Emerging Strategic Issues in Global Business Negotiation: Sharing Global Vision

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Abstract

In past two decades, Globalization has propelled the process of integration of national economy with the global economy through virtual removal of all conceivable forms trade barriers across geopolitical boundaries. This, in turn, has opened-up new vista of enormous trade opportunities for international trading players and partners for business expansion ventures through multilateral contracts, deals and negotiations in all sectors of economy. Hence, to move on with the fast-changing global economy the shape of things to come should be to embrace such of those negotiation policies and strategies that are most innovative, imaginative and challenging to overcome cross-cultural and geopolitical barriers as are often confronted with in dealing global businesses.

The paper highlights some of the important aspects that need to be carefully considered for entering into successful International business negotiation through sound processes. In global negotiation, cross-cultural issues figure prominently and largely determine the success or failures of negotiations, especially for joint-ventures. Several Negotiation process Models have been developed and tested with varying degrees of success; and yet many more are still evolving-wherein corporate experiences and modus operandi differ. Among other things, diplomacy and, corporate ethics should play a pivotal role for long-term sustainability of international negotiation. Best

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Alternative to Negotiated Agreement (BANA) can be successfully planned, tested, executed and delivered in the event the 'Breakthrough Negotiation' approach faces rough weather in reaching International Agreements. Cultural intelligence and proper analysis of geopolitical factors, especially those that are relevant to multilateral trade agreements under the WTO regime, can go a long way in averting overseas corporate failures in global business negotiations. The paper highlights these aspects.

Key words: Global Business, cross-cultural & geopolitical barrier, Cultural Intelligence, Negotiation process Models, BATNA, Break-through negotiation, Multilateral trade agreements

Introduction

Negotiation is conceived to be a process of interactions involving two individuals or groups reaching a joint agreement about differing needs or ideas. Negotiation can also be seen as a kind of social interaction for reaching an agreement for two or more parties with different objectives or interests that they think are important. In cross-cultural negotiation, the situations are more complicated because of different cultures, environments, communication styles, political systems, ideologies, traditions and customs. Negotiation applies knowledge from the fields of communications, sales, marketing, psychology, sociology, politics, economics, trade, and international businesses and even in conflict resolution. Whenever an economic transaction takes place or a dispute is settled, negotiation does occur. The Latin root of the word '*negotiatus'* means to "carry on business". In modern Spanish '*negocios*' means 'business'. A modern definition of negotiation is two or more parties with common and conflicting interests who enter into a process of interaction with the goal of reaching an agreement (preferably of mutual benefit). Negotiation, in practical term, is a decision-making process that provides opportunities for the parties to exchange commitments or promises through which they will resolve their disagreements and reach an amicable settlement. Successful negotiations generally result in some kind of exchange or promise being made by the negotiators to each other. The exchange may be tangible or intangible (http://www.au.af.mil/au/awc/awcgate/army/usace/negotiation.htm). In cross-cultural negotiation, the situations are more complicated because of different cultures, environments, communication styles, political systems, ideologies, and customs or protocols (Hoffmann, 2001; Mintu-Wimsatt & Gassenheimer, 2000)[1&2]

A business negotiation may be viewed as a formal affair that takes place across the proverbial bargaining table, in which one debates over price and performance or a complex term of partnership ventures. Given the role and significance of negotiations in our personal and professional lives it is increasingly becoming important to improve upon our negotiation skills to expand business horizons. Negotiations in the context of International business lie at the heart of international diplomacy. Parties (viz. governments, businesses, and non-governmental organizations) employ the art and science of negotiation to protect and advance their organizational and constituent interests. The skillful use of negotiation can advance a party's interests and help to avoid a less attractive alternative, e.g., trade wars, litigation, or protracted dispute settlement procedures under the WTO regime. International negotiations in the broad context of trade relations may include negotiations over prices, tariffs, and sales or qualitative negotiations over broad principles related to the environmental, labor, health, safety & environment, or other emerging disputes and impacts of trade related agreements.

Objective of the Paper

In this paper an attempt has been made to discuss and highlight the various types, processes and models of negotiation, together with barriers to negotiations in the International Business context. Factors affecting cross-cultural business communication and the role of cultural intelligence therein have also been dealt at some length. To give an exposure to application opportunities and limitations to using various negotiation modes to different business enterprises in hyper-competitive settings a selected number of illustrative corporate cases has been included in the paper to pinpoint effectiveness and of negotiation as a viable option to succeed in transacting international businesses in a vastly complex and competitive business world.

Major Elements of Negotiation

According to the Harvard negotiation project concept all negotiators have 'interests', 'power of bargaining' , and all negotiators have pre-planned and well thought-out 'strategies'. These three negotiation elements seemingly constitute the main fabric of business negotiation in most enterprises (Fisher, 2008)[3]. All negotiators have *interests, power* and all negotiators have *strategies to evolve and work through*. For the limited purpose, efforts may be focused on dealing with these three negotiation elements that are conceived to be the 'Core' areas to trigger a *negotiation process*. An understanding of the major elements of negotiation together with its concept is a necessary step to comprehend the negotiation process. But how the negotiation process operates in the cross-cultural context is still a puzzle for most of us and therefore our endeavor should be to use a comprehensive approach. *Negotiation* is the process whereby interested parties resolve disputes, agree upon courses of action, bargain for individual or collective advantage, and/or attempt to craft outcomes which serve their mutual interests. It is usually regarded as a form of *alternative dispute resolution*.

Negotiation Process

Various stages in the negotiation processes can be described as follows (Acuff, 1997)[4] : (1) orientation and fact-finding, (2) resistance, (3) reformulation of strategies, (4) hard bargaining and decision-making, (5) agreement, and (6) follow-up.. These six stages of the process should be approached differently depending on where the negotiators are positioned on the negotiation style continuum. Researchers at the Harvard University-Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Program on Negotiation (PON), among others, have developed an interest based theory of negotiation that has been presented in books such as Roger Fisher and William Ury's *Getting to Yes (1983)*[5], Howard Raiffa's *Negotiation Analysis (1983)*[6], and Lawrence Susskind and Jeffrey Cruikshank's *Breaking the Impasse (*http://www.flipkart.com/breaking-impasse-lawerence-susskind-lawrence/0465007503-vxw3fr3l9c*)*[7.] These different works all emphasize the importance of: i) distinguishing interests from positions; ii) exploring interests and issues; iii) developing options for mutual gain; iv) using criteria for allocating value that both sides can live with; and v) rigorous preparation that involves thinking through all sides' alternatives to agreement and all sides' interests.

