CHINESE NEGOTIATION STYLES IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS NEGOTIATIONS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the
Faculty of Argosy University Sarasota
in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

by

José Aníbal Torres

Argosy University Sarasota

May, 2011

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ABSTRACT

China’s rapid economic growth, and heightened global interest, has come with challenges and difficulties from international business negotiators, especially from Western cultures; in understanding the elements required to negotiate effectively with Chinese business people. Therefore, the purpose of this qualitative study focused on the investigation of the elements required to negotiate effectively with Chinese business people, such as culture, and Chinese business negotiation styles; strategies, processes, tactics and approaches. Further, this study applied a self-administered questionnaire to capture the in-depth responses from experienced international, Chinese, and Taiwanese business negotiators. To this end, the results and findings added to the gap in literature on Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations that have professional, academic and general public implications.
CHINESE NEGOTIATION STYLES IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS NEGOTIATIONS

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and insights; and to all the translators who worked tirelessly to meet the research deadlines, in
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and colleagues for helping to make this research a reality.
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beautiful and wonderful wife, Marcia, without whose support I would never have achieved completion of my doctoral studies or this dissertation. I love you more than life for all the sacrifices you have made, so that I could fulfill my dream, and for the encouragement you provided me along the way; god only knows. May god bless you and always keep you safe.

I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my daughter, Tiffany, in hopes that it inspires her to pursue her education to high levels and enjoy the journey of learning as I have. I love you.
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CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM AND ITS COMPONENTS

The Problem

Over the past three decades China’s economic performance has exceeded all other countries’ economic growth performance by averaging 9.7% (Zhang, Li & Shi, 2009). And even during the global financial crisis, while their economic growth decreased from the three decade average of 9.7%, they were able to sustain an economic growth beyond that of the majority of countries throughout the world. To this end, China has been able to accomplish in three decades what it has taken developing countries approximately five decades (Guthrie, 2006). Further, China’s growing economic marketplace and integration into global economic institutions, such as the WTO, has increased Westerners interest in their desire to do business in China.

Moreover, research suggests that culture is not stationary, but highly dynamic, and therefore, constantly changing. And the Chinese, a very traditional cultural people are continuously being influenced as a result of their open market economy. China’s recent ascend as the second largest economy in the world, with 1.3 billion people, and who can potentially become one of the largest consumer markets in the world, has dramatically increased the interest of foreign countries on how to do business effectively with the Chinese. However, Westerners and the Chinese have different cultures and philosophies that influence their different approaches, models and styles during international business negotiations (Banthin & Stelzer, 1998). And their individual perspectives are influenced by their lack of understanding about their opponent’s cultural influences, beliefs, behaviors and motivations, with regards to the negotiation process.

Tessmann-Keys and Wellins (2007) suggested that ever since Marco Polo, a Venetian merchant, led his envoy to Cathay, now China, to engage in discussions with the grandson of
Genghis Khan, Kublai Khan, global business has become a major factor of globalization. Since then globalization and technological advances has changed the nature of how people do business. Today, no organization or country is immune to some exposures from different countries, cultures and diversity. Furthermore, all individuals and organizations must negotiate.

To this end, differences in cultures, socio-economic and political perspectives demand differences in the approach to how people negotiate. These differences, which also provides the framework for this study, involves cultures, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, country-specific culture and philosophies, global influences, consequences of cultural global influences, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligences, differences in communication principles, and negotiation styles in international business; which also includes differences in negotiation tactics, conflict management styles, negotiation processes and strategies, reciprocity, and so on. Therefore, this study will focus on two primary topics, culture and Chinese negotiation styles that influence Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

Problem Background

China, after decades of unprecedented economic growth, has passed Japan as the world’s second largest economy. Experts suggest that China is projected to surpass the U.S., the largest economy in the world, by as early as 2030, if not sooner. Further, in recent years China’s economy had surpassed Germany, France, and Great Britain’s economies (New York Times, 2010). In spite of this economic growth, research suggests that entering the Chinese market will be a great challenge for companies from other countries; especially those from the West (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Guthrie, 2006).

“China’s rise as a global economic and political power is one of the transformative events of our time, and one of the most important challenges facing U.S. foreign and economic policy”
(Bergsten, Gill, Lardy & Mitchell, 2006, p. viiii), now and in the future. And China’s growing importance in the global marketplace has increased interest in Chinese business negotiations; since the early 1980s (Seligman, 1999; Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007). Further, the recent growth in trade between the U.S. and China has increased the need for an in-depth understanding of Chinese culture, philosophy, customs, Chinese negotiating processes, strategies, and styles (Chang, 2003; Guthrie, 2006); especially since Western companies have expressed discouragement, frustration and confusion during Chinese business negotiations (Zhao, 2000).

Researchers argue that negotiating business with the Chinese requires an understanding of their culture and negotiating styles; and this understanding will help provide a guideline for establishing an effective initial meeting, with the Chinese, and in determining what each party wants from the negotiation (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007). Effective international business negotiators understand the negotiation styles of their opponents. They have the emotional and cultural intelligence in accepting and respecting their opponent’s cultural beliefs and customs, and are conscious of non-verbal communications and etiquette, and how the other negotiating party perceives them (Chang, 2003).

Additionally, negotiators from other cultures, especially those from Western countries, often find Chinese business negotiators’ behavior to be difficult, unintelligible, skillful, tough, shrewd, and persistent; and with a unique negotiating style (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007). And although there is no lack of descriptive and empirical evidence highlighting the differences between Eastern and Western cultures, Western cultures need additional credible data on how the Chinese negotiate between themselves (Ma, 2006). Research suggests that the Chinese strategies, processes and styles are heavily influenced by blueprints
developed throughout their past history; dating back thousands of years of experience (Seligman, 1999).

Therefore, this study discusses how Chinese culture and philosophy influences Chinese negotiation styles in international negotiations. Further, Chinese negotiation styles define the way in which Chinese business negotiators behave, interact and exchange during the international business negotiation process (Fang 1999). And Chinese negotiation styles or behaviors can also be classified as non-tactical and tactical behaviors. Additionally, Chinese negotiation tactics, or styles, refers to the tactical behaviors of Chinese negotiators expressed during international business negotiations (Fang, 1999). Moreover, since the purpose of any negotiation is to reach mutually beneficial agreements, conducting a successful initial meeting with Chinese negotiators can be complex, time consuming, and a major challenge. The difficulty is due to differences in their values, attitudes, behaviors and communication styles (Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007).

To this end, this study will provide a Chinese culture and philosophy perspective to understanding Chinese negotiating approaches, strategies and styles in international business negotiations. Further, this study will focus on two major constructs: (1) culture; and (2) Chinese negotiation styles. For example, the complex cultural framework will discuss such sub-topics as: culture, cultural dimensions (Hofstede, Trompenaar, Hall, and the GLOBE project clusters), cultural dynamics, Chinese culture and philosophy, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, and Chinese communications; as they relate to understanding the influences and approaches of Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

Additionally, the second construct, Chinese negotiation styles, will discuss culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations, Chinese negotiation processes and strategies, Chinese
negotiating tactics such as, Chinese conflict management styles, Chinese cooperative and competitive strategies and game theory, social exchange theory and negotiated and reciprocal exchanges, reciprocity and Chinese negotiations approaches such as, the Confucian gentleman, the Maoist bureaucrat, the Sun Tzu strategist, the initial meeting with Chinese negotiators, and Chinese and international business negotiations.

The researcher argues that understanding Chinese negotiation styles cannot be oversimplified, and is therefore very complex. And this study demonstrates the many elements that influence Chinese negotiators and their negotiating styles, adding to this complexity. Further, this study will analyze and highlight the influence of socio-cultural, political and philosophical factors on the Chinese negotiation process, strategies, and styles (Ghauri & Fang, 1999); in minimizing misunderstandings and in providing guidance during Chinese negotiations in international business negotiations (Pye, 1992); and in adding to the gap in literature.

**Purpose of the Study**

Researchers argue that research on international business negotiations has had a Western bias (Zhao, 2000; Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007). Therefore, the intent of this research problem or research topic, *Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations*, focuses on the importance of understanding, both, what influences Chinese negotiators and the different negotiation styles they apply during international negotiations; providing an Eastern perspective. The purpose of this study relates to the researcher’s argument that Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations are influenced by many different elements such as culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, global flows, Chinese culture and philosophy, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, Chinese communications, Chinese negotiation strategies, processes, tactics and styles; demonstrating a high level of
complexity. These elements will provide a framework, and construct, for understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

Additionally, the study will discuss the elements of Chinese culture and philosophy such as Universism, Taoism, Confucianism, Buddhism, Maoist bureaucracy, Sun Tzu’s stratagems, *Yin Yang*, *guanxi*, *mianzi* and so on. The study will also discuss how China’s political and economic systems influence Chinese negotiation styles. To this end, this framework will provide a clear understanding of Chinese culture and philosophy that influences Chinese values and behaviors with respect to their business negotiation processes, strategies, tactics and styles.

The researcher has argued that having a clear understanding of how to negotiate effectively with the Chinese and their different negotiation styles will help not only people in business, but anyone who goes to China on vacation, since during vacation tourists find themselves in constant negotiations, a part of human activity. Therefore, this study has relevance in not only the business world, but in the private sector as well. Additionally, the purpose of this study focuses on understanding Chinese negotiation styles by first focusing the study on the cultural and philosophical elements that affect Chinese negotiators’ behaviors and motivations during international business negotiations.

**Research Question**

To this end, in helping the focus of this study, and in providing a framework for this dissertation, the researcher will address the following research question: What are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people?

**Literature Review**

**Culture**
“Culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another,” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 51) and culture includes traits, or characteristics, of behavior gained and transferred through symbols, constituting distinct differences between groups, including their artifacts. Further, the basic core of culture is based on historical and traditional perspectives and their values. Additionally, cultural systems may, arguably, be considered results from action, and elements for further action (Kroeber & Kluckholn, 1952).

The sources of culture could also include nationality, education, profession, ethnicity, religion, family, gender, social class, corporate organizational culture, and language (Usunier & Lee, 2009). And Hernandez-Requejo and Graham (2008) define culture by its elements such as values, rituals, symbols, beliefs, and thought process. Further, many researchers argue that the determinants and elements of culture are language, religion, social structure, values, and communication (Griffin, & Pustay, 2005). The above varied definitions for culture highlight the complexities that add to understanding a country’s specific culture, especially during international business negotiations.

However, researchers argue that culture is dynamic and constantly changing (Usunier & Lee, 2005, 2009). That is, “cultures are rarely pure, except in a few areas where people have been almost untouched by foreign influences” (Usunier & Lee, 2009, p. 26). The authors further argue that while there are many opportunities for cultural influences, there is the need for individuals to maintain their original cultural identity. That is, most societies are not prepared to give up completely their original cultures and admit that a large part of their culture originates from a foreign source. Moreover, individuals will always seek to maintain their original cultural identity, as far as practical.
Moreover, research proposes that “cultural borrowings are often disguised until they are integrated into the dominant culture” (Usunier & Lee, 2009, p. 27). According to King (1990), “nation-states, constantly aim to construct, define and monitor national cultures within the politically-defined boundaries of the state” (p. 409). However, national cultures are continuously being influenced, and changed, by global cultural flows; from other foreign national cultures, and from “increasingly autonomous and hegemonic professional subcultures which generally have their values and roots embedded in institutions derived from capitalist social formations and practices which operate across national boundaries” (King, 1990, p. 410).

Researchers posit that the Chinese culture and philosophy dates back over 5,000 years (Lin & Chi, 2007). According to De Groot (2009) Chinese culture and philosophy have their origins from Universism, which is Taoism, Confucianism, and Buddhism. The key to understanding Taoism lies in understanding Taoist concepts such as: Tao, Yin Yang, and Wu Wei (De Groot, 2009). This culture and philosophy posits that the universe has opposing cosmic forces, Yin Yang, that generates favorable outcomes. Further, Lin and Chi (2007), and De Groot (2009), propose that Chinese culture and philosophy is primarily concerned with harmony, relationships, and life that is centered on politics, ethics and directly interrelated with morality; regardless of whether it is an individual, family, or a community, since they are all interrelated; in developing wisdom, knowledge and action.

Researchers contend that if there is one word that can summarize the Chinese way of life for the past few centuries, it is Confucianism. That is, no single individual in Chinese history has had such a deep influence and impact on the Chinese thought and life as Confucius; an interpreter of the ancient culture and literature (de Bary, et al., as cited in Yao, 2008). And research on Chinese cultural dimensions suggests that the Chinese are a collectivistic culture
who value relationships, cooperation, family and groups. These characteristics have been a part of the Chinese cultural framework and must be understood by international negotiators when doing business with the Chinese (Adler & Graham, 1989; Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 2001; Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung & Terpstra, 1992; Tung & Miller, 1990). Further, the Chinese culture is heavily influenced by the concepts of guanxi and mianzi, in all personal or business activities. And the Chinese perceive that the ultimate goal of communication is to maintain harmony.

**Chinese Negotiation Styles**

“Negotiation is a basic human activity” (Ghauri & Usunier, 2003, p. 3); not just related to business activity. It is a process that involves spouses, children, parents, employers, employees, buyers and sellers, business associates, and everyone else in managing relationships and in achieving desired goals. Business negotiations, is therefore not limited to a domestic country, but extends to the international environment as well. Therefore, today it is difficult to find an organization that does not conduct some sort of international business, whether directly or indirectly. In spite of this, the literature on international business negotiations is limited (Ghauri & Usunier, 2003). Therefore, this study will add to the existing gap in literature on international business negotiations.

Researchers also posit that business negotiators from different cultures develop different business negotiation styles (Pru‘homme as cited in Tu, 2007; Chang, 2003). Further, different business negotiation styles are influenced by the differences in the business negotiating parties’ culture, communication, protocols, persuasive approaches, individual characteristics and so on (Hung as cited in Tu, 2007). Therefore, international business negotiators must have the cultural intelligence of opponents’ culture in effectively understanding the influences of their business negotiation styles (Chang, 2003).

According to Ghauri and Usunier (2003), the international business negotiation process includes understanding the background factors (i.e.: objectives, goals, the environment, and negotiators), the atmosphere (i.e.: conflict management, cooperation, expectations, and power dynamics), the process (i.e.: pre-negotiation, face-to-face, and post-negotiation), the cultural factors (i.e.: time, individualism vs. collectivism, communication differences, and relationships), and the strategic factors (i.e.: presentation, strategy, the decision-making process and the possible need for a third party/agent).

Additionally, research argues that the initial meetings between the U.S. and the Chinese business negotiators tended to lean towards allowing the Chinese to be able to implement and achieve their preferred negotiation strategies and tactics, because of a lack of understanding by the U.S. negotiators during Chinese business negotiations (Pye, 1992). As an example, the Chinese prefer, during the initial meeting, to discuss and reach an agreement on the general principles of the relationship, first, before delving into the details and specifications of the agenda. In contrast, the U.S. business negotiators prefer to get right into the details of the negotiations.
These influences of Chinese business negotiations include, understanding culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, Chinese culture and philosophy, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, and Chinese communications. And in understanding Chinese negotiation styles it is essential that international business negotiators also have an understanding of how Chinese culture impacts Chinese business negotiations, how the Chinese manage conflict during business negotiations, the Chinese business negotiation processes, strategies, and tactics, the significance of reciprocity, the Confucian gentleman approach, the Maoist bureaucrat approach, the Sun Tzu strategist approach, how to conduct an effective initial meeting and Chinese and international business negotiations.

Researchers also posit that negotiating with the Chinese is difficult and challenging due to the differences in culture and philosophy; as well as cultural dynamics that are constantly changing due to the interrelationships brought about by globalization. Therefore, this dissertation will help to fill the gap on the limited literature on Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

**Limitations and Delimitations**

The use of a qualitative methodology will provide this dissertation with an in-depth data gathering and analysis process, in responding to the research questions, through the use of open-ended questions.

This dissertation is limited by the natural boundaries originating from the use of a constructivist, qualitative and content analysis approach, as well as country-specific biases resulting from country-specific cultures.

The literature on Chinese business negotiation styles is limited. Therefore, this study is limited by the literature of Western researchers that do not include original Chinese research, and
therefore biased, and by the limited original Chinese research (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Zhao, 2000; Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007). Additionally, equivalence in cross-cultural research becomes more complex, and limited, when working in international environments, and where culture, language, socio-cultural or psychographic elements differ. That is, a construct in one culture may have a different meaning in another culture (Usunier & Lee, 2005, 2009); thereby limiting in scope.

This study is limited by the use of one survey instrument developed by the researcher. Further, the survey instrument will be limited by the translation equivalence methodology used in translating from English to Chinese and back to English; since researchers argue that regardless of the sophistication of the translation technique used, successfully accomplishing complete and accurate translation equivalence may not be achievable (Usunier & Lee, 2009). Additionally, the survey open-ended questions will be limited to international business negotiators, Chinese business negotiators and Taiwanese business negotiators. And the survey instrument will be limited to multiple choice questions for gathering demographic data only. Open-ended questions will capture the depth required by the research. This added dimension will provide the added rigor and quality beyond literature, content analysis and Western perspectives in adding to the gap in the current literature, with a more Eastern perspective.

China’s rapid economic growth has outpaced its growth in academia; and specifically academia that relates directly to Chinese business negotiation strategies, processes, styles and international negotiations. Currently China has instituted aggressive initiatives to correct this shortfall in education that should begin to support literature on Chinese business negotiation styles and international business negotiations. However, today this Chinese academic literature is limited.
Definitions

This dissertation includes many Chinese words and phrases essential to understanding Chinese culture and philosophy and Chinese business negotiation styles. The following is a list of words and phrases, used in this dissertation, to assist the reader in understanding their relative concepts.

Confucianism: A Chinese tradition based on Chinese history and development, philosophies, (e.g.: from many philosophers including Confucian, Laozi, Mencius and many others) and literature, that has evolved over centuries from the Sage-kings, before 2205 BCE (e.g.: Yao, Shun and Yu the Great), to modern Confucianism, 1995 (e.g.: Xiong Shili, Fung Yu-lan, Tang Junyi and Mou Zongsan) (Yao, 2008; Sommer, 1995; Carnogurska, 1998; Ivanhoe, 1991).

The Confucian Gentleman Business Negotiating Style: a Chinese business negotiation style that applies the Confucianism philosophy and characteristics such as honesty, mutual trust and benefits, in exploring collaborative and cooperative opportunities with the goal of achieving win-win solutions for all parties (Fang, 2006).

