



Hellenic Open University

Supply Chain Management Postgraduate Course

Postgraduate Dissertation

“The role of pre- and post-negotiation strategies in the export  
industry”

Parthena Vasileiadou

Supervisor: Kalliopi Kravari

Patras, Greece, January 2023

Theses / Dissertations remain the intellectual property of students (“authors/creators”), but in the context of open access policy they grant to the HOU a non-exclusive license to use the right of reproduction, customisation, public lending, presentation to an audience and digital dissemination thereof internationally, in electronic form and by any means for teaching and research purposes, for no fee and throughout the duration of intellectual property rights. Free access to the full text for studying and reading does not in any way mean that the author/creator shall allocate his/her intellectual property rights, nor shall he/she allow the reproduction, republication, copy, storage, sale, commercial use, transmission, distribution, publication, execution, downloading, uploading, translating, modifying in any way, of any part or summary of the dissertation, without the explicit prior written consent of the author/creator. Creators retain all their moral and property rights.



Παρθένα Βασιλειάδου

Supervising Committee

Supervisor:  
Kravari Kalliopi

Co-Supervisor:  
Kondyli Aimilia

Patras, Greece, January 2023

*“To my family”*

## **Abstract**

The present study was set in the field of negotiations and in particular the pre- and post-negotiation strategies in the export industry. The aims of the research were to explore what pre and post negotiation strategies export companies currently use, which are best and worst negotiation strategies and finally to answer whether and how these strategies affected the final outcome. For the purpose of this study a questionnaire was created using the Likert scale with five- and seven-point questions to collect opinions and experiences of 15 negotiators. Questionnaire was distributed globally; five continents, ten different countries. The main contribution of the study was the establishment that negotiators have a trend regarding the pre- and post-negotiation strategies they select. They follow a certain pattern for selecting the same pre and post negotiation strategy, the collaborative. Our research concluded that negotiators in the export industry consider the collaborate to be the best pre and post negotiation strategy. On the other hand, the worst pre and post negotiation strategy is the same for both phases, the avoidance. Moreover, our study demonstrated that negotiators when they choose a certain pre and post negotiation strategy they aim to establish long term relationship with the other party, to have a sense of fair play, to set reliability and responsiveness, and finally to evaluate satisfaction. In addition, our data proved that the negotiation strategy a negotiator chooses can indeed affect the outcome and this outcome being better price, product and best agreement terms. Finally, this study concluded that COVID19 has affected the negotiation processes in the export market as well as on how negotiators see the future of negotiations; difficult, challenging, demanding, competitive, insecure and most likely digitalised.

### **Keywords:**

supply chain management, pre-negotiation, post-negotiation, outcome, collaborative, digitalization

## Περίληψη

Η παρούσα μελέτη ερευνήσε το πεδίο των διαπραγματεύσεων και ειδικότερα της στρατηγικές πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση στον κλάδο των εξαγωγών. Οι στόχοι της έρευνας ήταν να διερευνηθούν ποιες στρατηγικές πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση χρησιμοποιούν σήμερα οι εταιρείες εξαγωγών, ποιες είναι οι καλύτερες και οι χειρότερες στρατηγικές διαπραγμάτευσης και τέλος, να απαντηθεί εάν και πώς αυτές οι στρατηγικές επηρεάζουν το τελικό αποτέλεσμα. Για τους σκοπούς αυτής της μελέτης δημιουργήθηκε ένα ερωτηματολόγιο χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα Likert με ερωτήσεις πέντε και επτά σημείων για τη συλλογή απόψεων και εμπειριών 15 διαπραγματευτών. Το ερωτηματολόγιο διανεμήθηκε παγκοσμίως σε πέντε ηπείρους, δέκα διαφορετικές χώρες. Η κύρια συμβολή της μελέτης ήταν η διαπίστωση ότι οι διαπραγματευτές έχουν μια τάση όσον αφορά τις στρατηγικές πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση που επιλέγουν. Ακολουθούν ένα συγκεκριμένο μοτίβο για την επιλογή της ίδιας στρατηγικής πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση, τη συνεργατική. Η έρευνά μας κατέληξε στο συμπέρασμα ότι οι διαπραγματευτές στον κλάδο των εξαγωγών θεωρούν ότι η συνεργασία είναι η καλύτερη στρατηγική πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση. Από την άλλη πλευρά, η χειρότερη στρατηγική πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση είναι η ίδια και για τις δύο φάσεις, η αποφυγή. Επιπροσθέτως, η μελέτη έδειξε ότι οι διαπραγματευτές όταν επιλέγουν μια συγκεκριμένη στρατηγική πριν και μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση στοχεύουν να δημιουργήσουν μακροπρόθεσμη σχέση με την άλλη εταιρία, ευγενής άμιλλα, να ορίσουν αξιοπιστία και να αξιολογήσουν την ικανοποίηση. Επιπλέον, τα δεδομένα απέδειξαν ότι η στρατηγική διαπραγμάτευσης που επιλέγει ο διαπραγματευτής μπορεί πράγματι να επηρεάσει το τελικό αποτέλεσμα όπως είναι η καλύτερη τιμή, το προϊόν και οι καλύτεροι όροι συμφωνίας. Τέλος, αυτή η μελέτη κατέληξε στο συμπέρασμα ότι ο COVID19 επηρέασε τις διαδικασίες διαπραγμάτευσης στον κλάδο των εξαγωγών καθώς και το πώς βλέπουν οι διαπραγματευτές το μέλλον των διαπραγματεύσεων: δύσκολο, απαιτητικό, ανταγωνιστικό, ανασφαλές και πιθανότατα ψηφιοποιημένο.

## Λέξεις – Κλειδιά

διαχείριση εφοδιαστικής αλυσίδας, προ-διαπραγμάτευση, μετά τη διαπραγμάτευση, αποτέλεσμα, συνεργατική, ψηφιοποίηση

## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	v
Περίληψη.....	vi
Table of Contents .....	vii
List of Figures .....	ix
List of Tables.....	x
List of Abbreviations & Acronyms .....	xi
1. Introduction .....	1
1.1 Supply Chain Management (SCM) .....	2
1.2 Principles of a good SCM.....	3
1.2.1 Adapt Supply Chain to Customer’s needs .....	4
1.2.2 Customize logistics network .....	4
1.2.3 Align demand planning across supply chain.....	4
1.2.4 Develop IT that support multi-level decision making.....	5
1.2.5 Adopt both service and financial metrics .....	5
1.3 Basics of Supply Chain Management processes .....	5
1.3.1 Customer relationship management .....	6
1.3.2 Customer service management .....	6
1.3.3 Demand management.....	6
1.3.4 Product development.....	6
1.3.5 Supplier relationship management .....	7
1.3.6 Order fulfilment .....	7
1.3.7 Returns management.....	7
1.4 Objectives .....	7
2. Theoretical background.....	9
2.1 Negotiations in SCM.....	9
2.1.1 Principled negotiations.....	10
2.1.2 Negotiation skills .....	11
2.2 Negotiation strategies.....	13
2.2.1 Choosing a negotiation strategy .....	14
2.2.2 BATNA .....	15
2.2.3 Pre- and post-negotiations.....	16
3. Methodology .....	19
3.1 Research methodology .....	19
3.2 Gathering data .....	20
3.2.1 Choosing a method.....	20
3.2.2 Conducting the survey.....	20
3.2.3 Likert scale .....	22
3.3 Analysis.....	24
4. Results .....	25
4.1 General information .....	25
4.1.1 Demographics .....	25
4.1.2 Satisfaction ratings .....	27
4.1.3 Experience.....	28

4.2 Preparation time .....	28
4.3 Role of negotiation strategies in export market .....	29
4.4 Criteria of choosing a negotiation strategy .....	30
4.5 Pre- negotiation strategy .....	31
4.5.1 Currently used pre-negotiation strategy .....	31
4.5.2 Best and worst pre negotiation strategy .....	32
4.6 Post- negotiation strategy .....	33
4.6.1 Currently used post-negotiation strategy .....	33
4.6.2 Best and worst pre negotiation strategy .....	34
4.7 BATNA .....	35
4.8 Negotiation strategy and final outcome .....	36
4.9 Aims of negotiation.....	38
4.10 COVID19 and negotiation strategies .....	39
4.11 Cultural differences and negotiations.....	40
4.12 Future of negotiations in the exports industry.....	41
5. Discussion .....	43
6. Conclusions.....	52
References .....	54
Appendix A: Questionnaire.....	64



## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1.</b> Supply chain planning matrix.....	2
<b>Figure 2.</b> Negotiation strategies.....	13
<b>Figure 3.</b> Choosing a negotiation strategy.....	15
<b>Figure 4.</b> Origin of negotiators who participated in our study according to continent they are based.....	26
<b>Figure 5.</b> How satisfied are participants with the current state of negotiation procedures in their organization.....	27
<b>Figure 6.</b> Years of experience of participants with negotiations in the exports industry.....	28
<b>Figure 7.</b> Time of preparation each negotiators invests to prepare for a negotiation in the exports industry.....	29
<b>Figure 8.</b> Criteria of choosing a negotiation strategy.....	31
<b>Figure 9.</b> Pre-negotiation strategies in export industry currently being used by participants in their organizations.....	32
<b>Figure 10.</b> Best (A.) and worst (B.) pre-negotiation strategies in export market.....	33
<b>Figure 11.</b> Post negotiation strategies in the export industry currently being used by participants in their organization.....	34
<b>Figure 12.</b> Best and worst post negotiation strategies in export market.....	35
<b>Figure 13.</b> A negotiator should have a BATNA in case a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place.....	36
<b>Figure 14.</b> A negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome.....	37
<b>Figure 15.</b> Outcomes that a negotiation strategy can affect.....	38
<b>Figure 16.</b> What a negotiator aims when choosing a negotiation strategy.....	39
<b>Figure 17.</b> COVID19 has affected the negotiation strategies in the export market.....	40
<b>Figure 18.</b> How much cultural differences affect negotiations in the export market.....	41

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1.</b> Age of participants (A) and number of negotiations they handle annually (B)...	26
<b>Table 2.</b> The role of negotiation strategies in export market.....	30
<b>Table 3.</b> How negotiators see the future of negotiations in the exports industry.....	42

## List of Abbreviations & Acronyms

AI	artificial intelligence
BATNA	Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement
CI	Cultural intelligence
COVID19	Coronavirus 19
GDPR	General Data Protection Regulation
Ibid	in the same source
MP	master planning
PSAs	product and service agreements
SC	supply chain
SCM	supply chain management

## 1. Introduction

In the current fast living era of challenging global markets, being able to meet demands of customers at short delivery times while synchronizing supply to meet peaks of demand, is crucial. Nowadays in a modern organization there is no section being totally autonomous and independent; all sections are interlinked, working together with a common purpose, the organization to thrive as a whole.

Here comes the term of supply chain (SC) which is defined as a network of various divisions of an organization involved in different activities and processes. In other words, the network of divisions involved in creating final customer products and services (Christopher 2020). There are four traditional stages in the supply chain (Figure 1): procurement, production, distribution and sales (Thomas and Griffin 1996 and Rohde et al., 2000). The Supply chain planning matrix is an attempt to demonstrate how planning tasks can be hierarchically organized. At the operational planning level, the task of master planning (MP) is vital as it is responsible to balance supply with foreseen demand and to synchronize operations across the SC (Rohde et al., 2000). To do so, a single centralized planning task is suggested for the entire SC. Incorporation between participating organizational units is necessary to implement the centralized MP. In order for supply chain to be effective it needs a certain orchestration, a Supply chain management (SCM); planning and control of materials, processes related for servicing customers such as order fulfilment, customer service management and product development as well as logistics activities internally within the company (Cooper et al., 1997).

The following sections will define what Supply chain management is (Section 1.1), its principles will be analysed (Section 1.2) along with the basic processes of SCM (Section 1.3). Finally, the objectives of this thesis will be set (Section 1.4).

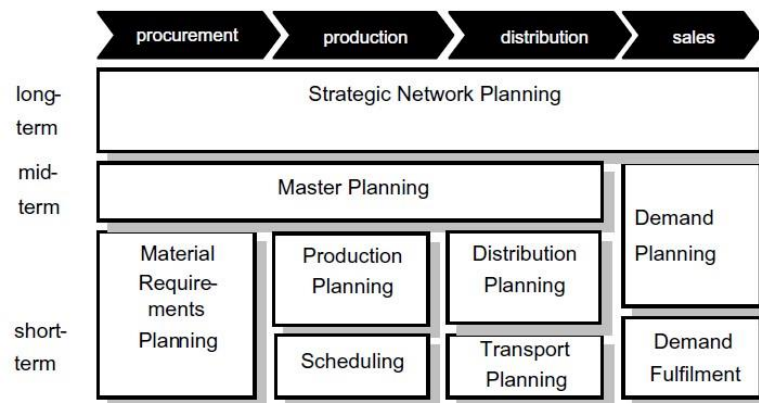


Figure 1. Supply chain planning matrix (Rohde et al., 2000).

## 1.1 Supply Chain Management (SCM)

Supply chain management (SCM) deals with the management of the multiple relationships across the supply chain; planning and control of operations such as production, storage, and distribution processes, across the supply chain (Dudek and Stadtler 2005). Hence it is a field, consisting of many disciplines, Business such as Marketing, Management and Finance, Production Management, Logistics and Industrial Engineering (Barutçu et al., 2010). Because SCM is an active system which combines the entire exchange of information and products between suppliers and customers, including manufacturers, distributors and retailers, is identified as the most popular operation to improve an organization's competitiveness (Gunasekaran et al., 2008). Therefore, SCM being the key to success in today's competitive global environment for any business organization (Rajasekaran and Gokilavani 2013), it conveys the idea of looking the supply issue at the multi company level and solves the fundamental business problem of creating a product to meet the demands of a complex and uncertain market (Kopczak and Johnson 2003). Equally important, SCM identifies how the supply chain should operate in order to compete other companies' supply chains (Rajasekaran and Gokilavani 2013).

Looking through the evolution of SCM over the decades it is evident that the customer's involvement only came at the very end (Mostafa 2022). Customers did not pay much attention to where products came from, what they were made of, and how they arrived in stores. Nowadays, customers do concern about SC transparency and sustainability. For consumers is of crucial concern the ability to have total control over how and where they shop. Therefore, to grow, develop and compete in the modern market, it is important to have

the technology to be able to gather and interpret the data generated and captured across the whole supply chain process. Just gathering the data on its own is not enough; there is the need to have new technologies that will be able to turn the received data into real-time insights in order to use it to automate SCM procedures. Taking as an example the current situation with COVID19, any future similar unexpected events or economic shifts in combination to fast growing customer demands, the use of this data and technology-driven SCM systems, the supply chain management will be totally transformed and rebuilt as a new responsive type of supply chain (Mostafa 2022).

On a final note, it would be important to briefly highlight the benefits of a modern SCM system (Mostafa 2022). These include, increased productivity, reduced supply chain costs, greater supply chain agility and resiliency, improved product quality and better customer service. Considering the high level of competition between companies, SCM that is customer oriented and designed to be responsive and adaptive are thought to be the best one. To improve product quality, it is essential to have a link between customer feedback directly to the research and development section of the company. This link will ensure that product design and development are notified according to customer needs. Due to rapid shifts in trends and markets it is vital to have an adaptive and resilient SCM system that will quickly adapt to any extreme situation. Moreover, the use of predictive analytics will assist in reducing supply chain costs by eliminating guessing of cost and ensure to reduce wasteful stockpiles and risky shortages. An accurate forecasting will help to reduce for example uncoordinated delivery routes, and inefficient fleet management. Finally, in order to increase productivity predictive maintenance will assist any production line to work faster and more efficiently, resulting in an improvement of workflows and productivity boost (Mostafa 2022).

