above arguments, we beg to differ from the prescriptive approach of many researchers either suggesting a particular negotiating style or for that matter suggesting the use of all of them based on context. Schein (1985) stated that every person has the capacity to use each of the styles, depending on the situation, but most people develop characteristic styles on which they lean when they become anxious in the interpersonal context. In our opinion, being aware of different negotiating styles so as to fine-tune one's own style to take care of the visible and audible behavioural patterns as well as societal and environmental concerns, should be enough. Abandoning one's dominant negotiating style may lead to loss of finer learning one gets on the basis of reinforcements. Also, use of multiple styles may lead to *loss of one's identity;* and even others may consider him as a *headless chicken.*

What we observed from the literature review was that the researchers were divided among themselves regarding the number of dimensions of negotiating style. In most of the studies, the proposed dimensions ranged from one to five. Also, no scale on *negotiating style (not the conflict handling style scales)* was validated. Therefore, we felt the need for having a clearer conceptualization backed by systematic operationalization of a measure for negotiating style. At the same time, we were clear that the conceptualization needed to be distinct from the concepts of ability, tactics, and strategy. Also, there has been a plethora of studies concentrating on Asia-Pacific negotiations in recent times. Some of them like Nixon (2005) have gone to the extent of suggesting these negotiation practices to be better than those of the Western practices. This study attempts to analyse the prominent negotiation styles adopted by Indians.

RESEARCH METHOD

Item Generation

In order to create a robust measure, the item generation, scale development, and scale evaluation stages of the scale development were followed systematically (Schwab, 1980). Construction, development, and evaluation processes of the Negotiation Style Measure (NSM) were carried out. The construction of the scale consisted of generation of items to measure negotiation style, created on the basis of the literature review (e.g., Mastenbroek, 1984; McDonald, 1996). Each item was generated as a statement capturing negotiating style.

Content Validation

For assessing content validity, generated items were given to ten expert raters. For each item, the experts were given our definition of the negotiating style along with a yes/no option. The items on which 8 or more raters agreed were retained for further analysis. At the end of this stage, 79 items were retained based on inter-rater agreement.

Survey

The anchor points of the 79 items were determined and a 5-point Likert scale was developed ranging from *totally agree* to *totally disagree*. The items were randomized to ensure hedging against emergence of patterns within them. Besides these 79 items, 35 items of Cellich and Jain (2004) Measurement of Negotiation Style Scale (CJ) were added to the questionnaire.

Demographic Questionnaire

We included a demographics questionnaire in the survey with questions regarding participants' gender, age, current educational status, and employment status. Items on tenure in current organization or the organization in which the respondent worked last and the total work experiences were included as part of the questionnaire (See Table 1 for breakups regarding the demography).

We gave each participant an introduction sheet in which the purpose of the study, the approximate time expected for filling up the questionnaire, and the details of the point of contact for both online and printed versions were mentioned. The introduction sheet for the printed version was detachable and the participants were given the option of carrying it back with them if they so wished. The introduction sheet explicitly asked the respondent to take the survey only on voluntary basis and the respondent was given the option of calling it quits at any

Table 1: Sample Demographics

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Gender			
Male	486	60	60
Female	326	40	100
Total	**812**	**100**	
Age (in years)			
Below 25	547	67	67
Between 25 and 30	187	23	90
30 and above	78	10	100
Total	**812**	**100**	
Education			
High School	0	0	0
Vocational	1	0	0
Bachelors	231	28	28
Masters	540	67	95
Doctoral	26	3	98
Professional	14	2	100
Total	**812**	**100**	
Tenure in Current Organization			
Below 1 year	538	66	66
Between 1 and 2 years	110	14	80
Between 2 and 5 years	103	12	92
5 years and above	61	8	100
Total	**812**	**100**	
Total Work Experience			
Below 1 year	490	60	60
Between 1 and 2 years	91	11	71
Between 2 and 5 years	144	18	89
5 years and above	87	11	100
Total	**812**	**100**	

point of time. Those not at all interested in filling the survey questionnaire were however urged to fill in their demographic details. There were less than ten such responses and we did not see any demographic difference between these and that of the other respondents.