The Maoist Bureaucrat Business Negotiating Style: a Chinese business negotiating style that is influenced by the former Chinese leader Mao’s ideology and is therefore, supportive of China’s governmental strategies and approach on how to conduct business. The Maoist bureaucrat is characterized by building relationships, focusing on principles over the details of the meeting, and imposing governmental policies (MacFarquhar, 2009; Lam, 1998; Fang, 2006).

The Sun Tzu Strategist Business Negotiating Style: A Chinese business negotiating style that is influenced by the great and ancient Chinese military strategist Sun Tzu, whose 36
stratagems are applied by the Chinese business negotiator in interpreting negotiation as a zero-sum game and the marketplace is therefore a combat zone. For example, subdue the enemy without fighting (Zhao, 2000; Fang, 2006).

**Importance of the Study**

“The globalization of economic and business activity, now more than ever before, requires people from all disciplines and professions to make deals with companies and organizations throughout the world” (Salacuse, 2003, p. viii). And the basic tools for achieving these deals are negotiation. Therefore, this dissertation adds to the existing and limited literature related to Chinese negotiations in international business negotiations. Researchers argue that in the past China has remained closed to most of the countries from the West. And only within the past few decades has China opened its doors to globalization and an open market economy. As an emerging country with the second largest economy in the world, a low-cost country, and with the potential of becoming one of the leading consumer markets in the world, China has begun to venture into international affairs.

In addition, Western countries have initiated bilateral trade agreements, opened businesses in China, while many countries are looking for China to begin to take an economic leadership role in global affairs. However, this rapid economic growth from China, and global interest, has come with much challenge and difficulty from international business negotiators and Chinese business negotiators on how to effectively negotiate with each other. To this end, this dissertation adds to the existing and limited literature on Chinese business negotiations in international business negotiations that can be applied by not only businesses, but also political leaders, non-profit organizational leaders, and the everyday consumer or vacationers who ventures out to China.
Summary

This research is intended to study Chinese culture and philosophy, and Chinese negotiation styles, in international business negotiations. However, understanding culture is very complex, since culture is constantly evolving, and therefore dynamic, with continual influences from different global flows that generate cultural consequences, in changing traditional cultures. Additionally, having a clear understanding of culture will only provide a basic foundation by which to continue understanding the complex Chinese culture and philosophy that is so different from Western cultures and philosophies.

Further this overall understanding of Chinese culture and philosophy will provide a framework for understanding the different variables, such as Chinese conflict management styles necessary in reaching agreements; Chinese business negotiating strategies, processes, tactics and styles, that are so heavily influenced by their culture and philosophy, and also very different from Western negotiators’ cultural influences; a centrally planned government; and understanding how to conduct an effective initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators in international business negotiations. To this end, the following chapter of this dissertation focuses on the review of the literature; followed by a detailed discussion about the methodology for this dissertation. Upon conclusion of the discussion on methodology for this dissertation, data is gathered, analyzed and conclusions are developed.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

China, after decades of unprecedented economic growth, has surpassed Japan as the world’s second largest economy. Experts suggest that China is projected to surpass the U.S., the largest economy in the world, by as early as 2030, if not sooner. Further, in recent years China had also surpassed Germany, France, and Great Britain (New York Times, 2010). In spite of this economic growth, research suggests that entering the Chinese market will be a great challenge for foreign companies, especially those from the West (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Guthrie, 2006). “China’s rise as a global economic and political power is one of the transformative events of our time, and one of the most important challenges facing U.S. foreign and economic policy now and for many years to come” (Bergsten, Gill, Lardy & Mitchell, 2006, p. viiii).

Moreover, China’s growing significance in the global marketplace has increased the interest in Chinese business negotiations; especially since business between Western nations and China continues at a rapid pace (Seligman, 1999; Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007; Palich, Carini & Livingstone, 2002). Additionally, the growth in trade between the U.S. and China, in recent years, has increased the need to develop an understanding of Chinese cultures, customs, Chinese negotiating processes, strategies, and styles (Chang, 2003; Guthrie, 2006; Xing, 1995); especially since Western companies have expressed frustration, discouragement and confusion when negotiating business with the Chinese (Zhao, 2000).

To this end, negotiating business with the Chinese requires an understanding of their culture, and negotiating styles; and this understanding will help provide guidelines in determining what each party wants from the negotiation. Effective international business negotiators understand the negotiation styles of their opponents. They have the emotional and
cultural intelligence in accepting and respecting their opponent’s cultural beliefs and customs, and are conscious of non-verbal communications and etiquette; and how they are perceived by their opponents (Chang, 2003). Additionally, negotiators from Western cultures often find Chinese business negotiators’ behavior to be difficult, unintelligible, skillful, tough, shrewd, and persistent, with a unique negotiating style (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007).

Although there is no lack of descriptive and empirical evidence highlighting the differences between Eastern and Western cultures, Western cultures need additional credible data on how the Chinese negotiate (Ma, 2006). And, research suggests that the Chinese strategies, processes and styles are heavily influenced by patterns developed throughout their past history; thousands of years of experience (Seligman, 1999; Xing 1995); thus making business negotiations with the Chinese more complex.

Therefore, this study discusses how Chinese culture and philosophy influences Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations (Fang 1999). Further, Chinese negotiation styles are the way Chinese business negotiators behave and interact during the international business negotiation process. And Chinese business negotiation styles or behaviors can also be categorized into non-tactical and tactical behaviors. Consequently, Chinese negotiation tactics, or styles, refers to the tactical behaviors of Chinese business negotiators expressed during international business negotiations (Fang, 1999).

Moreover, since the purpose of any negotiation is to reach mutually beneficial agreements, conducting a successful initial meeting with Chinese negotiators can be complex, time consuming, and a big challenge; but necessary. The difficulty is due to differences in their values, attitudes, behaviors and communication styles (Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007). And research suggests that one approach to working effectively with these challenges is to apply both
intercultural dimensions, culture-specific dimensions, and patience, in understanding Chinese business negotiators during the business negotiation process (Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007).

To this end, this study will provide a Chinese cultural and philosophical perspective to understanding Chinese negotiating approaches, strategies and styles in international business negotiations. Further, this study will focus on two major constructs: (1) culture; and (2) Chinese negotiation styles. For example, the first and complex cultural construct, framework, will discuss such sub-topics as: culture, cultural dimensions (Hofstede, Trompenaar, Hall, and the GLOBE project clusters), cultural dynamics, Chinese culture and philosophy, Chinese communications, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence; as they relate to understanding the influences and approaches of Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

Additionally, the second construct, Chinese negotiation styles, will discuss culture and its impact on business negotiations; Chinese negotiating processes and strategies; Chinese negotiating tactics such as Chinese conflict management styles, Chinese cooperative and competitive tactics and game theory, social exchange theory and negotiated and reciprocal exchanges, and reciprocity and Chinese negotiations; Chinese negotiation approaches such as the Confucian gentleman, the Maoist bureaucrat, the Sun Tzu strategist; the initial meeting with Chinese negotiators; and Chinese and international business negotiation.

The researcher argues that understanding Chinese business negotiation styles cannot be oversimplified, and is therefore very complex. Additionally, this study discusses the various elements that influence Chinese business negotiators and their negotiating styles; adding to this complexity. Further, this study will analyze and highlight the influence of socio-cultural and philosophical factors on the Chinese business negotiation process, strategies, and styles (Ghauri
& Fang, 1999) in minimizing misunderstandings and to provide guidance during effective Chinese negotiations in international business negotiations (Pye, 1992).

**Culture**

Researchers propose that Chinese and Americans develop preconceptions about the others’ cultural traits and national characters that, arguably, and more often than not, may not be true, especially regional generalizations, with the risk of adding biases or stereotypes (Xing, 1995; Cateora & Graham, 2002). And, “generalized descriptions do not cover all individual behaviors or cultural phenomena. Similarly, the fact that some Chinese people are impatient does not disprove the generalization that the Chinese as a nation are patient” (Xing, 1995, p. 15). Further, generalizations “ignore the essentials upon which Chinese cultural complexity and richness are built” (Xing, 1995, p. 16). Therefore, for international negotiators doing business with the Chinese, “it pays to acquire a sense and a flavor of how Chinese culture works as an organic whole before accepting well-intended tips” (Xing, 1995, p. 16).

To this end, culture is a way that groups distinguish themselves from other groups and is defined in many different ways. It represents commonalities in what is shared within the group (Wallerstein, 1990). Further, “a difficult to define construct, culture is often generalized as (1) a shared pattern of being, thinking and behaving; (2) something learned from childhood through socialization; and (3) something deeply rooted in tradition that permeates all aspects of society” (Xing, 1995, p. 14). That is, culture is shared, influences behavior, invisible; and systematic and, arguably, organized (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). An important element of culture is values. Values are human basic elements that help determine what is right and wrong, good or bad, important or unimportant, and so on. These values are learned from the culture in which the
individual is raised into, and they help to guide a person’s behavior. And differences in cultural values often result in different negotiating styles (Hodgetts & Luthans, 2003).

Culture is also influenced by country-specific economic, political, legal systems, religion, education, and language (Chang, 2003). Further, the word trait is often used to discuss elements of the word culture in describing the collection of values, behaviors, or beliefs, for example. To this end, this study provides a brief discussion of four, out of many, approaches to understanding culture: Hofstede’s (2001) individualistic versus collectivistic value orientations; Hall’s (1981) low- and high-context communicating styles; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s (1998) five relationship orientations; and House et al’s (2004) GLOBE project’s Confucian Asian Cluster (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Moreover, Smith (1990) argues that the notion of a global culture is impossible to achieve; and arguably an area for further research.

**Cultural Dimensions**

Geert Hofstede (1980, 1984, 2001) developed a global model distinguishing cultural differences between countries. He argued that people in individualistic cultures, the U.S., emphasize self-actualization and individual initiatives and achievements; thus focusing on an “I” orientation (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1988; Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). And, individualistic cultures are mostly concerned about their own personal consequences, not others, and decisions are individually made (Thomas & Inkson, 2009; Chang, 2003). In the U.S. the focus is on an individual’s rights, such as individuality, independence, and freedom (Chu, as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

In contrast, in collectivist cultures, such as China, individuals generally perceive themselves as group members, rather than as individuals. They are more concerned about the effects of their actions on groups and the approval of members within their groups. Further,
activities are more group-oriented. Additionally, decisions that affect a group are made based on a consensual or consultative basis (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). Collectivist cultures will also treat individuals from out-groups different then those from in-groups. And during out-groups’ competitive activities, collectivists will tend to be more competitive then with individuals (Ma & Jaeger, 2005). Moreover, the needs, goals, and objectives of a group take precedence over the needs of an individual (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). That is, collectivist cultures, the Chinese people, for example, would prefer to fit in with, and belong to, the in-group, with a focus on the “we” identity (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

Chinese are collectivist who places a high value on relationships, harmony and collaboration. They prefer working in teams during the international negotiation process, because working in teams increases their confidences and helps to make them feel more comfortable than as individuals. In addition, Chinese negotiators will tend to have group, consensus, and discussions prior to making any final decision. Further, companies with strong individualistic cultures should by-pass sending only one business negotiator to negotiate with the Chinese, because the Chinese may perceive this initiative as lacking in sincerity on the part of their opponents (Chang, 2003; Zhao, 2000).

Furthermore, Chinese business negotiators, who have a high power distance orientation, prefer not to negotiate with other business negotiators of lower rank then themselves. Therefore, this should be taken into consideration by international business negotiators from individualistic cultures, such as the U.S., when initially making the decision on whom to send to negotiate with the Chinese. That is, it would be more effective to send an international business negotiator of equal rank and status as that of the Chinese business negotiator (Chang, 2003).
And the Chinese, also a masculine culture, value such traits as assertiveness, and competitive behaviors (Volkema & Fleury as cited in Chang, 2003). However, female business negotiators are more common to Western business negotiation teams than Chinese business negotiation teams (Adler as cited in Chang, 2003). Traditionally, Chinese culture has been primarily a male dominated society that prefers to negotiate with men; and preferably older businessmen.

However, this cultural preference has been changing with recent globalization and cultural dynamic consequences; where the roles of women in many Asian countries have changed (Chang, 2003; Woo, Wilson & Liu, 2001). That is, women’s roles have increased during the past century; where more women now hold senior positions, and have become business owners. Therefore, it is more common today for women to be international business negotiators. And research suggests that women can improve their roles during business negotiations with the Chinese by understanding, acknowledging and adhering to the Chinese culture, philosophy and key characteristics, such as mianzi, trust, guanxi, patience, and so on (Woo, Wilson & Liu, 2001).

Another cultural dimension in the study of culture, communication and conflict-resolution is Hall’s (1976, 1981) framework of low- and high-context cultures which provides an understanding of cultural differences as it applies to the real world (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1986; Chua & Gudykunst, 1987; Kim, Pan, & Park, 1998; Okabe, 1983). Hall (1976; 1981) argues that low-context culture, the U.S., focuses on a more direct, specific, and verbal expressivity. In contrast, high-context cultures, the Chinese, focus more on in-direct implications, nonverbal expressions, implicit, and indirect language; where the words and phrases suggest internalized clues (Hall, as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Varner & Beamer as cited in Zhao, 2000).
And in high-context (HC) cultures people have a group orientation, where members’ individual inner feelings are kept under self-control, and information is shared by everyone within the group (Hall, 1976; 1981).

Moreover, in high-context cultures, such as China, personal relations, nonverbal behavior, and an individual’s word are more important than a written, legal document (Hall, 1976; 1981). Consequently, during business negotiations, the Chinese may use nonverbal communication in responding to questions by using an unexpected silence. And during negotiations the Chinese expect their opponents to comprehend their messages, from their gestures and from their behavior. This may be difficult and frustrating to foreign business negotiators (Ma, 2006) as a result. In contrast, in a low content culture what is important is what is written, as in legal documents and contracts. For example, contract law in China is more flexible than in the U.S.

Moreover, people in HC cultures try to avoid direct confrontation in sustaining social harmony and building relationships with others. And, face saving in HC cultures is critical and a part of Chinese culture and philosophy (Hall, 1976; 1981). Further, conflict between personalities is controlled by alleging they do not exist. In contrast, people from LC cultures will use direct and open confrontation when defending themselves (Hall, 1976; 1981). Furthermore, criticism is direct and more formal, whereas in HC cultures criticism is subtle and non-verbal, because what is not spoken may have a more far-reaching meaning than what is said (Hall, 1981). Regarding the characteristic of trust, low-content business negotiators must understand how to gain the trust and confidence of high-context business negotiators before proceeding to the general principles or details (Cohen as cited in Lam, 1998).
Dutch researcher Fons Trompenaars’ research on cultural dimensions, developed five relationship orientations (Universalism vs. Particularism, Individualism vs. Communitarianism, Neutral vs. Emotional, Specific vs. Diffuse, & Achievement vs. Ascription), that can, arguably, be considered complementary to Hofstede’s dimensions, and that focus on how people deal with the concept of time; which he categorized into two approaches: sequential and synchronous.

Another time-related contrast is Trompenaars’ past- or present-orientation as opposed to future-orientation, which focus on how people relate to these relationship orientations (Trompenaars, & Hampden-Turner, 1998). These are very important elements of culture when negotiating with the Chinese. For example, Westerners go into international business negotiations with a strong sense of urgency, since they believe that time is money and meeting deadlines are very important. In contrast, the Chinese will seldom share this urgency and most often will try to avoid displaying this sense of urgency (Banthin & Steizer, 1998). That is, the Chinese focus more on patience and developing mutual trust and long-term relationships; not short-term gains.

In cultures with high Universalism, such as the U.S., the focus is more on formal rules than on relationships. In contrast, cultures high on Particularism, such as China, emphasize relationships and trust, more than on formal rules. In a Particularist culture, for example, the contents and execution of legal contracts can be modified (Trompenaars, & Hampden-Turner, 1998). And, in neutral cultures emotions are held back. People in these countries will suppress their feelings and maintain composure. And people from emotional cultures express emotions openly and naturally. Also, people from emotional cultures smile often, speak in a very loud tone when excited, and greet others with eagerness (Trompenaars, & Hampden-Turner, 1998).
The GLOBE research project identified ten regional clusters based on similarities and differences in cultural dimensions from 61 societies that participated in the GLOBE study. In constructing the GLOBE clusters, researchers used results from previous empirical studies, including factors such as culture, language, geography, and religion, and, most importantly, history. To this end, the Confucian Asia Cluster has been influenced by China’s history and Confucian ideology. The Confucian Asia Cluster includes Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, China, South Korea, and Japan. Further, common to all these Confucian societies is a reliance on networks, such as guanxi in China, which function through mutual trust (House et al., 2004).

**Cultural Dynamics**

The researcher has argued that culture is not static, but instead dynamic, and constantly changing and evolving due to globalization, economic, and technological influences; that is, global flows. These cultural dynamics affect time, space, values, behaviors, overall cultures, interactions between people of different cultures, mindsets, and so on (Usunier & Lee, 2005, 2009). For example, time has a strong influence on people’s daily functioning activities. And from a cross-cultural perspective, time is, arguably, an area of major difference due to cultural orientations such as economics of time, *Monochronism* versus *Polychronism*, linearity versus cyclicity of time, and so on (Usunier & Lee, 2005, 2009).

Similarly, “cultural opacity takes place when a cultural concept is unique to a culture. This may occur when some culturally defined concepts are transposed from one cultural setting to another” (Xing, 1995, p. 14). Furthermore, global flows’ consequences has led to cultural interrelationships that have generated both cultural homogeneity and cultural disorders, as well as transnational cultures; which can also be understood as *third cultures* focused beyond national
boundaries. And researchers argue that the complexity of global cultural flows sheds doubts on the centre-periphery models’ effectiveness (Appadurai, 1990; Craig & Douglas, 2006).

Cultural dynamism is influenced by five global cultural flow dimensions (Appadurai, 1990; Featherstone, 1997; Craig & Douglas, 2006). The first, *ethnoscapes* develops from moving people between countries such as, tourists, immigrants, refugees, exiles, and so on. These people are changing the cultural beliefs, values and customs, of people from different countries. The second global flow *technoscapes* is influenced and associated with technologies and knowledge transfers. The third global flow *finanscapes* originates from currency markets and stock exchanges of capital and money. The fourth global flow, *mediascapes*, originates from media images and communication; reaching people across the globe, thus influencing consumers, while at the same time are also subject to influence by international marketers. The fifth and final global flow is *ideoscapes*, which originates from political ideologies. These flows are the primary methods used to transmit cultural influential content from one culture to another (Appadurai, 1990; Featherstone, 1997; Craig & Douglas, 2006). That is, these global flows’ interrelationships and linking is causing cultures to change its original schemas in all countries.