## **1.2 Principles of a good SCM**

The main goal of any organization is to create value for customers, while increasing the profitability of every part of the supply chain. This goal will be achieved if all activities across the supply chain coordinate perfectly; once these are accomplished, then a company can be successful. In order to maintain a high level of supply chain management, the below fundamental principles should be followed (Anderson et al., 1997).

### **1.2.1 Adapt Supply Chain to Customer’s needs**

By default, segmentation grouped customers by industry, product, or trade channel and a one-size fits-all approach was used to serve them, resulting in average costs and profitability. However, for a company to be more profitable segmentation of customers should be carried out according to their needs so as the company to build a portfolio of services tailored to various segments. Then the companies would analyse the profitability of these segments along with the costs and benefits of alternate service packages; this way companies will ensure a reasonable return on their investment and the most profitable allocation of resource. Therefore, customers should be segmented based on the service needs of distinct groups and adapt the supply chain to serve these segments profitably (Anderson et al., 1997).

### **1.2.2 Customize logistics network**

As seen in most companies they tend to have one single standard on which they build their logistics network design in organizing their inventory, warehouse, and transportation activities. And in most cases this standard can be on either side of two opposing ends; either the logistics network has been designed to meet the average service needs of all customers or to the other extreme end, to satisfy the hardest needs of a single customer segment. For an effective supply chain management neither of these approaches can succeed superior asset utilization nor accommodate the segment-specific logistics. Hence the second principle refers to customizing the logistics network to the service requirements and profitability of customer segments (Anderson et al., 1997).

### **1.2.3 Align demand planning across supply chain**

Forecasting market needs in order to align them with demand planning within the supply chain while at the same time ensuring best resource allocation is challenging. Unfortunately, companies to avoid this challenge they informally consult only the marketplace or even worse the sales division to forecasts market demands. These forecasting approaches can influence the SCM making it dysfunctional and unsuccessful. Instead, what is needed is a cross-functional planning process where sales and operations planning work together with every part of the supply chain to develop a collaborative forecast as well as maintaining the required capacity across the operations. To sum up, the third principle suggests taking note

of market signals and align demand planning accordingly across the supply chain, ensuring consistent forecasts and optimal resource allocation (Anderson et al., 1997).

#### **1.2.4 Develop IT that support multi-level decision making**

Companies, in an attempt to sustain reengineered business processes, have replaced old fashioned integrated systems with enterprise-wide systems. Nevertheless, they get trapped into the powerful new transactional systems which they produced too much data that the companies are not able to translate it to useful means that can enhance real-world operations. Therefore, what companies need is to build an information technology system, a supply chain-wide technology strategy that supports multiple levels of decision making and gives a clear view of the flow of products, services, and information (Anderson et al., 1997).

#### **1.2.5 Adopt both service and financial metrics**

In order to assess how well a company is doing, an effective supply chain manager will look into service and financial metrics. The supply chain manager will assess the service in terms of the perfect order ( the order that arrived in time, complete, priced and billed correctly, and undamaged) from the point of view of the supply chain as well as from the customer's view. In addition, companies produce common report cards to initiate channel-spanning performance measurement. This way all partners share the same goals and understand what each company brings to the partnership. Summarizing, it is key to adopt channel-spanning performance measures to assess collective success in reaching the end-user effectively and efficiently (Anderson et al., 1997).

### **1.3 Basics of Supply Chain Management processes**

According to The Global Supply Chain Forum, supply chain management has seven key processes that companies should develop expertise to have an efficient supply chain and avoid bottlenecks. A management team composed of managers from each business function (marketing, sales, finance, production, purchasing, logistics and, research and development) is responsible for running each process team that is comprised. The following section will describe these supply chain management process (Lambert 2008).



### **1.3.1 Customer relationship management**

The customer relationship management process is responsible for developing and maintaining relationships with customers. Initially individual customers or groups are identified according to their value over time with the goal of increasing their loyalty by offering personalized products and services. To do so, cross- functional customer teams customize Product and Service Agreements (PSAs) to meet customers’ needs (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.2 Customer service management**

The PSAs developed by customer teams as part of the customer relationship management process are being managed by the customer service management. PSA’s are being monitored and in case there is a problem the customer service management will proactively interfere on the customer’s behalf. Customer service management aims to solve issues before they can affect the customer. Finally, the customer service managers are in line with other process teams to make sure that the agreements in the PSA’s are met (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.3 Demand management**

Demand management is responsible for ensuring a balance between customers’ requirements and the efficiency of the supply chain; ideally demand management should be able to match supply with demand and implement a strategy with minimal disturbance. In order to do so flexibility is required as well as to forecast and synchronize demand with supply. An effective demand management process utilizes key customer data to reduce uncertainty and provide efficient flows throughout the supply chain (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.4 Product development**

Product development is the supply chain management process where customers and suppliers jointly develop and bring products to the market. It is vital the coordination between the product development process team and (i) the customer relationship management process teams in order to identify the needs that customers have expressed; (ii) the supplier relationship management process teams so as to select materials and suppliers and finally (iii) the manufacturing flow management process team in scope to create the

means to manufacture the best product flow for the product/market combination (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.5 Supplier relationship management**

Similar to customer relationship management, the supplier relationship management process defines how a company interacts with suppliers and how the relationship between them develops and can be maintained (Lambert 2008). The terms of the relationship will be defined once the PSAs negotiations between the two teams are over. Supplier relationship management is seen as defining and managing these PSAs. The preferred result would be a win-win relationship where the needs of both parties are met (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.6 Order fulfilment**

The order fulfilment process includes filling orders and all the necessary activities to identify and meet customer requirement while reducing the delivered cost. Although it seems that this is mainly performed by the logistics function, it actually requires to be implemented cross-functional along with the coordination between supplied and customers (Lambert 2008).

### **1.3.7 Returns management**

Returns management is the supply chain management process by which activities associated with returns, reverse logistics, gatekeeping, and avoidance, are managed within the organization and across members of the supply chain. Once returns management is applied efficiently the organization can succeed effective management of the reverse product flow as well as to identify means to reduce unwanted returns (Lambert 2008).

## **1.4 Objectives**

The major focus of this thesis is on the negotiation strategies export companies use. To be more specific, we aiming to explore which pre- and post-negotiation strategies export companies use and how these strategies can affect the outcome in achieving their goals such as better price, product, best agreement terms.

Specifically, the basic questions this study targets to answer are the following:

- What pre and post negotiation strategies export companies use?
- Which are best and worst negotiation strategies?
- How these strategies affected the final outcome?

## **2. Theoretical background**

This chapter will focus on the negotiation part of the supply chain management. Negotiations in SCM will be described, the concept of principled negotiation will be analyzed (Section 2.1.1) and the skills that an effective negotiator should have will be evaluated (Section 2.1.2.). Moreover, a number of negotiation strategies will be explained (Section 2.2) along with the criteria a negotiator should take into account when choosing a negotiation strategy (Section 2.2.1.) and finally the concept of BATNA will be defined (Section 2.2.2).

### **2.1 Negotiations in SCM**

Looking through the negotiation literature in SCM it is noticeable that it is limited, rather fragmented and not unified (Zachariassen 2008). In a self-confessed survey, on whether negotiators would choose the collaborative strategy when negotiating in strategic partnership, it was interesting to find out that negotiators actually expressed their preference for the competitive negotiation strategy over the collaborative one (Ramsay 2004). This is a rather unexpected result considering and comparing the benefits of the collaborative negotiation with the competitive. Moreover, Ramsay contributed to the field of negotiations in SCM by mentioning that the link between the supply chain members and the negotiation process is crucial (Ramsay 2004). The same opinion was also shared by other researchers on the field concluding that negotiation is a critical aspect of purchasing and supply chain management (Smeltzer 2003). Finally, the current literature stresses the need and proposition of further research to assess the aspects of the negotiation process in the buyer-supplier setting (Ramsay 2004, Zachariassen 2008).

Negotiations in the export industry follow the known steps; identification of the negotiated issues, including product, pricing, performance, shipping terms, methods of payment, governing laws/languages of the contract. An important element here is the cultural differences that a negotiator should take into account, such as language, gestures, and facial expressions. Cultural intelligence (CI), meaning the combination of cognitive, behavioural, motivational, and metacognitive aspects, is crucial for negotiating in the export market because indicates the ability of a good negotiator to adjust cross-culturally. Having acquired CI, a negotiator can develop good relationship with the other party being from a

different culture. Building a good relationship with the other party most likely will lead to a good negotiation agreement (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020).

Finally, although we live in a digitalized world where most negotiations in the export market are being held electronically, it is essential to gain trust in business communication, openness, and accuracy (Capela 2016).

### **2.1.1 Principled negotiations**

With no doubt, one of the most effective methods for resolving conflicts is through negotiation (Carneiro et al., 2012). Roger Fisher and William Ury described four key parameters where when they applied in a negotiation, the likelihood of conflict-free agreements increase significantly, the stress of the process is being reduced, while at the same time establishing a trusty relationship between the two parties. The following points describe the Principled negotiation; 1. Separate the people from the problem, 2. Focus on interests, not positions, 3. Invent options for mutual gain and 4. Insist on using objective criteria (Lens 2004, Carneiro et al., 2012 and Shonk 2022).

To begin with, separate the people from the problem refers to the ability of the negotiators to deal with their emotions separately and address only the topic of the negotiation (Shonk 2022). A key reminder for this principle is that the goal is not for a negotiator to win but rather to reach a better deal on the party's behalf without damaging the relationship with the other party. The negotiator needs to refrain from placing blame, acknowledge emotions and instead to create a cooperative environment (Lens 2004).

The second principle is to focus on interests, not positions. In most cases negotiators tend to spend time debating who is going to get their way, blindly defending their position rather than trying to understand what their actual interests are. In principled negotiation the negotiator by focusing clearly on their interests increases the chances of achieving the best agreement (Carneiro et al., 2012 and Shonk 2022).

There are cases where negotiators are being bound to their positions believing that only their proposal is ideal, and they tend to settle for the first offer they reach; restraining the negotiation from generating creative problem-solving options. The third principle, invents options for mutual gain, comes to allow creativity, brainstorming of multiple

solutions, being open to the other parties’ opinions and to invent options for mutual gain. (Lens 2004 and Carneiro et al., 2012).

The final principle, insist on using objective criteria, applies to negotiation cases where interests are directly opposed, therefore both parties must use objective, fair criteria, and unbiased independent evaluations, to resolve their differences and come up with an outcome that both parties will agree on (Carneiro et al., 2012 and Shonk 2022).

### **2.1.2 Negotiation skills**

After establishing the environment of negotiation process and principles, it is time to put them into practice. For a successful negotiation, a negotiator has to have certain skills and abilities. Negotiation skills, refer to a subset of knowledge and behaviors that influence the negotiation performance, and these skills are effective when they achieve negotiation goals. Developing certain negotiation skills, is a demanding and valuable task and a key element of a successful business; when applying negotiation skills correctly is considered a professional activity (Ashcroft 2004).

Negotiation skills and attitudes can be clustered into four categories which are formed based on the reasoning that these skills and attitudes can be observed during a negotiation: (i) language and emotionality -is the first and easily observed aspect of a of negotiators’ behaviour indicating the negotiators’ style and personality, (ii) negotiation intelligence - specific skills and tactics a negotiator uses, (iii) relationship building, and (iv) moral wisdom (Smolinski and Xiong 2020).

The first negotiation skills category, language and emotionality, consists of three vital negotiation competencies: quality of expression (includes clarity and logic of negotiators’ expressions); active listening/ communication and questioning (negotiator’s ability to understand, paying full attention, and elicit information, identifying and deconstructing the problem); and managing emotions (ability to show empathy, understand other party’s interests/needs, adaptability, patience) (Smolinski and Xiong 2020). At this point it is important to mention that the ability to manage and regulate emotions is a fundamental skill to support a negotiators’ performance (Olekals and Druckman 2014). In addition, empathy allows negotiators to explore opportunities for collaborative problem-

solving that will lead to a better agreement because understand the other party’s perspective (Kidder 2017).

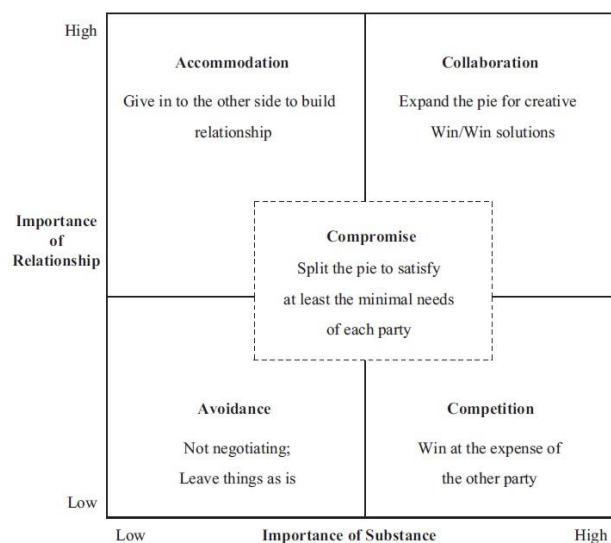
Negotiation intelligence, the third group of the essential skills a negotiator should have, includes understanding interests and options regarding a certain negotiation which come from a good preparation (Smolinski and Xiong 2020). The skill to recognize the characteristics of a negotiation and the mindset of the other party so as to apply efficiently the strategy that will be more fruitful and settling at better terms. Moreover, since many negotiations require team effort, a successful negotiator should have the skill of effective cooperation, leadership, to motivate all team members to work towards a common goal and define clear roles to the team members (Roloff et al., 2008 and Smolinski and Xiong 2020). Another skill a negotiator should have is strategic adaptability, to be able to combine all his acquired skills to succeed the best possible terms as well to be able to adjust and switch between negotiation strategies according to the case they are dealing (Ibid). Last but not least, stage setting is also crucial from the beginning for the negotiations – it can create a constructive atmosphere and build a positive relationship to cooperate.

The third category of skills, trust and relationship building is key as the strength of the relationship and the degree of trust between the parties influence the outcomes of their negotiations (Mouzas 2016). In fact, it was observed that without a certain degree of trust, parties miss the opportunity to succeed a better agreement (Katz 2015). In this group also falls the skill to be aware of cultural differences and be able to deal with these differences with tolerance and respect, integrity and built rapport. This is key because culture plays an important role in negotiations; for example, a study supported the proposition that culture, occupational background, and gender can influence negotiating style (Salacuse 1998).

The last group, moral wisdom includes negotiators’ ethics and values. A successful negotiator should have certain moral and ethical standards; an inner moral compass to guide him navigate the difficulties during a negotiation, to make fair decisions and to treat others with dignity. Unethical negotiating behaviours can destroy benefits for both parties and disrupt the building of long-term relationships (Smolinski and Xiong 2020). A negotiator should have the skill to manage information ethically, and able to consider the interests, concerns, and feelings of the other negotiator (Roloff et al., 2008).