Understanding Cultural Components affecting negotiation Process : Characterstics of culture:

Cultures around the world share four common characteristics: culture is shared, it is learned, it is based on symbols, and it is integrated. In order for the culture to be transmitted successfully from one person to the next, and from one generation to the next, a system of symbols needs to be created that translates the ideals of the culture to its members. This is accomplished through language, art, religion, and money. In order to keep the culture functional all aspects of the culture must be integrated. To identify a culture's core values, Walker and Walker outlined eight key cultural dimensions. First of all, each dimension needs to recognize an important aspect of social life. Secondly, each dimension needs to be something to which any socio-cultural environment gives its members a basic orientation as the shared rationale for behavior. Finally, each dimension has practical value to negotiators who need to reconcile, integrate, or transcend cultural difference in order to obtain a desired outcome. On the line of this core concept, cultural dimensions of negotiation may be categorized into following 8 classes: Individualism, Communication, Time, Action, Power distance, Structure, Thinking, and Environment. Each of these dimensions contains at least one cultural continuum. These dimensions provide us with a framework for understanding the characteristics of different cultures and for adapting our behaviors. Hendon *et al* (1996)[8] however, identified eight situational variables in the negotiating process that will lead to a better understanding of negotiating styles in the context of divergent culture: viz. purpose, issues, protocol, communications, arguments, trust, time, and decision-making.

Cross-cultural Negotiation Process

Negotiations, when taking place in an *international context*, consist of four major stages: non-task sounding (rapport); task-related exchange of information; persuasion, compromise; concession and agreement. Non-task sounding focuses on establishing a relationship among the negotiating parties. During this stage, the main aim of the parties is to get to know each other. Parties try to gather as much general information as possible on each other, such as the operating environment, the infrastructure, the involvement of other third parties, competitors, etc. Task-related exchange of information emphasizes on providing information directly related to the issues under negotiation. The parties who enter into this stage believe that they can work together to find a solution to a joint problem and reach an agreement that is of common interest and mutually beneficial. During this stage, each party explains its needs/ demands and expectations. It is, therefore, important that each party come to the negotiating table with an open mind and several plausible alternatives to try out. Persuasion focuses on trying to modify the other party's views and expectations and make them closer to one's own. A balance between firmness and flexibility is important at this stage. This stage of negotiation is often intertwined with other stages of negotiation. At pre-negotiation stage, this needs to be looked into and straightened up.

Ethnocentricity and Cross-cultural Negotiation

Problems in business communication conducted across cultures often arise when participants from one culture are unable to understand culturally determined differences in communication practices, traditions, and thought processing. At the most fundamental level, problems may occur when one or more of the people involved cling to an ethnocentric view of how to conduct business. Ethnocentrism is the belief that one's own cultural group is somehow innately superior to others. It is easy to say that ethnocentrism only affects the bigoted or those ignorant of other cultures, and so is unlikely to be a major factor in one's own business communication. Yet, difficulties due to a misunderstanding of elements in cross-cultural communication may affect even enlightened people. Ethnocentrism is deceptive precisely because members of any culture perceive their own behavior as logical, since that behavior works for them. In international business, questions arise regarding what is proper by which culture's values, what is wise by which culture's view of the world, and what is right by whose standards. Since no one individual is likely to recognize the subtle forms of ethnocentrism that shape who he or she is, international business practitioners must be especially careful in conducting business communication across cultures.

Impact of Culture on Business Negotiations

Cultural differences create a challenge to the negotiators involved, and demand understanding as well as flexibility. An ability to assess these differences and properly handle the consequences is essential for achieving success in international business negotiations. According to Hendon *et al*.(1996)[8] culture impacts negotiation in four ways: by conditioning one's perception of reality; by blocking out information inconsistent or unfamiliar with culturally grounded assumptions; by projecting meaning onto the other party's words and actions; and by impelling the ethnocentric observer to an incorrect attribution of motive. Negotiators bring to the negotiating table the values, beliefs and background interference of their own culture. These elements influence, without their awareness, their conceptualization of the negotiation process, the objectives they seek in the negotiation, the means they adopt to pursue their goals and the expectations they hold of the behaviors of their partners. Culture may vary according to national, organizational, regional, ethnic, religious, or linguistic affiliation, and by gender, generation, social class, and family levels (Aydin & Mclsaac, 2004)[9]. Reigle (2001)[10] defined that, 'culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.' Exploring these characteristics will help us understand why cultural differences exert such a great impact on international business negotiations, and thus help us adjust our mode of communication to the unique individual culture ambience in which we are negotiating with our counterparts

Negotiation Models

Various Negotiation Models are proposed by researchers in the field of business communication. Of these, *Hofstede's* and *Janosik's Cross-cultural Negotiation Model* provide the basic framework for negotiation in cultural context.

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

With the goal of helping individuals distinguish the various cultural differences of individual countries, Hofstede (1980)[11] introduced his seminal theory of four cultural dimensions based on his earlier qualitative, phenomenological studies. This theory identifies four major variables of cultural differences: power, uncertainty/ avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity (Hofstede, 1991)[12]. The major proposition is that cultural differences impact business conduct, decision making and communication; therefore, an increased cultural awareness is important for international managers. Over the past 20 years, the theory has been revised and adapted to address cross-cultural negotiations by Redpath and Nielson (Chang, 2003)[13]. This theory is socially significant addressing essential issues about cross cultures in the discipline of negotiation, and is useful in explaining, predicting, and discriminating among those people who have conducted international business abroad. Thus, it can be viewed at its best a well-developed guide to negotiation styles.