Sample

The data was collected from management students and working executives. A request regarding the survey was sent to a sample of 1,600 people. The source adopted was online and printed questionnaires. A total of 900 e-mails and 700 printed requests for the survey were sent out of which 520 online responses and 580 printed responses amounting to a cumulative total of 1,100 responses were collected. After removal of inappropriate

cases based on unfilled responses against items or demographic data, the study sample was composed of 812 working and non-working people. For these cases, the empty responses were replaced by a value of 3. The sample consisted of 486 male (60%) with work experience; 322 (40%) respondents with prior work experience or who were still working. For the purpose of analysis, only those respondents with at least 12 months full-time experience were considered to have relevant work experience. The rest 490 respondents were considered in the non-work experience category.

The sample had adequate representation of the two genders. In terms of age, however, only 10 per cent of the respondents were above 30 years of age. Most of the respondents had Masters' degree as their current educational status. In terms of work experience too, merely 8 per cent of the respondents had a work experience of more than 5 years. The means and standard deviations of the different types of negotiating style are given in Table 5.

RESULTS

Item Total Correlation

In order to select closely associated items so as to increase the reliability of the scale, the correlation between the 79 items and their total was analysed, which resulted in 5 items having no significant item to total correlation. Consequently, these items were dropped and the remaining 74 items were subjected to exploratory factor analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

We used a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation with the Kaiser criterion to extract and truncate components from 74 items assessing responses to the questionnaire. In each analysis, all the items having a loading of 0.4 and above were retained, the rest were eliminated, and factor analysis was carried again with Varimax rotation to see the loadings of each item. This process was repeated till each remaining item loaded to a factor with a value of 0.4 and above and did not load on any other factor with a value higher than 0.4. Inspection of the components revealed that Component 1, which accounted for 28.12 per cent of the variance, comprised of items 23, 25, 26, 27, and 30 and was labeled as 'Aggressive Negotiating Style.' Component 2, which

Table 2: Rotated Component Matrix for NSM Items

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
VAR00001				0.765
VAR00002				0.770
VAR00003				0.699
VAR00004				0.611
VAR00005	0.518			
VAR00006	0.717			
VAR00007	0.773			
VAR00008	0.704			
VAR00009	0.553			
VAR00010		0.562		
VAR00011		0.696		
VAR00012		0.715		
VAR00013		0.689		
VAR00014		0.629		
VAR00015			0.604	
VAR00016			0.828	
VAR00017			0.784	
VAR00018			0.658	

accounted for 9.7 per cent of the variance, comprised of items 56, 57, 58, 59, and 60 and was labeled as 'Equitable Negotiating Style.' Component 3, which accounted for 8.7 per cent of the variance, comprised of items 61, 62, 63, and 75 and was labeled as 'Amicable Negotiating Style.' Component 4, which accounted for 6.6 per cent of the variance, comprised of items 1, 2, 3, and 4 and was labeled as 'Analytical Negotiating Style.' (See Table 2 for a summary of items and their factor loadings). These four components together accounted for 53.33 per cent of variance. Visual inspection of the scree plot also suggested retention of four components. As can be seen from Figure 1, the line straightens after the fourth factor.

Table 3 shows the correlation between the four factors of Negotiating Style. All the correlations were significant at 0.01 level.

## Table 3: Correlation Matrix for NSM Factors

	F1	F2	F3	F4
F1	1			
F2	0.37**	1		
F3	0.47**	0.42**	1	
F4	0.38**	0.31**	0.26**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Sampling Adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy had a value of 0.865 and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity was also significant which suggested the adequacy of the dataset to perform the principal component factor analysis.