## 2.2 Negotiation strategies

There are five negotiation strategies which are presented in Figure 2: accommodate, collaborate, compromise, avoid, and compete (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020). In this figure the five strategies are plotted according to two dimensions; importance of relationship between the two parties and the importance of substance. These two parameters can be used as a criterion for choosing a negotiation strategy, however this subject is analysed further at the following 2.2.1 section of this thesis.



**Figure 2.** Negotiation strategies (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020 from Lewicki, Hiam, and Olander, 1996)

Starting with accommodate (conceding) strategy, it is the direct opposite of the competitive negotiation. In this case the negotiator prioritizes the relationship and building a friendly rapport with the other party rather than focusing on the outcome. This strategy is mainly used in situations where an organization has caused harm to another one and there is the need to repair the relationship. On a final note, the accommodate negotiation strategy with the correct tangling and planning could be turned into a collaborative negotiation (Shell 2001 and Lares 2020).

Collaborate (cooperating) negotiation strategy, on the other hand, follows the model of a win-win situation where all parties meet their needs; it is the opposite of the competitive strategy. It is considered to be the most difficult since it requires to invest time and energy



in order to find innovative negotiation terms to please both sides. In comparison to the accommodation strategy, collaborate weights equally the relationship between the two parties and the outcome; maximizing best outcome and at the same time to maintain the relationship. It is mainly used in cases where the aim is to develop and maintain the current relationship and to have a mutual understanding of needs and objectives (Shell 2001 and Lares 2020).

The compromise negotiation strategy resembles bargaining; the agreement is split between the parties so that both can benefit. It is used in cases where the opposite organization is trustworthy and usually the urgency is high. This strategy indicates that both parties are equally concerned about their relationship and the outcome. A downside of this strategy is thought to be the loss of a collaborative agreement; both parties win and lose by meeting half-way (Shell 2001 and Lares 2020).

A competitive (aggressive) negotiation style follows the model “we win -you lose” where the negotiator aims to win at all costs and most of the times at the expense of the other party. It is chosen for short term agreements where the outcome is important but the relationship with the other party is not (Shell 2001 and Lares 2020).

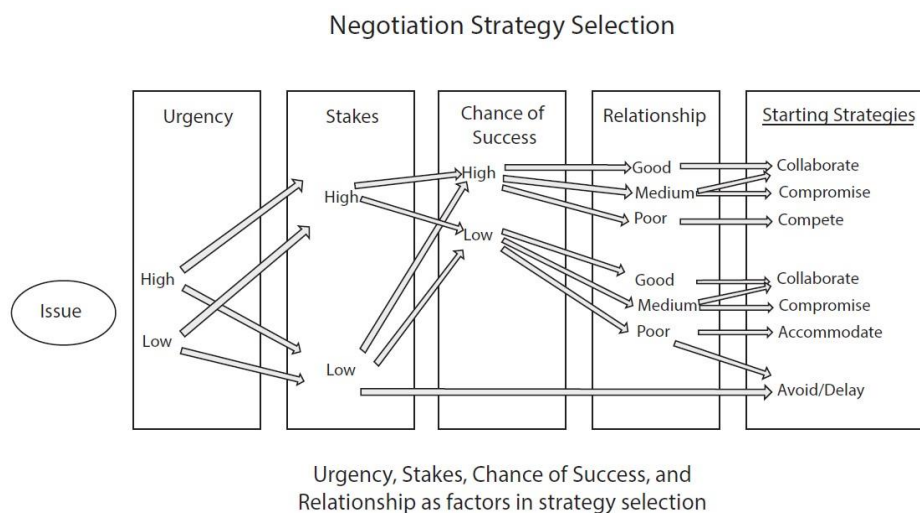
Finally, the avoid strategy is mainly used when both the outcome and the relationship between the two parties are not important and also when the negotiation concerns an issue that is trivial to both parties. In most cases negotiators choosing this strategy do not wish to conflict hence in a situation where an agreement is achieved but the negotiator is not keen on the outcome, probably will have a passive-aggressive attitude resulting into more conflicts between the parties (Shell 2001 and Harris 2020).

### **2.2.1 Choosing a negotiation strategy**

When it comes to the point of choosing a negotiation strategy there is a series of factors a negotiator should consider. These factors can be psychological, social, technical, and contextual. Due to the nature of these factors being flexible and changeable, as the negotiation progresses these factors can be reassessed and hence the negotiator can adjust the negotiation strategy to fit the situation (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020). Briefly these factors include (i) available resources such as money, manpower, and any other resources to accomplish an agreement; (ii) conditions among the negotiating parties such as mutual

respect, trust and empathy among negotiators, as well as negotiator’s skills and (iii) the environment around the negotiating parties meaning how important is to maintain a good relationship between them, pressure from stakeholders and the overall political and regulatory environment (Ibid).

More factors to consider when choosing a negotiation strategy include urgency, stakes, and relationship. To begin with, urgency refers to how fast a company wants to complete the negotiation; stakes refer to the importance of the outcome and relationship refers to the quality of the existing relationship between the two parties. These factors presented in Figure 3 with an in between important parameter, the chance of success. For instance, if the urgency is high, the issue is important (high stakes) and the quality of the relationship is good, then the choice of negotiation strategy would be collaborate. Similarly, if the urgency is low, and the stakes are low, with high chance of success but poor relationship then the choice of negotiation strategy would be compete.



**Figure 3.** Choosing a negotiation strategy. The arrows are followed based on an evaluation of the urgency, stakes, and relationship (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020).

### 2.2.2 BATNA

The concept of BATNA, “Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement” was introduced and developed in 1981, by Fisher and Ury, and quantifies what a negotiator expects to get from the best competitor of the firm (Fisher and Ury, 1981). In negotiations has been an extremely useful tool (Sebenius 2017) since it is what a negotiator must do because of failing

to negotiate an agreement. To begin with, a negotiator before starting any type of negotiation is vital to be prepared in case the negotiation fails. He should understand what the negotiations choices are so he can prepare to have the best possible BATNA; the best-case scenario for a BATNA would be to have an alternative company to negotiate with (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020). In addition to this best-case scenario, would be an estimation of the BATNA of the other negotiator. A key aspect of a negotiator would be to be able to judge when to stop negotiating and use his BATNA. Despite BATNA having established a great value in practice there are cases where it can be misunderstood or misinterpreted (Sebenius 2017). For example, the notion that one's BATNA cannot be a negotiated agreement; this is misleading as a negotiator's BATNA can actually be another negotiated agreement. Moreover, BATNAs are mistakenly mainly treated as a last resort and relevant only in case of a bottleneck or “if the other side is more powerful.” A negotiator's BATNA should be evaluated and enhanced as an essential element of preparation for every negotiation (Sebenius 2017).

### **2.2.3 Pre- and post-negotiations**

Pre-negotiation process is also referred to as ‘preliminaries’ or ‘talks about talks’ and in an attempt to define pre-negotiation, looking through the literature, it is noticeable that there is not a standard accepted definition (Berridge 2015). What is found about the definition of pre- negotiations is rather a number of variations on a similar topic providing a broad understanding of the process. Hence by researchers it has been described as an opportunity for the negotiating parties to approach each other and to be involved in resolving their disputes, conflict, deals, without any formal commitment (Pantev 2000). Elsewhere pre-negotiation is being defined as the process where parties can move from conflicting opinions and behaviours to co-operative ones (Zartman 1989). Moreover, pre-negotiation has been observed to reduce risk, so convincing conflict parties that they have more to gain from a negotiation rather than from fighting (Doyle and Hegele 2021). Finally, the pre-negotiation phase described as the phase where both parties are being encouraged to make the decision to actually commit to a negotiation, and this can be accomplished mainly by identifying and removing any obstacles blocking to achieve a negotiation (Saunders 1985). It is crucial to be able to identify these obstacles, and such obstacles can be 1. the inability to organize and be prepared for a negotiation due to internal differences of opinions within a negotiating

party – absence of a credible representative for the party; 2. neither parties cannot define the problem because of different views of the nature of the problem (Ibid).

According to the literature, there are 4 steps for the pre-negotiation phase: 1. Information Gathering, 2. Formulation Activities, 3. Strategy Development and 4. Preparation Activities (Balliu and Spahiu 2020). The first step focuses on environmental factors and on collecting information from the other party. This also includes research about the other party’s organization and learning about their style and personality. The second step, “Formulation Activities”, involves planning activities such as objectives, interests, and the assessment of the best alternative to a negotiated agreement. The third and the fourth component, “Strategy Development” and “Preparation Activities” respectively, involve planning activities regarding the development of a strategy to reach the aims, the development and preparation of the customer presentation as well as to address the logistical concerns (Ibid).

All the above attempted definitions of pre-negotiation, they also highlight the advantages of the process. Nevertheless, we need to take into account the negative impact that pre-negotiations can have upon the overall negotiation process. To begin with, pre-negotiations possess no legal requirements hence there is the danger for a party to easily abandon any negotiations which in turn can result in serious consequences. Moreover, the duration of pre-negotiations can act counterproductive. Considering that pre-negotiations take too long, they make the whole negotiation process to take much longer than anticipated and there is the possibility that the parties loose interest in the negotiations either deciding the negotiations are in fact not necessary (Wakelin 2012). Finally, there hasn’t been yet established a causal link between early efforts to bring two negotiating parties together and the outcome of any negotiated agreement. In fact, there is no answer to what extent do activities during the pre-negotiation phase contribute to having an agreement that both parties are satisfied (Doyle and Hegele 2021).

Regarding the post-negotiation process that occurs after a negotiation has closed and concluded in an agreement, has not been extensively studied; unfortunately, researchers have largely neglected the dynamics of post-negotiations (Oliver et al., 1994 and Jonsson and Tallberg 1998). The main steps in the post-negotiation phase are implementation of the agreement and monitoring its operation. It also includes identifying purchase needs (if

master agreement is in place), receiving and incoming goods inspection, check invoice, payment, performance feedback as well as learning and adaptation (Kaufmann 1999). This phase also involves grievance redressal measures when misinterpretation or violation of the terms of the contract occurs (Oliver et al., 1994).

### **3. Methodology**

The aim of this study is to explore which pre- and post-negotiation strategies export companies use and how these strategies can affect the outcome in achieving their goals such as better price, product, and agreement terms.

The basic questions this study aims to answer are the following:

1. What pre and post negotiation strategies export companies use?
2. Which are best and worst negotiation strategies?
3. How these strategies affected the final outcome?

In this chapter the author will explain the choice of qualitative research method, describe how the research was conducted, how the data was collected and how it was analysed.

#### **3.1 Research methodology**

Before starting any research, it is crucial to decide whether a quantitative or a qualitative method will be used. For this reason, it is worth describing these two methods and justify the one that was selected for the purposes of this research.

To begin with, quantitative methods are standardized procedures aiming to measure social phenomena by numbers or examining a hypothesis via fixed variables (Azman Ong and Puteh, 2017). Quantitative measurements are applicable for studying large populations and employ numerical data to quantify a social phenomenon, which in turn helps social scientists to “*measure-quantify, analyse and understand social reality*” (Ibid). However, quantitative methods have limitations since there are phenomena and social procedures, which cannot be measured by number or via statistics (Ibid).

Qualitative research, aims to capture lived experiences and the meaning people give to these experiences from their own perspectives; emphasis is given on understanding the words people use, their opinions and experiences, rather than on numbers (Corti 2007). It is a method, which focuses on the individual rather than on the general (Ibid). Thus, a limitation of qualitative approaches is mainly pointed that the findings might not be extended to wider population because the findings cannot be evaluated if they are statistically significant or might change (Atieno 2009).

The choice of research methodology between qualitative or quantitative approach depends on the nature of the research question. This thesis focuses on presenting a combination of multiple choice questions along with two open questions in order to explore which pre- and post-negotiation strategies export companies use and how these strategies can affect the outcome in achieving their goals such as better price, product, and agreement terms. Although a qualitative method would seem ideal to be used to understand negotiation strategies export companies through the experiences of negotiators, there are methods/scales which although are generally used for quantitative research, they can also be used for qualitative purposes (Drexler 2022). In other words, a quantitative tool able to be used to analyse qualitative data. And such a scale was used for the purposes of this thesis so as to quantify qualitative concepts, for further quantitative analysis.

## **3.2 Gathering data**

The following section will describe the survey tool that was selected in order to collect the data to answer the research question and how the data was analysed.

### **3.2.1 Choosing a method**

For the purpose of this thesis, the most appropriate method is considering questionnaires. Hence, the case of questionnaires that would allow participants to provide strict written answers was chosen. Questionnaires are useful for gathering original data about people's behaviour, experiences and social interactions (McGuirk and O'Neill 2016). This approach seems appropriate considering that the purpose of their research is to explore which pre- and post-negotiation strategies export companies use and how these strategies can affect the outcome in achieving their goals such as better price, product, and agreement terms. According to the literature (Beckett and Clegg 2007; Ponto 2015; Taherdoost 2016), choosing to collect qualitative data from an electronic posted questionnaire, is an innovative survey design, with characteristics such as reliability, validity and authenticity (Ibid).

### **3.2.2 Conducting the survey**

Prior to electronic distribution of the questionnaire, current literature was reviewed thoroughly in order to create a research questioner (Appendix 1).

In order to select to which export companies, the questionnaire will be sent, and which negotiators would complete the questionnaire, certain criteria should be met. To begin with, it should be noted that the researcher is working at the export division of a company which exports canned compote fruits. Thus, the questionnaire was distributed exclusively to the clients of the researcher. The main criterion to select which export company will participate in the survey, was how many years this company collaborated with the export company of the researcher. A minimum of 5 years collaboration was set prior to selecting the companies. This criterion was set because a long-term relationship with the selected companies provides reliability, trust, willingness, and commitment to participate in the survey as well as to responsibly reply to the questions. In fact, the selected companies, every year with the new fruit production, they renew their contract for further collaborations – indicating a good relationship between the company the researcher works for and the selected companies to participate in the survey. Moreover, we wanted our survey to be on an international scale and be deployed across different countries and continents, so as to gather global views and experiences on our research topic. Once the companies were selected, then the negotiators were chosen according to their working experience in the field of negotiations in the export industry. A minimum of 4 years working experience with negotiations was set. This was a key criterion as we wanted the participants of our study to have enough experience in the field of negotiations so as to give honest and reliable answers to our questionnaire. Hence, for the purpose of this thesis, 15 export companies were surveyed from 10 countries, where the negotiators had more than 4 years of experience.

Regarding the creation of the questionnaire, it was divided into two parts; the first part was used to collect demographic data of our participants, including location (city, country, continent, region), age and number of negotiations per year they handle; and the second part included the rest of questions aiming to address our research aims. The first four questions served the purpose of gathering general information about the participants such as: 1. how satisfied they are with the negotiation procedures in their organization, 2. how many years they have experience with negotiations, 3. how much time they invest to prepare for a negotiation and 4. to share their opinion about what the role of negotiation strategies in export market is. The following 13 questions of the questionnaire were focused on the pre- and post-negotiation strategies in the export market. Questions were designed so as to gather information about 1. important factors to consider when choosing a negotiation



strategy, 2. current, best and worst pre- and post-negotiation strategies the negotiators use, 3. their opinion about BATNA, 4. if a negotiation strategy can affect the outcome and if so, which one it is and 5. what do they aim to achieve when choosing a negotiation strategy. The last three questions were of a general nature asking about COVID19, and the future of negotiations and if they believe cultural differences can affect the negotiation process. The following sections 3.2.3 and 3.3 will explain more about the scale that was used for our questionnaire.