Janosik's Cross-cultural Negotiation Model

In 1987, Janosik introduced his seminal theory of cross-cultural negotiation research based on his qualitative, phenomenological studies about culture on negotiation. This theory identifies four major constructs, and the four approaches are (1) cultures as a learned behavior, (2) cultures as a system of shared values, (3) cultures as dialectic, and (4) culture in context defined as cross-cultural negotiation research (Janosik, 1991)[14.] The major propositions in this theory are no matter which approach is to be used, one of the main issues is how to understand individual variations in negotiation (Osman-Gani & Tan, 2002)[15]. Several empirical studies by Osman-Gani & Tan, led to refinement in the theory. Brett (2001)[16] developed a schematic model depicting these direct and indirect relationships among concepts, which continue to be, examined today (Osman-Gani & Tan, 2002)[15]. This theory is socially significant addressing essential issues about cross-cultural negotiation in the discipline of negotiation styles, and is useful in explaining, predicting, and discriminating among those with unfamiliar or different cultures demonstrating different negotiation styles.

Negotiation Process Models

The *Negotiation Process Model* originated from exchange theory which was created by Rubin and Brown (1997)[17] in 1975 (Peterson & Lucas, 2001)[18.] The exchange theory is divided into three stages: the antecedent stage, the concurrent stage, and the consequent stage. The exchange theory was revised to the negotiation process model by Graham. In 1986, Graham introduced his seminal theory of the negotiation process model based on his qualitative, phenomenological studies about negotiation (Graham, 1985)[19]. This theory identifies three major constructs: negotiator characteristics and situational variables, process variables, and outcome phases. The major propositions in this theory based on the pre-negotiation planning and preparing phase are linked to the negotiators characteristics such as gender, age, experiences in negotiation, and education and situation constraints like competitive or collaborative negotiation. The theory has been adapted to gender differences in negotiation outcome situations in America and Canada populations.

Dual Concern Model

The Dual Concern Model was originated from the Managerial Grid which was created by Blake and Mouton in 1964 (Dual Concern Model -
http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p_mla_apa_research_citation/0/9/2/

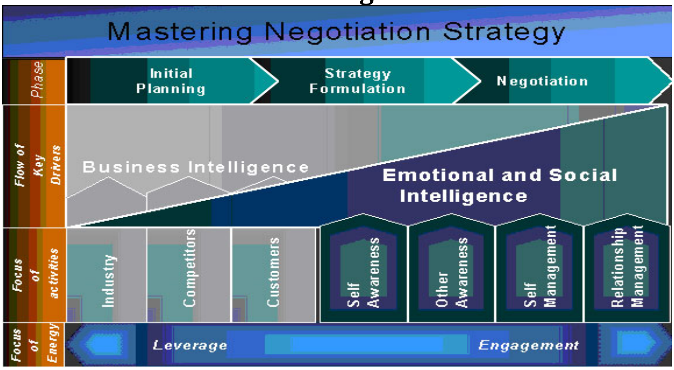
6/8/p92686_index.html). The Managerial Grid is a behavioral theory of management that considers two dimensions of leadership: concern for the task and concern for the relationship (Chang, 2003)[13.] In 1964, Blake and Mouton introduced their seminal theory of based on the qualitative, phenomenological studies about the Dual Concern Model (Chang, 2003)[13]. This model consists of five conflict solution styles along with two dimensions. The two dimensions is to concern for own interests and concern for other's interests. These five styles of conflict resolution are: withdrawing, accommodating, demanding, collaborating, & compromising.

Social Engagement Skills to deal with Multicultural complexities

Social engagement skills or emotional and social intelligence (ESI) are required in addition to strategic planning if negotiators ever wish to elevate their prospects of success in an increasingly diverse economic environment. A good plan is only as good as the ability to style switching, influence and collaborate with others in a multicultural negotiation. Today's complex markets have created progressively more demand for rigorous insight and cross-cultural social skills in order to problem solve creatively and create sustainable agreements. A successful organizational or individual negotiation plan can only be achieved when there is an integrated approach of analytical, psychological and social insights and skills. Thunderbird's negotiation program combines preeminent frameworks from the research fields of business, cultural, social and emotional intelligence — including the latest developments in neuroscience. The Thunderbird International School of Management, in their Executive training programmes has developed a training Module encompassing a broad framework that have been tested through practical application by working with hundreds of executives and companies, as summed up below in Fig 1. The Business Group strives to consult with companies to develop plans and processes that provide negotiators with clarity on their strategic planning and cross-cultural practices that are pertinent in today global context.

(http://knowledgenetwork.thunderbird.edu/research/2009/03/04/negotiation/).

Fig. 1: Mastering Negotiation Strategy with focus on Business, Emotional and Social Intelligence



Negotiating Tactics

In 1964, Giles indicated that Sun Tzu, a Chinese military strategist, wrote in *The Art of War*, "to fight and conquer in all your battles is not supreme excellence; supreme excellence consists in breaking the enemy's resistance without fighting" (Peterson, Lucas, 2001)[18.] In 1985, Wall indicated that negotiators should contrive general strategies that drive the specific tactics they will deploy (Peterson & Lucas, 2001)[18.] Negotiating tactics can be classified as "competitive or cooperative or as “distributive or integrative". Competitive negotiation tactics is based on the assumption of a zero-sum or a win-lose philosophy like distributive negotiation tactics (Peterson & Lucas, 2001)[18]. Cooperative negotiation tactics are a concept of win-win philosophy like integrative tactics (Manning & Robertson, 2003)[20]. In 1991, Fisher, and in 1981, Pruitt indicated integrative negotiation concerns for maximizing one’s outcomes and the other party's outcomes (Cai, Wilson & Drake, 2000)[20]. Business activity on the Internet is currently limited to publicizing the business opportunity and catalog based sales, but it will rapidly expand to include the negotiations conducted to settle the price of the goods or commodities being traded. Trading on the Internet allows a business to reach a larger number of potential customers and suppliers in a shorter time and a lower cost than possible by other modes of communication, and to settle business transactions with lower cost overhead in a shorter time. Hence the emergence of Internet based trading applications is imminent (Lee, 1996. 1998)[21]**.**

Role of Diplomacy in International Negotiation

International negotiation occurs all the time mostly between governments. It also happens between individuals and companies, where the traps and tricks of cross-border negotiation can ensnare even the most experienced home-country negotiators. International negotiation is often not just between individual people, but between large delegations, each of which is well organized and where every person has specialized and skill-oriented work. Good international negotiators are very smooth and practiced in meticulously planned manner to ensure that the concerned parties are extremely well informed not only about national cultures but also about the very individual perceptions of the people on the others side. International negotiation often happens between many countries at the same time, especially involving MNC operations, setting up overseas strategic business units, export-oriented units, strategic alliances, merger & acquisitions etc. These may even snowball together into economic blocs (such as the European Union, SAFTA, NAFTA, GCC etc) or develop shorter-term strategic alliances, such as where smaller countries conglomerating (e.g. Non-OPEC) together to confront a dominant larger nations (e.g. OPEC, OECD, G-8 Nations etc). Such collective negotiations are often as much the unison of convenience as the joint action of true allies. Diplomacy and tactics play a major role in such International level negotiations that generally takes place through business delegations

Factors influencing Cross-cultural Negotiations

The following factors are considered to be important in the International business negotiations involving various cross-cultural issues (Hofstede, 1980)[11]:

*Negotiating Goal and Basic Concept***:** How is the negotiation being seen? Is mutual satisfaction the real purpose of the meeting? Do we have to compete? Do they want to win? Different cultures stress different aspects of negotiation. The goal of business negotiation may be a substantive outcome (Americans) or a long-lasting relationship (Japanese).