Figure 1: Scree Plot for NSM Items
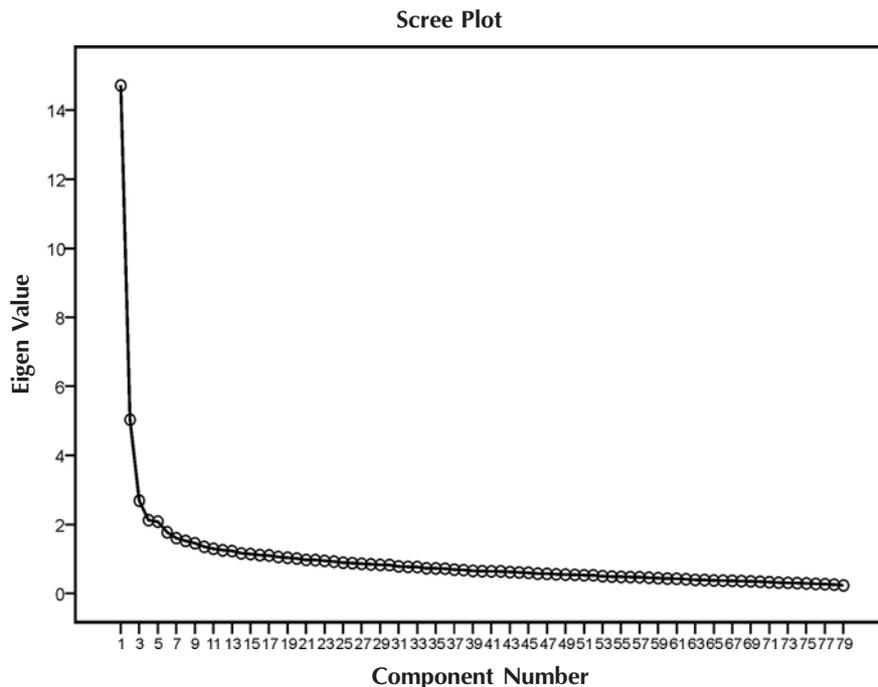
Reliability

The consistency of the measures was checked using Cronbach alpha values. The values for reliability of the overall scale and the various factors as well as the other measures are shown in Table 4. The NSM scale had a reliability of 0.845 while the Cellich and Jain scale had a reliability of 0.745. All factors of NSM scale had reliabilities of above 0.7. The analytical style had a reliability of 0.741 (represented as F1); the equitable style had 0.723 (represented as F2); the amicable style had the highest reliability at 0.765 (represented as F3); and the aggressive style had a reliability of 0.717 (represented as F4). On the other hand, only three factors of CJ scale had reliabilities above the threshold level. The dodgers had a reliability of 0.642 (represented as CJ1); the dreamers had highest reliability among the CJ factors at 0.664 (represented as CJ2); the hagglers had a low reliability which was below the threshold level at 0.519 (represented as CJ3); the competitors had a reliability of 0.610 (represented as CJ4), while the problem solvers too had a low reliability which again was below the threshold

level at 0.513 (represented as CJ5).

External Validity

The values for external validity as a measure of generalizability of the scale and the subscales are given in Table 5. The responses show good distribution of NSM and its factors since the mean and median are similar, skewness is less than 2, and kurtosis is less than 5. The Table also shows that the mean values for all constructs are significantly above zero.

Convergent Validity

Table 6 shows the correlation between NSM and its factors with CJ and its factors. For convergent validity, the factors of the scale including the scale itself should show moderate correlation with CJ and its factors. As required, both NSM and the four factors show significant correlation with CJ and its last four factors. However, the first factor of CJ has negative but significant correlation with NSM and its factors except the second factor.

Table 4: Reliability Assessment of the Construct

Scale/Factors	NSM	F1	F2	F3	F4	CJ	CJ1	CJ2	CJ3	CJ4	CJ5
Reliability	0.85	0.74	0.72	0.77	0.72	0.75	0.64	0.66	0.52	0.61	0.51

Table 5: Rotated Component Matrix

	NSM	F1	F2	F3	F4	CJ	CJ1	CJ2	CJ3	CJ4	CJ5
Valid Cases	812	812	812	812	812	812	812	812	812	812	812
Missing Cases	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	71.53	20.00	19.24	15.72	16.56	124.73	21.36	28.49	25.46	22.12	27.31
Median	71.0	20.0	19.0	16.0	17.0	124.5	21.0	29.0	26.0	22.0	27.00
Std. Deviation	8.28	3.12	2.99	2.77	2.49	11.67	4.56	3.72	3.41	4.17	3.74
Skewness	-0.39	-0.41	-0.36	-0.51	-0.99	0.16	-0.08	-0.50	-0.06	.11	1.01
Std. Error of Skewness	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.09
Kurtosis	0.60	-0.15	0.29	0.07	1.83	0.78	-0.20	0.22	0.02	-0.12	10.65
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17