Once the questionnaire was created it was electronically distributed via email to the selected negotiator of the selected company. Due to General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), anonymity was confirmed, and a certain disclaimer followed the email clarifying that the collected data/views/experiences will only be used for the purposes of this master thesis and will not be shared with other external parties. The questionnaire was formulated using the Likert scale and was given electronically, to be filled at their own time and space. Answers were provided in English.

After gathering the completed questionnaires, the data was analysed. It should be noted that due to the small number of participants the collected data is not representative for all export industries however valuable conclusion can be made. The following section will describe the Likert scale and how the questionnaire was analysed.

### **3.2.3 Likert scale**

The original scale was developed by the American social scientist, Rensis Likert, and is described in his paper published in 1932 in Archives of Psychology entitled "A Technique for the Measurement of Attitudes". He formulated this psychometric approach mainly for conducting social and educational research however nowadays, the Likert scale is one of the best survey tools for measuring opinions, attitudes, or behaviours in different fields (Drexler 2022 and Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022). Since the Likert scales are common in survey research they can be applied in fields such as marketing, psychology, or other social sciences in order to measure the level of agreement or disagreement, as well as other spectrums, such as frequency, satisfaction, or importance (Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022).

Likert scales consist of a statement or a question which has a five-point or seven-point scale; in other words, contains 5 or 7 response options (answer statements also known

as items). These points refer to how many responses the participant must choose from. The participant will choose the option that best corresponds with how he/she feels about the statement or question. In majority Likert scales are odd-numbered, consisting of equal numbers of positive and negative responses as well as a neutral response (Mahmutovic 2020 and Typeform 2022). The first and last points are known as response anchors (Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022 and Drexler 2022). The point in the middle is usually a neutral point while the positive and negative points are on the other two sides. The points are scored from 1 to 5 or 1 to 7.

If more points are used in a Likert scale, there is the possibility that the participant might find it difficult to decide on one answer because they will have too many choices. Likert scales with fewer points (response options), tend to be more user-friendly but then again, less detail is captured (Drexler 2022).

As a Likert scale consists of a series of declarative statements, where the participant is asked to indicate for example if approves or not a presented statement; the five options would be: *“Strongly approve”, “approve”, “undecided”, “disapprove”, “strongly disapprove”* (Likert 1932). Similarly, to measure agreement, quality and likelihood, the Likert scale will have the following options: *“Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “Neither Agree nor Disagree”, “Disagree”, “Strongly Disagree”; “Very Poor”, “Poor”, “Fair”, “Good”, “Excellent”; and “Extremely Unlikely”, “Somewhat Unlikely”, “Likely”, “Somewhat Likely”, “Extremely Likely”* respectively. This choice range aims to capture a holistic view of the participants’ opinions and their level of approval/agreement/quality and likelihood. Noticeably, there are the mid-point, for the participants who are neutral on the subject matter (Mahmutovic 2020).

Using the Likert scale in a questionnaire has many advantages such as being easy for people to understand and to be completed; a user-friendly questionnaire, makes it quick for the participants to fill it out (Mahmutovic 2020 and Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022). In addition, because the Likert-type questions are not binary (yes/no, true/false) the researcher can obtain insights into opinions and experiences (Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022). On the other hand, this method does have certain disadvantages. For example, the responses can be bias because of social desirability bias; in other words, a patrician might hesitate to select an extreme option, or disagree with a statement in the questioner in order to seem normal or

might give a socially acceptable answer rather than to share their honest opinion in case they get stigmatised (Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022). Moreover, if the questioner includes vague words which do not have a precise or a narrow definition, then the participants might interpretate them wrong (Bhandari and Nikolopoulou 2022).

### **3.3 Analysis**

Keeping in mind that the Likert scale gives quantitative value to qualitative data (Mahmutovic 2020) for our questionnaire we used the five-point scale, 5 possible answers to each question/statement where each of these answers was given a numerical score which allowed for quantitative data analysis (Drexler 2022). We selected the five-point scale because we thought it is more used friendly, it fitted better the purpose of our survey, would give us adequate detail and we did not want to have too many options to confuse and make it harder for our participants. However, because the seven-point scale has been shown to reach the upper limits of the scale’s reliability (Nunnally 1978), for some of our questions we also used the 7-point scale.

Our initial analysis of the data obtained from the Likert scale did not involve parametric statistics but relied on the ordinal nature of the data (Allen and Seaman 2007). Hence, we did not calculate the mean score for the Likert scale data because this scale provides ordinal data and the between points cannot be considered equal (Mahmutovic 2020). Therefore, in order to analyse our data, we calculated the mode score by determining the number-point that appeared the most (Mahmutovic 2020). The results then presented in a graphical manner in Chapter 4 of this thesis and a more detailed discussion of these results are described in Chapter 5.

## **4. Results**

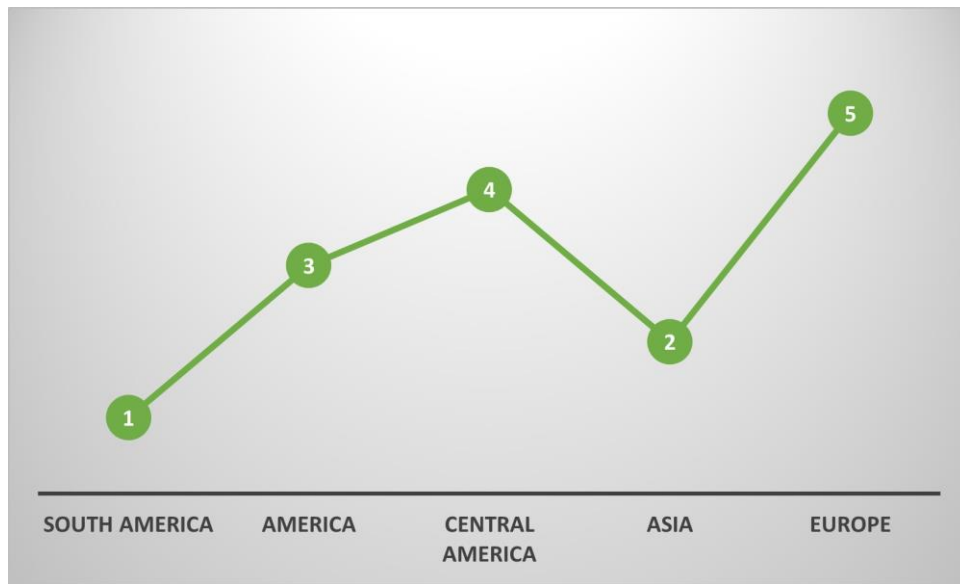
In this chapter, the findings from the submitted questionnaires will be presented either in a graphical or in a tabular format and Chapter 5 of this thesis a detailed analysis and discussion will be provided. Each question from the survey questionnaire, served a certain purpose. The first part of the questionnaire served the purpose of gathering demographic data and general information about the participants and the second part of the questionnaire served the purpose of collecting the opinions and experiences of the negotiators regarding our research topic. The demographic results and general information are presented in Sections 4.1.1- 4.1.3, while the results from the more targeted questions are presented in Sections 4.2 – 4.12. The multiple-choice questions followed the Likert scale, therefore the participants were presented with five or seven possible answers to select from whichever matched their opinion. These questions aimed to explore the negotiators experiences and opinions on certain topics. In addition to these multiple-choice questions, the negotiators were also presented with two open questions. For these questions, the original negotiators quotes are presented in sections 4.3 and 4.12.

### **4.1 General information**

#### **4.1.1 Demographics**

To begin with, participants were asked certain demographic questions to complete. We were interested to know from which country come from, continent, their age, and the number of negotiations they handle per year.

Our questionnaire was distributed globally, and we gathered data from export industries from countries such as Israel, USA, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Peru, Germany, Switzerland, France, and Greece. To have included five continents and ten different countries makes our survey valuable and worthwhile because it allowed us to gather, observe, analyse, understand and discuss important views and experiences on our research topic across the world and see how this opinions and experiences differ across countries. To sum it up, Figure 4 shows the number of participants from each continent.



**Figure 4.** Origin of negotiators who participated in our study according to continent they are based. The number inside each circle indicates the number of participants (n=15).

The age groups negotiators fall into and the number of negotiations they handle annually are presented in Table 1 A and B respectively. The majority of negotiators age group is between 31 and 40 years of age (nine), four negotiators were between 41 and 50 while one negotiator was in the age group of 20-30 years of age and just one over fifties (Table 1 A.). We deliberately selected negotiators who fall into the 31-50 age group; the age of these negotiators also mirrors their experience in the field of negotiations.

A.

Age group (years)	Number of participants
20-30	1
31-40	9
41-50	4
> 50	1

B.

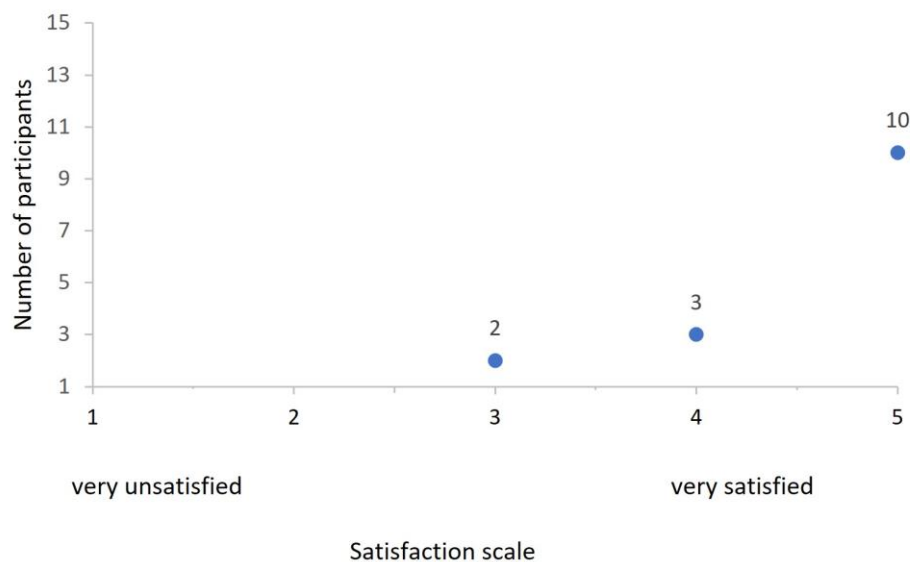
Negotiations/year	Number of participants
50	4
60	2
70	3
100	3
150	3

**Table 1.** Age of participants (A) and number of negotiations they handle annually (B).

Regarding the number of negotiations participants handle annually, participants are split almost equally between 50 (4N), 60 (2N), 70 (3N), 100 (3N), and 150 (3N) negotiations per year (total number of participants is indicated in the bracket (N), Table 1 B). A critical point of our research was to ensure that the participants had enough experience; this experience can be concluded not only by the age of the negotiators but also by the number of negotiations they handle per year. The minimum of 50 negotiations per year can indicate adequate experience.

#### 4.1.2 Satisfaction ratings

The negotiators who participated in our study they were also asked to rate how satisfied they are with the current state of negotiation procedures in their organization, with a range given between very unsatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5).



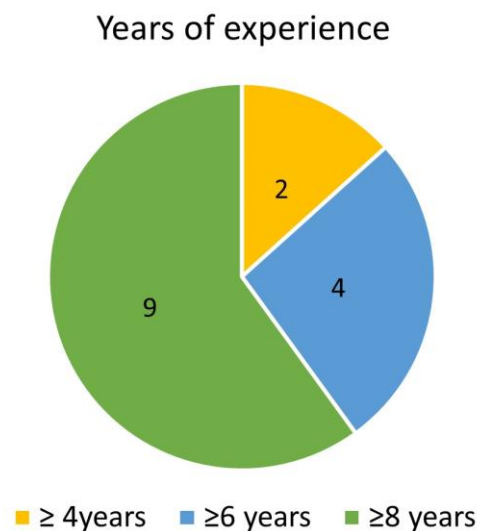
**Figure 5.** How satisfied are participants with the current state of negotiation procedures in their organization.

As shown in Figure 5, ten out of fifteen participants were “*very satisfied*” since they rated 5 their satisfaction on the scale, three participants were “*satisfied*” rating 4 on the scale and finally, two participants were in the middle of the satisfaction scale with a rating of 3.

#### 4.1.3 Experience

Another information that was collected from the negotiators who took part in the study was the number of years of experience they had with negotiations in the export industry. Experience of participants is important question for our research considering that one key criterion for a company to be able to participate in the study was the number of years being active in this field. Our proposed range to select from, was between from one year up to more than eight years of experience.

As shown in Figure 6 out of total 15 participants, 9 had more than 8 years of experience, 4 had more than 6 years of experience and 2 had more than 4 years of experience.



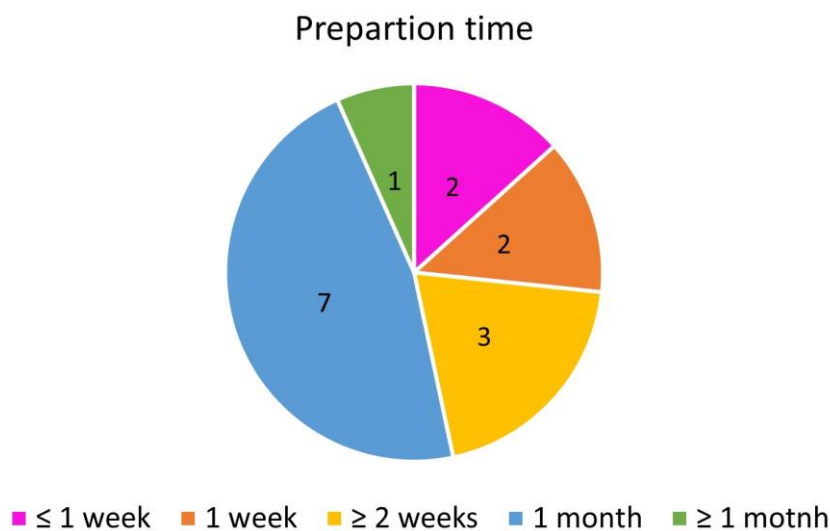
**Figure 6.** Years of experience of participants with negotiations in the exports industry. The number inside each segment indicates the number of participants (n=15).

#### 4.2 Preparation time

A key question for our research was how much time participants invest in order to prepare for a negotiation. The proposed range for preparation that was given to negotiators were:

less than one week, one week, more than one week, more than 2 weeks, one month, more than one month, more than two months.

As per Figure 7 the results among participants vary. Most of participants, in fact seven negotiators; prepare for one month, while two participants prepare less than one week, two participants prepare for one week, and three participants prepare more than two weeks. Just one participant prepares for more than one month for a negotiation in the export industry.



**Figure 7.** Time of preparation each negotiators invests to prepare for a negotiation in the exports industry. The number inside each segment indicates the number of participants (n=15).