Protocol: There are as many kinds of business etiquette as there are nations in the world. Protocol factors that should be considered are dress codes, number of negotiators, entertainment, degree of formality, gift giving, meeting and greeting, etc.

Communications: Verbal and non-verbal communication is a key factor of persuasion. The way we express our needs and feelings using body language and tone of voice can determine the way the other side perceives us, and in fact positively or negatively contributes to our credibility. Another aspect of communication relevant to negotiation is the direct or indirect approach to exchanging information.

Risk-Taking Propensity - Uncertainty Avoidance: There is always risk involved in negotiations. The final outcome is unknown when the negotiations commence. The most common dilemma is related to personal relations between counterparts: Should we trust them? Will they trust us? Certain cultures are more risk averse than others, e.g. Japan (Hofstede, 1991)[12]. It means that less innovative and creative alternatives are available to pursue during the negotiation, unless there is a strong trust-based relationship between the counterparts.

View of Time: In some cultures time is money and something to be used wisely. Punctuality and agenda may be an important aspect of negotiation. In countries such as China or Japan, being late would be taken as an insult. Consider investing more time in the negotiating process in Japan. The main goal when negotiating with an oriental counterpart is to establish a firm relationship, which takes time.

Decision-Making System: The way members of the other negotiating team reach a decision may give us a hint: who we shall focus on providing our presentation. When negotiating with a team, it's crucial to identify who is the leader and who has the authority to make a decision.

Form of Agreement: In most cultures, only written agreements stamp a deal. It seems to be the best way to secure our interests in case of any unexpected circumstances. The 'deal' may be the contract itself or the relationship between the parties, like in China, where a contract is likely to be in the form of general principles. In this case, if any unexpected circumstances arise, parties prefer to focus on the relationship than the contract to solve the problem.

Power Distance: This refers to the acceptance of authority differences between people. Cultures with low *power distance* postulate equality among people, and focus more on earned status than ascribed status. Negotiators from countries like Britain, Germany and Austria tend to be comfortable with shared authority and democratic structures. When we face a high *power distance* culture, be prepared for hierarchical structures and clear authority figures.

Personal Style: Our individual attitude towards the other side and biases which we sometimes establish all determine our assumptions that may lead the negotiation process towards win-win or win-lose solutions. In some cultures, like America, an informal style may help to create friendly relationships and accelerate the problem solving solution. In China, by comparison, an informal approach is proper only when the relationship is firm and sealed with trust.

Coping with Culture: Negotiation in the international business environment is a huge challenge for any negotiator. How do we cope with the cultural differences? What approach is more efficient and proper when dealing with the Chinese, Japanese, Americans or Germans?

These are some of the basic issues we need to address before entering into any International business negotiation, involving various cross-cutting cross-cultural issues.

Negotiation Performance Analysis

Negotiation analysis is a must to be able to take follow-ups in negotiation progressions and as such, can be characterized as an approach, which builds on the theory of games, decision analysis and behavioral decision theory, but departs from some of their analytic rigor and formal argumentation in order to pursue a broader scope of application and increased practical value (Sebenius, 1992)[22]. Game theory provides a logically consistent framework for analyzing interdependent decision-making. In game theoretic analyses, the parties make their decisions independently of each other, but these separate choices interact to determine a payoff for each side (Fisher *et al*, 1991; Raiffa *et al*, 2002)[23&24]. Game theory proceeds by applying standard utility axioms to abstract the interests of the parties into utility functions. An expected utility criterion is used to rank alternative courses of action. Full descriptions of the courses of action that can be taken by each party are encapsulated into "strategies." Rigorous analysis of the interaction of the strategies leads to search for "equilibria" or complete campaigns of action such that each party, given the choices of the other parties, has no incentive to change its plans. Decision analysis is the systematic decomposition and clarification of a decision problem. Decision analysis studies independent decision-making, where the payoffs of decisions are not affected by the decisions of other involved parties, anticipating one's actions (Raiffa *et al*, 2002,)[23.] It proceeds by structuring and sequencing the party's choices and chance events, then separating and subjectively assessing probabilities and values, as well as risk and time preferences.

An international business negotiation is defined as the deliberate interaction of two or more social units, originating from different nations that are attempting to define or redefine their interdependence in a business matter. This includes: company-company, company-government, and solely interpersonal interactions over business matters such as sales, licensing, joint ventures, and acquisitions (Weiss, 1993)[25]. Generally, the process of negotiation consists of three different negotiation stages including the pre-, actual negotiation, and post- stages (Ghauri, 1996)[26]. The effective flow of the negotiation process can determine the success of a negotiation. The pre-negotiation stage, which involves the preparation and planning, is the most important step in negotiation (Ghauri, 1996)[26]. It sets the foundation for the process negotiating (Lewicki *et al.* 1994)[27]. It consists of interactions, such as building trust and relationships, and the task-related behaviors which focus on the preferences related to various alternatives (Graham & Sano 1989, Simintiras & Thomas 1998)[28&29]. In brief, the first stage of negotiation emphasizes getting to know each other, identifying the issues, and preparing for the negotiation process.