Craig and Douglas (2006) identified five cultural dynamic consequences and they are: cultural interpenetration, deterritorialization, cultural contamination, cultural pluralism, and cultural hybridization. They argue that cultural influences results in “cultural interpenetration or the penetration of one culture by another” (p. 323). Also, deterritorialization occurs when a culture is no longer identified by a specific geographic location. And cultural contamination occurs when cultures are influenced by elements of other cultures. Cultural pluralism occurs when individuals display elements of many cultures. Further, cultural hybridization combines two or more different cultural elements creating a new culture (Craig & Douglas, 2006, p. 330).
Chinese Culture and Philosophy

Many cultures trace their origins to an early stage of development, or genesis, as used in the Bible; but historical accounts of the creation of the universe have received less attention in Chinese ancient literature. Even the Book of Changes, a divinatory guide from Chinese antiquity, does not address this issue (Sommer, 1995). Researchers argue that there are three foundational and philosophical belief systems of the Chinese people: Taoism, which focuses on harmony with nature; Confucianism, human relationships; and Mahāyāna Buddhism, the cessation of suffering and the path to enlightenment, or the Bodhisattva Vehicle (Fang, 2006; De Groot, 2009; Sommer, 1995). One commonality between Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism is that the self is not independent and not complete by itself (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). To this end, business relationships in China are personal and based on guanxi, networking, or social connections, and are associated with special favors and obligations (Grief & Tabellini, 2010). Therefore, guanxi is based on trust, personal obligations, and mianzi, face (Redding, 1993).

In individualistic cultures, face is associated with an individual’s self-worth, self-presentation, and self-value; whereas, in collectivistic cultures face is concerned with how others perceive one’s worth; especially in relation to in- and out-groups. Further, in collectivistic cultures, such as the Chinese culture, mianzi, face is also associated with social image, social pride, honor, dignity, insult, shame, disgrace, humility, trust, respect, and prestige (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Additionally, research suggests that the goal of Chinese communication is to sustain harmony. And harmony, he, is the basic foundation of Chinese culture; which supports relational development and interpersonal communication; elements of emotional intelligence (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Harmony also is associated with peace, unity, and kindness.
Moreover, *Yin* and *Yang* represent intrinsic qualities found in the universe that regulate all cosmic activity in the phenomenal world. To this end, *Yin Yang* has become the cosmic symbol for unity and harmony. Researchers argue that concepts such as *yin* and *yang*, or other significant Chinese cultural concepts, may “never be completely understood by Americans because of their subtle and intricate connotations of the nature of the universe being wet/dry, positive/negative, cold/hot, light/dark, minus/plus, and female/male” (Xing, 1995, p. 14).

Another significant Chinese concept of Chinese negotiations is *Wu Wei*, which literally translates into Chinese as *inaction* and *non-action*, or simply *doing nothing*. That is, *Wu Wei* suggests act without actually acting, no interference, or simply letting go. Doing nothing also suggests strategically doing things. Therefore, *Wu Wei* encourages, engages and sustains a peace of mind that empowers an individual to absorb all challenging forces, in becoming their master in the end. *Wu Wei* and *Yin Yang* principles are the framework upon which the philosophical concept of *Chinese stratagems* is based on (Fang, 1999). Chen (as cited in Fang, 2006) suggests that opposing elements have common factors and together they form a dynamic unity; a philosophy that helps in understanding Chinese conflict management and negotiation styles.

Taoism focuses on simplicity, contentment, instinctiveness, calmness, weakness, and most importantly, *Wu Wei*. Therefore, to understand Taoism, one must understand, Tao, Yin Yang, and Wu Wei where Tao means *the Road or the Way* in which the Universe flows. Moreover, in the Chinese system there is no god beyond the Cosmos, no creator, no Yahweh, or no Allah (De Groot, 2009). And the four intrinsic cardinal virtues of the Chinese man, known as *shang*, or *constant virtues*, are: (1) kind acts; (2) rites of social life and laws; (3) righteousness; and (4) correctness. These four virtues of man are called the *Tao of Man* (De Groot, 2009).
Research suggests that Confucianism continues to heavily influence today’s Chinese culture. This influence, with a long history dating over the past Chinese civilization, firmly establishes Confucianism as the “undeniable system governing all aspects of Chinese lives” (Xing, 1995, p. 16). Additionally, the practice of a feudalistic system, for thousands of years, has also influenced the Chinese perception of themselves and the world. Researchers argue that to gain acceptance in China, ideas and approaches must be aligned with Chinese classics and traditions. “And the current Chinese campaign for modernization is not necessarily a process of change in the Chinese people’s fundamental mentality or behavior” (Xing, 1995, p. 16).

“As a moral system, Confucianism focuses on the relationship between man and man, which is defined by five virtues: humanity/benevolence (ren), righteousness (yi), property (li), wisdom (Zhi), and trustworthiness (xin)” (Xing, 1995, p. 16). Further, the “five hierarchical relationships between father and son, ruler and ruled, husband and wife, elder and younger brother, and friend and friend, are well established norms governing how people should act and behave in relation to people in other roles” (Xing, 1995, p. 16). Additionally, “the Chinese, based on their philosophy of life, look at time as a process of eternity, where time is used to achieve the ultimate human reward of spiritual enrichment and serenity received from the contemplation of one’s living environment” (Xing, 1995, p. 19).

Moreover, “the Chinese cultural system, such as Confucianism, family-ism, group-orientated philosophy of life, and mode of thinking that has made the Chinese cultural system distinctive and powerful, is influential in all aspects of Chinese social lives including business” (Xing, 1995, 20). Furthermore, one, all encompassing, word that symbolizes the Chinese way of life for the past two thousand years is Confucianism. No other individual in Chinese history has influenced the Chinese people as Confucius; their lives, thoughts, as a teacher and creative
interpreter of the ancient culture and literature, molding the Chinese mind and character (de Bary et al., as cited in Yao, 2008). According to Confucianism the world is structured based on three elements (sanjì), the three powers of the universe (sancai): tian (heaven), di (earth), and ren (humans). These three elements work in harmony supporting the belief that heaven, earth, and humans are the origin of all things. Heaven is the origin of everything, earth provides nourishment, and humans improve everything (Chunqui Fanlu Yizheng as cited in Yao, 2008).

Confucianism, dating back approximately 2500 years, is a consolidation of many Chinese philosophical thoughts and traditions, which has played a dramatic and influential part, regarding the behavior and thinking of the Chinese people and those from East Asia. Six basic Confucian values that relate to Chinese business negotiating styles are: (1) moral cultivation (Confucianism) which is a form of moral ethic, emphasizing moral development and continual learning, and where sincerity, trust and righteousness are considered important human qualities; (2) interpersonal relationships (emotional intelligence) significance; (3) family and group orientation, where the family is considered the most basic and important social entity; (4) respect for the aged and hierarchy; (5) avoidance of conflict and need for harmony; and (6) face (mianzì), that plays an important part in all aspects of Chinese lives (Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Yao, 2008).

Further, effective business negotiation is based on mutual respect, trust and benefit and is guided by a considerable Chinese attention to etiquette (Ghauri & Fang, 1999). And Chinese negotiation styles, “absorbs nutrition from ancient Chinese cultural wisdom such as Sun Tzu’s The Art of War that provides strategies suited for business wars” (Xing, 1995, p. 14). The researcher has argued that negotiating with the Chinese is difficult and challenging. The above discussions on culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics and more specifically Chinese
culture and philosophy demonstrates the complexity that is inherent in understanding the influences of Chinese business negotiators and their negotiating styles.

**Chinese Communications**

The researcher argues that in understanding Chinese communications, it is important to discuss Chinese cultural assumptions, and beliefs with regards to how the Chinese perceive themselves and how they relate to others and their surroundings. Research suggests that the Chinese are shy, indirect, and subtle. Further, some will argue that the Chinese are also intentionally evasive and deceptive. Therefore, a Chinese message can convey a different meaning depending on one’s cultural background and cultural intelligence competencies (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Gudykunst, 2003).

The U.S. concept of communication is different in China. That is, there is no single word translation in Chinese for communication. Many Chinese equate speaking with communication. And although there is not a single Chinese word that translates directly to the word communication, there are several Chinese translations regarding the concept of communication. For example, *Gou tong*, or the ability to connect with people, is, arguably, the closest Chinese equivalent for communication (Littlejohn as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

Moreover, Chinese communication supports both affective and relational orientations (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). And, in order to save face (*mianzi*), the Chinese use several different methods of refusal without actually saying no. One common word used in saving face and not actually saying no, is to say that it would be inconvenient to grant a wish. However, this does not suggest that an international business negotiator should try and convince the Chinese who stated inconvenience; since it may not be inconvenient at all. Ultimately, using the word inconvenient does mean no (Seligman, 1999). Further, the concept of *han xu* supports the
Chinese beliefs about speaking; since it enables an individual to utilize a protective style of speaking, thereby minimizing any potential misunderstandings that could result from speaking directly. Han xu suggests that communication in Chinese culture is negotiable and therefore it gives both the listener and the speaker equal importance (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

When the Chinese vaguely express themselves during discussions they expect the receiver of the message to read between the lines in decoding the hidden messages. Further, the Chinese speaker prefers to guide conversation, as opposed to direct it (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). To this end, the real value of han xu relates to the importance of Chinese nonverbal communication during the business negotiation process. For example, a Chinese smile may suggest being uncomfortable, embarrassed, frustrated, or nervous. Furthermore, Chinese communication focuses more on the nonverbal than on the verbal aspects of communication; different from that found in the U.S.

Moreover, expressions of extreme emotions is generally perceived by the Chinese as having some possible problems, and controlling one’s emotions is essential to achieving an internal balance (Bond as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Because the Chinese tend to be indirect, they are generally perceived by Westerners as insincere and untrustworthy. That is direct versus indirect communication can result in misunderstandings between the Chinese and Westerners (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Further, Westerners are not as comfortable with silence as the Chinese, whose silence could have different meanings such as being polite, attentive or they may be trying to stall the process or trying to draw their opponents into a negotiation (Seligman, 1999).

While it is difficult to be specific about rules for communicating and negotiating with the Chinese, the following could provide some guidance: (1) learn, practice and apply emotional
intelligence; and (2) learn, understand and apply cultural intelligence. The researcher has argued that Chinese business negotiations are challenging, which further suggests that a high level of cultural intelligence is required for understanding when, and how behavioral adaptation is required in order to achieve favorable outcomes (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). To this end, ineffective communication during the Chinese negotiation process can lead to misunderstandings, distrust, and unfavorable outcomes (Fisher & Brown, as cited in Zhao, 2000) due to differences in cultures (Zhao, 2000).

**Emotional Intelligence**

Research suggests that it is important to develop emotional intelligence (EQ) prior to developing cultural intelligence (CQ) (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007; Jokinen, 2005); an important element of international negotiation effectiveness; and especially Chinese negotiations. Developing emotional intelligence requires mastery of the four dimensions self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman, McKee, & Boyatzis 2002). Self-awareness focuses on having an awareness of individual’s feelings and one’s impact on other individuals. Self-management focuses on favorable psychological attributes, such as emotional self-control, authenticity, adaptability, the need to achieve, self-initiative, and optimism.

Social awareness focuses on having empathy, (towards the thoughts and feelings of other individuals), organizational awareness, (being sensitive to the importance of relationships and networks; guanxi), and thus committing to serve others. And relationship management focuses on motivating, developing, engaging and influencing others, managing conflict and change, and developing and sustaining teamwork (Goleman, McKee, & Boyatzis 2002). When negotiators focus on developing positive emotions, they bring out the best in everyone. Therefore, effective
initial business negotiations with the Chinese require an in-depth understanding of emotional intelligence competencies by the international business negotiators, which are also supported by Confucianism.

To this end, Chinese business negotiators tend to take advantage of the psychological dimensions of interpersonal relations, emotional intelligence, during international negotiations. These dimensions are primarily directed towards creating obligations, attitudes and reciprocity during Chinese business negotiations. Researchers argue that Westerners do not always understand the relationships’ strategies that include long-time friends and obligations, the Chinese concept of shame, sympathy, criticism, and nonverbal communications. Generally, these negotiation tactics are effective during international business negotiations, in stimulating both positive and negative responses, thus helping Chinese negotiators sustain their negotiating tactics. And since Americans lack a comparable cultural framework in understanding these approaches, these Chinese business negotiating tactics will have a minimal impact (Wilhelm, 2002).

**Cultural Intelligence**

Researchers argue that people with cultural intelligence have the knowledge to understand cross-cultural issues, the mindset to assess and evaluate different situations, and the necessary skills to adapt acceptable behavior during varied international business negotiation situations (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). Further, cultural intelligence suggest that one is both skillful and flexible, in adapting one’s behavior based upon a culture, in learning more from cultural interactions, gradually reshaping one’s thinking towards having more empathy of the culture, and acting appropriate when interacting with others from the culture (Thomas & Inkson, 2009).
Cultural intelligence is, therefore, the ability to effectively function in cross-cultural environments, whether national, ethnic or organizational. Cultural intelligence offers international business negotiators a multiple perspective framework that can be applied to nearly any cultural situation. It is a capability that focuses on Livermore’s (2010) four dimensional model, the four-step cycle below, multiple skills, and an inside-out approach, thus helping to support meeting the challenges of international negotiations (Livermore, 2010; Deng & Gibson, 2008).

That is, one approach to gaining and sustaining a competitive edge while negotiating business effectively across different cultures is by applying Livermore’s (2010) *four-step cycle of cultural intelligence*, (CQ). The four-step cycle, or dimensional framework, is: *CQ drive*, an emotional and motivational orientation; *CQ knowledge*, a cognitive orientation; *CQ strategy*, a metacognitive orientation; and *CQ action*, a behavioral orientation that can change verbal and non-verbal actions during cross-cultural business negotiations (Livermore, 2010).

Regardless of the cultural context, the objective in international business negotiations is for business negotiators to reach mutual agreements, through offers and counteroffers, with concessions and compromises that lead to achieving favorable outcomes. Further, there are four behaviors that can be useful during international business negotiations: changing one’s timing, adapting one’s style, maintaining flexibility, and acting with integrity (Livermore, 2010). When negotiating business with Chinese negotiators, opponents must be aware and knowledgeable about their own culture; avoid lack of awareness, expect the unexpected and differences; be aware of behavioral clues and their interpretations; adapt their behavior to the situation; be aware of responses to their behavior; experiment adapting to new situations; and practice new behaviors (Thomas & Inkson, 2009).
Chinese Negotiation Styles

Culture and its Impact on Chinese Business Negotiations

Research suggests that any human interactions are, by definition, intercultural. That is, “when two individuals meet, it is an intercultural encounter since they both have different ways to perceive, discover and create reality. Therefore, all negotiations are intercultural” (Martin, Mayfield, Mayfield, & Herbig, 1998, p. 44). Further, when international business negotiations break down, “the failure is often ascribed to cultural misunderstanding” (Palich, Carini, & Livingstone, 2002, p. 779). To this end, the greater the cultural differences between international business negotiators the greater the possibilities for misunderstandings (Lam, 1998).

National cultural differences during international negotiations can also lead to conflict, distrust, ineffective communications and misunderstandings (Killing as cited in Lam, 1998). Culture helps to shape the interpretations of various situations, whether they are conflicting or not, including the actual conflict management style (Ross as cited in Lam, 1998). To this end, Chinese culture originates from the philosophical traditions of Confucianism and Taoism (Fang as cited in Ma, 2006). And these philosophies continue to provide moral, values, ethical, cognitive and social guidance for today’s Chinese modern society.

The Confucian concept of harmony, which focuses on man and nature, heaven and man, and so on, argues that individuals should adapt to collectivity, to control their emotions, avoid competition and conflicts, and maintain overall harmony (Kirkbride et al., as cited in Ma, 2006). This collective orientation has important applications during the international business negotiation process. Therefore, the Chinese make every attempt at avoiding conflict, but if they find themselves in the midst of conflict they will try to pursue harmony during the process of
negotiation; different from Western business negotiation styles who will be direct, confrontational, competitive, and perhaps combative (Ma & Jaeger, 2005; Ma, 2006).

Chinese who subscribe to the Confucian culture portray the following attributes: loyalty, reciprocal obligations, and honesty in dealing with others (Hill as cited in Chang, 2003). Therefore, when negotiating business with the Chinese, respect their values, be polite and honest and that will go a long way in assuring a long-term business relationship with them. Further, dishonest behaviors in business negotiations may generate short-term favorable outcomes, but in the long-term they will be ineffective, and with unfavorable outcomes (Buttery & Leung as cited in Chang, 2003).

Negotiator’s cultural differences are normal in international business negotiations. At a minimum, elements of culture that influence negotiations with regards to communication, and negotiating styles are: behavior, attitudes, cultural norms, and values (Salacuse, 1999). Culture provides a different perspective regarding social exchanges that are a part of business negotiations. And researchers argue that a win-lose strategy is not as productive as a win-win strategy. Further, the value of culture, in a relationship, is related to a win-win strategy (Zhao, 2000). Additionally, business negotiation styles involves ten factors that are affected by culture: goals, attitudes, preferred styles, communication, time orientations, emotions, the type of agreement, agreement process and development, team organization, and risk taking (Salacuse, 1999).

A very important concept from Chinese philosophy closely associated with collectivism is face-saving, or Mianzi (Goffman as cited in Ma, 2006), which is critical during international negotiations (Hofstede as cited in Ma, 2006). Research suggests that mianzi will generally result in retaliation and mutual loss (Brown as cited in Ma, 2006). And mianzi will cause a fear of
status loss and self-esteem, if negotiators allow themselves to be intimidated. Not giving face to a negotiator is also perceived as denying that individual his or her pride and dignity. The Chinese will generally be hesitant to engage in confrontational behaviors during negotiations, which is different from Western negotiators (Ma, 2006).

Chinese management books, dating back a couple of centuries, have included the following four negotiation strategies: the use of strategic foresight during negotiations; knowing one’s self and one’s opponent; distinguishing between a one-time or recurring exchange; and business negotiators must align everyone’s cognitive maps. Additionally, the Chinese believe that knowledge is the vehicle in evaluating a strategic situation, determining its direction, and making a decision that will favorably affect the future (Jehn & Weigelt, 1999).