### 4.3 Role of negotiation strategies in export market

The negotiators were also asked an open question to describe briefly what is the role of negotiation strategies in export market. To begin with, as seen from the below answers 10 negotiators (N) stress the importance of this part in the export market (N1, N2, N4, N5, N9, N10, N12, N13, N14, N15) and one negotiator characterizes the role of negotiations as “critical” (N11) due to the excess of global supply chain that COVID19 caused. Also, three of them highlighted that the role of negotiations is to succeed better price (N1, N2, N5), five



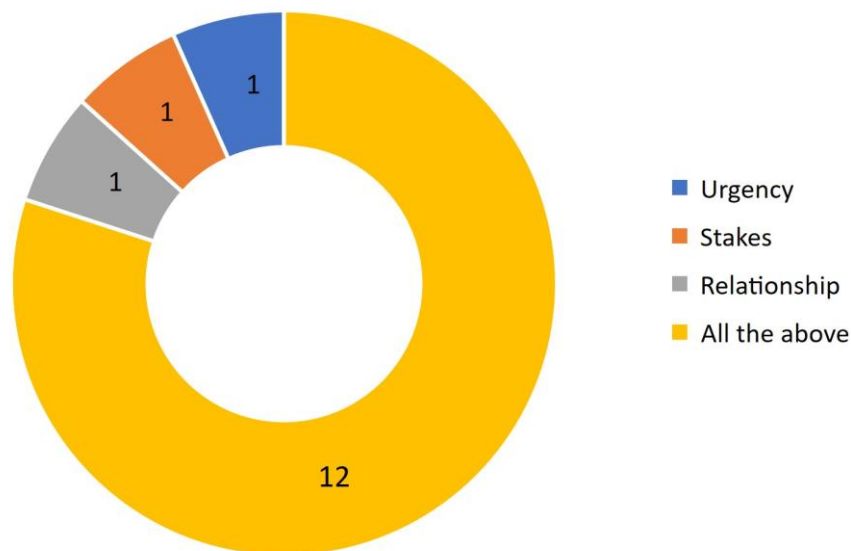
negotiators believe that the role of negotiations is to achieve good trade agreements (N3, N6, N7, N8, N9) and three to close a good deal (N4, N5, N14).

<i>It is very important because we succeed better price</i>	N1
<i>The most important role to achieve better price</i>	N2
<i>Better trade agreements</i>	N3
<i>It is the most important part to close a good deal</i>	N4
<i>The most important part in order to manage a good deal price and product wise</i>	N5
<i>Better trade agreements</i>	N6
<i>good trade agreements</i>	N7
<i>Achieve better terms for both parts</i>	N8
<i>It is the most important thing to do a good agreement</i>	N9
<i>Very important</i>	N10
<i>The role of negotiations is critical nowadays, as the overload of the global supply chain caused by COVID19 drove all the markets crazy</i>	N11
<i>Very important</i>	N12
<i>One of the most important part of exports</i>	N13
<i>It is the most important tool to achieve a good deal</i>	N14
<i>Very important</i>	N15

**Table 2.** The role of negotiation strategies in export market

#### **4.4 Criteria of choosing a negotiation strategy**

For our research it was important to know what the criteria are for selecting a certain negotiation strategy. Hence negotiators were asked which factors are important when choosing a negotiation strategy. Their options were (1) urgency; timeframe – estimation to complete the negotiation, (2) stakes; the importance of the outcome, (3) relationship; existing relationship between the parties, (4) all of them, (5) none of them.



**Figure 8.** Criteria of choosing a negotiation strategy. Numbers indicate how many negotiators chose this option.

As Figure 8 shows most of the participants chose option (4) all of them. In fact, 12 negotiators said that all three factors were considered when choosing a negotiation strategy. One participant chose that just urgency is a factor to take into account when choosing a negotiation strategy, another one selected only the stakes and finally another negotiator chose only the relationship between the parties to be a criterion when selecting a negotiation strategy in the export industry.

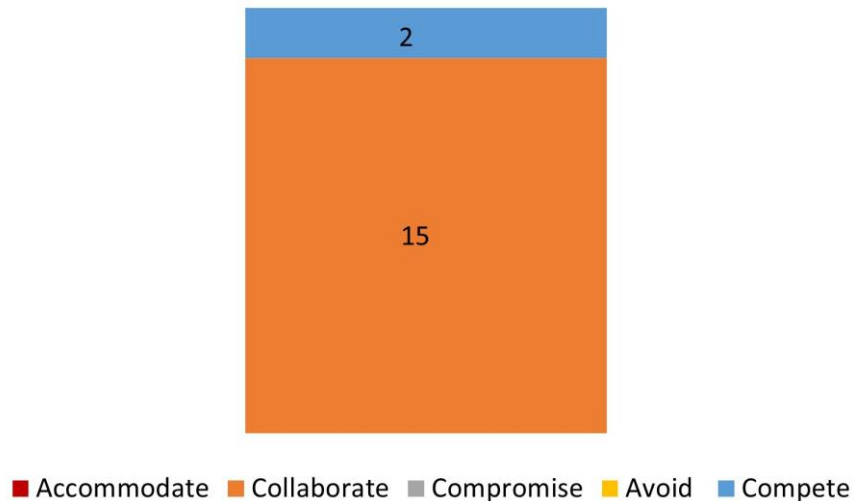
## 4.5 Pre- negotiation strategy

The following section will present the results gathered from three different questions related to the pre- negotiation strategies.

### 4.5.1 Currently used pre-negotiation strategy

To begin with, the participants were asked which pre-negotiation strategy they currently use in the company they are working for. Five different options they were given to select from as many as they apply: (i) accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship; (ii) collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions; (iii) compromise- split the pie

to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party; (iv) avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is; and (v) compete – win at the expense of the other party

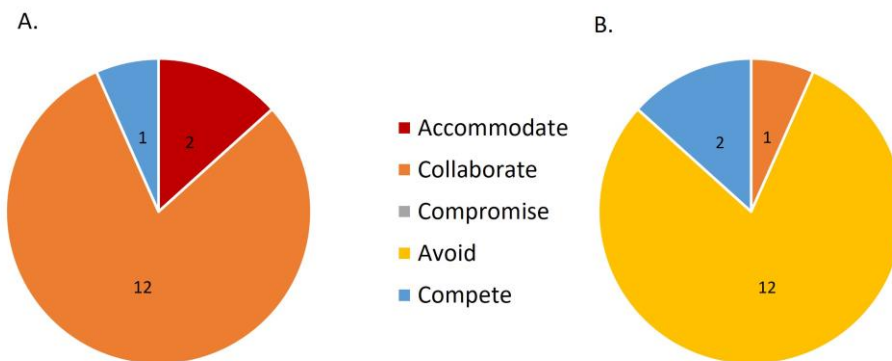


**Figure 9.** Pre-negotiation strategies in the export industry are currently being used by participants in their organizations.

For this question we received a unanimous reply. According to Figure 9 all fifteen participants currently are using the collaborate negotiation strategy. Nevertheless, two participants are also using the compete strategy along with the collaborate one.

#### 4.5.2 Best and worst pre negotiation strategy

Additionally, negotiators were asked about which is the best and worst pre-negotiation strategy according to their experience. The same five options were given to select as many as they apply: (i) accommodate; (ii) collaborate; (iii) compromise; (iv) avoid; and (v) compete.



**Figure 10.** Best (A.) and worst (B.) pre-negotiation strategies in export market.

As per Figure 10 twelve negotiators chose the collaborate strategy as the best pre-negotiation strategy, two participants chose accommodate and just one the compete strategy. One the other hand twelve negotiators chose the avoid strategy as the worst pre-negotiation strategy in export industry. While two participants among our strategies list chose compete one as the worst and one negotiator collaborate.

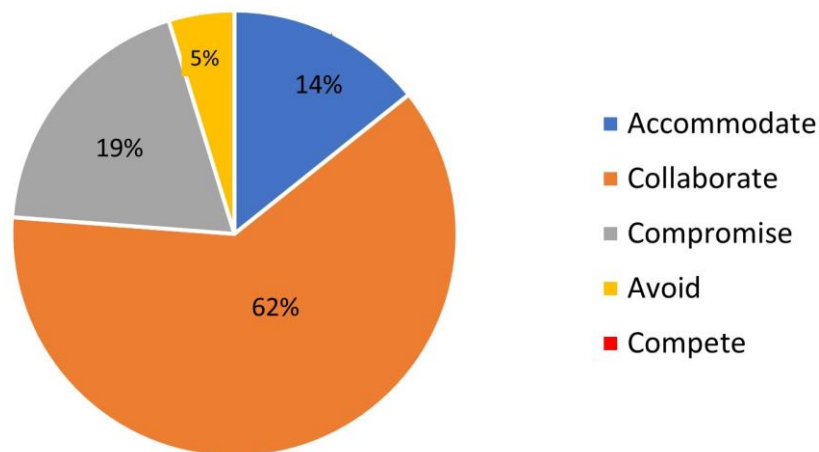
## 4.6 Post- negotiation strategy

The following section will present the results gathered from three different questions related to the post negotiation strategies.

### 4.6.1 Currently used post-negotiation strategy

Regarding the post negotiation strategies, participants were also asked which one they are currently using in the company they are working for. Again, five different options they were given to select from as many as they apply: (i) accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship; (ii) collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions; (iii) compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party; (iv) avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is; and (v) compete – win at the expense of the other party. For this question the participants were given the option to choose as many as apply. Therefore, the data is presented in Figure 11 in terms of percentage of preference and not as total

number of participants who chose each option because certain participants chose more than one option.

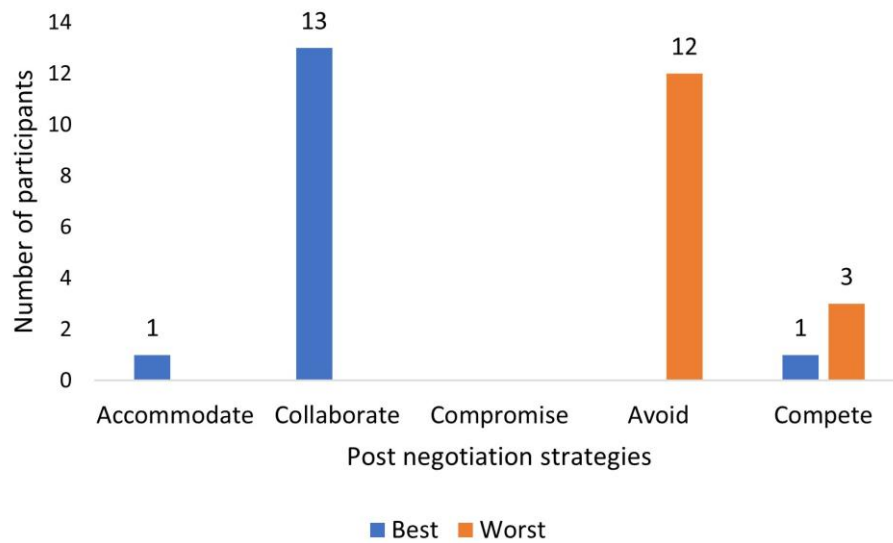


**Figure 11.** Post negotiation strategies in the export industry are currently being used by participants in their organization.

As per Figure 11 the majority of participants (62%) stated that collaborate is the current post negotiation strategy they use in their organization, coming second best the compromise (19%), followed by the accommodate (14%) and with just 5% the avoid negotiation strategy.

#### 4.6.2 Best and worst pre negotiation strategy

Finally, negotiators were asked about which the best and worst post negotiation strategy is according to their experience. The same five options were given to select as many as they apply: (i) accommodate; (ii) collaborate; (iii) compromise; (iv) avoid; and (v) compete.

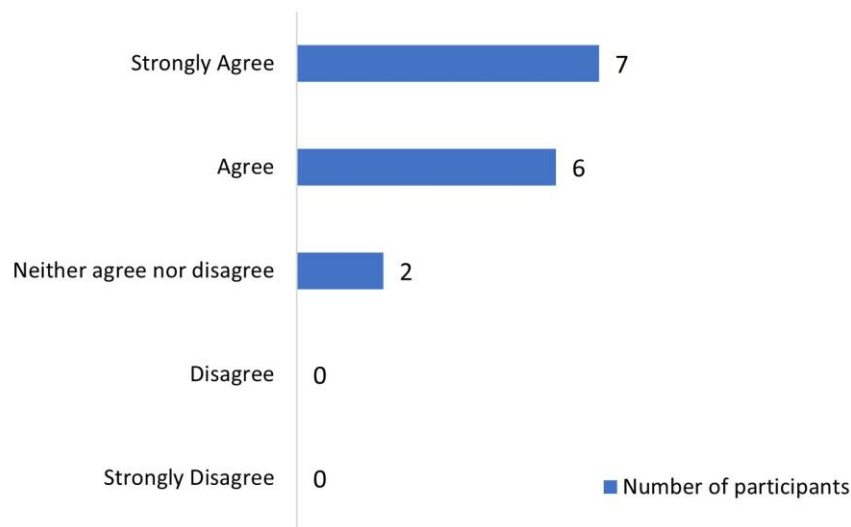


**Figure 12.** Best and worst post negotiation strategies in export market.

From the above Figure 12, best post-negotiation strategy is collaborate as 13 participants selected it, while there was one negotiator who chose the accommodate strategy and one who chose compete. As for the worst post negotiation strategy, avoid is the worst since 12 out of 15 participants selected it, while there were 3 negotiators who voted for compete to be the worst post negotiation strategy in the export market.

#### 4.7 BATNA

A topic our survey wanted to investigate was the thoughts of negotiators towards BATNA (Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement). Therefore, we presented participants the following statement *“In case a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place, you should have a BATNA”* and asked them if they agree or disagree.



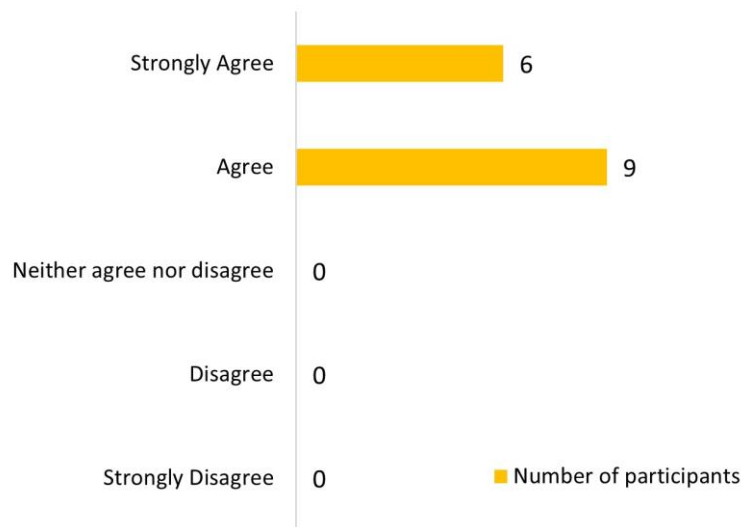
**Figure 13.** A negotiator should have a BATNA in case a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place.

As Figure 13 shows, apart from two participants who chose “*Neither agree nor disagree*” indicating a neutral feeling towards the presented statement, most of the negotiators, in fact 13, “*agree*” (6) and “*strongly agree*” (7) that a negotiator should have a BATNA in case a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place.

#### 4.8 Negotiation strategy and final outcome

One of the main questions for this survey was if a negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome and if so, what outcome can affect. For that purpose, we presented participants the following statement “*A negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome*” asking them if they agree or disagree and also to choose which outcome a negotiation strategy can affect among (1) better price; (2) product; (3) best agreement; (4) all of them and (5) none of them.