Negotiation Outcomes and Performance Analysis

The cultural aspects related to outcomes are considered in this section. A negotiation outcome is the result of the interaction with the partners (Thompson, 1998)[30]. Salaclause (1996)[31] identified ten outcome orientations that vary among different cultures. These include partnership, contract, profit, winning, and the time expectations of the negotiation. Specific cultures prefer a certain outcome orientation. For example, Chinese, Korean, and Japanese negotiators look for a relationship and an integrative approach rather than a distributive solution whereas American negotiators emphasized contracts and are concerned less with a win-win settlement (Zhao, 2000)[32]. Americans consider a signed contract as a definitive set of requirements that strictly binds the two sides and determines their interaction. Japanese and Chinese negotiators often consider a relationship as the appropriate result of the process, not a signed contract (Salacuse 1998)[32]. Successful negotiation does not necessarily end up with the attainment of an agreement (Ertel, 1999)[33.] Along with the completion of a contract, and the settlement of substantive issues, negotiators also consider the intangible aspects of negotiated outcomes, including overall satisfaction, status of the relationship, and the level of commitment (Savage *et al*, 1989)[34]. Negotiators may achieve a good deal but fail to sustain the relationship or develop positive feelings with their counterpart. In such a case, the negotiation can be considered successful if the agreement is the first priority.

Cultural Value on International Business Negotiation Process

The essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and values. Cultural systems may be considered as products of action, or as conditioning further action (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952)[35]. Culture provides the context for negotiation because it takes place within the framework of a culture's institutions and is influenced by its norms and values. Culture is a key factor affecting negotiation processes and outcomes (Brett *et a*l., 1998)[36]. According to Salacuse (1998)[31,] negotiation practices differ from culture to culture. Culture provides the “negotiating style” – the way persons from different cultures conduct themselves in negotiating activities. Culture determines the way people perceive and approach the negotiating process. They have specific perspectives on power, time, risk, communication, and complexity. Individualist negotiators tend to engage in coercive or competitive behavior and arguments whereas collectivist negotiators emphasize relationships and problem solving (Heydenfeldt, 2000)[44]. The specific theories which identify the impacts of culture on the international business negotiation process are synthesized and compared. Most of these studies have only focused on one aspect of the process. Table 1 presents a synthesis of these impacts corresponding to the International Business Negotiation processes across different cultures.

Table 1: Cultural Value on International Business Negotiation Process

International Business Negotiation Process	**Impact of Cultures**
Goal	Thai, Chinese, and Japanese negotiators value long-term relationships. Western negotiators aim at signing a contract.
Protocol	The degree of formality in a negotiation can vary from culture to culture. Thais value etiquette and respectful manners. English and German negotiators are very formal and highly concerned with proper protocol.
Communication	Thais tend to speak softly and use almost no gestures, and prefer indirect language. Americans are direct and prefer a straightforward presentation with a minimum of game playing.

Time	Americans are sensitive to time. They view it as a limited resource that must not be wasted. Japanese regard time as long duration, spending time to learn counterparts. Thais have a very relaxed attitude to time and scheduling
Risk propensity	Japanese prefer predictable situations, being strict to the rules. Thais are more flexible to the rules, and accepting changes.
Groups versus individuals	In decision making, a more collective culture places emphasis on group priority. An individual-oriented culture is more independent and assertive. Thai culture is group-oriented, but hierarchical; decisions are made by the top managers. Japanese negotiators rely on consensus.
Nature of agreements	Thais generally respect contracts, but personal commitment has more value. Germans are detail-oriented and prefer specific provisions.

Sources: Gesteland, 2002; Brett 2001, Hendon, 2001; Lewicki *et al*. 1999; Salacuse, 1998; Wise 1997, Usunier 1996, and Weiss, 1994.

As presented in Table 1, the cultural differences consistently influence international business negotiations. This indicates that even though some universal characteristics of international business negotiation are generally recognized, negotiators from specific cultures view negotiations as a particular style. Negotiators from a high uncertainty avoidance culture seek more information; require more clarification and explanation of issues. The last dimension relates to the differences between the short-term and long-term orientation. Partners with short-term orientation expect quick results and can be influenced by time pressure. Counterparts with long-time orientation adapt traditions to a modern context and value the necessity to establish a relationship. Hofstede's dimensions consider national culture as a static but consistent paradigm. At the interpersonal level such as in negotiation this paradigm is the context for dialogue in which the national culture acts of each partners sets as a filter (Jensen, 2004)[37].

Regulatory Regime of International Trade affecting Negotiation Process

Examples of international trade agreements and economic treaties are World Trade Organization (WTO) and North American Free Trade Association (NAFTA). In essence, these agreements replace national law in economy, and it is the highest value to keep free markets in goods and services, and is leading to significant deregulation (Wagenaar, 2004)[38]. Under the WTO agreements, every member has same rights and obligations, and must abide by the agreements because every WTO member is treated equally. WTO Dispute Settlement Mechanism, a key role to provide security and predictability to multi-nations trade, is to resolve trade dispute and has jurisdiction among members. Before Taiwan and Mainland China are one of the members of WTO, they adopt their own laws and policies to govern international trade. After they entered the WTO, they must review and adjust their laws and regulations to meet WTO requirements. In 1994, the WTO was established to establish multilateral trade agreements, including the GATT. The WTO Agreement made the GATT's substantive provisions more enforceable by requiring WTO members to have their domestic laws conform to the Agreement, and by establishing regulations for resolving trade disputes (Girouard, 2003)[39]. WTO agreements include services, procurement, standards, anti-dumping and intellectual property (Hoekman & Mavroidis, 2003)[40].

In 2001, the WTO formally approved Taiwan and Mainland China for membership into the WTO at the ministerial conference. Between Mainland China and Taiwan, both countries will be forced to adopt WTO rules that all members must treat each other's goods and services equally. The entry of Taiwan and Mainland China into the WTO will speed up market liberalization, lower prices, stimulate their economies and ultimately benefit all consumers who live in Taiwan and Mainland China (Boyar ski, Fishman, Jopsephberg, Linn, 2002)[41].

International Free-Trade Negotiations

In international trade, all countries strive to reach a contradictory goal. They would like to foster their exports in order to maximize income and profits for their business and industry and earn foreign exchange to strengthen their economy, while at the same time impose restrictions and tariffs to prevent other countries from exporting to them. Free-Trade negotiations try to merge these two interests. Free trade negotiations between nations occur on a global scale around the year, and free trade agreements have been established between trading nations to achieve some compromises in this arena. Free trade negotiations involve concessions in some of these areas in order to achieve a balance and arrive at fair agreements. Here is an example of free trade negotiations at work. In 2005, the European Union has a maximum ceiling of $19.1billion and the United States a maximum ceiling of $75billion to spend on farm subsidies to protect their agricultural industries. As part of the Doha trade negotiations in October, 2005, the United States offered to lower their ceiling by 60% if the European Union cut theirs by 80%. (The Economist, October 15, 2005).[42] Of course, further rounds of negotiations will have taken place and a compromise would have agreed upon, as each nation tries to give as little as possible and get as much as possible to protect its interests.