**Chinese Business Negotiation Processes and Strategies**

Researchers suggest that the negotiation process has some origins from exchange theories, highlighting various stages of development (Rubin and Brown as cited in Tu, 2007). Additionally, the Chinese business negotiation process can be divided into three phases: Pre-negotiation; face-to-face negotiation; and post-negotiation (Ghauri, 1996: Ghauri & Usunier 2003; Ghauri & Fang, 1999). The pre-negotiation phase focuses on task-related exchanges of information, persuasions, concessions and agreements, from an understanding each parties’ needs and demands. The face-to-face negotiation phase is the actual negotiations. And the post-negotiation is where the parties have reached final agreements and conclusions from the negotiations (Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

Moreover, this business negotiation process suggests that negotiating effectively will require adhering to established *priorities* (being responsive to China’s government, social and economic developmental priorities), *patience* (an important element of Chinese business
negotiations), *price* (a very important element of international and Chinese business negotiations), *precision* (in providing detailed specifications; in helping to facilitate the Chinese decision making process; presentation and execution accuracy; and realizing that mistakes cause loss of credibility, or face, and this loss will be used as a bargaining tactic by the Chinese), and *people* (the Chinese belief in people over legal contracts) (Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

In addition, the Chinese business negotiation process focuses on a zero-sum game orientation in competitive activities. However, successful negotiations, arguably, should yield a win-win outcome for both parties. Research also suggests that although a win-win approach is desirable, often one negotiator will yield gains at the expense of their opponents (win-lose) (Thompson as cited in Chang, 2003). Further, a negotiator’s honesty about their purpose, objectives, and interests can help develop trust with their opponents, and a favorable negotiating position, especially during the initial stages of negotiations. Respecting the Chinese culture and displaying patience will also be helping the initial negotiations (Chang, 2003).

In fact, the Chinese negotiation process allows the opponent to recover their face. In contrast, Western negotiators, with poor cultural intelligence, will, generally, and at all costs, attempt to subdue and beat the other negotiators, thereby making the negotiation process quite stressful, difficult and ineffective (Ma, 2006). Further, business negotiation styles are a communication process where the objective is for multiple foreign business negotiators to surmount conflicting situations in order to achieve mutual beneficial agreements. Western business negotiation practices include making threats and promises, persuasion, concessions, compromises and at times creative solutions.

Moreover, cross-cultural differences during negotiations make the business negotiation process much more complex. The Chinese argue that effective negotiations are the result of
good business relationships. Therefore, the initial strategies must focus on building a relationship (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). Chaney and Martin (as cited in Zhu, McKenna, and Sun, 2007) suggests that cross-cultural negotiations are discussions of common and conflicting interests between international business negotiators who work to collaboratively reach an agreement of mutual benefit. And cross-cultural negotiations are more complex than monocultural negotiations because of differences in culture and languages (Woo as cited in Zhu, McKenna, and Sun, 2007).

Negotiation has been researched by scholars from political science, social psychology, organization, cross-cultural marketing, and communications. And Li and Labig (2001) suggest that East Asian negotiation styles’ research applied Western models with a task-orientation. Furthermore, they argue that this research did not address the effects that relationships have on the negotiation process and long-term relationship building; which are important elements of the Chinese business negotiation process. They also argue that business negotiations in China require task and relationship orientations.

Additionally, Walton and McKersie (as cited in Li & Labig, 2001) posit that trust between two negotiators has proven to be a positive attribute in developing more favorable outcomes during competitive and cooperative negotiations. Researchers also suggest that common interest and issues of conflict must exist during business negotiations. To this end, business negotiation could be defined as a process where two or more negotiators combine their conflicting perspectives into one outcome of mutual interest (Zartman as cited in Fang, 1999).

Furthermore, business negotiation strategy is a methodology used by one party to influence another party’s behavior and perspectives, through exchanges, in achieving favorable outcomes and objectives with an agreed upon price (Wall, 1985; Wall & Blum, 1991; Jehn &
Weigelt, 1999; Ma, 2006). And research suggests that business negotiation literature can be classified into two general areas: game theory and social exchange theory (Ma, 2006; Fang, 1999). Also business negotiation processes generally advance through different stages, with intercultural differences. The most common stages are: building relationships; information exchange; persuasion; making concessions and reaching an agreement (Thomas & Inkson, 2009). Additionally, strategies have tactical and non-tactical orientations. Two common negotiation strategies are competition and cooperation (Fang, 1999).

One important outlook of the business negotiation process is the cooperative and competitive nature of negotiator’s behavior (Ma, 2006; Fang, 2006). Competitive behavior, applied in win-lose strategies (Chinese stratagems), uses zero-sum tactics such as threats, promises, positioning, and persuasion (Ma, 2006; Fang, 2006). Additionally, business negotiators with competitive behaviors use tactics aimed at persuading opponents into concessions. In essence, competitive behaviors focus on one party’s concerns and not others. In contrast, cooperative behavior, applied during win-win strategies (Confucianism), may use some form of collaboration, selflessness, or simply accommodating to their opponent’s perspectives (Ma & Jaeger, 2005; Ma, 2006; Fang, 2006). Business negotiators who use cooperative behaviors during negotiations will often concede some of their own interests so others can achieve some of their goals, demonstrating self-sacrifices (Ma, 2006).

Integrative behaviors, applied in win-win strategies, include both cooperative and competitive strategies. They rely on a problem-solving methodology, utilizing trust and mutual support, in developing favorable outcomes that satisfies both sides (Ma, 2006). Integrative behaviors are endorsed in China because of their favorable intentions and outcomes. The goal is to seek an integrative outcome, through a process of an open exchange of information, mutual
concessionary behaviors and respect, in achieving mutual goals (Ma, 2006). During integrative orientations and negotiations, Chinese business negotiators make efforts to minimize zero-sum tactics so they can achieve mutually beneficial outcomes (Dant and Schul, as cited in Ma, 2006).

**Chinese Business Negotiating Tactics**

**Chinese conflict management styles**

The Chinese view conflict and confrontation as undesirable. Ma (2007) argues that “conflict management styles influence negotiation behaviors, which leads to different negotiation outcomes” (p. 106). Further, Ma (2007) suggests that the collectivistic Chinese prefer a non-confrontational style to resolve conflicts and are more willing to compromise, manifested in their negotiation style. Ting-Toomey (1985) suggests that conflict is a questionable situation where two interdependent negotiators have different desires or goals.

Conflict also requires effectively understanding and managing of *mianzi*, face. As stated earlier, the Chinese people will avoid conflict at all costs because it can lead to confrontation and a loss of face. Bond (as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998) proposes that the Chinese consider direct confrontation as *luan* (chaos). And the Chinese oppose chaos because it has an unfavorable impact on harmony in personal relationships. Therefore, the Chinese believe that conflict should be self-controlled and self-restraint; elements of Chinese culture (Ting-Toomey, 1988; Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

During differences of opinion, the Chinese prefer to remain quiet, while asking the leader to reconcile their differences (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Generally the Chinese prefer avoidance and other indirect approaches during conflicts. Chinese culture does not support aggressive confrontations; instead face must be maintained and respected or *liu mianzi*. In cross-cultural studies, conflict management styles are directly associated with a concern for face. And
research suggests that there are three areas involved with face: self-face, other-face, and mutual-face (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Research suggests that collectivistic cultures, China, place a greater concern for other face as compared to people from individualistic cultures, U.S. (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). That is, finding a compromise helps to avoid losing face for all members in the negotiation. This strategy of conflict management allows both parties to maintain harmony and relationships (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

Moreover, researchers argue that within the Chinese culture trust, in maintaining harmony and relationships, is important because conflicts can generate favorable outcomes; thus making some aspects of conflict productive. From this perspective conflict is perceived as part of the natural cycle of life, Ying and Yang. By developing trust and respecting opponents, one can more freely challenge ideas and opinions. Therefore, trust and respect are necessary to achieve productive conflict, and provide a collaborative environment for healthy discussions. Further, constructive debate and criticism can help avoid group think that can decrease creative and innovative outcomes (Jehn & Weigelt, 1999).

**Chinese cooperative and competitive strategies and game theory**

Emerson (as cited in Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999) posited that negotiated and reciprocal exchanges are closely related to the game theories’ differences between cooperative and competitive games. During cooperative games, negotiator agreements are made by knowing and open communication. In contrast, during competitive games, business negotiators make decisions without the other negotiating parties’ awareness (Heckathorn as cited in Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999). Therefore, arguably, negotiated business exchanges are viewed as cooperative games, and reciprocal business exchanges are viewed as competitive games. Moreover, during reciprocal exchanges negotiator’s outcomes are dependent on the other
negotiator’s behavior. As a result, benefits can potentially flow in a unilateral direction. During negotiating exchanges, agreements often introduce offers and counteroffers; where business negotiators know what they will receive for that which they will offer (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999; Palich, Carini, & Livingstone, 2002).

Game theory focuses on understanding interpersonal behavior, decision making, and maximizing a business negotiator’s outcomes, by applying mathematical theory in real conflict situations (Raiffa & Siebe as cited in Fang, 1999). Game theory views the business negotiator relationships as manipulative and competitive; thus a zero-sum or win-lose game. That is, one party’s gain is the other’s loss. Business negotiations, like culture, are not static, instead continually evolving. And, game theory suggests that global interdependency occurs through an exchange of payoffs; an element found in Chinese management. Further, game theory and Chinese philosophy share some commonalities directly related to international business negotiations. Game theory suggests that business negotiations with the Chinese should be viewed from the Chinese negotiator’s perspective. That is, adopt the Chinese business negotiator’s mindset (Doucet & Jehn as cited in Jehn & Weigelt, 1999).

Research also suggests that if an international business negotiator does not have empathy for others, it will be difficult to think as their opponents. That is, international business negotiators should be concerned with the goals and interests of their opponents (Jehn & Weigelt, 1999). Moreover, Chinese management orientation and game theory suggest the use of different behaviors; based upon how many times the game is applied. In repeated exchanges the Chinese suggest that trust exists in verbal agreements, where trust had existed prior to any spoken words; that is, guanxi, or a relationship network one can trust. This is how Chinese business negotiators achieve outcomes.
Social exchange theory and negotiated and reciprocal exchanges

Research suggests that the majority of social exchange research focused specifically on business negotiation exchange agreements that committed both parties; that is, “how the form of social exchange, negotiated and reciprocal, affects the distribution of power in exchange networks” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 876). Further, negotiated and reciprocal exchanges differ fundamentally in how business negotiators use power, face risks and uncertainty, during negotiations. These basic differences affect the application of power during business negotiations of reciprocal and negotiated exchanges (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999).

Research, over the past couple of decades on the use of power during social exchanges, has been specifically, and primarily, focused on a form of exchange that includes the terms of binding agreements. In contrast, classical social exchange theorists, generally, excluded business negotiations from their theories (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999). And Homans (as cited in Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999) proposed that specific types of negotiations are seldom included in long-term relationships. Further, Blau (as cited in Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999) argued that “the absence of negotiation distinguishes social from economic exchange” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 876).

During negotiated business exchanges, both negotiating parties participate in the decision-making process that lead to achieving binding agreements with terms of the exchange. That is, “both sides of the negotiations are agreed upon simultaneously, constituting a transaction. Most economic exchanges other than fixed-price trades fit in this category, as do some social exchanges” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 877). And during negotiated business exchanges both negotiating parties are encouraged to improve their effectiveness in
developing alternative outcomes and solutions by “bargaining harder and making fewer concessions” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 881). Therefore, “in negotiated exchanges, opponents obtain benefits only from bilateral agreements, whose terms are known in advance and arrived at jointly” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 887).

To this end, social exchange theory suggests business negotiations are a social exchange process; that focuses on exchanges between negotiation parties in achieving win-win outcomes. That is, negotiating parties’ relationships are cooperative in nature. And the negotiator’s objective is to maximize mutual benefits for both parties, while sustaining a favorable relationship during the business negotiation process. Furthermore, both game and social exchange theories lead to two universal business negotiation strategies: competition and cooperation, respectively (Fang, 1999).

**Reciprocity and Chinese business negotiations**

During reciprocal business negotiation exchanges alternative contributions, or outcomes, are made by one party to the other party “without knowing whether, when, or to what degree the other will reciprocate. That is, exchange relations develop, when beneficial acts prompt reciprocal benefit” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 877); thus making reciprocal exchanges very difficult to identify (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999). Further, the reciprocal exchange process becomes a “series of sequentially contingent acts” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 877).

Additionally, researchers argue that during the reciprocal exchange process, business negotiators “increase their chance of receiving benefits from a particular partner by giving to that partner more frequently” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 881). Therefore, “in reciprocal exchanges, business negotiators provide benefits for others in unilateral acts of giving without
knowledge of the other’s reciprocity, and the rate of exchange is established over time” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 887). Furthermore, during “reciprocal exchanges, the equality or inequality of a relationship develops over time, and the relative benefits of alternative exchange relationships becomes apparent over time” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 888).

Researchers argue that international business negotiators with expectations of immediate negotiation benefits may fail to realize the benefits and rewards of long term relationships. Further, they posit that reciprocal exchanges include important elements such as risks and trust. And, “patterns of reciprocal exchanges will develop if negotiators are willing to accept some temporary and short-term costs and uncertainty” (Molm, Peterson & Takahashi, 1999, p. 888).

Gouldber (as cited in Adair, 1999) suggests that standards of reciprocity (a Confucianism principle) are constructs of interaction in social systems. And research suggests that negotiation behavioral standards differ across cultures. This suggests relationships between cultures and reciprocity may affect the behaviors reciprocated in cross-cultural negotiations (Adair, 1999). Therefore, Chinese business negotiators must be aware of the behaviors likely to be reciprocated during business negotiations (Fang, 2006). In Chinese personal relationships, ren qing and bao are used interchangeably. And Wang (as cited in Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998) argues that ren qing is used for managing interpersonal relationships. The basic concept of ren qing, however, is based on the moral code of bao (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). Therefore, a negotiator who dong ren qing (comprehends ren qing or emotional intelligence) and knows bao (honor by reciprocating).

Chinese culture includes expressions as a debt of gratitude for one’s kindness, gan en dai de, gratitude and repayment for a kind deed, gan en tu bao, and honor me a foot, and return honor ten feet, ni jing wo yi chi, wo jing ni yi zhang. The Chinese are taught that a person who is
beholden to *ren qing* must repay. Therefore, the Chinese view reciprocity as a basic human rule; a part of interpersonal relationships (emotional intelligence) and behavior; and not paying one’s debt is viewed unfavorably with a feeling of uneasiness (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998).

Furthermore, the concepts of *guanxi* and reciprocity are also closely related. Many Chinese enter relationships depending on what gains they can achieve; therefore, a friend’s motives are not necessarily for personal enjoyment. And reciprocity is instrumental in interpersonal relationships (emotional intelligence) as well as in business. Reciprocity is also an important reason why Chinese people feel comfortable with relationships that include *guanxi*. Further, the Chinese will gladly provide favors to acquaintances in need; as well as they will also do a favor not requested; thereby justifying a payback at some future time. If a person cannot repay a gift of equal value, he or she will always be indebted or lose face (Seligman, 1999).

**Chinese Business Negotiation Approaches**

**The Confucian gentleman**

As a Confucian gentleman, the Chinese business negotiator’s behavior focuses on developing honesty, mutual trust and benefits, in exploring collaborative and cooperative opportunities with the goal of achieving win-win solutions for all parties. Further, the Chinese business negotiator who displays Confucian gentleman characteristics seeks to create an environment where doing the right thing is more important than pursuing financial benefits. A Chinese business negotiator will also display capabilities to manage and conclude negotiations without actually negotiating. Instead the Chinese business negotiator would prefer using words such as talk or discuss during negotiations (the Chinese words for negotiation *Tan Pan*, literally translates into *talk and judge*). In contrast, Western business negotiation perspectives suggest
that negotiations are viewed as disagreeable intensions of conflict, which should be avoided when negotiating with the Chinese (Fang, 2006).

Further, the Chinese business negotiator prefers to avoid legal issues during face-to-face discussions; uses favorable mannerisms, where a simple handshake or business card exchanges can lead towards a long-term partnership. Legal contracts are viewed as problem-solving tools instead of a formal legal presentation (Fang, 2006). Additionally, the Chinese business negotiator relates business with guanxi and trust. He or she is group-orientated, is self-controlled, aware of mianzi, age, hierarchy, and etiquette. His or her business negotiation style focuses on cooperation (Fang, 2006).

Research suggests that in conducting effective Chinese business negotiations, it is essential to: understand Chinese cultural dimensions which may help to explain subtleties of Chinese negotiation behavior; practice patience, since time is required by the Chinese in developing trust and guanxi; and develop trust in task-related information exchanges, since the Chinese will exchange information with only those they trust. Therefore, establishing guanxi with Chinese negotiators and developing an understanding of non-task and task processes will aid during initial business negotiations with the Chinese (Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007).

**The Maoist bureaucrat**

The researcher argues that in understanding Mao’s bureaucracy it is also important to understand Mao’s perspective with regards to China’s culture, its current and future government, and visions; that lead to influencing the Maoist bureaucrat Chinese negotiator. The Chinese Communist Party refers to their 1949 victory as their liberation. Liberation officially signified removing the three burdens off the Chinese people: imperialism, feudalism, and bureaucrat-capitalism; and their Kuomintang government (Mao as cited in MacFarquhar, 2009).
Further, researchers argue that imperialism had nearly disappeared prior to Communism. And feudalism (suggesting Confucian social systems) survived and continues to be strong today and applied during the reform era. Additionally, bureaucrat-capitalism referred to big businesses that had close relationships with the Kuomintang government; or those that fled to Taiwan or Hong Kong. However, the Kuomintang government was defeated (MacFarquhar, 2009).

The Chinese Communist Party had achieved success in promoting peace and unifying China, with a strong central government, after nearly a century of foreign invasions, domestic conflicts, and the Opium War. Further, Mao had promised a *New Democracy* for China, where “its task would be to change the colonial, semi-colonial, and semi-feudal form of society into an independent democratic society” (MacFarquhar, 2009, p. 892).

Therefore, a new democracy would generate favorable outcomes from the economy. However, the *New Democracy* goals had not been realized. “Had *New Democracy* persisted for 10-15 years as planned, it would have been extraordinarily difficult and disruptive to launch the socialist phase two of the CCP program. The *New Democracy* would have developed an entrenched capitalism” (MacFarquhar, 2009, p. 894). To this end, China’s economic success over the past three decades could have, arguably, occurred much earlier; approximately 60 years ago (MacFarquhar, 2009).

Therefore, as a Maoist bureaucrat, the Chinese business negotiator is supportive of China’s governmental strategies and approach on how to conduct business. The Maoist bureaucrat is characterized by building relationships, focusing on principles over the details of the meeting, and imposing governmental policies (Lam, 1998). Their loyalty is to China’s national interest and politics. Further, the Maoist bureaucrat Chinese business negotiator avoids
taking initiatives or responsibilities, is cautious of being criticized, and has no authority to make final decisions.