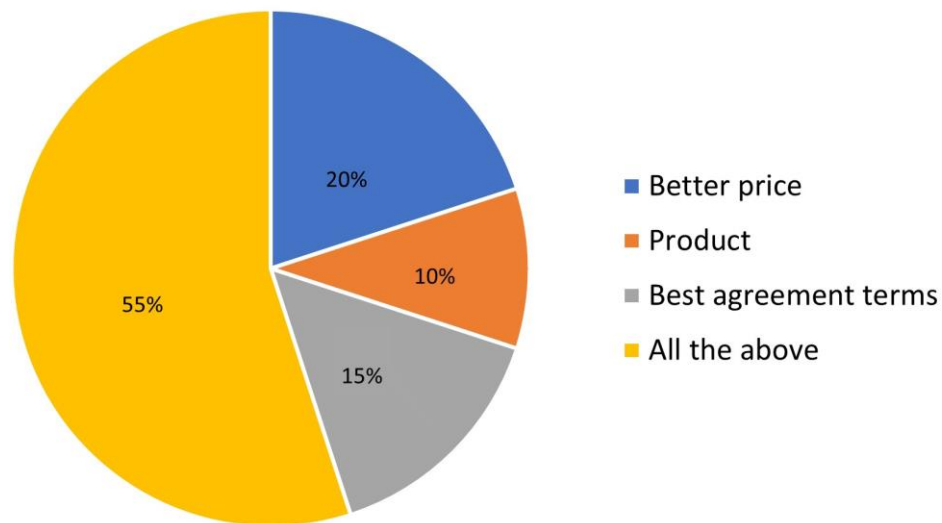
According to Figure 14, 9 and 6 negotiators “*agree*” and “*strongly agree*” respectively that a negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome. None from the participants had a neutral attitude towards this statement nor disagreed.



**Figure 14.** A negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome.

To explore which outcome a negotiation strategy can affect, the negotiators were given a list to choose from including better price, product, best agreement terms, all of them and none of them. For this question the participants were given the option to choose as many as apply. Therefore, the data is presented in Figure 15 in terms of percentage of preference and not as total number of participants who chose each option.



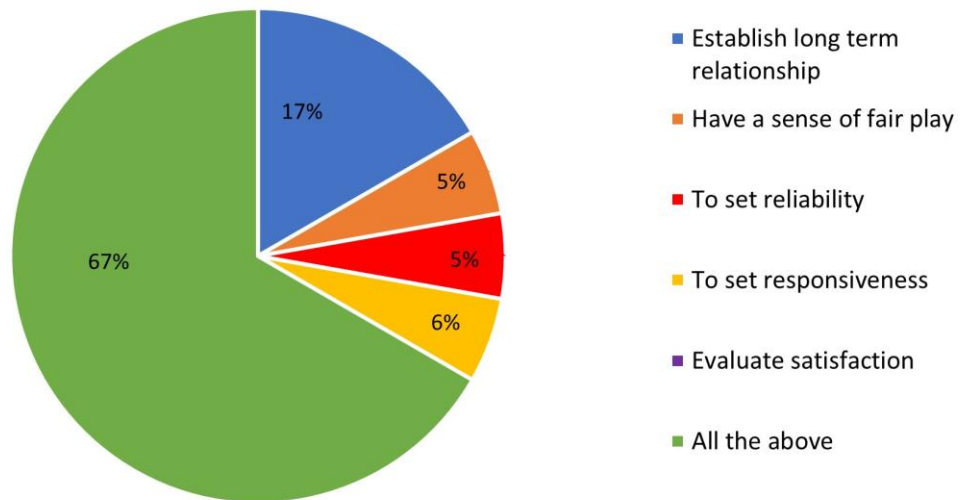


**Figure 15.** Outcomes that a negotiation strategy can affect.

The combination of all three outcomes scored 55% of preference, while better price, best agreement terms and product, scored 20%, 15% and 10% respectively.

#### 4.9 Aims of negotiation

An important factor we wanted to explore in our survey was to find out what negotiators aim to achieve by selecting a certain negotiation strategy. Hence, we asked them to choose as many as apply from the following options: (i) establish long term relationship; (ii) have a sense of fair play; (iii) to set reliability; (iv) to set responsiveness; (v) evaluate satisfaction; (vi) all of them and (vii) none of them. For this question the participants were given the option to choose as many as apply. Therefore, the data is presented in Figure 16 in terms of percentage of preference and not as total number of participants who chose each option.

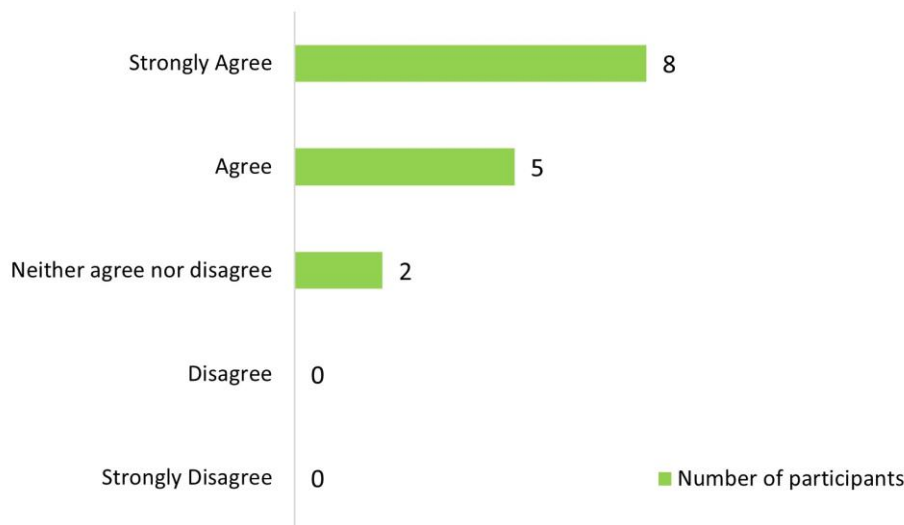


**Figure 16.** What a negotiator aims when choosing a negotiation strategy.

As per Figure 16 the majority of the participants (67%) aim all the suggestions we presented them. However, there was one participant who chose the combination of “*establish long term relationship*” and “*to set responsiveness*”, one participant who chose the combination of “*establish long term relationship*” and “*have sense of fair play*” and one who chose the combination of “*establish long term relationship*” and “*to set reliability*”.

#### **4.10 COVID19 and negotiation strategies**

Being aligned with current worldwide situation due to the pandemic, we wanted to investigate if COVID19 affected the negotiation strategies in export industry. Hence, we asked the negotiators if they agree or disagree with a certain statement and their opinions are presented shown in following Figure 17. We presented the participants with the following statement “*COVID19 has affected negotiation strategies*”



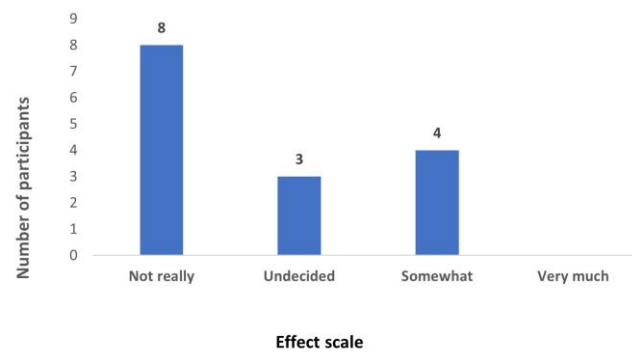
**Figure 17.** COVID19 has affected the negotiation strategies in the export market.

According to Figure 17, apart from two participants who chose “*Neither agree nor disagree*” representing a neutral feeling towards the presented statement, thirteen negotiators “*agree*” (5N) and “*strongly agree*” (8N) that COVID19 has indeed affected the negotiation strategies.

#### 4.11 Cultural differences and negotiations

Although negotiation is a universal process, cultural differences may affect this process. For example, figurative forms of speech, facial expressions, gestures, and other kinds of body language that are in one negotiators culture but not in another’s, may affect this universal process.

Therefore, since negotiators work in export companies, we wanted to find out whether cultural differences affect negotiations. Participants were asked to rank their opinion on a five-point scale, 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Very much), regarding how much they believe cultural differences affect negotiations. Results are presented in Figure 18.



**Figure 18.** How much cultural differences affect negotiations in the export market.

Our results show a variety of opinions, and according to Figure 18, out of fifteen participants eight felt “not really” choosing option 2, while four selected option 4 (somewhat) and 3 participants were undecided whether cultural differences can affect the negotiation process.

#### 4.12 Future of negotiations in the exports industry

The final open question the negotiators were asked was their opinion on how they see the future of negotiations in the exports industry.

According to the below answers presented in Table 3, five negotiators (N2, N4, N7, N8 and N15) foresee the future of negotiations in the export market to be *difficult*, while three expect it to be *demanding* (N5, N9, N10), while two believe it will be *strong* and *competitive* (N1 and N6) and another two to be *challenging* (N9 and N12). Last but not least one negotiator (N3) feels *insecure* for the future of negotiations while another one believes digitalization will take over and all negotiations will take place via chatrooms (N13).

<i>Due to COVID outbreak and the war in Ukraine negotiations will be very strong because prices rise and we have to negotiate better price with our suppliers</i>	N1
<i>Very difficult because of covid that brought rise in the freights and the war outbreak that caused price rise</i>	N2
<i>Insecure because of the Covid, wars, high cost of living</i>	N3
<i>Very difficult to close a good deal</i>	N4
<i>Very demanding because of the rapid changes in cost of living</i>	N5
<i>Very strong and competitive</i>	N6
<i>Difficult ..The insecurity of citizens creates a decrease in purchases</i>	N7
<i>Very difficult because of the rise in prices of raw materials and products</i>	N8
<i>Very demanding and challenging</i>	N9
<i>Demanding</i>	N10
<i>In my opinion the future of the negotiations will be affected by the level of the costs, which cannot currently be calculated in a long-term basis</i>	N11
<i>Due to the constant demanding conditions the future seems challenging</i>	N12
<i>Electronical means of communication such as Zoom and Teams are playing nowadays a very important role and I strongly believe that they are a great tool for the companies because it give us the sense of a meeting in person which is very helpful during negotiations</i>	N13
<i>Use contracts that ensure compliance with the terms set during negotiations</i>	N14
<i>Very difficult</i>	N15

**Table 3.** How negotiators see the future of negotiations in the exports industry.

From the negotiators replies it is interesting to observe their feelings and believes regarding the future of negotiations. Either being enthusiastic and having an optimistic, prosperous view of the future or being more realistic and aligned with the current events happening worldwide (COVID19 and the war in Ukraine).

## 5. Discussion

In order for our survey to take place we wanted the negotiators who will participate to meet certain criteria and we were satisfied that these criteria were met. To begin with the demographic data we collected fulfilled the criterion of having a survey that will run globally so as to gather information from different geographical markets. Negotiators who participated in the survey were from five continents and ten different countries and therefore we gained experiences and opinions from different cultural backgrounds. In addition, for our survey the majority of negotiators age group was between 31 and 50 years of age who handle between 50 to 150 negotiations per year and had a minimum of 4 years of experience in negotiations. In fact, 60% of participants had more than 8 years of experience, 27% had more than 6 years and just 13% had more than 4 years of experience in negotiations in the export industry. All this data satisfies our criteria for the participants to participate in our study. This pool of participants provides validity of our survey results and conclusions because according to the age of the negotiators, they had more years of experience, hence they have dealt with many negotiations and therefore their opinions and experiences are accountable and reliable.

Another aspect of the participants we wanted to find out was how satisfied they are with the current state of negotiation procedures in their organization. This result was important because it provided us the essence of how the participants feel towards the organization they work for and how pleased they are with how negotiations are run in their company. In fact, seventy five percent of the participants were between very satisfied and satisfied with the negotiation procedures in their organization. Knowing how satisfied an employee is, is important because it can predict its future work behaviour, performance, and engagement; job satisfaction influences job performance (Wright and Cropanzano 2000 and Schaufeli et al., 2008).

If a negotiation will be successful or not, is primarily based on how well prepared the negotiator is. The 80/20 rule applies here; 80% of negotiation is preparation and 20% is the actual negotiation with the other party. This rule comes from the Pareto principle which states that for several outcomes, roughly 80% of consequences come from 20% of causes; in other words, a small percentage of causes have an outsized effect (Dunford et al., 2014). For this reason, we asked the negotiators how much time they invest to prepare for a

negotiation. Searching the literature there were no strict timeframes or guidance regarding how much time a negotiation should invest in preparation. The literature is more focused on the actual aspect of preparation rather than the amount of time in terms of hours, weeks or months. Which makes our data more easily understood because as Figure 7 shows the results among participants vary. Results are scattered throughout the time range options we offered the participants to choose from. 47% of participants invest one month to prepare for a negotiation in the export industry and 20% invests more than two weeks. In the lower scale of the preparation time, 13% of participants dedicate less than one week and another 13% one week, while just 7% prepares for more than one month. Therefore, our data indicates that there is no time limitation or strict timeframe to prepare for a negotiation, as long as any form of preparation takes place is enough.

Since the aim of research was to explore the role of negotiations in the export market, we wondered what the participants’ opinion was on this particular subject. Hence we asked them an open question to describe what the role of negotiation strategies in export market is. It was interesting to observe that most of the negotiator’s answers included the word important. For the participants the role of negotiations strategies is important for different reasons as each negotiator later explained in his answer; for example, it is important because they manage to succeed better price, it is important because they help to achieve good trade agreements, or it is important because they assist to close a good deal. Despite the different explanation each negotiator gave, they all highlighted its importance. Our results agree with the literature since many researchers have pointed out the significance of negotiations in different fields including the export market (Simintiras and Thomas 1998, Friberg and Wilander 2008, Bazerman et al., 2000, Lyubov 2020)

Moving on to the criteria that a negotiator considers for selecting a certain negotiation strategy, we asked the participants to choose from five different options; urgency; timeframe – estimation to complete the negotiation, stakes; the importance of the outcome, relationship; existing relationship between the parties, all of them, none of them. As expected most of the participants (12/15) selected the option which included all the three factors: urgency, stakes, and relationship. Our data is aligned with current literature (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020). However, as we move towards atomization and digitalization, these two concepts will be further analysed later in this chapter of the present thesis, developing technologies will be available to provide assistance into choosing a suitable

negotiation strategy. Negotiators will have the option to put any type of criteria into a system where an algorithm will then suggest a suitable negotiation strategy; an automated peer-to-peer negotiation strategy (Chakraborty et al., 2020). With no doubt automatization and artificial intelligence most certainly can assist many aspects of modern life and working procedures and negotiations is included in that list. Nevertheless, in an ideal world a golden balance should be reached between digitization and human input.

A main objective of our research was to investigate what negotiators aim to achieve by selecting a certain negotiation strategy. Setting clear and achievable objectives is fundamental to a successful negotiation. Hence, participants were presented with a list of aims to choose from and the majority (67%) are aiming to (i) establish long term relationship with the other party; (ii) to have a sense of fair play; (iii) to set reliability; (iv) to set responsiveness; and to (v) evaluate satisfaction. According to the literature, these are indeed the main targets of any effective negotiator that tries to succeed (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020).