Bilateral Trade Negotiations Theory

Negotiation or bargaining is a form of strategic interaction that can often be better understood by so-called game-theoretic models that have become very popular in economic theory since the publication of Jon von Neumann and Morgenstern's (1944)[43] *Theory of Games and Economic Behavior*. However, this approach has had as yet surprisingly little application to the issue of how countries decide unilaterally or multilaterally about admitting foreign citizens to become residents of their own territory. Luterbacher and Theler (1994)[44] applied a game theoretical model to analyze the decisions made by governments on restricting migration, taking into account possible tradeoffs and effects on other countries. Luterbacher and

Theler considered the standard case of production by means of labour and capital inputs. They consider two stylized countries, one from the North and the other from the South. Both countries aim to maximize their own welfare. The North's welfare is positively affected by its GDP and by revenue from capital exported to the South; and negatively affected by remittances of Southern immigrants, and by these immigrants becoming too numerous (due to declining wages and diminishing social cohesion). The South is likewise positively affected by its own GDP, and also by the inflow of remittances, but negatively by the payments to capital owned by the North, by the presence of too many North-owned firms and by too much unemployment.

Mandates for formal WTO negotiations are often fought over bitterly by governments, since they set the parameters for the final results. These mandates can end up laced with compromise language that conceals unresolved differences at the time a Round is launched, and when these surface further down the road, as inevitably they do, they risk bringing the negotiations to a halt while they are sorted out. The mandate for the Trade Facilitation negotiations is refreshingly clear and straightforward. It sets out three objectives (Elgin, 2008).[45]

• to clarify and improve GATT rules on the movement, release, and clearance of goods, including
goods in transit, with the aim of reducing the transaction costs of trade;

• to develop special provisions for developing countries and least-developed countries (LDCs) and provide them with technical assistance and capacity building support that will help them to implement better trade facilitation policies and practices; and

• to improve communication and cooperation between the customs authorities of WTO Members.

The most important target of these negotiations is to assist developing countries and LDCs to implement trade facilitation reforms and to adopt better practices that will enable them to move goods across their borders more efficiently than they do today.

Global Business Negotiations: A Sectoral Review

If we happen to scan global business scene, we find that negotiations do take place in most of emerging sectors of the vastly differentiated and transforming global economy; viz. joint ventures, oil & gas, energy, infrastructure, environment, airlines, defense deal etc. This can also form an integral part of the negotiation processes linked to economic regions, across countries, or companies. In many instances, this can also be a part of the growth as well as competitive strategy; especially of the MNCs. The following paragraphs provide some selected exposure to the readers about some illustrative cases of business negotiations at the International levels, the modalities in which negotiation processes were conducted together with issues addressed and resolved through negotiations etc. to help learning lessons therefrom.

1. Negotiations in International Joint Ventures

What appears to be a logical development from a strong domestic market for an organization’s products, in turn produces a host of questions that complicate what starts out as a straightforward decision. Among these questions is that of how the organization is going to give effect to the decision to market beyond current boundaries. One answer could be to form a joint venture (JV) with another company already located in the target market. This is where strategic negotiators ought to have some exposure to what is involved in a JV and what to look out for. A joint-venture is considered to be international if at least one of the parents has its headquarters outside the joint venture’s country of operation (Beamish, 1988)[46]. They are also considered international if the joint venture itself has a significant level of operation in a number of countries (Geringer & Hebert, 1989)[47]**.** The issue of control in international joint ventures often speaks to the great difficulties facing the potential partners. The fact that the venture is jointly owned/managed means that issues of who controls what, and who controls International Joint-Venture Negotiations when, remain at the heart of the arrangement (Auster, 1987)[48]**.**

Whenever there are two or more owners and/or two or more managers, questions of control become paramount. Moreover, with those control issues comes the issue of conflict. The criticism most often levelled at international joint ventures is the concern over control as well as the regulatory aspects of the venture. The loss or dilution of managerial control by joint venture partners seems to stem from unfounded fears largely arising out of cross-cultural differences; and even partly due to differences in corporate culture and corporate governance philosophies of two partners brought into joint venture propositions. Killing (1982)[49] argued that parties to the joint venture need to strike a balance of power and control amongst all players. Joint venture partners need to determine the level of control they require to feel at ease in the partnership. They also need to determine how much control is needed to accomplish the joint venture firm's assigned or perceived goals. Finally, joint venture partners have to decide how they will acquire the control they require.

Following closely behind the desire for greater control is the issue of inter-firm conflict. As one partner attempts to exert more control, conflict naturally arises. From the work of Parkhe (1993)[50]**,** one sees that there are two main areas from which conflict can emerge: diversity between firms and opportunistic behaviour of the partners. Intra-firm diversity can be a source of competitive advantage and, at the same time, a source of divisive behaviour within the firm and between the joint venture partners. According to Adler (1991)[51], diversity in the top management team can lead to the development of a competitive advantage for the firm. Diverse teams enhance creativity through a wider range of perspectives, encourage concentration to understand others' ideas, and develop better problem definitions and more alternatives, which lead to better solutions. At the same time diversity in the group can cause a lack of cohesion, which in turn causes the group to be unable to gain consensus on decisions when necessary, which leads to decreased efficiency and effectiveness (Katz, Goldstone & Benjamin, 1958)[52`].