Additionally, the Maoist bureaucrat has little to no international business experience. They are considered tough-minded, elusive, and astute negotiators because of their experience with Chinese bureaucracy that includes negotiations (Fang, 2006). To this end, the Maoist bureaucrat negotiator’s negotiating style can be militant, supporting Mao’s doctrine: *A revolution is not a dinner party*. Their business negotiation strategy is influenced by their culture, which is a mixture of the Confucian-style cooperation style and Sun Tzu-styles of competition (Fang, 2006).

**The Sun Tzu strategist**

According to Fang (as cited in Ghauri & Fang, 1999) all the unknown about Chinese negotiating styles can be traced back to one very important Chinese word, arguably, unknown to the West: *Ji*. The word *Ji* first surfaced about 2300 years ago in the world’s oldest literature on military strategy, *The Art of War*; written by a renowned and great ancient Chinese military strategist, Sun Tzu (2009). In *The Art of War*, Sun Tzu (2009) begins with a chapter on *Ji*, a neutral word that conveys both positive and negative meanings, depending on the context in which it is used. *Ji* can arguably be defined as a collection of human wisdom, cognitive schemas, or strategies that can be applied to various situations in gaining both material, and psychological advantage over opponents.

Fang (as cited in Ghauri & Fang, 1999) translated *Ji* into English as *Chinese stratagem(s)* which incorporates meanings of both strategy and tactics (Ghauri & Fang, 1999). Sun Tzu’s *The Art of War* includes many Chinese stratagems, such as the most commonly used stratagem in literature which provides cautionary advice to *subdue the enemy without fighting* (Sun Tzu,
a basic philosophy of the Chinese. Further, Sun Tzu’s *Art of War* taught the Chinese, many centuries ago, that opponents’ minds and plans can be disrupted in thus achieving favorable outcomes. To this end, the business negotiating processes in China are very likely to include surprises originating from Sun Tzu’s stratagems (Zhao, 2000).

Therefore as a Sun Tzu-like strategist, the Chinese business negotiator interprets negotiation as a zero-sum game and the marketplace is therefore a combat zone (Fang, 2006). The Chinese negotiator’s objective is to pursue a win-lose strategy, by continuously negotiating. As an expert negotiator, the Chinese negotiator is highly educated on several Chinese stratagems that can be applied during the negotiation process. The construct for a Sun Tzu-like negotiator includes Sun Tzu’s (2009) stratagem: *To subdue the enemy without fighting*. While conflict is avoided, in manipulating opponents to doing business their way psychological warfare becomes a part of the strategy. This Chinese business negotiator can be deceitful and indirect; often seeking favorable solutions to achieve his goals. One favorite Chinese business negotiating tactic is to *kill with a borrowed knife* (stratagem 3, Ji list). And, at any time a Chinese business negotiator may withdraw from negotiations when the negotiations are going in their opponent’s favor; although this too is a tactic of the Chinese stratagem for fighting back (Chiao as cited in Fang, 2006).

The Sun Tzu-like strategist executes with a *soft* approach, while simultaneously using *hard* tactics during the negotiation process. However, their negotiation strategy is directed at competition. Therefore, this Chinese business negotiating style uses a combination of a Confucian gentleman, a Maoist bureaucrat, and Sun Tzu-like strategist, depending on the negotiating process and situation. Further, the Chinese business negotiator values face, *mianzi*, when doing business as a Confucian gentleman, but will display no mercy, when negotiating as a
Sun Tzu-like strategist (Fang, 2006). Further, Chinese culture and philosophy, from Sun Tzu’s *The Art of War*, suggests that someone who knows himself and their enemy can avoid danger in one hundred encounters. Also someone who knows himself, but not their enemy may at times be victorious, and other times face losses. And someone who does not know himself or their enemy will lose all encounters (Tzu, 2009, pp. 115-116).

Research also suggests that negotiators from both the U.S. and Chinese cultures are more effective when pursuing a cooperative approach. Further, during the negotiation process, Chinese negotiators will generally interrupt more readily and have many more questions than their Western opponents. Additionally, since the Chinese negotiator’s thought process suggests that the marketplace is like a combat zone, they will tend to continue linking additional Chinese stratagems to their Chinese negotiating style. To this end, there are many similarities between the elements of Chinese business negotiating approaches and Sun Tzu’s (2009) 36 stratagems.

As an example, the following are some illustrations between Chinese business negotiating tactics and ancient Chinese stratagems: striking an opponent’s weaknesses simulates stratagem 2, *besiege Wei to rescue Zhao*; negotiating at home simulates stratagem 4, *await the tired enemy*; manipulating friendship simulates stratagem 10, *hide a knife in a smile*; hospitality simulates stratagem 31, *the beautiful woman stratagem*; and maneuvering competing foreign negotiators against each other simulates stratagem 3, *kill with a borrowed knife*. From a Chinese stratagems purview, the Chinese business negotiator avoids confrontations by instead engaging in psychological manipulation with their opponents so they do business their way (Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

**Initial Meeting with Chinese Business Negotiators**
“Empirical studies document the presence of both competitive posturing and relationship building in the first quarter of a negotiation interaction. At the outset, most negotiators know what they want, and assume the other party wants the opposite” (Adair & Brett, 2005, p. 35). This approach, during the initial meetings, arguably, leads negotiators towards competitive or cooperative approaches, even before they exchange information about their objectives and interests (Adair & Brett, 2005). However, in international business negotiations where opponents are from a different country and culture, negotiators must have an in-depth understanding of cultural intelligence and specifically relating to their opponents’ culture in order for the initial meeting to be effective with potential favorable outcomes.

Therefore, in international business negotiations where the goal is to develop mutual trust and benefits, conducting an effective and successful initial meeting is necessary for the long-term success of the negotiation process. This is especially challenging, complex and difficult during Chinese negotiations which require an understanding of their very different and influential culture, philosophy and history that is used during their negotiation process. Generally, negotiator’s outcomes are classified into two primary categories, although not inclusive: negotiation agreement, and negotiator’s satisfaction. Further, paying attention to an international negotiator’s satisfaction is very important within global environments, where integrative negotiations are necessary and long-term relationships become even more important, especially in China, where short-term negotiation successes may negatively affect long-term mutual trust and relationships (Ma, 2006). Therefore, an initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators will require developing relationships, guanxi, and trust prior to the actual negotiations (Zhu, McKenna, & Sun, 2007).
Research suggests that Chinese-American negotiators will generally use Chinese negotiation styles, strategies and tactics, then the American’s negotiation styles, during initial meetings (Pye, 1992). In addition, CEOs who visit China for the very first time, often find themselves so excited at this new opportunity, and in visiting China, that emotion drives them to be the first to engage in negotiations. Unfortunately these CEOs have no prior Chinese cultural intelligence or Chinese business negotiation preparation. As a result, these CEOs will tend to be more obliging then they normally would be, by following the Chinese leads on initial basic principle agreements, without verifying the contents. Therefore, when the next level of executives begin to work on the details of the contract, they meet challenges by the Chinese who suggest that the Americans are not living up to the spirit of the agreed upon initial principles (Pye, 1992).

During business exchanges, the general agreement on principles is included in a letter of intent. In contrast, the Chinese will tend to ignore an agreement’s details, but instead emphasize and focus on the spirit of the general principles that must be adhered to. Therefore, the Chinese disagree with the American approach where agreements focus on details first, thus ignoring the general principles. That is, the Chinese prefer to agree on the general principles first, build trust and a relationship, before discussing the details. The initial meetings’ discussions provide the Chinese with the opportunity to evaluate and observe patience, and the strengths and weaknesses of their opponents (Pye, 1992). Further, the Chinese generally will not suggest that negotiations are at a near conclusion stage, since they enjoy making last minute concessions. And yet Westerners may not realize that negotiations are nearly at the end (Chen as cited in Zhao, 2000). One third of the negotiations are spent on technical issues and one third on pricing (Zhao, 2000).
Moreover, opponent’s lack of patience is an acceptable quality to the Chinese business negotiator. Alternatively, the Chinese prefer delaying tactics that convey unrealistic hope to their opponents. Further, the Chinese, when hosting, enjoy controlling the length of the meetings, the flow of the agenda, and the overall flow of negotiations. They put their opponents on the defensive by suggesting the opponents seek favors from the Chinese. However, the Chinese, prefer to negotiate with those they consider the best in their field; originating from their cultural traditions and reinforced by their current bureaucracy in avoiding uncertainties (Pye, 1992).

During business negotiations, the Chinese generally prefer to be last in their presentation, thus allowing their opponents be first so they can evaluate their strategies. Since the Chinese believe that negotiations with multiple international negotiators is a fact finding mission, they would prefer that their opponents begin negotiations amongst themselves, first, so they could observe and absorb as much as possible, and in gathering as much technical intelligence from the U.S. negotiators. In contrast, Americans get a great deal of satisfaction in showing the Chinese what they would like to know. The Chinese suggest that American’s proprietary secrets are private and selfish. In contrast, theirs are state secrets that demand honor (Pye, 1992; Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

Researchers argue that the Chinese value patience in business negotiations, especially when negotiating with Americans, who are impatient. And, the Chinese will use delay tactics during business negotiation with Americans. Further, the Chinese lack international business negotiation experience and this is reflected in their bureaucratic history, time management, and fears of criticisms from their leadership (Pye, 1992). Further, research suggests that although Chinese negotiators express the importance of patience during business negotiations, they
express impatience when requesting deliveries after the meetings have concluded, from international business negotiators.

Chinese business negotiators can also be obstinate, inflexible and persistent in adhering to their principles, but demonstrate flexibility in the details. Chinese business negotiators will tend to highlight an opponent’s mistakes in order to put them on the defensive. And because they believe people can lose face and get embarrassed over mistakes, the Chinese will make effort to show an opponent’s mistakes. During business negotiations, the Chinese will not hesitate to point out unacceptable demands, proposing further discussions (Pye, 1992). Further, the Chinese enjoy using extreme language in conveying symbolic victories. The Chinese will not display empathy and will move aggressively when their opponent has problems. The Chinese will deny compromises, preferring to focus instead on mutual interests. Once a mutual interest has been achieved the Chinese believe that the wealthier negotiator should bear the burden (Pye, 1992; Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

Research suggests that the Chinese business negotiation teams are twice the size as that of Western teams (Pye, 1992; Zhao, 2000), but who has the authority can be somewhat unclear. Further, Chinese negotiators may not be aware of their objectives or their leadership’s position regarding issues they are negotiating; thereby conveying a state of progress in the negotiations that may not reflect reality. In addition, friendly negotiations can lead to disappointing outcomes. And, the Chinese do not support the principle that signing a contract is a final agreement; instead they will not hesitate to continue making changes immediately after an agreement has been concluded. Their position is that an agreement means a relationship has been established where Chinese business negotiators can make demands on their opponent.
Moreover, the canceling of a contract suggests to the Chinese that there may be problems in the relationship (Pye, 1992; Ghauri & Fang, 1999).

**Chinese and International Business Negotiations**

According to Janosik (as cited in Tu, 2007) it is essential to understand the different negotiation styles applied during international business negotiations, regardless of the negotiation style imposed by one international business negotiator. Researchers also suggest that the international business negotiation process should include both task and non-task related activities; persuasion, concessions, and agreements (Lam, 1998). To this end, the Chinese negotiating style is as complex as their cultural, historical and philosophical traditions that date back many centuries. Further, the Chinese negotiating style is far from a routine, predictable or flexible approach. And in understanding Chinese business negotiations it is not enough to understand just the different Chinese negotiation styles, due to their complexities and diversities (Wilhelm, 2002).

Further, the win-win (Confucianism), win-lose (Chinese stratagems), cooperative egoism (selfish cooperation through competition), and concessive negotiation strategies (Confucianism) are taught to Chinese business negotiators, although the win-win and cooperative egoism strategies are generally endorsed. Win-win strategies include the Chinese positive virtues such as encouraging mutual trust and benefits, long-term relationships, and working cooperatively. Cooperative egoism, on the other hand, consists of both a positive Chinese cultural value (cooperation) and a negative value (egoism) (Zhao, 2000).

Graham and Lin (1987) and Graham and Sano (1989) developed an international business negotiation four-stage model: non-task sounding; task-related exchange of information, persuasion, and concessions and agreement. Non-task sounding (rapport) activities allow
negotiators to get to know each other. Task-related exchanges of information are negotiators’ alternatives for initiating discussions. Persuasions are tactics used during business negotiations by negotiators. Concessions and agreements are about achieving outcomes. Therefore, combining Ghauri’s (1996) and Ghauri and Usunier’s (2003) Chinese three phase business negotiation process, discussed in this study, to Graham and Lin (1987) and Graham and Sano’s (1989) international business negotiation four-stage model, generates the following Chinese business negotiation process: “pre-negotiations: lobbying, presentation, informal discussion and trust building; formal negotiation: task-related exchange of information, persuasion, concessions and agreement; and post-negotiations: implementation and new negotiations” (Ghauri & Fang, 1999, p. 6).

Therefore, fundamental guidelines for effectively negotiating with the Chinese are: having patience; maneuvering over long intervals is unacceptable; have realistic expectations, and ignore Chinese reference about future opportunities; anticipate that Chinese will influence negotiations by dishonoring opponents; ignore difficulties resulting from one’s own mistakes; and have an in-depth understanding of Chinese culture, recognizing foreigners are not as effective in their practice as the Chinese (Pye, 1992). Moreover, patience in Chinese culture and philosophy is based on Chinese bureaucracy, who is slow in the decision-making process, and the Chinese require a lot of time to evaluate the information they receive.

Furthermore, the Chinese leadership supports not working hard and no stress; which could suggest not working overtime. The Chinese also perceive things from a long-term perspective, are patient on issues, and focus on accuracy in avoiding potential errors. Moreover, the Chinese do not trust people who speak quickly in closing deals (Pye, 1992). And according to Pye (1992) the following are some negotiating principles that should be considered, beyond
patience, when negotiating with the Chinese: avoid personal involvement; be cautious of the Chinese trap of indebtedness; avoid unreasonable expectations; do not shame the Chinese; general principles should be taken seriously; maintain accurate record of the negotiating meeting; limit damaging behavioral expectations; develop Chinese cultural intelligence; be yourself; and understand the difference between business and governmental negotiations (pp. 105-111).

Regardless of the negotiating style, Chinese government policies endorse fair pricing that benefits both parties in the negotiation. And although the government’s official policy discourages taking advantage of opponents in gaining large profits, some Chinese business negotiators do try to take advantage. Further, while many negotiators practice the win-win strategy, many other negotiators prefer the more aggressive win-lose strategies. Traditional Chinese philosophy, where the marketplace is a battlefield (Chinese stratagems), and the Western’s fair competition tradition may lead some negotiators towards a win-lose strategy. Further, Chinese business negotiators are also trained to assess their opponent’s strategies in order to counter accordingly (Zhao, 2000).

Researchers argue that the Chinese business negotiator uses both the Confucian-type cooperation strategy and the Sun Tzu-style competition strategy during negotiations; strategies that Fang (2006) calls a coop-comp Chinese negotiation strategy. *Coop-comp* suggests that Chinese negotiators negotiate both cooperatively and competitively. This supports research that suggests that the Chinese business negotiation style is a paradox, contradictory, and difficult; allowing the Chinese to negotiate with both sincerity and deception (Fang, 2006).

The use of the coop-comp Chinese negotiation strategy is dependent upon mutual trust. The Confucian gentleman approach is used when mutual trust is high, a win-win solution, and a smooth negotiation process. In contrast, when mutual trust is low, and filled with distrust, the
Sun Tzu-like strategist approach is used and the Chinese will use different stratagems in manipulating their opponents, creating an unfavorable environment (Fang, 2006). Moreover, the Chinese prefer to promote a cooperative behavior within negotiation groups. And, the Chinese model of negotiations is based on mutual trust, guanxi and mianzi (Jehn & Weigelt, 1999).

The Chinese business negotiator’s evaluation of the levels of guanxi and trust that exists between negotiators will determine the negotiation strategy to be used; with the focus on reciprocity. Therefore, it is to the advantage of the foreign negotiator to create and maintain guanxi and develop a strong sense of mutual trust with the Chinese counterpart so that negotiations can proceed in what Fang (2006) calls the Confucian working domain where all negotiators succumb to the cooperation strategy in assuring a win-win solution for all parties (Fang, 2006).

Furthermore, Fang (2006) suggest that the following strategies should be exercised in international negotiations: assure the right team goes to China; show political understanding and support; know who are the real Chinese negotiators; use a people and relational-oriented approach; use local Chinese to aid in translations and meeting others; be consistent; pricing should consider Chinese cultural specificities; support the Chinese business negotiators; invite the Chinese business negotiators to your country; when possible use designs with the number 8 in products, since 8 is cherished in China, and 4 is disliked; practice patience; recall mianzi, face; and approach China as if they were the U.S. of China, or an extension of the U.S. (Fang, 2006).

The following are critical elements of the Chinese negotiation styles that must be understood in international negotiations: Guanxi (personal connections); Mianzi (face); Shehui Degji (social hierarchy); Renji Hexie (harmony/emotional intelligence); Qundai Guanxi (nepotism); Zhengti Guannian (holistic thinking); Chiku Nailao (endurance); Jiejian (thrift);
Linghe Tanpan (zero-sum negotiations); and Jiao Ta Liangshi Chuan (a threat to do business elsewhere). Additionally, during the Chinese business negotiation process using intermediaries is recommended; let the Chinese discuss business after relationships has been developed; evaluate their team; provide explanations that can be supported; expect them to discuss your competition; persuade them by asking questions; don’t display anger, preserve mianzi (face); and make no concessions until the very end of the negotiations (Hernandez-Requejo & Graham, 2008).

Cultural bridging is a requirement of the negotiating parties during international negotiations, in minimizing cultural noise and conducting effective negotiations. If a negotiator feels threatened a cultural bridge cannot be built. Therefore, negotiators who want cultural bridging must focus on avoiding weakening their opponent’s sense of security, as it so often occurs in international business negotiations (Salacuse, 1999; Lam, 1998). And researchers argue that gender differences in international negotiations affect communication styles used in the negotiation process. And women are more apt to using more non-verbal and indirect communication negotiation tactics then men (Tu, 2007). This may be an advantage when negotiating with the Chinese, although the Chinese are a traditional male dominated society.

Summary

China’s rise to economic leadership has increased the interests of Chinese business negotiations in international business negotiations. And China’s growing economic model, directed by a centrally planned government supporting an open market economy, has increased the interest of many foreign country’s leadership. In fact, experts will argue that China’s economy during the global financial crisis has been instrumental in improving the overall global financial crisis. However, researchers argue that doing business in China is difficult. And
international negotiators have expressed difficulties and frustrations when negotiating with Chinese negotiators.