One of the main questions for this survey was if a negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome and if so, what outcome can affect. Our research showed that negotiators do agree that a negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome and in fact affects the price, the product, and the agreement. These results are in line with the literature that an effective negotiator will try to succeed better price, best product with the best agreement terms (Thompson 2019 and Olekalns and Druckman 2014 ).Taking into account that the final price of a product is determined through negotiations between buyer and seller, it is reasonable that the effect of negotiation strategy on pricing to depend on the negotiating skills and attitudes of both parties as well as the commitment of both parties to engage in a long-term business relationship (Thompson 2019). Reasonably, a negotiator with a cooperative strategy would tend to avoid the use of coercive practices during a negotiation therefore having a positive effect on the agreement terms (Atkin and Rinehart 2006). According to the literature emotional expressions can influence the negotiation strategy, its course, and related interactions (Olekalns and Druckman 2014). Negotiators can greatly influence each other's emotions, positively or negatively affecting them, and thus significantly shaping the negotiation outcome; emotions can even determine whether or not the parties will reach an agreement (Ibid). Of course, the list of the outcomes a negotiation strategy might affect can



be enriched by many others such as value for money, life-time costs of a product or service, cancellation terms, delivery and production times, price and payment terms.

The main aim of this current research was to find out which pre and post negotiation strategies export companies use as well as to explore which are the best and worst pre- and post- negotiation strategies according to the experiences of the participants. The participants had to choose from the five well studied and established negotiation strategies: (i) accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship; (ii) collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions; (iii) compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party; (iv) avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is; and (v) compete – win at the expense of the other party.

For the pre-negotiation phase, all the negotiators who participated in the study are currently using the collaborate negotiation strategy as well as compete. Regarding which pre-negotiation strategy is the best the participants unanimously choose the collaborate strategy and of note two participants chose accommodate. The definition of collaborate negotiation strategy is given in Section 2.2 and in Section 2.2.3 the importance of the pre-negotiation phase is highlighted. Therefore, it makes total sense why the participants chose this strategy as the best for the pre-negotiation phase. The collaborative strategy serves best the purpose of the pre-negotiation phase, it can be seen as the collaborate strategy compliments the scope of the pre-negotiation phase. However, our survey results come in contrast with a recent study which wanted to explore what are the main activities that negotiators undertake during the pre-negotiation phase and what are their priorities and goals (Balliu and Spahiu 2020). That study showed that out of 68 respondents only 8 mentioned collaborative strategy as a priority and option in the pre-negotiation phase. Considering that this strategy is characterised as “constructive”, “ethical” or “interest-based” strategy and is regarded as an important and valuable component, when aiming for an unbiased and fair agreement the result from this study is surprising and unexpected. In order to reach a win-win agreement, a negotiator must be able to understand the interest and motivation of the other party. If the opposite happens, a negotiator not focusing on the side of the other party, during the pre-negotiation phase, then they are not interested in collaborative strategies. An explanation for this low number of respondents may be due to the low experience in the negotiation field. Considering the opinion of the two participants who choose the accommodate as the best pre-negotiation strategy, it can be explained in

cases where the negotiator has as a priority to establish a long-term relationship with the other party over winning. For choosing this negotiation strategy in the pre-phase the negotiator prefers to keep the relationship intact and succeeding the future goal of continuing to do business together.

As far as the worst pre-negotiation strategy, according to the experience of the negotiators who participated in the survey, was the avoid strategy. A detailed description of the avoid strategy has already been given in Section 2.2 of this thesis. Hence it comes to no surprise why the negotiators chose it as the worst pre-negotiation strategy. When both parties make few efforts to resolve the negotiable issue, of course it makes it an unpopular and worst pre-negotiation strategy. By choosing the avoid negotiation strategy during the pre-phase, a negotiator might appear as weak because he is intentionally avoiding the negotiation and is not able to suggest a creative response that may improve the negotiations. In addition, avoidance is not a good choice for the pre-phase because there is the risk of damaging the reputation of the negotiator and the company he represents. Nevertheless, there are a few cases where avoidance can actually have some advantages and be a choice for the pre-negotiation phase. For example, this strategy can be used when the negotiator wants to gather more accurate information during this cooldown period for the actual negotiation rather than investing time and effort for the pre phase. Or it can be used when the negotiator prefers to display confidence and calmness by avoiding the pre-negotiation phase because is better at handling the actual negotiation or when the issue being negotiated is not important at all, or when the negotiator has lost perspective of the situation and requires extra time to rethink the negotiation. For all the above cases sometimes, avoidance can be an option for the pre-negotiation phase.

For the post-negotiation phase, 62% of negotiators who participated in the study are currently using the collaborate negotiation strategy. There was however a small amount of negotiators who also choose the compromise and the accommodate strategies. Regarding which post-negotiation strategy is the best the participants generally choose the collaborate strategy and of note one participant chose compete. As far as the worst post-negotiation strategy, according to the experience of the negotiators who participated in the survey, was the avoid strategy. Taking these results into account and comparing them to the results of the same survey regarding the best and worst pre-negotiation strategies, a trend can be observed. The same strategies were chosen as the best and worst in both pre- and post-

negotiation phases. Although at first this result might be questionable it can be explained considering that negotiators tend to use the same patterns and options for both phases. A study showed that certain pre-negotiation activities and choices occur not only at the pre-phase but also at the post-negotiation phase, following a pattern; trend (Balliu and Spahiu 2020).

At this point it is worthwhile to mention the subject of atomization and its implementation in negotiation in both pre-and post-phases particularly in the export market. Automated negotiation will be in the form of interaction in systems that are composed of multiple autonomous agents (Faratin et al., 2002). The purpose of such interactions will be to reach agreements through an iterative process of making offers. This system will be based on a strategy called *trade-off* strategy where multiple negotiation decision variables are *traded-off* against one another; for example, paying a higher price in order to obtain an earlier delivery date or waiting longer in order to obtain a higher quality service. A linear algorithm will be motivated by a number of real-world negotiation applications. In terms of how long this process will take in order to select how to negotiate, on average the total time used by the algorithm will be linearly proportional to the number of negotiation issues under consideration. Additionally, a formal analysis is complemented by an empirical evaluation that highlights the operational effectiveness of the algorithm in a range of negotiation scenarios.

Regarding BATNA when the participants were asked if a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place, they should have a BATNA, 87% of the negotiators agreed. There is no doubt that the concept of BATNA in negotiation has proven to be enormously useful, with a plethora of literature to support this fact (Brett et al., 1996, Sebenius 2017, Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020, Schaerer et al., 2020). In fact, a research study proved that negotiators with a BATNA achieved higher individual outcomes and a larger percentage of the dyadic outcomes than individuals without a BATNA (Brett et al., 1996). Moreover, BATNA is considered to a source of power and provide this power to negotiators because it enables them to offer or deny something tangible. Usually, having a strong alternative provides more power than a weak or no alternative. Similarly, a certain alternative offers greater power than a probabilistic alternative. and multiple alternatives provide more power than a single alternative (Ibid). Therefore, our data agrees with published observations.

Since our main research field was in the export industry we wanted to investigate the effect of cultural differences on negotiation. Although in an ideal scenario a negotiator might know what to expect from certain people and certain company from within their own country, this does not apply when he has to negotiate with people, companies from other countries. Culture is connected to people's expectations of each other and in fact expectations vary from company to company, from country to country and from culture to culture (Baber and Fletcher-Chen 2020). A negotiator from one cultural background can learn and educate himself about the expectations of another cultural group gaining precious experience. Similarly, a negotiator from one country may have a preferred strategy in how they negotiate. However, negotiators must be careful to never stereotype regarding a particular country and culture. A successful negotiator must use this knowledge and experience to be flexible and react accordingly to the clues the other party gives him during the negotiation and adjust his behaviour to come closer to the expectations of the other party. Considering that both parties have adapted and applied the above cultural knowledge, it can be observed that both parties in cross-cultural negotiations often mutually adjust to the behaviours they think the others prefer (Ibid). This mutual behavioural adjustment must be an acquired asset and skill of the negotiators who participated in our study because most of them felt that cultural differences do not really affect negotiations and if they are affected it is to the “somewhat” extent and not “very much”. We can presume that the negotiators who participated in our survey have cultural intelligence and being able to adjust cross-culturally. To sum up, a good negotiator should be aware of cultural preferences and behaviours of parties from other countries but never expect a specific behaviour and always be adaptable and sensitive towards the other party.

Moving on to the last part of data we received from our survey, it was interesting to find out the views of the participants regarding if COVID19 has affected the negotiation strategies in the export market as well as to describe how they see the future of negotiations.

Undoubtedly 2019 was a rather difficult year characterized by chaos and disruption that would pass on to the following years up to today. The crucial importance of supply chains -and management- in the last 4 years was highlighted when supplies failed to arrive at their destinations or when manufacturers were unable to obtain essential materials. This showed how vulnerable some supply chain processes can be. Therefore, the value of supply chains was better understood and valued by both the companies and consumers. This

atmosphere in turn also affected negotiations in the SC. A belief that was also expressed by the negotiators who participated in our survey where thirteen negotiators out of fifteen agreed and strongly agreed that COVID19 has indeed affected the negotiation strategies. Comparing our results with a previous survey regarding the effect of COVID19, it is remarkable to see a shift of opinions from 2020 to 2023. A study held in March 2020 showed that 81% of U.S. companies expect their procurement operations to be affected by COVID19 while 29% report that it will have a “moderate” to “severe” impact on operations for the rest of the year, while 40% say the impact is still “unknown”. These results can only indicate that some companies had underestimated the impact of COVID19 (Hughes 2020). However, now days there is more clear understanding of how COVID19 has affected SCM and negotiations and provided the ground for companies to be more prepared to deal with economic shifts, unexpected events-crisis, and rapidly evolving customer demands and ensure to future-proof their businesses.

Finally, the participants of our survey expressed their opinion on how they foresee the future of negotiations in the export market. There are mixed views towards the future; from being described as challenging, strong, digitalized, and competitive, to difficult, demanding and insecure. These characterizations of the future of negotiations come as no surprise because these terms can also characterize the current situation worldwide and in particular the export market. The world’s economy and trade become more and more competitive and demanding resulting to insecurity thus making procedures of SCM and negotiations to be challenging and difficult. At this point it should be mentioned that there is a high degree of uncertainty associated with any forecast due to the unpredictable nature of the Russia-Ukraine war. The Ukraine crisis raises food security concerns since prices for primary commodities (fuels, food, fertilizers) have been increased because Russia and Ukraine are both main suppliers of grains and fertilizers. Consequently, these current events create a domino effect affecting SCM and negotiations in the export market (WTO 2022).

It is expected for future negotiators to make use of a combination of technology and human negotiation tactics to best achieve their desired outcomes. In more detail, the result from our survey regarding the digitalization of negotiations in the future, comes in line with previous observations where in current years more and more companies incorporate artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning, and predictive analytics into their SCM systems enabling them to make smart decisions, quick adaptation in times of crisis,

improvement of resilience and smooth digitized negotiations. AI-assisted negotiation can assist negotiators to research potential counterpoints and build thorough strategies before even starting the actual negotiation. In fact, according to a survey of 500 procurement leaders showed that 66% of senior procurement decision managers expressed the idea that digital skills will overtake people skills in supplier negotiations in the coming years (Forde 2020). In addition, although the general agreement was that negotiation skills are critical, due to the growing role of technology in procurement in the form of videoconferencing with international partners, this survey also showed that 62% of respondents preferred face-to-face interactions versus 33% of being keen to digital interactions. Of note here is that the first group was over 55 years old while the second group were aged between 18-34 years old. Hence, even though there will always be the need for in-person negotiations, it is obvious that the art of negotiation is evolving into digitization since the new generation of negotiators will take over.

## 6. Conclusions

The present study was set in the field of negotiations and in particular the pre- and post-negotiation strategies in the export industry. The aims of the research were to explore what pre and post negotiation strategies export companies currently use, which are best and worst negotiation strategies and finally to answer whether and how these strategies affected the final outcome.

For the purpose of this study a questionnaire was created to allow participants to provide strict written answers and was distributed electronically to export industries which are collaborators of the author for more than 5 years. The Likert scale with five- and seven-point questions was used to collect opinions and experiences of 15 negotiators. We acknowledge the limitation of the study of having a small number of participants. Would have been ideal to have included more negotiators to participate in our study. However, a very strong aspect of our study was that it run globally and collected opinions and experiences from five continents, ten different countries, succeeding to gather information about negotiation strategies in the export market from different geographical regions. Moreover, it is of importance that our demographic and selection targets were met, and the participants pool fitted our criteria regarding age, number of years of experience, number of negotiations they handle and job satisfaction.

The main contribution of the study was the establishment that negotiators have a trend regarding the pre-and post-negotiation strategies they select. They follow a certain pattern for selecting the same pre and post negotiation strategy; and that being the collaborative. Similarly, there was an identical preference and opinion regarding the best and worst pre and post negotiation strategies. Our research concluded that negotiators in the export industry consider the collaborate to be the best pre and post negotiation strategy. On the other hand, the worst pre and post negotiation strategy is the same for both phases, the avoidance. Moreover, our study demonstrated that negotiators when they choose a certain pre and post negotiation strategy they aim to establish long term relationship with the other party, to have a sense of fair play, to set reliability and responsiveness, and finally to evaluate satisfaction. In addition, our study achieved to answer the final research question on whether negotiation strategies can affect final outcome and if so how. Our data proved that the negotiation strategy a negotiator chooses can indeed affect the outcome and this outcome

being better price, product and best agreement terms. Of note our research also concluded that the current situation of COVID19 has affected the negotiation processes in the export market as well as on how negotiators see the future of negotiations; difficult, challenging, demanding, competitive, insecure and most likely digitalised. In addition, our study established the criteria on which negotiators base their choice for selecting a certain negotiation strategy. Our data concluded that the factors that influencing the choice of negotiation strategy are: urgency; timeframe – estimation to complete the negotiation, stakes; the importance of the outcome, and relationship; existing relationship between the parties. Finally, because this research took place in the export industry we questioned whether cultural differences might have an effect on negotiations. Although it was not a primary aim it was interesting to conclude that the participants of our study had cultural intelligence and unanimously agreed that cultural differences do not really affect negotiations.

This study offers the ground for further research on the topic of negotiations in the export market by investigating in more depth actual steps and checkpoints negotiators prefer for the pre and post negotiation phase and to add more value to also include case examples of actual negotiations. Finally, another future research opportunity opens by comparing this data of the export market to other fields.



## References

- Allen, I.E. and Seaman, C.A. (2007). *Likert Scales and Data Analyses*. Quality Progress, 40, 64-65.
- Anderson, DL., Britt, F.F., and Favre. DJ. (1997) *7 Principles of Supply Chain Management*. Supply Chain Management Review, 3-8.
- Ashcroft, S. (2004). *Commercial negotiation skills*. Industrial and Commercial Training. 36 (6), 229–233.
- Atieno, OP. (2009). *An Analysis of the Strengths and Limitation of Qualitative and Quantitative research paradigms*. Problems of Education in the 21st Century, 13, 13-18.
- Atkin, TS., and Rinehart, L.M. (2006). The Effect of Negotiation Practices on the Relationship between Suppliers and Customers. *Negotiation Journal*.22(1), 47–65.
- Azman Ong, MH., and Puteh, F. (2017). *Quantitative Data Analysis: Choosing Between SPSS, PLS and AMOS in Social Science Research*. International Interdisciplinary Journal of Scientific Research, 3(1), 24-35.
- Baber, W.W. and Fletcher-Chen, C C-Y. (2020). *Practical Business Negotiation*. 2nd ed., Routledge, New York.
- Balliu, T., and Spahiu, A. (2020). *Pre-Negotiation Activities: A Study of the Main Activities Undertaken by the Negotiators as Preparation for Negotiation*. European Journal of Economics and Business Studies, 6(2), 75-86.