Table 6: Correlation between NSM and its factors, and CJ and its factors

Construct	NSM	F1	F2	F3	F4
CJ	0.57**	0.36**	0.52**	0.45**	0.32**
CJ1	-0.18**	-0.29**	0.00	-0.13**	-0.11**
CJ2	0.64**	0.46**	0.53**	0.54**	0.32**
CJ3	0.58**	0.42**	0.51**	0.43**	0.31**
CJ4	0.17**	0.15**	0.11**	0.12**	0.12**
CJ5	0.65**	0.48**	0.52**	0.49**	0.40**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

DISCUSSION

The scale proposed by Cellich and Jain (2004) has five dimensions of negotiating style. These styles are those of dodgers, dreamers, hagglers, competitors, and problem solvers. Dodgers are those who do not enjoy negotiating and simply refuse to participate. Dreamers have a major goal of preserving the relationship even if it means giving unnecessary concessions. Hagglers are those with short-term result orientation and believing in give-and-take. Competitors enjoy conflict and are task-oriented with emphasis on winning most of the benefits. Problem solvers as negotiators are those who display creativity in finding mutually satisfying agreements with long-term orientation. Our understanding of the perceived need to negotiate is one's interest in ensuring a transaction. One's reluctance to negotiate may therefore be assumed to be an indication of perceived 'no gain' for oneself and therefore non-interest in concerns of the other party. Based on this assumption, one can think of a dodger style to be not concerned for others. Competitors, however, would ideally prefer win-lose agreements and therefore have low concern for others. Then it is plausible that the hagglers be next on the continuum with their willingness to lower their expectations given some benefits. Next would be the problem solvers with their win-win style, and then on the other extreme would be dreamers with their inclination to give unnecessary concessions. Based on this assumption, dodgers are expected to have negative relationship with those who are high on concern for others. The results support this assumption; particularly, dreamers and problem solvers have negative correlation with dodgers (see Table 7). The relationship with problem solvers is significant at 0.05 level. Perhaps, for the same reason, the correlation of dodgers with the NSM measure and its factors is negative.

From the analysis, there emerged four styles of negotiating by people. Only analytical style has a significant correlation with age, while analytical and aggressive styles have significant correlation with gender at 0.05 level (see Table 8). Analytical negotiating style is correlated significantly with the total work experience too. The significant correlation between analytical style and age is on the expected line, work experience moderating this relationship. The significant correlation between the two becomes non-significant when work experience is controlled (see Table 9). Similarly, the significant correlation between aggressive style and gender is in line with the literature. Education, however, is not correlated significantly with any of the negotiating styles.

Table 7: Correlation Matrix for CJ Factors

	CJ1	CJ2	CJ3	CJ4	CJ5
CJ1	1				
CJ2	-0.06	1			
CJ3	0.07*	0.49**	1		
CJ4	0.25**	0.05	0.30*	1	
CJ5	-0.07*	0.60**	0.51**	0.08*	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 8: Correlation between Gender and the NSM Factors

	NSM	Analytical	Amicable	Equitable	Aggressive
Gender	-0.043	-0.071*	-0.033	-0.016	-0.071*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 9: Correlation between Age and the NSM Factors when Controlled for Work Experience

	NSM	Analytical	Amicable	Equitable	Aggressive
Age	0.02	0.141**	-0.074	0.666	0.588
Controlled for Work Experience	0.004	0.071	-0.04	0.016	-0.026

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the results, a negotiator having an analytical style, does careful analyses, pays thorough attention to details, has a preference for hard facts and sound logic, and weighs all alternatives ahead of time. Such an individual has a clear picture of what he/she wants and all his analyses point to creating a situation that will facilitate in getting the desired objective.