Emissions Reduction Negotiations: Emerging Issues

Climate change is today widely recognized as one of mankind's greatest challenges in the 21st century. If left unchecked, climate change can seriously harm economies, societies and eco-systems all around the world, especially in developing countries. Climate change is not restricted to national boundaries. Fighting it therefore only makes sense through concerted action on the international level. To this end the international community adopted the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCC) at the historical Earth Summit in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro. In December 1997, an agreement was reached to add the Kyoto Protocol to the Convention. The Kyoto Protocol includes binding emission reduction targets for developed countries for the period 2008-2012. The year 2007 brought again new momentum. In spring the Intergovernmental Panel of Climate Change (IPCC), the leading body to review climate change science, published its Fourth Assessment Report. The report gave a clear signal that climate change is happening and accelerating, that much of it is caused by the continued and increasing emissions of greenhouse gases from human activities and that it can have severe impacts. The aim of the UN climate change convention, which was held in Copenhagen in December 2009, is to conclude negotiations on a wide-ranging, post-December 2012 climate protection convention. That was what the international community agreed at the Bali Conference on Climate Change in 2007 when it adopted what has become known as the Bali Roadmap. The convention will come into force in 2013, following directly from the first commitment period in the Kyoto Protocol.

Iran's Foreign Policy and the Iran-Pakistan-India Gas Pipeline

Holding approximately 9 percent of the world's total reserves, Iran is OPEC's second largest producer of oil. Along with oil reserves, Iran contains the world's second largest natural gas reserves "at an estimated 812 trillion cubic feet (Tcf)". While Iranian natural gas consumption is high, the country desperately needs to promote export markets for gas due to its faltering economy and to meet the demands of modernization. To meet these demands, Iran has targeted emerging regional markets like South Asia for natural gas exports. Iran has proposed the export of natural gas from Iran to India since 1993. The

Iran–Pakistan–India gas pipeline, also known as the *IPI pipeline* or the *Peace pipeline*, is a proposed 2,775-kilometre (1,724 mi) pipeline to deliver natural gas from Iran to Pakistan and India. In April 2008 Iran expressed interest in the People's Republic of China's participation in the project. The project is expected to greatly benefit India and Pakistan, which do not have sufficient Natural gas to meet their increasing domestic demand for energy. India is predicted to require 146 billion cubic meters (bcm) of gas per annum by 2025, up from 33 bcm per annum in 2005 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Iran%E2%80%93Pakistan%E2%80%93India_gas_pipeline).

Indo-US Nuclear Deal

The *Indo-U.S. civilian nuclear agreement***,** known also as the Indo-U.S. nuclear deal, refers to a bilateral accord on civil nuclear cooperation between the United States of America and the Republic of India. The framework for this agreement was a July 18, 2005 joint statement by Indian Prime Minister Manmohan Singh and then U.S. President George W. Bush, under which India agreed to separate its civil and military nuclear facilities and place all its civil nuclear facilities under International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) safeguards and, in exchange, the United States agreed to work toward *full* civil nuclear cooperation with India. This U.S.-India deal took more than three years to come to fruition as it had to go through several complex stages, including amendment of U.S. domestic law, a civil-military nuclear *Separation Plan* in India, an India-IAEA safeguards (inspections) agreement and the grant of an exemption for India by the Nuclear Suppliers Group, an export-control cartel that had been formed mainly in response to India's first nuclear test in 1974. In its final shape, the deal places under permanent safeguards those nuclear facilities that India has identified as "civil" and permits broad civil nuclear cooperation, while excluding the transfer of "sensitive" equipment and technologies, including civil enrichment and reprocessing items even under IAEA safeguards. On August 18, 2008 the IAEA Board of Governors approved and on February 2, 2009, India signed an India-specific safeguards agreement with the IAEA. Once India brings this

agreement into force, inspections will begin in a phased manner on the 35 civilian nuclear installations India has identified in its Separation Plan
(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indo-US_civilian_nuclear_agreement)

Production Sharing Contract (PSC) and Mode of Negotiations:
(a) A case of Bangladesh

Production Sharing Contract (PSC) is an agreement between the parties to a well and a host country regarding the percentage of production each party will receive after the participating parties have recovered a specified amount of costs and expenses (http://www.glossary.oilfield.slb.com/Display.cfm?Term=production%20sharing%20contract).

Production Sharing Contract (PSC) - a special agreement between the government of Bangladesh and foreign contractors signed mainly for petroleum exploration and development in the country. Under the Bangladesh Petroleum Act 1974, the government owns all mineral resources including petroleum within the territory, continental shelf and economic zone of the country and has the exclusive right and authority to explore, develop, exploit, process, refine and market petroleum resources. The government has also the exclusive right under the act to enter into petroleum agreements with any person for the purpose of any petroleum operations. On behalf of the government, the PETROBANGLA exercises the rights and powers to explore, develop, process and market petroleum and also to enter into petroleum agreements with any person/company for these purposes.

Production Sharing Contract (PSC):
(b) A Case of Cheveron Corporation

Cheveron Corporation's main Chinese subsidiary signs 30-year production sharing contract with China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC) for development of Chuandongbei natural gas area in China. Chevron will take over the role of operator and will hold a 49 percent participating interest and CNCP will hold a 51 percent interest in the project. The Chuandongbei gas development area - which includes the Tieshanpo, Dukouhe-Qilibei and Luojiazhai gas fields - covers nearly 2,000 square kilometres in the Sichuan province and has an estimated resource base of 5 trillion cubic feet of natural gas (http://www.energydigital.com/Chevron--CNPC-to-sign-product-sharing-contract-to-develop-Chuandongbei-gas-project_4391.aspx).

Production Sharing Contract

(c) The Krishna-Godavari (KG) Basin Negotiation issue

As the name implies, this refers to the area broadly enclosed by the deltaic basins of the two major rivers in Andhra Pradesh Krishna and Godavari. It includes part of the Bay of Bengal into which these rivers drain. The area has been identified as one of India's biggest oil and gas fields, several times the size of Bombay High. Onland, the KG basin has an area of about 28,000 sq km, while the offshore area is estimated at 21,000 sq km till a depth of 200m and another 18,000 sq km between 200m and 3000m (http://journal.shankarananth.com/?p=167).