Barutçu. S., Dooan, H., Barutçu. E., and Kulakli. A. (2010). *SUPPLY CHAIN-BASED CONFLICT: A STUDY FROM TEXTILE EXPORTERS’ PERSPECTIVES*. Journal of Global Strategic Management. 4, (2), 90-102.

Bazerman, M.H., Curhan, J.R., Moore, D.A., and Valley, K.L. (2000). *Negotiation*. Annual Review of Psychology, 51(1), 279–314.

Beckett, C., and Clegg, S. (2007). *Qualitative Data from a Postal Questionnaire: Questioning the Presumption of the Value of Presence*. International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 10(4), 307-317.

Berridge, G.R. (2015). *Pre negotiations*. In: Diplomacy. Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Bhandari. P. and Nikolopoulou, K. (2022). *What Is a Likert Scale? | Guide & Examples?* Available at: <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology/likert-scale/> [Access: 10/07/2022]

Brett, JF., Pinkley, RL., and Jackofsky, EF. (1996). *ALTERNATIVES TO HAVING A BATNA IN DYADIC NEGOTIATION: THE INFLUENCE OF GOALS, SELF-EFFICACY, AND ALTERNATIVES ON NEGOTIATED OUTCOMES*. International Journal of Conflict Management, 7(2), 121–138.

Capela. J.J. (2016). *Negotiating in the Import/Export Business*. Available from: <https://www.dummies.com/article/business-careers-money/business/operations/negotiating-in-the-importexport-business-141856/> [Accessed: 08/05/2022]

Carneiro, D., Novais, P., Andrade, F., Zeleznikow, J., and Neves, J. (2012). *Using Case-Based Reasoning and Principled Negotiation to provide decision support for dispute resolution*. Knowledge and Information Systems, 36(3), 789–826.

Chakraborty, S., Baarslag, T., and Kaisers, M. (2020). *Automated peer-to-peer negotiation for energy contract settlements in residential cooperatives*. Applied Energy, 259, 114173

Cooper, M.C., Lambert, D.M., and Pagh, J.D. (1997). *Supply chain management: More than a new name for logistics*. International Journal of Logistics Management 8 (1), 1–13.

Corti, L. (2007). *Re-using archived qualitative data – where, how, why?* Archival Science 7, 37–54.

Christopher, M. (2000). *The Agile Supply Chain*. Industrial Marketing Management, 29(1), 37–44.

Doyle, L., and Hegele, L. (2021). *Talks before the talks: Effects of pre-negotiation on reaching peace agreements in intrastate armed conflicts*. Journal of Peace Research, 58(2), 231–247.

Drexler, O. (2022). *How to Use Likert Scales for Your eCommerce*. Available at: <https://www.123formbuilder.com/blog/how-to-use-likert-scales> [Access: 22/07/2022]

Dudek, G., and Stadtler, H. (2005). *Negotiation-based collaborative planning between supply chains partners*. European Journal of Operational Research, 163(3), 668–687.

Dunford, R., Su, Q., and Tamang, E. (2014) *'The Pareto Principle'*. The Plymouth Student Scientist, 7(1), 140-148.

P. Faratin; C. Sierra; N.R. Jennings (2002). *Using similarity criteria to make issue trade-offs in automated negotiations*. Artificial Intelligence, 142(2), 205–237

Fisher, R., and Ury, W. (1981). *Getting to Yes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin

Forde., M. (2020). Six Supply Chain Strategies for Negotiating the Foreseeable Economic Downturn. Available at: <https://www.supplychaindive.com/news/supplier-negotiation-could-become-more-science-than-art-survey/570974/> [Access: 12/01/2023]

Friberg, R., and Wilander, F. (2008). *The currency denomination of exports — A questionnaire study*. Journal of International Economics. 75(1), 54–69.

Gunasekaran, A., Lai, K., and Cheng, T.C.E. (2008). *Responsive Supply Chain: A competitive Strategy in a Networked Economy*, Omega, 36(4), 549-564.

Harold H. Saunders (1985). We need a larger theory of negotiation: The importance of pre-negotiating phases. Negotiation Journal, 1(3), 249–262.

Harris, B. (2020). *The Five Styles of Negotiation*. Available at: <https://www.appa.org/bok/the-five-styles-of-negotiation/> [Access: 15/06/2022]

Hughes., J. (2020). *Six Supply Chain Strategies for Negotiating the Foreseeable Economic Downturn*. Available at:

[https://www.supplychain247.com/article/six\\_supply\\_chain\\_strategies\\_for\\_negotiating\\_the\\_economic\\_downturn](https://www.supplychain247.com/article/six_supply_chain_strategies_for_negotiating_the_economic_downturn) [Access: 26/1/2023]

Jonsson, C., and Tallberg., J. (1998). *Compliance and Post-Agreement Bargaining*. European Journal of International Relations, 4(4), 371–408.

Katz, H. (2015). *Reflections on trust in negotiations*. Negotiation Journal 31(4): 355–357

Kaufmann, L. (1999). *Purchasing and Supply Management— A Conceptual Framework*. In: Hahn, D., Kaufmann, L. (eds) Handbuch Industrielles Beschaffungsmanagement. Gabler Verlag, Wiesbaden.

Kidder, D. L. (2017). *BABO negotiating: Enhancing students’ perspective-taking skills*. Negotiation Journal 33(3): 255–267.

Kopczak. LR., and Johnson, M.E. (2003). *The Supply-Chain Management Effect*. MIT Sloan Management Review, 27-34.

Lambert. DM. (2008). Supply Chain Management Institute, Sarasota, Florida

Lares, A. (2020). *WHAT ARE THE 5 NEGOTIATION STYLES?* Available at: <https://www.shapironegotiations.com/what-are-the-5-negotiation-styles/> [Access: 18/06/2022]

Lens, V. (2004). *Principled Negotiation: A New Tool for Case Advocacy*. Social Work, 49(3), 506–513.

Likert, R. (1932). *A technique for measurement of attitudes*. Archives of Psychology, 140, 5-55.

Lyubov, I. (2020). «*ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF NEGOTIATIONS IN AN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT*». Revista Inclusiones, febrero, 482-87.

McGuirk, PM., and O'Neill, P. (2016). *Using questionnaires in qualitative human geography*. Faculty of Social Sciences – Papers, 2518.

Mahmutovic, J. (2020). *What is a Likert Scale? Definition, Examples, and How To Use One*. Available at: <https://www.surveylegend.com/likert-scales/likert-type-scale-responses-examples-with-examples/#:~:text=Are%20Likert%20Scales%20Quantitative%20or,scale%20is%20almost%20universally%20loved> [Access: 23/07/2022]

Mostafa, A. (2022). *Benefits of supply chain management*. Available at: <https://www.b1-solutions.com/benefits-of-supply-chain-management/> [Accessed:29/1/2023]

Mouzas, S. (2016). *A network perspective on negotiation: What is new and why it matters*. Negotiation Journal 32(1): 7–21.

Nunnally, JC. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., McGraw Hill, New York.

Olekalns, M. and D. Druckman. (2014). *With feeling: How emotions shape negotiation*. Negotiation Journal 30(4): 455–478.

Oliver.,R.L., Balakrishnan., P.V. and Barry, B. (1994). *Outcome Satisfaction in Negotiation: A Test of Expectancy Disconfirmation*. Organizational behavior and human decision processes 60(2), 252–275.

Pantev, P. (2000). *Negotiating in the Balkans: The Pre-negotiation Perspective*. National Security and the Future, 1(1), 53-69.

Ponto, J. (2015). *Understanding and Evaluating Survey Research*. Journal of the advanced practitioner in oncology, 6(2), 168–171.

Rajasekaran., M.R and Gokilavani., S. (2013). *Study on Supply Chain Strategy of Exporters with Reference to Hosiery Product Export in Tiruppur City, Tamil Nadu State*. Global Journal of Management and Business Studies 3 (7), 725-732.

Ramsay, J. (2004). *Serendipity and the realpolitik of negotiations in supply chains*. Supply Chain Management: An International Journal, 9 (3), 219-29.

Rohde, J., Meyr, H., and Wagner, M. (2000). *Die supply chain planning matrix*. PPS Management 5, 10–15.

Roloff, M.E., Putnam, L.L., and Anastasiou, L. *Negotiation Skills*. (2008). In Greene, J.O., and Burleson,B.R. *Handbook of Communication and Social Interaction Skills*. Taylor & Francis e-Library, Ney Jersey.

Salacuse, J. W. (1998) *Ten ways that culture affects negotiating style: Some survey results*. Negotiation Journal 14(3): 221–240.

Schaerer, M., Teo, L., Madan, N., and Swaab, R.I. (2020). *Power and negotiation: review of current evidence and future directions*. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 33:47-51.

Schaufeli, W. B., Taris, T. W., and Van Rhenen, W. (2008). *Workaholism, burnout, and work engagement: Three of a kind or three different kinds of employee well-being?* *Applied Psychology*, 57(2), 173–203.

Sebenius, J. K. (2017). *BATNAs in Negotiation: Common Errors and Three Kinds of “No.”* *Negotiation Journal*, 33(2), 89–99.

Shell, G. R. (2001). *Bargaining Styles and Negotiation: The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument in Negotiation Training*. *Negotiation Journal*, 17(2), 155–174.

Shonk, K. (2022). *Principled Negotiation: Focus on Interests to Create Value*. Available at: <https://www.pon.harvard.edu/daily/negotiation-skills-daily/principled-negotiation-focus-interests-create-value/> [Accessed: 29/05/2022]

Simintiras, A.C., and Thomas, A.H. (1998). *Cross-cultural sales negotiations*. *International Marketing Review*, 15(1), 10–28.

Smeltzer, L.R., Manship, J.A. and Rossetti, C.L. (2003). *An analysis of the integration of strategic sourcing and negotiation planning*. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, Vol. 39(4), 16-25.

Smolinski, R., and Xiong, Y. (2020). *In Search of Master Negotiators: A Negotiation Competency Model*. *Negotiation Journal*, 1-24.



Taherdoost, H. (2016). *Validity and Reliability of the Research Instrument; How to Test the Validation of a Questionnaire/Survey in a Research*. International Journal of Academic Research in Management, 5(3), 28-36.

Thomas, D. J., and Griffin, P. M. (1996). *Coordinated supply chain management*. European Journal of Operational Research, 94(1), 1–15.

Thompson, S. (2019) The Effect of Negotiation on Product Pricing. Available at: <https://smallbusiness.chron.com/differences-between-distributive-bargaining-integrative-bargaining-11582.html> [Accessed: 9/1/2023]

Typeform (2022). *What is a likert scale survey, and what are they good for?* Available at: <https://www.typeform.com/surveys/likert-scale-questionnaires/> [Access:8/07/2022]

Wakelin, E. (2012). *Pre-Negotiations: A Necessary Pre-Requisite for Success in Diplomatic Negotiations* Available at: <https://www.e-ir.info/2012/08/15/pre-negotiations-a-necessary-pre-requisite-for-success-in-diplomatic-negotiations/> [Accessed: 27/01/2023]

Wright, T. A., and Cropanzano, R. (2000). *Psychological well-being and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance*. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5(1), 84–94.

WTO. (2022). *Trade growth to slow sharply in 2023 as global economy faces strong headwinds* Available at: [https://www.wto.org/english/news\\_e/pres22\\_e/pr909\\_e.htm](https://www.wto.org/english/news_e/pres22_e/pr909_e.htm) [Accessed: 26/01/2023]

Zachariassen, F. (2008). *Negotiation strategies in supply chain management*. International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, 38(10),764–781.

Zartman, I.W. (1989). *Pre negotiations: Phases and Functions in Stein, J.G. Getting to the Table: The Process of International Pre-negotiation*, London: The John Hopkins University Press, pp.1-17.

## Appendix A: Questionnaire

### Questionnaire for Supply Chain Management - Negotiations

This questionnaire was prepared by Mrs. Vasiliadou Parthena for the needs of a Master Thesis. All questions concern your perception and experience. In addition, certain demographics are required. Please answer the following questions precisely. Kindly be informed that your information is covered by confidentiality. The research and its results are without bias and consequences. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

#### Demographic Data

##### A. Location

City/Area:

Country:

Continent:

Region:

##### B. Age:

##### C. Number of negotiations per year:

**Q1.** Based on a scale from 1 (very unsatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied), how satisfied are you with the current state of negotiation procedures in your organization?

1	2	3	4	5
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q2.** How long have you had experience with negotiations?

≤ 6 months	1 year	≥ 1 year	≥ 2 years	≥ 4 years	≥ 6 years	≥ 8 years
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Q3.** On average, *how much time* do you invest to prepare for a negotiation

- |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| $\leq 1$ week            | 1 week                   | $\geq 1$ week            | $\geq 2$ weeks           | 1 month                  | $\geq 1$ month           | $\geq 2$ months          |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

**Q4.** In your opinion, *what is the role of negotiation* strategies in export market?

**Q5.** Which of the below factors is important into choosing a negotiation strategy (choose as many as apply)

- ☐ urgency: timeframe/estimation to complete the negotiation (1)
- ☐ stakes: importance of the outcome (2)
- ☐ relationship: status of existing relationship (3)
- ☐ all of the above (4)
- ☐ none of the above (5)

**Q6.** Currently which *pre negotiation strategy* do you use in your company (choose as many as apply):

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q7.** Currently which *post negotiation strategy* do you use in your company (choose as many as apply)?

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q8.** To your experience *which is the best pre negotiation strategy* (choose one)?

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q9.** To your experience *which is the best post negotiation strategy* (choose one)?

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q10.** To your experience *which is the worst pre negotiation strategy* (choose one)?

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q11.** To your experience *which is the worst post negotiation strategy* (choose one)?

- ☐ accommodate – give in to the other side to build relationship (5)
- ☐ collaborate – expand the pie for creative win-win solutions (4)
- ☐ compromise- split the pie to satisfy at least the minimal need of each party (3)
- ☐ avoid – not negotiating, leave things as is (2)
- ☐ compete – win at the expense of the other party (1)

**Q12.** In case a negotiation fails, and an agreement cannot take place, you should have a BATNA (Best Alternative To a Negotiated Agreement)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

**Q13.** A negotiation strategy can affect the final outcome.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

**Q14.** Which of the below final outcomes a negotiation strategy can affect (choose as many as apply):

- ☐ better price (1)
- ☐ product (2)
- ☐ best agreement terms (3)
- ☐ all of the above (4)
- ☐ none of the above (5)

**Q15 .** According to the negotiation strategy you choose, do you aim to (choose as many as apply):

- ☐ establish long term relationship (1)
- ☐ have sense of fair play (2)
- ☐ to set reliability (3)
- ☐ to set responsiveness (4)
- ☐ evaluate satisfaction (5)
- ☐ all of the above (6)
- ☐ none of the above (7)

**Q16.** COVID19 has *affected negotiation strategies*.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

**Q17.** Based on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much), how much do you believe cultural differences affect negotiations?

Not at all	Not really	Undecided	Somewhat	Very much
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
1	2	3	4	5

**Q18.** Please describe briefly how do you see *the future of negotiations* in the exports industry?