Research suggests that “there is another, equally treacherous, aspect to international negotiations that’s been overlooked in the literature; the ways that people from different countries come together” (Sebenius, 2002, p. 77). The author further argues that “decision-making and governance processes, which determine a yes or no, can differ widely from culture to culture, not just in terms of legal technicalities but also in terms of behaviors and core beliefs” (Sebenius, 2002, p. 77). Therefore, applying home country strategies during international negotiations can lead to ineffective results and unfavorable outcomes.

Further, according to researchers effective and successful negotiations are largely dependent on understanding the other negotiating party’s characteristics and approach. And in international negotiations understanding the other party’s culture is even more challenging (Huang & Van De Vliert, 2004). Therefore, to effectively negotiate with Chinese negotiators in international business negotiations, foreign negotiators must have an in-depth understanding of how culture influences Chinese negotiation styles. However, exhaustive literature posits that understanding culture, in itself, is a daunting and challenging task, since culture is not static, but constantly changing, especially in today’s interrelated and technological global economy.

And in understanding culture, as it relates to Chinese business negotiations, it is necessary to learn how cultural dimensions and cultural dynamics help to establish a foundation for understanding Chinese culture and philosophy and Chinese communications. Additionally, the impact of technology and globalization has increased the influence of one culture to another. These global flows create cultural consequences and are necessary in understanding the changing dimensions of Chinese culture relative to international negotiations.
Further, research suggests that having emotional intelligence helps an individual develop trust and long term relationships; necessary ingredients in Chinese culture. And an international business negotiator with an in-depth knowledge base of cultural intelligence is positioned more effectively when negotiating with Chinese business negotiators. Moreover, international negotiators doing business in China, should consider developing an understanding of the Chinese culture, develop cultural intelligence in keeping an open mind and adapting to the different behaviors and negotiation styles, and avoid value judgments, ethnocentrism and self-reference criteria as it applies to international business negotiations (Xing, 1995).

Moreover, this challenging and in-depth understanding of Chinese culture only establishes a framework for continued understanding and learning of Chinese negotiating styles; that differs in application, depending on culture, philosophy and the specific situation. To this end, and in understanding Chinese negotiation styles, it is necessary to understand how culture impacts Chinese business negotiations, since this is the first challenge of international business negotiations. Further, the Chinese approach conflict differently then other cultures. And since conflicts are the norm in negotiations, it is necessary to understand how to maneuver and manage conflict with Chinese negotiators during negotiations. Furthermore, understanding the Chinese behavior during negotiations is critical. That is, understanding how their negotiation behavior is shaped by their complex cultural and philosophical elements, such as their individual personalities, cultural values, economic, political and social context (Osman-Gani & Tan as cited in Tu, 2007).

Additionally, international business negotiators must have an overall understanding of general Chinese business negotiation processes, strategies, and tactics. As an example, the concepts of game, social and reciprocal exchange theories have an application in understanding
Chinese negotiation styles; since they are a part of the Chinese negotiation process. This construct helps an international business negotiator understand three different approaches and applications of Chinese business negotiations, depending on the situation and cultural influences of the Chinese negotiator: the Confucian gentleman; the Maoist bureaucrat; and the Sun Tzu strategist. The research argues that identifying and therefore, understanding critical elements of a successful and effective initial meeting is necessary for international negotiators as well as the Chinese in international business negotiations.

To this end, as international negotiators gain experience on how to effectively negotiate with the Chinese, they may also adopt some of the Chinese business negotiation strategies when negotiating in other foreign markets. This would also be an area that should encourage additional future research. The researcher argues that there are gaps in the current literature, and areas for future research, in understanding Chinese negotiating styles, such as how does etiquette and behavior influence the international negotiation process. Another area for future research and a current gap in the existing literature is how global flows are changing Chinese culture and their negotiating styles. To this end, this chapter has discussed literature related to culture and Chinese negotiation styles as they relate to international business negotiations.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Niaz (2009) argues that the words from qualitative research alone does not constitute science, however, an in-depth interpretation of the analysis does constitute science. And, research suggests that a qualitative methodology provides an in-depth evaluation from data collected through detailed open-ended questionnaires that can respond to research questions. Further, a “qualitative research is particularly well suited for exploratory studies of phenomena that have not been studied extensively and not well understood” (Argosy, 2005, p. 3).

A qualitative methodological approach to the researcher’s dissertation topic, *Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations*, provided the in-depth understanding required of the influences and approaches of Chinese negotiators with the use, analysis and interpretation of open-ended questions and content analysis. Furthermore, the literature on Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations and the practical knowledge of Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations is limited. To this end, this research study, *Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations*, will add to the gap in literature and practical knowledge.

Moreover, the researcher has argued that in understanding the elements that are required to conduct an effective negotiation with the Chinese business people, international business negotiators must have an in-depth understanding of the influences of Chinese culture and philosophy, Chinese communication, emotional intelligence, and cultural intelligence as they relate to Chinese negotiation styles. Further, an in-depth understanding of additional Chinese negotiating styles’ elements, such as Chinese conflict management, Chinese strategies, processes, tactics, and Chinese negotiation approaches is also required.
The purpose of this section is to provide a research design that will answer the research question, what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people? One method to assure that everything possible to enhance the integrity, credibility and validation of the research data has been met is that of triangulation. Triangulation provides the means for “contrasting and comparing information drawn from different sources, methods, and theories. The term triangulation comes from land surveying and navigation, where multiple reference points are used to locate an object’s exact point” (Russ-eft & Preskill, 2001, p. 156).

Therefore, the more information the researcher gathered from as many sources as possible, the greater the probability of a higher quality, credibility and validation. There are four types of triangulation methods that are generally used; although only three will be used in this research. They are: data triangulation; methodological triangulation; investigator triangulation; and theory triangulation (Denzin as cited in Russ-eft & Preskill, 2001). To this end, this research utilized a qualitative and triangulation approach, using primary and secondary data, that provided the in-depth research required in understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

The primary data was collected through a self-administered questionnaire in English and Chinese. Secondary data was collected through peer-reviewed scholarly journals, scholarly texts and current data. Furthermore, the primary data collection was from 27 participants, 26 percent were international business negotiators, 33.3 percent were Chinese business negotiators and 40.7 percent were Taiwanese business negotiators. The survey also gathered demographic data on participants; collected through structured questions, and thereby scaled using SPSS, descriptive statistics. And in response to the dissertation’s research question, what are the elements
required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, the survey gathered data through the use of a self-administered questionnaire of unstructured, open-ended, questions. Additionally, the research design took into consideration the assumptions and limitations for the study.

Moreover, this triangulation research design also incorporated content analysis from archival literature in responding to the research question. This content analysis included literature discussions regarding culture and Chinese negotiation styles. The sources for this analysis were from scholarly peer-reviewed journals and scholarly texts, directly relating to the dissertation topic and thus, research question. Further, this research design took special consideration in adhering to the protection of human subjects; that is, protecting the rights of the participants.

Therefore, the researcher argues that to capture the depth of understanding of the influences and approaches of Chinese negotiators during the negotiation process, and the different Chinese negotiation processes, strategies, tactics and approaches, a triangulation approach provided multiple perspectives from this research design to develop a more effective understanding of the different approaches to Chinese negotiating styles in international business negotiations. Further, this research contributed additional knowledge to the current literature, practice and field, in understanding the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, from an international business negotiator, Chinese business negotiator, and Taiwanese business negotiator perspective.

Selection of Participants

The difficulty in finding Chinese participants for this research cannot be over stated. The primary reason has been that the Chinese people will tend to be distant, especially with
foreigners. And as discussed in this research, the Chinese seek to establish trust, mutual respect, and relationships, before entering into the details of a negotiation. This has also been true with regards to their participation in the self-administered questionnaire that did not allow for initial building of trust, mutual respect, and relationships, before they were asked to respond to questions about their behaviors, tactics, and so on, during negotiations. And since cost and time have been limitations in this study, having face-to-face interviews has not been feasible, in light of the fact that China is geographically very far from the U.S.; the researcher’s home. Therefore, finding participants who were willing to respond to the questionnaire was very difficult, and at the same time paradoxical, given that China has approximately 1.3 billion people. This identifies the complexity of the Chinese culture and philosophy, when involved in foreign situations.

The researcher had argued that the participants for this study should be international business negotiators, Chinese business negotiators, and Taiwanese business negotiators from different foreign locations, mainland China and Taiwan. That is, the participants for this study were international business negotiators, Chinese business negotiators and Taiwanese business negotiators; with experience in understanding effective international business negotiation processes, strategies, tactics and approaches. Moreover, the Chinese negotiator’s culture and philosophy provided the in-depth understanding of the elements that are influential during international business negotiations.

Research suggests that a qualitative research that provides an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon is best achieved through open-ended questions from a small sample. Therefore, the researcher enlisted 27 international business negotiators, Chinese business negotiators, and Taiwanese business negotiators for this research. This sample size and the total of 567 questions (27 participants times 21 questions) provided the in-depth understanding of the elements required
to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people. In locating participants the researcher enlisted the support of professors, business and professional associates, Chinese-American organizations, classmates, and so on; who have experience and relationships with international, Chinese, and Taiwanese negotiators and were interested in participating in this research. The initial objective was to increase the total number of potential participants, so that ultimately the minimum of 27 potential participants actually participated.

Based on the mixed qualitative approaches for triangulation, where the researcher gathered data from multiple and different sources, such as, scholarly journals, texts, and a self-administered questionnaire, from experienced international, Chinese, and Taiwanese negotiators, the participants followed Creswell’s (2007) approaches for phenomenology, grounded theory and ethnography research in that multiple international, Chinese, and Taiwanese negotiators had actual experience in international negotiations. The data collection sites were not at any specific or designated location, but rather were at the actual locations of the international, Chinese and Taiwanese negotiators’ place of residency or business. Further, from the self-administered questionnaire results and findings, the researcher analyzed the rigor, validity, quality, similarities, thematic units, and commonalities between the actual findings and the theories, content analysis, and concepts discussed in the literature review.

**Instrumentation**

The concept for the development of the survey instrument was developed using learned outcomes from the researcher’s research courses and consultation from professors. During the development of the self-administered questionnaire, the role of the participants and researcher were taken into account. Further, the research topic and research question was designed to capture a wide range of information regarding attitudes, behaviors, demographics, people in
business, and so on (Alreck & Settle, 2004). And in developing the process, identifying the information required, the sampling design, survey instrumentation, how data was to be collected, analyzed interpreted and translated, to assure translation equivalence, was also considered.

Because of the numerous and complex elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and in understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations, the framework and construct of Chinese culture and philosophy, and Chinese negotiation styles required the use of a triangulation methodology; such as a self-administered questionnaire. This questionnaire used structured questions for capturing demographic data only, and unstructured, open-ended, questions from the self-administered questionnaire that responded to the research question and research topic. Therefore, an unstructured, open-ended, questionnaire provided the guidance required of this in-depth qualitative research (Russ-eft & Preskill, 2001).

Further, while the researcher used open-ended questions, some control over the flow of the respondent’s responses was necessary in order to capture the depth of all the elements of the framework and construct in responding to the research question. Some of the questions applied a phenomenological qualitative approach, as well as some aspects of a grounded theory qualitative approach and an ethnographic qualitative approach. That is, the study took on a mixed qualitative approach. For example, an unstructured questionnaire was effective when using an ethnographic study with members of a same culture, such as the experienced Chinese and Taiwanese negotiators. Additionally, ethnographic unstructured open-ended questions allowed the participants to openly express their views.

The intent of this self-administered questionnaire research topic, Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations, focused on gathering data associated with the
importance of understanding both what influences Chinese negotiators and the different negotiation styles they apply during international business negotiations. Further, the literature suggested that the Chinese negotiation styles are, arguably, paradoxical, contradictory, and complex; allowing the Chinese to negotiate with both sincerity and deception (Fang, 2006).

As an example, the use of the coop-comp Chinese negotiation strategy will depend on the existence of trust by all parties. The Confucian gentleman approach is used when mutual trust is high, creating a win-win solution, and a smooth negotiation process. In contrast, when mutual trust is low, and filled with distrust, the Sun Tzu-like strategist approach is used and the Chinese will probably use different stratagems to manipulate their opponents, creating an unfavorable atmosphere (Fang, 2006). Therefore, the unstructured questionnaire captured the depth of these different negotiation strategies, tactics and approaches, through the participants’ responses.

The general steps taken in the survey instrument process included information that was needed to respond to the research question, and therefore the dissertation topic; the sampling design, instrumentation, data collection, data processing analysis and interpretation (Alreck & Settle, 2004). To clarify, the survey instrument is a measurement tool that was used throughout the self-administered questionnaire data collection process, for gathering a wide range of information (Alreck & Settle, 2004; Argosy, 2010) related to the research question and the dissertation topic. It consisted of: an introduction; questionnaire design; methodology used to capture and store data; minimal statistical tools that will be used in analyzing the demographic data collected; and the self-administered questionnaire that was utilized in gathering data; this constituted the survey research (Alreck & Settle, 2004; Argosy, 2010).

Prior to the transmittal of the self-administered questionnaire, the participants received a Letter of Informed Consent; stating that confidentiality of information provided would be
respected and maintained; and a decision on their part to not participate would not be held against them. And their participation associated with responding to the interview questions for this research project was interpreted as an implied consent. Additionally, the questionnaire included an introduction with a brief statement about the intent and purpose of the research; an explanation that participation is voluntary, with consent; and a brief description of the research; followed by structured questions for gathering data relative to demographics, and open-ended, unstructured, questions that responded to the research question.

As discussed, the questionnaire design was a self-administered questionnaire including unstructured, open-ended, questions to capture the in-depth understanding of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people and thus providing research on the dissertation topic *Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations*. Further, the questionnaire design included structured questions for capturing the demographics of the participants; international and Chinese negotiators. When composing questions, special emphasis was placed on avoiding the use of leading or loaded questions that could have created a strong bias and influence that could have resulted in invalid data. Also, in composing questions, special attention was made to assure the questions used words that were familiar to participants; simple sentences; avoidance of ambiguous words; and long compounded and complex questions (Alreck & Settle, 2004).

Additionally, the questionnaire design used translation equivalence methodologies, such as a combination of direct-translation, back-translation, parallel-translation, which together is called combined technique (Usunier & Lee, 2009). The researcher argued that translating from English to Simplified and Traditional Chinese and back to English was complex and necessary in order to maintain the most optimum levels of translation equivalence. Therefore, the researcher
used different proficient Chinese and English translators of the initial questionnaire and the participant’s responses.

The methodology used in capturing and storing data included qualitative techniques such as data triangulation; methodological triangulation; theory triangulation; and a self-administered open-ended questionnaire. The data triangulation technique gathered data from various sources, such as scholarly peer-reviewed journals, texts, and so on. The methodological triangulation techniques applied different methods of collecting data, such as a self-administered questionnaire. And the theory triangulation technique included different theoretical perspectives regarding culture, Chinese negotiation processes, strategies, tactics and approaches. Research suggests that survey instruments should be pre-tested (Creswell, 2007, 2009; Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2001). And, the researcher’s survey was pre-tested with three individuals, analyzed and interpreted, for reliability, quality and rigor.

The application of statistics to this research study was limited to only demographic data and not in response to the research question or the research topic; since this is primarily a qualitative research. To this end, the statistical tool that was used in analyzing and interpreting the demographic data collected was SPSS; specifically descriptive statistics using tables and figures.

Since interviews were not utilized for this study, their documentation, writing, and use of technology was not an issue. And in order to assure the quality of the responses to the open ended questions, the responses were the participant’s direct quoted responses. Adding additional forms of data gathering processes is well beyond the scope of this study, given the language and translation equivalence objectives, costs, time, and distance between the researcher and the participants.
To this end, since research suggests that most of the literature regarding Chinese negotiation styles is Western biased, the researcher argues that this study provided a more Eastern perspective knowledge base that can be added to the gap in literature associated with Chinese negotiations; that is, the study provided an in-depth understanding of effective Chinese negotiations from the international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators perspective; which led to developing a more Eastern perspective for understanding Chinese negotiating styles. Further, the research topic included an overlapping of different categories, such as attitudes, decisions, behavior, demographics and so on (Alreck & Settle, 2004). These were some of the determinants in understanding the influences of Chinese negotiators and their styles.

**Procedures**

The procedures began with the completion of the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI), confirmed with a certification of completion that had be submitted to Argosy University for inclusion in the researcher’s record. Following the acceptance of the Proposal defense by the researcher’s committee, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) application was prepared and submitted for consideration and approval of the research study. Once permission had been granted and received from the IRB to proceed with the research, the researcher included a copy of the IRB approval form in the Appendix.

Prior to administering the questionnaire, a Letter of Informed Consent, attached, was emailed to all participants. The method for collecting data from participants was a self-administered questionnaire, with structured questions to capture, only, demographic data, and unstructured, open-ended, questions that were used to respond to the research question *what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people.*
The sources for the participants for this research were international business negotiators, Chinese native people and Taiwanese native people in business negotiations. Because of the geographic, political, socio-cultural and language limitations of this study, the researcher used contacts from education, business, colleagues, and friends in recruiting potential participants that met the criteria and could respond to the survey questionnaire. Therefore, the locations of these participants were from different countries, international, China and Taiwan.

To address the language limitation and quality of translation equivalence, the researcher used different Chinese-native translators, with an expertise in not only Chinese, but also English. And the translation equivalence process that the researcher used was as follows: translate the initial survey questionnaire in English to Simplified and Traditional Chinese. This Chinese translation was translated back to English, by another translator. Major differences generated from the initial translation process were corrected by using a different translator that was able to edit those differences; and that resulted in a final Simplified and Traditional Chinese version of the survey questionnaire.

The responses from the participants followed a similar translation process to assure translation equivalence. That is, the Chinese responses were translated to English, and then the English translation was translated back to Chinese, by another translator. Any differences were corrected and edited by a different translator in achieving an English version of the participants’ responses. The researcher argues that this translation equivalence was essential to capture the actual responses from participants; in minimizing biases and leading statements; and in assuring high quality.

As discussed above, prior to submitting the self-administered questionnaire to participants, a Letter of Informed Consent was emailed to all participants. The self-administered
questionnaire was electronically distributed, via email, with a WORD attachment that included the self-administered questionnaire, to participants. Further, the questionnaire provided a brief explanation about privacy, consent, confidentiality, as well as that the participation was voluntary. Additionally, participants received instructions for returning their responses. Moreover, participants were asked to return their responses in two weeks or sooner. And completing the survey took approximately 20 to 25 minutes.