International Airline alliances: Code-Sharing Contract

From January 1992 to June 1995, the number of code-sharing alliances between US and foreign airlines more than tripled, increasing from 19 to 65. Code-sharing alliances can generate large gains for airline partners in terms of added passengers and revenues. Besides, the overall scope of a code-sharing arrangement, a critical ingredient for successful alliances to be the degree of integration achieved by the airlines in operations and marketing. In addition, it has been observed that the gains achieved through alliances are largely zero-sum in that they come at the expense of competing airlines. However, it is likely that at least some of the gains come from new traffic stimulated by increased competition among alliances and between alliances and other airlines. International airline alliances allow airlines to coordinate their operations in providing international service. *Code sharing or Code-share* is an aviation business term which was first coined in 1989 (first flights operated in 1990) by Qantas Airways and American Airlines (Financial Review-November 21, 1989). Air Malta started to share capacity with Alitalia on flights between Catania and Malta. The flight was operated with Alitalia equipment and crew, however it carried a flight number for one of the airlines, enabling both airlines to sell seats on the same flight as a connecting flight creating what is now known as an interline agreement. Whilst maintaining competition, to an extent, it eliminated destructive competition which makes thin routes unfeasible (Jan K. Brueckner-http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Codeshare_agreement). Under a code sharing agreement, the airline that actually operates the flight (the one providing the plane, the crew and the ground handling services) is called the *operating carrier*. The company or companies that sell tickets for that flight but do not actually operate it are called *marketing carriers* or validating carriers. Some illustrative US code sharing partners are as follows: Aero California (Mexico), Air Liberte (France), Air Pacific (Fiji), Asiana (Korea), British Midland (Belgium, Germany, Netherlands, United Kingdom), Canadian, China Airlines (Taiwan), China Eastern (Mainland China), Gulf Air (Bahrain, Oman, Qatar, United Arab Emirates), Iberia (Spain), LOT Polish (Poland), Qantas (Australia, New Zealand), Singapore Airlines, South African Airways, TACA Group (Central America), TAM-Brazil.

Negotiating International Strategic Alliances: Building Lasting Agreements

Negotiating Strategic Alliances

When seeking distribution agreements, joint ventures or merger/acquisitions, organizations may think about engaging in negotiations to establish strategic alliances to achieve their organizational goals. People seek negotiating with others to be better off and to create value. The challenge organizations face deals with the way we approach negotiations.

If we see it as an exchange of concessions, we might leave value on the negotiating table. But, if we see negotiations as continuous talks, an ongoing dialogue to reach a shared understanding of the parties' interests and jointly design a negotiation process, we might reach mutually beneficial outcomes and lasting agreements (Luis E. Ore-
http://www.mediate.com/acrcommercial/docs/Negotiating%20Int'l%20Strategic%20Alliances%20Ore%20Article%20IF%20Aug09.pdf).

Strategic alliances mainly involve organizations and how the effects of their negotiations will affect organizational members, who will have to implement any reached agreement. Organizational members have diverse interests; personal and organizational interests. When planning to engage in any strategic alliance negotiation, organizational members are likely to assume they have to reach an agreement on some instructions that reflects a position on what the negotiator or negotiating team will demand or the minimum they will accept to commit. Beyond this positional bargaining approach, engaging in internal negotiations with an interest-based approach can lead to more flexible and manageable instructions and mandates to negotiate strategic alliances with others. This strategic tool can also facilitate external negotiations and good-faith efforts to jointly explore interests and create potential options to address those interests with the other party. Negotiators need to be unconditionally constructive in order to foster a positive working relationship that: (i) creates a positive environment to develop effective communication; (ii) understands and recognizes the interests of diverse stakeholders; (iii) explores persuasive criteria of fairness; (iv) generates creative options; and (v) educates each other about their alternatives. An unconditional constructive strategy includes: (a) balancing emotions with reason; (b) trying to understand the other party; (c) consulting them before deciding; (d) being reliable; (e) being open to persuasion and trying to persuade them; (f) accepting them as worthy of our consideration; and (g) being open to learning from them (Fisher, 2008)[3].

Web-based Global Business Negotiation: Shape of things to come

The increasing number of international negotiations involving multiple languages has triggered a growing reliance on computer-based multilingual support. Whereas empirical studies on negotiation support systems (NSS) have shown that NSS generally improve negotiation performance, very few NSS exist that cater for multilingual negotiations. With multilingual support, international negotiators of different language backgrounds are expected to address communication barriers and problems. The European SEWASIE project for instance investigated the applicability of Semantic Web and

Agent Systems in such Integrated Economies. Generally speaking, SEWASIE strives for methods and tools that provide sophisticated and integrated retrieval, brokering, and communication services for business-related information based on semantic web technology. These methods have been demonstrated in the context of a large network of small and medium enterprises surrounding the fashion industry in Northern Italy. The SEWASIE project within the Semantic Web Action Line of the European IST Programme focuses on the question how to assist networks of small and medium enterprises (so-called Integrated Economies) in enhancing their intra-and inter-organizational information management capabilities. While the project also includes novel techniques for semantic enrichment, query management, and presentation techniques in multi-lingual information acquisition from the web, this paper addresses the question how to further exploit the acquired information; firstly, by linking it into more established decision support environments based on OLAP technologies; secondly, by using it as a basis to engage in negotiations concerning inter-organizational cooperation across European countries (schoop@cs.rwth-aachen.de). Altogether, the resulting system aims at helping European SMEs to find the right strategic information at the right time in a multinational environment; provide advanced and novel services for monitoring and linking information in the context of risk management and competitor analysis; and provide ontology-based communication mechanisms for negotiation in multi-language environments.

Conclusions

Business negotiation is basically a continual stream of processes and the success of which is becoming increasingly unpredictable in view of complexity in the business environment and general lack of understanding of it, among others, from cross-cultural and geo-political perspective. Most negotiations of any kind generally end-up with a ‘win-lose’ scenario in view of predominant attention being paid to profitability and gains from deals or contracts. Most organizations that way fail to demonstrate creation and execution of a ‘win-win’ finale to negotiation processes and ventures. Maintaining ethical standards in the negotiation process is also a great challenge especially in multilateral deals or contracts. And, this is further compounded by entry barriers and international regulatory regime put on place across countries, regions and continents. On the top of this there could be an implicit component of economic entities.

The paper has clearly brought out certain emerging issues linked to methodologies; steps involved in negotiation, negotiation processes, factors influencing the successful conduct of business negotiations at International levels etc. and provided a broad framework for developing future strategies for successful negotiation at all levels with a 'win-win' outcome. Incorporation of the dimension of cultural values and business ethics in international business negotiation has become a *sin que non* for organizations that aim at corporate excellence. Cultural intelligence and proper analysis of geopolitical factors, especially those that are relevant to multilateral trade agreements under the WTO regime, can go a long way in averting overseas corporate failures in global business negotiations.

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