The negotiator with an aggressive style likes accomplishment, takes advantage of opportunities, is quick to act and likes challenges, and is very active in coming up with new ideas. For such a negotiator, winning is more important than achieving a particular goal and it may not be surprising if the negotiator surpasses the target set for the goal.

Negotiators with an equitable style are characterized by their stress on mutual goal setting; they do not hesitate in asking for help from the other party; and they show concern and recognition of others' standards. They have the ability to tie proposals to common values of the two parties and they believe in emphasis on worthwhile causes. Therefore, those who are very interested in the process and stress on the underlying cause of achieving a goal rather than the goal itself, are characterized by equitable negotiation style type.

Finally, the negotiators with amicable style have the ability to sense how people are feeling and thinking; people see them as socially skilled and as sociable, and they have and display a personal charm. For this type of negotiators, maintaining relationship is more important than the espoused goal.

A style is considered appropriate if its use can result in effective solution formulation to a problem. Here our definition of the problem is in terms of the perceived need of the individual. We as individuals have the expectation of outcomes. Based on our earlier experiences, we select an approach of negotiation in order to achieve the outcome pertaining to our dominant need. For the types of need orientation of people, we have added self-orientation as another dimension to the three character orientations in terms of "result, rationale, and relationship orientation" (Nixon, 2005). For example, an individual may view the outcome in terms of relationship and may resort to amicable style of negotiating in order to satisfy the dominant need. Someone who concentrates on outcomes in terms of tangible results may adopt analytical style of negotiating. Similarly, one who concentrates on rationale would concentrate on equitable style of negotiating. Likewise, one who sees results in terms of gain exclusively for oneself would prefer concentrating on aggressive style of negotiating. However, the approach adopted by an individual may or may not yield the desired results. Research needs to be carried out to support these assertions.

CONCLUSION

Negotiating with people may very well be a source of stress for many of us. The stress may be on account of inability to interact with multiple, possibly conflicting, priorities of people. This frustration may often translate into physical illness, fatigue, and mental disorders that eventually may lead to excessive absenteeism, turnover, and decreased performance on the job. We believe that being aware of the source of error may reduce the level of stress; and acting proactively to reduce the conflict of priorities may lower it still further. The paper proposed treating negotiating style as a separate construct from negotiating ability and strategy in order to reduce the prevailing confusion regarding the construct. The results showed that the people in general adopt four distinctive styles of negotiating with one another: analytical, aggressive, equitable, and amicable.

The results of this paper can prove to be interesting for managers in a number of ways. First, an awareness of one's negotiating style would reveal the preferences of oneself in terms of what characteristics are important for oneself as a part of one's value system. This can be used by managers as a diagnostic tool to evaluate the extent to which one would like to have an attribute on a particular kind of negotiating style. Second, managers need to be aware of not only their own negotiating styles but also the styles of others with whom they negotiate for critical resources concerning their daily activities. This would help them in two ways. Firstly, it would reduce the stress level as one would get an understanding of why someone else' character is different from one's own character. Secondly, being aware of other's character would help in their attempts to bridge the gap between the two value systems. For example, if I know that my value system is result-oriented while that of my counterpart is rationale-oriented, I may orient my attempts at reaching the goal while following the process. The study perhaps is the first of its kind in the Indian context.

Even though every effort has been made to ensure the validity of our research findings, the results should be considered in the light of some limitations. First, around 90 per cent of the participants of this study are below the age of 30 years and a similar percentage of the respondents have a work experience of less than 5 years. Therefore, the analysis is not based on a representative sample. This could possibly have a bearing on the findings. Secondly, the measurement instrument for individual productivity is a self-reported scale. Hence, the results may actually point to the perceived negotiating style. We hope that future studies can adopt perception of others to further validate our findings. Also, the items pertaining to negotiating styles may vary from culture to culture; the tendencies under pressure for each style may also differ across cultures. Furthermore, our conceptualization of styles is not much different from the styles evolved earlier. This is possibly on account of our review being limited primarily to works on negotiation and negotiating styles. Hence future research on conceptualizing the construct would need to be integrated with other areas of research too.

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