A few days prior to the two week deadline, for completing the questionnaire, the researcher sent an email as a reminder that the deadline was approaching and if additional time was required, to please communicate the new date. Upon completely gathering all the responses from participants, the data collected was coded and classified into categories, and themes, for data analysis, and interpretation.

Assumptions and Limitations

Constructivist argue that people can not be objective about a phenomenon being evaluated because they are influenced by the interactive process that includes political, cultural and other contexts (Charmaz as cited in Bratton, Grint, & Nelson, 2004). That is, biases will always exist during investigations and evaluation of a phenomenon. And Usunier and Lee (2009) argue that regardless of the high level of sophistication of translation techniques, it may prove that a complete comparability of the data may not be achieved. This assumption, and also limitation, suggests that some cultural biases will exist during the translation of not only the English version of the survey questionnaire, but also the responses from participants.

However, to minimize biases and achieve the optimum acceptable level of comparability of data, the researcher used a combined translation equivalence approach, discussed above in greater detail in the procedure section, and used a variety of different international, Chinese, and
Taiwanese business negotiators who can provide different perspectives. As an example, Chinese translators, while of Chinese origin, and thus native, live and work in the U.S., thereby having some Western influence that may help to reduce cultural biases; since they may have a different understanding of the research interactive processes.

Additionally, to minimize biases, the researcher has taken measures to minimize the use of leading, loading and biased questions in the questionnaire. And the use of different Chinese translators when translating the participants’ responses to English helped to minimize cultural biases that may normally exist when using only one Chinese translator. Therefore, the intent of the translation was to capture the exact meaning of the survey research questions and participants’ responses. The researcher argues that the translation equivalence process has also taken special care to assure that the original meanings have been maintained.

Another limitation in this study has been that of costs, since the study focused on Chinese people, who reside, primarily, in the East, and international business negotiators who reside in potentially different foreign country locations. This limitation has also extended into the availability of participants due to distance and, therefore, cultural differences in responding to questionnaires. Additionally, and as discussed earlier, Chinese culture suggests building of relationships and guanxi before opening up to others, especially people from foreign countries.

And responding to the research questionnaire, associated with distance, language and no established relationship between the researcher and the participant, had increased the challenges and therefore, the limitations of finding willing Chinese or Taiwanese participants. And since Chinese negotiators live in China, for the most part, there may also be government rules that had to be respected, and that could have limited the participants from responding. Therefore, language was also a limitation.
Data Processing and Analysis

Research Question

The research question is influenced by a gap in the literature relating to Chinese negotiation styles in international business and the researcher’s passion for providing an understanding, both practical and academic, on the elements essential to understanding how to conduct effective Chinese negotiations, from a more Eastern perspective. Therefore, as discussed in the introductory chapter of this research, and in helping the focus of this study, while providing a framework for this dissertation, the researcher has addressed the following research question: What are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people?

Survey Data Collection

A comparison of data collection methods’ characteristics was taken into account, such as costs of collecting data, the time available, the sample size, the degree of biases, and so on (Alreck & Settle, 2004). And designing the size of the sample, for capturing the in-depth research, required the ability to achieve rigor, reliability, validity and quality, of the study; and a pilot run was also developed and executed. Reliability, for example, was significant in that it provided repeatability of the research, which adds to the validity and quality of the research. And in composing the questions careful attention was given to assuring that the questions had a focus, clarity, brevity, minimized biases, and therefore error, and also avoided generalizations, and leading questions.

And to capture the in-depth data required for this qualitative study, unstructured, open-ended, questions were used. Only in gathering demographic data were structured questions used. However, to respond to the research question and dissertation topic, only unstructured, open-
ended questions were used. Additionally, the geographic, time and cost limitations also suggested the application of a self-administered questionnaire would be the most efficient and effective means for gathering data from international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators.

The qualitative data analysis process was used to identify themes and patterns in the data being analyzed, through coding, classifying, developing categories from the coding, and also identifying sub-categories that led to understanding the phenomenon being studied (Russ-eft, & Preskill, 2001; Argosy, 2010). And by reorganizing the similar codes’ data together, themes were developed. Therefore, as the researcher began to code and develop categories and sub-categories, patterns and themes became clear and that also associated with the literature review.

The process and procedure for qualitative data analysis suggested that the data collected had to be read and reread. And comparisons and contrasting data collected with the literature as it related to the research question was essential. Codes were also developed and assigned for each category, and data. And the data was sorted, and the codes and categories were revised. The frequency of codes was also analyzed. Further, analysis of the relationships between categories, and sub-categories, was analyzed, and so on (Russ-eft, & Preskill, 2001, p. 325).

This process for qualitative analysis highlighted the many areas where data collection overlapped the data analysis process. And using Crewell’s (2007) data collection activities framework suggests that both data collection and data analysis could overlap in the purposefully sampling, collecting data, and resolving information steps. That is, both processes fed into each other during this research. However, as the last step in the qualitative data analysis process and procedure suggests, the researcher had to know when to stop.
Moreover, this research used a triangulation approach in contrasting, comparing and analyzing information gathered from different sources, methods and theories. Further, different kinds of triangulation was used such as: data triangulation, gathering data from a variety of sources, such as peer-reviewed journals, scholarly texts, and current events data sources; methodological triangulation, that included collecting data from different methods, such as self-administered questionnaire with open-ended questions, and collecting demographic data from structured questions; and theory triangulation, which focused on the use of different theoretical perspectives in interpreting the same data, from literature (Russ-Eft & Preskill, 2001).

The researcher had suggested that the study would use the concept of purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2007). Having determined the form of data gathering that was to be used, based on who and what would be sampled, and the total number of people to be surveyed, and having received approval from the Argosy University IRB to proceed, data collection was initiated. This data collection process was in accordance with this methodology, the Argosy University IRB application data, and the respective qualitative approaches proposed in this research (Creswell, 2007),

This study utilized, primarily, the combination or mixed sampling strategy of qualitative inquiry. This approach, triangulation, provided the flexibility in combining different methods, self-administered questionnaire, and literature in identifying similarities and commonalities of Chinese business negotiations’ processes, strategies, and styles in international business negotiations.

**Protection of Human Subjects**

The researcher had taken and passed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) for protecting human subjects during this research. And in gaining access to the
individual participants, the researcher has complied and adhered to Argosy University’s Institutional Review Handbook contents (Informed Consent), and the U.S. Code of Regulations 45 CFR 46, subparts A, B, C, and D. Further, the researcher has been certified by the U.S. Code of Regulations 45 CFR 46. Moreover, the researcher had posited that the Argosy University IRB approval request was for an expedited review status claim.

That is, this research did not involve participants who were minors, prisoners, pregnant women, mentally impaired people, and there was no recording or video of the participants, since there were no interviews. Data collection was via a self-administered questionnaire; meeting the criteria for an expedited review status. The researcher argues that the study complied with the *common rule* of 45 CFR 46, subpart A, Belmont Report on assuring that the ethical principles of *respect for persons, beneficence*, and *justice* were maintained and achieved.

Additionally, the researcher constructed a letter, Assurance of Adherence to Governmental Regulations Concerning Human Subjects, attached, directed at where the data gathering (interviews, and surveys) was conducted, and thus agreed to abide by the laws and regulations of the governing bodies that presided over participants in the People’s Republic of China. Furthermore, a consent form was developed for each participant to assure they understood the significance of maintaining their confidentiality, anonymity and their voluntary participation. The researcher utilized the samples provided in the Argosy University’s Institutional Review Handbook appendixes, for this purpose.

Once the researcher had received the Argosy University IRB committee approval to conduct the research, and once the informed consent letters were developed, the researcher sourced experienced international business negotiators, Chinese business negotiators and Taiwanese business negotiators in the U.S. China, and Taiwan. This complied with the
ethnographic, phenomenology and grounded theory approaches. The researcher suggested that there were three elements to the informed consent process that was also met: information; comprehension; and voluntariness.

**Summary**

This qualitative research used different techniques, triangulation, such as content analysis, self-administered open-ended questions, and archival data and so on (Russ-eft & Preskill, 2001). Further, developing and conducting the researcher’s study with self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questions, an element of qualitative methodology, provided different perspectives from participants that were related to social behaviors, interactions during the negotiation process, cultural influences, specific local negotiations’ content, investigation of the different Chinese negotiation styles, communication and so on (Arcidiacono, Procentese, & Di Napoli, 2009).

To this end, this chapter on methodology identified the specific methodologies that were used during this research. This included the research design, the selection of the participants, the instrumentation, the procedures, assumptions and limitations, data processing and analysis (research question and self-administered questionnaire data collection), and the protection of human subjects. The following chapter will discuss the research findings and the analysis of the data collected.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Restatement of the Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative methodological study was to determine what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and thus contribute to the gap in literature in Chinese negotiation styles during international business negotiations. The researcher has argued that globalization in the 21st century will require people of all disciplines and professions to negotiate with individuals, companies and organizations throughout the world. And China’s rise as the second largest economy in the world has heightened the interest of international business negotiators.

Therefore, this study relates to the researcher’s argument that Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations are influenced by many different elements that affect Chinese negotiators’ behaviors and motivations during international business negotiations; such as culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, global flows, Chinese culture and philosophy (i.e.: Confucianism, Sun Tzu’s stratagems, Maoist bureaucracy, Guanxi, Mianzi, and so on), emotional and cultural intelligence, Chinese communications, Chinese negotiation strategies, processes, tactics, and approaches during the initial meeting with Chinese business people; demonstrating a high level of complexity.

To this end, the study began, Chapter 1, identifying the problem, its background, limitations, and the significance of the study. This followed with, Chapter 2, an exhaustive literature review of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and the impact of culture on Chinese business negotiations, Chinese business negotiation processes, strategies, tactics, and approaches; as well as the significance of conducting an effective initial meeting during international business negotiations.
Chapter 3, then discussed the methodology of the study; specifically, the research design (i.e.: participants, instrumentation, procedures, assumptions and limitations), and data processing and analysis (i.e.: research questions, self-administered questionnaire data collection, and the protection of human subjects). And this Chapter 4 discusses the results and findings of the research as guided by the research question and a self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire of experienced international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators when negotiating with Chinese business people. That is, this chapter 4, results and findings, will analyze, interpret, and draw conclusions of the data collected from three groups of participants’ responses; international business negotiators, Taiwanese business negotiators and Chinese business negotiators, in understanding the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people.

Pilot

The researcher conducted a pilot study to determine if the self-administered open-ended questionnaire generated the reliability, quality, objectivity and validity that was initially planned. Copies of the Participants’ Informed Consent Form were sent to the pilot-testing participants prior to the receipt of the questionnaire. This process helped eliminate the possibility of confusing questions or those that could be misinterpreted. Since this pilot-testing was a self-administered open-ended questionnaire, no behavioral observations, or telephone interviews, were conducted. The sample used for this pilot-test was randomly selected from participants who were experienced international business negotiators with Chinese people. Therefore, after careful analysis and evaluation of the responses, from the pilot-test, in comparison to the research question, research topic and Chinese negotiation styles, the questionnaire was determined to be valid and reliable.
The Self-Administered Questionnaire

The researcher posits that details of the self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire has been discussed in Chapter 3, Methodology, in the sub-topic category, *Instrumentation*, located under the primary category *Research Design*; and under the sub-topic category, *Survey Data Collection*, under the primary category *Data Processing and Analysis*. Further, the participants targeted for this research questionnaire, were experienced international business negotiators, Taiwanese business negotiators, and Chinese business negotiators. As a result, the international participants were all American-natives, and one was a Hungarian native, living in the U.S.; all who were fluent in English. In contrast, the Chinese negotiators were native to mainland China and Taiwan, some who spoke English, and most spoke Chinese.

Therefore, the Participants Informed Consent Form and the self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire was provided in English, Simplified Chinese (for Mainland China participants), and Traditional Chinese (for Taiwanese Chinese participants). In order to maintain the highest level of optimum translation equivalence, the researcher used three different Chinese native translators, also fluent in English, and applied the use of a combined translation equivalence methodology, such as a combination of direct-translation, back-translation, and parallel-translation, during the translation of the participants’ informed consent form, self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire and participants’ responses. The use of this triangulation methodology, use of different translators, and combined translation equivalence, was essential in capturing the actual responses from participants, in minimizing biases and leading statements from a translator, and in assuring optimum levels of high quality.

The self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire was divided into two separate sections; one to capture demographic data of the participants, and another to capture an
in-depth understanding of the research questions. The first, demographic, section comprised of five general demographic questions. The second section included sixteen open-ended questions that correlated to the research question and the different Chinese negotiation styles, discussed in Chapter 2, Literature Review.

Questions 1, 2, 3, and 5, out of the sixteen open-ended questions directly related to the research question, and the first primary category of the literature review regarding culture, and its impact on Chinese business negotiations. The remainder of the twelve open-ended questions also directly related to the research question, and the second primary category of the literature review, Chinese Negotiation Styles. That is, sixteen open-ended questions and twenty-seven participants provided the in-depth understanding for this qualitative methodological research.

Moreover, all participants were provided with a copy of the participants’ informed consent form, in English, Simplified or Traditional Chinese, by email. After participants received the Participants’ Informed Consent Form, by email, they were provided with a copy of the questionnaire, in their preferred language, English, Simplified or Traditional Chinese, as a WORD attachment, and based on the procedures discussed in Chapter 3. Additionally, a few days before the two week deadline for completing the questionnaire, participants were sent an email reminding them of the due date for responding; and according to the procedures in Chapter 3. Moreover, no interviews were required of participants due to the limitations discussed in Chapters 1 and 3, regarding costs, time, and geography. Completed responses from participants were returned to the researcher by email, and secured post office mail from the U.S. and Taiwan.

**Participants’ Demographics**

The researcher has argued that there is a gap in the literature of Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations, and that the majority of the literature is Western
biased, and therefore limited. As a result, the participants for this research were experienced international, Chinese, and Taiwanese business negotiators in negotiating with Chinese business people. Further, the participants for this study were discussed as three separate groups, international business negotiators, Taiwan business negotiators and Mainland China business negotiators, throughout the analysis, and interpretation, in drawing conclusions. Therefore, a comparative study of these three groups will add to the gap in literature, from three different perspectives, in understanding the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people.

Of the total twenty-seven respondents to the self-administered questionnaire, fifteen were males, and twelve were female. Further, there were seven respondents in the international business negotiator category; one originally from Hungary, four from the U.S., and another two were Chinese-Americans, from the U.S. Additionally, there were nine respondents originally from China, and eleven respondents from Taiwan. Six of the twenty-seven respondents work in the sales category, two respondents work in purchasing, fifteen respondents work in management, and four responded to working in the category ‘Other’ (investment, imports, banking and entrepreneur).

Of the twenty-seven respondents, six were in the age range of 20-29 years of age; two were in the age range of 30-39 years of age; nine were in the age range of 40-49 years of age; five were in the age range of 50-59 years of age; two were in the age range 60-69; one was over the age of 70; one responded as other; and one respondent did not respond to the age question, for a total of 3 in the other age range. Moreover, two respondents had Associates degrees; thirteen respondents had Bachelor’s degrees; eight respondents had a Masters degree; and four
respondents had a Doctoral degree. The following highlights the demographic statistics of the respondents to the research questionnaire.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Negotiator Category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variables, Negotiator Category, Country of Origin, Gender, Job Category, Degree Held and Age Range, in the table 1 above, used nominal and ordinal scaled data from SPSS. The table identifies the 27 respondents to the research questionnaire.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiator Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid International Business Negotiator</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese Business Negotiator</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>59.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan Business Negotiator</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2, above, identifies the frequency of the variables International Business Negotiators, relative to Chinese Business Negotiators, and Taiwan Business Negotiators. That is, 7 international business negotiators, or 25.9 percent, 9 Chinese business negotiators, or 33.3 percent, and 11 Taiwanese business negotiators, or 40.7 percent, responded and participated in the research questionnaire.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of Origin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid US</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>96.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3, above, identifies the country of origin of each of the respondents to the research questionnaire; where 6, or 22.2 percent, are originally from the U.S., 9, or 33.3 percent, are originally from China, 11, or 40.7 percent, are originally from Taiwan, and 1, or 3.7 percent, is originally from Hungary.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4, above, identifies the frequency of the genders, male or female, that participated in the research questionnaire; where 15, or 55.6 percent, of respondents were male, and 12, or 44.4 percent, were female.
Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Purchasing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5, above, identifies the frequency of the job category variables, Purchasing, Sales, Management, and Other, of the respondents to the research questionnaire. The ‘Other’ category included respondents with business negotiation experience in investment, banking, entrepreneurial, and import organizations. Therefore, 7.4 percent of respondents have business negotiation experience in purchasing, 22.2 percent in sales, 55.6 percent in management (of sales, marketing, purchasing and import/export functions), and 14.8 percent in other, categories.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree Held</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Associates</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>85.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6, above, identifies the frequency of the degrees held variables, Associates, Bachelors, Masters, and Doctoral, of the respondents to the research questionnaire; where 7.4 percent of the respondents have an Associates degree, 48.1 percent of respondents have a Bachelors degree, 29.6 percent have a Masters degree, and 14.8 percent of respondents have a doctoral degree.
Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7, above, identifies the frequency of the age range variables of the respondents to the research questionnaire; suggesting a fair distribution among the respondents; where the 20-29 age range respondents represented 22.2 percent, the 30-39 age range respondents represented 7.4 percent, the 40-49 age range respondents represented 33.3 percent, and the 50-59 age range respondents represented 18.5 percent, the 60-69 age range respondents represented 7.4 percent, and the ‘Other’ age range respondents represented 11.1 percent. Therefore, this suggests that the research provided the perspectives of not only the younger generation, but also the middle and older generations’ perspectives, as well.

**Results and Findings**

The researcher has argued that the literature on the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and the research topic, Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiation, has a Western bias, and is limited from a Chinese perspective. To address the gap in literature, the results and findings of this research included respondents from Mainland China and Taiwan; thus providing a more Eastern perspective to the research and the gap in literature; as well as experienced international respondents in doing business with Chinese people.
Additionally, two of the international business negotiators are Chinese Americans, with a strong Eastern influence as well. Further, to maintain confidentiality of the respondents, the researcher used the codes P1, P2, and so on, as identification of each respective respondent. Therefore, this research will analyze, interpret and draw conclusions, based on the results, from the responses of participants P1 to P27. Additionally, the results and findings of this research are discussed in the following different themes and frameworks: Culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations; Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies; Chinese business negotiating tactics; Chinese business negotiation approaches; and the initial meeting with Chinese negotiators.

Having coded the participants, the researcher also coded, classified and categorized the research question responses based on thematic units that correlated to the categories in the literature review, in developing a framework; since these categories were initially used in developing the sixteen self-administered questions, and were therefore, directly associated and related. Moreover, coding and classifying the themes developed from the responses into discrete content categories generated in-depth qualitative and triangulation data from the analysis and interpretation. Further, frequency counts were developed, by the categories, based on how often the respondents used the same themes.

Additionally, and as discussed in Chapters 1 and 3, a combined triangulation equivalence approach was used in not only translating the English version of the self-administered questionnaire to Simplified and Traditional Chinese, but also in translating the participants’ responses from both Simplified and Traditional Chinese back to English. Further, three separate, and highly proficient translators were used, that applied a direct, back to back, and parallel
translation approach, to capture the actual responses from participants, and in minimizing biases and leading statements; as well as assuring high quality, and reliability.

This research has focused on two major categories, culture and Chinese negotiation styles, in responding to the research question ‘what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people,’ and the research topic ‘Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations.’ Furthermore, the literature review also focused on these same two major categories, culture and Chinese negotiation styles.

Culture and its Impact on Chinese Business Negotiations

To this end, the purpose of the research open-ended self-administered questions 1, 2, 3 and 5, was to identify the significance of culture, and its influence and impact during Chinese business negotiations. And the remainder of the self-administered questions 4, and 6 to 16, focused on Chinese negotiation styles. The following are the analysis and interpretation of participants’ responses to questions 1, 2, 3 and 5, on culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations.

Understanding an opponent’s culture during Chinese business negotiations

The guiding question for this category was “how important is it, to have an understanding of an opponent’s culture before and during international negotiations?” Overwhelmingly, all respondents stated that that having an understanding of their opponents’ culture was a necessity. Specifically, respondents P1, P2, P3, P6, P8, P10, P12, P15, P16, P18, P19, and P22 used the following similar words or phrases to respond to this question: “primarily important,” “extremely important,” “most important,” “very important,” and “certainly important.” And P27, an international respondent, stated that understanding an opponent’s culture during international negotiations is “unimportant from a short term business perspective. Additionally, if seeking a
long term relationship, then having an understanding of opponent’s culture will benefit both parties during negotiations. The longer the negotiation process, the more important it becomes."

Significance amongst these similar responses from respondents P1, P2, P3, P6, P8, P10, P12, P15, P16, P18, P19, and P22 is that 3 of the respondents were international business negotiators, five were Chinese business negotiators, and four were Taiwanese business negotiators. That is, these different country respondents were in agreement that understanding culture before and during international negotiations is very important. This is also supported by the detailed responses of the other respondents; and consistent with the literature review. P15, a Taiwanese respondent, and P21, a Chinese respondent, further added that understanding an opponent’s culture is also important because every country has its “traditional taboos.” And P17, P20, P24, and P25, three Taiwanese and one Chinese respondents, respectively, added that having an understanding of an opponent’s culture, prior to the meeting, will help an international business negotiator to predict an opponent’s strategies, allowing the international negotiator to respond more effectively, and thus minimize cultural noise.

Moreover, P26, an international respondent, suggested that knowledge is power and knowledge of cultural intelligence provides the international business negotiator with the tools to succeed in a “global village.” P26 further suggested that an international business negotiator who represents a very large business organization has great power in China, giving them an advantage and greater leverage than other opponents. Additionally, P26 argues that Chinese business negotiators respect Westerners because Westerners bring them business opportunities and new product development opportunities; essentials for the Chinese survival. This is further evidenced by the Western standards of quality that the Chinese have adopted to meet the needs of the West; as well as their desire to improve on-time deliveries. P26 also argues that this
resilience, and determination, is not often seen in other foreign countries. And P26 posits that the Chinese are highly honorable by tradition. That is, their Confucius philosophy keeps systems going in an orderly, respectable manner. And they are highly disciplined and take pride in a job well done. Further, P26, states that this special trait is the secret to China’s commercial success.

All other participants described the significance of understanding an opponents’ culture by a more narrative response. For example, P4, P11, P13, P23, and P24, four Taiwanese, and one Chinese respondent, stated that in Sun-Tzu's historic book, The Art of War, “there is a famous saying ‘know all about yourself and know all about your opponents. This way if you need to encounter a hundred battles, you will win all 100 battles.’” They added, “know your enemy as well as you know yourself” and a hundred battles will be won. Further, P4, P5 (an international respondent), P11, P13, and P14 added that they are “firm believers in ‘Knowing my Opponents’ thorough backgrounds and that will go a long way in beating your competitors easily.”

P24, a Taiwanese respondent, further added that these fundamental criteria will strategically put an international business negotiator in a superior position during any negotiation. If not they will be defeated, as well as in preparing for all challenges. P4 further stated that “only if they understand the angles they take in the negotiation fully, then I can plan my winning strategies according to the variables.” Additionally, P4 concluded in “firmly believing this is the key element in determining the final results - winning or losing in a negotiation.” This suggests similarities between Taiwanese and Chinese respondents with regards to their perspective regarding the importance of understanding culture during international negotiations.

Further, P5, a Chinese-American international respondent, argues that native Chinese, from mainland China, do not have the advantages that Chinese-Americans have of understanding
how different cultures impact, international negotiations. That is, they understand both the American’s and Chinese’s perspectives. Additionally, P5 stated that “only when we understand details of an opponent’s culture, will we have an understanding of the opponents’ thoughts, motivations, and their limits for tolerance;” consistent with the literature review. “Without this understanding, it will be hard to win the war.” This last statement suggests that the Chinese-American is also influenced by Sun-Tzu’s stratagems; from Chinese culture and philosophy.

P6, a Chinese respondent, suggests that by understanding an opponent’s culture, the opponent will recognize this effort and make the negotiation process “smoother.” P7, another Chinese respondent, stated that “people’s behaviors, values and beliefs are influenced by their cultural dimensions. It impacts the negotiation strategy and approaches of the opponent.” P6 further added that understanding “the aspects of the opponent’s culture will also enable you to avoid a potential cultural offence, which can impact the negotiation processes and outcomes.”

The international respondent P9 argued that “it will be disastrous to go into a negotiation without understanding Chinese culture.” Further, P9 stated that “if there is no time to brush up on the culture, then it will be a wise move to seek an agent you can trust, or a trading company to represent your firm; to act as” a go-between. Additionally, P9 posited that a go-between, agent, will help minimize or “eliminate any cultural differences.” That is, P9 added, that “a good representative will brief you on cultural differences and the different approaches. He or she, or the team, would not translate your words literally.” P9 further suggested that a representative agent may stop a meeting in order to explain, outside of the negotiation room, any cultural conflict that may exists; or if a sentiment expressed is inappropriate; and suggest a more effective approach at a more appropriate time. P9 concluded with “an agent can also serve as a
buffer. For instance, once a derogatory statement has been made, in Chinese there is a proverb that states: *Not even a thousand horses can drag it back.*”

P2 and P10, international and Chinese respondents, respectively, responded that an international negotiator must understand the cultural background of their opponent, since it helps the negotiator to form their own interpretations without drawing false conclusions and also since negotiating with negotiators from different countries, such as from a Jewish or Islamic background, will require using a very different negotiation strategy. This also suggests that there is commonality between the international business negotiator and the Chinese business negotiator, with regards to the importance of understanding their opponents’ culture in international business negotiations; also consistent with the literature review.

And P12, a Chinese respondent, argues that it is certainly important for the Chinese to be able to relate to another Chinese business negotiator effectively, based on hometown, regional language accent, schooling, and culture heritage similarities. That is, Chinese business negotiators negotiating amongst themselves must have an understanding the cultural and regional differences of their opposing Chinese business negotiators, who come from other regions, and speak a different Chinese dialect.

**Most important cultural skills to apply during negotiations**

The guiding question for this category was “please describe the most important cultural skills you apply during negotiations.” Respondent P1, P4, P17, and P18, one international, two Taiwanese, and Chinese, respondents, suggested that the most important cultural skills to apply during negotiations related to Chinese non-verbal communication and business etiquette; such as protocol for firm hand shakes, with a slight bow; do not embrace an opponent or tap them on
their back or shoulders; drinking protocol; significance of smiling; proper business card
exchange with two hands and a slight bow; the significance of a before or after meeting banquet.

Respondents P2, P16, and P25, an international, a Taiwanese and Chinese respondents, respectively, suggested that patience, staying calm, and tolerance are the most important skills to practice during negotiations. And P3, also an international respondent, argued that learning about the opponent’s culture, and speaking with other experienced international business negotiators prior to the actual negotiations is the most important skill to acquire. Further, P3 and P25 suggested that “listening very intently during the negotiations” is a very important cultural skill during international business negotiations.

P4, P19, P20, P21, P22, and P27, two Taiwanese, three Chinese and one international respondents, respectively, suggested that the most important cultural skills to apply during Chinese negotiations are that of understanding the local and regional culture and philosophy: that is, having cultural intelligence relative to the country of the opponent. Additionally, P4 suggests that it is important to understand not only how Chinese negotiators are taught to treat opponents, but also how they actually treat them during negotiations. Moreover, P4 and P23, also a Taiwanese respondent, posits that “it is sometimes necessary to participate in reciting famous Chinese poems and verses we memorize so well through decades of education to show that we are at a very high level amongst the learned scholastic businessmen” and in order to make a favorable impression with the Chinese negotiators; thus consistent with the literature and significance of understanding Chinese culture and philosophy, which includes historic literature.

P5, an international respondent, stated that “we must play a double game” when negotiating with people from other cultures. And when negotiating with the Chinese people the international negotiator must have an understanding of their culture, and make an attempt to
speak even a few words in Chinese, to show the good gesture of caring and trying to understand. Further, developing good relationships can help international negotiators achieve their goals. And if required, the use of a Chinese trading company can help bridge the gap.

Respondent P6, a Chinese respondent, suggested that during negotiations, their preferred approach is using Chinese culture as the framework. For example, P6 states that they “use Chinese culture to treat customers during negotiations. We will treat them for nice dinner before the negotiations. We can learn more about each other’s life and work during the dinner; and make each other closer.” Therefore, not only is P6 suggesting that building relationships is important during the pre-negotiation stage, the face-to-face and post-negotiation stages, consistent with the literature review, but P7, a Chinese business negotiator, also stated that developing relationships was a critical cultural skill that must be applied.

And P12, a Taiwanese respondent, argues that it is important to spend time building relationships where understanding both parties’ mutual interests, guanxi can be established. Additionally, P24, also a Taiwanese respondent stated that it is important to compromise with opponents, and maintain Mianzi. Further, P7, P15, and P27, Chinese, Taiwanese, and international respondents, suggested that language is also a very important cultural skill; such as speaking and understanding an opponent’s language, and using “euphemisms and respectable language.” P7 further added that if the international negotiator does not speak or understand their opponent’s language, they should use a translator proficient in both languages. Moreover, P7 suggested that it is important to understand an opponent’s expectations, assumptions and needs; and draft an agreement that takes into account “the cultural-determined orientation.”

Respondent P26, an international respondent, argued that a very important cultural skill to apply during international business negotiations is that of Chinese Confucianism, since
Confucianism includes many of the attributes identified above, Guanxi and Mianzi, and is ingrained in the lives and culture of the Chinese people. P26 argues that if international business negotiators practiced the attributes of Confucianism during international business negotiations, “they will gain boundless and eternal respect and cooperation from the Chinese people.” And P11, a Chinese respondent, and P14, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that the most important cultural skills they apply during Chinese negotiations is the use of the words “us” and “we are both Chinese”; suggesting group orientation and Confucianism; consistent with the literature.

P8, a Chinese respondent, suggested that it is important to understand the opponent’s “decision power and aggressiveness” as well as their organization. Further, P9, P13, and P27, one Taiwanese, and two international respondents, suggest that being polite is a very important cultural skill to apply during negotiations. Additionally, P9 states that showing humility, sincerity, and an interest and willingness to help opponents achieve their goals, while at the same time achieving their own, is another very important cultural skill. P9, a Chinese-American, argues that “we know multi cultures and can be chameleons depending on what roles we need to play.” Because the Chinese culture dates back 5,000 years of a “feudal culture, what a person says, and the level of words they use, will immediately show their background, (educationally, financially, etc.), and thus become very transparent.” Therefore, “without having the appropriate background, it becomes difficult to negotiate with the Chinese people.” P9 also suggests that the Chinese place an emphasis on observing and studying their opponents.

P10, a Chinese respondent, stated in Chinese, 知彼知己,百战不殆. That is, if you know your enemy as well as you know your own self, then you will win 100 battles; a Sun Tzu stratagem, also discussed during a previous question. Further, this stratagem is applicable in “gathering an opponent’s information and determining what their bottom line is.”
The following Table 8 provides highlights, and thus summarizes the respondents’ responses to questions 1, and 2, relating to the significance of culture and its influence and impact during Chinese business negotiations.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture category</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Culture content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding an opponent’s culture</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P9</td>
<td>P6, P10</td>
<td>P12, P16</td>
<td>Extremely important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P18, P21</td>
<td>P19</td>
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<td>P22</td>
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<td>P6, P7</td>
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<td>P25</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2, P5, P3, P9, P26</td>
<td>P7, P10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>P26</td>
<td>P11</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5</td>
<td>P10, P11</td>
<td>P4, P13</td>
<td>Application of Sun Tzu’s stratagems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P14, P23, P24</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P9</td>
<td>P7</td>
<td></td>
<td>Possible use of a third party/agent to help with Chinese culture &amp; Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5</td>
<td>P21, P22</td>
<td>P4, P12</td>
<td>Understanding local &amp; regional Chinese culture, philosophy, literature &amp; dialects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most important cultural skills to apply</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>P18</td>
<td>P4, P17</td>
<td>Non-verbal communications, Etiquette, and protocols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2</td>
<td>P25</td>
<td>P16</td>
<td>Staying calm and being tolerant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P3</td>
<td>P25</td>
<td></td>
<td>Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P6, P7</td>
<td></td>
<td>P4</td>
<td>Understand Chinese behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P26</td>
<td>P11</td>
<td>P12, 14</td>
<td>Use of Chinese culture and philosophy during international negotiations and in developing relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Confucianism (i.e.: Group-orientation; developing relationships; mutual interest; guanx, mianzi etc.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P7</td>
<td>P15</td>
<td></td>
<td>Language – speak &amp; understanding opponent’s language</td>
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<td></td>
<td>P8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding decision power-orientation &amp; organization</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P9</td>
<td></td>
<td>P13</td>
<td>Politeness, humility, sincerity in helping opponents</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Observing &amp; studying opponents</td>
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Non-verbal communication during international business negotiations

All respondents to this research argued that non-verbal communication during international business negotiations is very important. Some of the phrases used by the respondents were “very important,” “crucial,” and “extremely important;” while others provided more specific narratives. Additionally, P8, and P11, both Chinese respondents, argue that most of the information during international negotiations “can and should be picked up via body language.” And P10, also a Chinese business negotiator, suggests that “direct eye contact can show one’s determination and sincerity.” P13, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that through non-verbal communications in international business negotiations, a negotiator may be able to change, to some extent, the flow of issues during the negotiation process.

P1, P12, an international and Taiwanese respondent, suggest that the Chinese have a predetermined business protocol for meetings that include seating arrangements. In addition, P1 posits that the Chinese negotiation party host, will carefully observe non-verbal expressions of their opponents, and discuss their impressions which each member of the Chinese negotiating party who would later discuss with their leader. Further, P1 and P12 suggest that even if the meetings are dull and boring, the Chinese negotiation party leader will demonstrate a certain degree of facial expressions of eagerness and alertness, and with an occasional head movement; so as not to show that he is not interested and in order to show respect. And P15, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that effective non-verbal communications during international business negotiations can create a “comfortable environment, with kind smiles, which are necessary.”

P17, P18, P19, P20, P21, P22, P23, P24, and P25, five Taiwanese and four Chinese respondents posited that expressions are extremely important non-verbal communication skills that international business negotiators must understand, since they provide insight on opponents’
actions, behavior, thoughts, kindness, arrogance, body language, attitudes, spirits, and so on. And P27, an international respondent, stated that the importance of non-verbal communications in international business negotiations is dependent on the specific culture. However, P27 adds that there are certain cultural “taboos” that could easily destroy a negotiation agreement.

P2, an international respondent, also posited that “people in other cultures display different reactive non-verbal communication from one another. In contrast, Americans might be considered much more animated with facial expressions and body language.” And P4, a Taiwanese respondent, stated that language is a basic tool for conveying thoughts and meanings. And in order to be an effective international business negotiator one must be able to relax, yet stay very alert, with visible spirits, an appropriate internationally accepted body language, and a professional, dignified, and elegant presence. Further, P4, P5, and P6, Taiwanese, international and Chinese respondents, respectively, argue that in international negotiations it is important to demonstrate honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, the appropriate dress during negotiations, and use a sincere approach and attitude.

P6, and P16, Chinese and Taiwanese respondents, further argue that a negotiator’s dress provides some understanding regarding an opponent’s organization and educational background and negotiators should conform to some acceptable dress code standard. In contrast, P4 and P5, also posit that international negotiators should be careful not to judge an opponent by their dress, since it may be culturally influenced and not reflective of their knowledge and experience. Additionally, a negotiator should also focus on mutual good feelings and trust, which will help guide the negotiation process towards collaboration and mutual agreements.

P9, an international respondent, stated that in a “hurried world, first impressions are important.” Further, P9 argues that international business negotiators should not be fooled “by
the “Hoagie” and “unprofessional” looks of the some Chinese.” Moreover, “Big Boss may at times appear to be very much like an ignorant farmer.” However, if he is showed disrespect only because of his appearance, the meeting may be over. That is, he may have one of his representatives speak on his behalf, while he remains a silent observer. Therefore “do not judge any Chinese in the negotiation room by the normal standard.”

P5, an international respondent, suggests that non-verbal communications during negotiations allows the negotiator to observe and experience the emotional environment of the negotiation process that provides valuable insight in assessing opponents. Further, P7, a Chinese respondent, argues that non-verbal communications during international negotiations enable a negotiator to “explore the opponent’s attitude and reactions to one’s proposal indirectly without risk of directly offending, or of disclosing one’s bottom line too early. Additionally, this is a common practice in high-context culture.” And, P14, a Taiwanese respondent, argues that using non-verbal communications during international business negotiations is a very complex process.

**Significance of a legal contract during the negotiation process**

P1, an international respondent, stated in the past, China did not have many lawyers; therefore, there was little need for legal documents. However, today, with globalization, P1 suggests that the Chinese business people are more receptive to, even, lengthy legal documents because they protect them. In contrast, P2, also an international respondent, argues that “in China there is little significance in binding legal contracts (from the China side) but beware, they demand a purchase order that lists clearly the agreed upon price and quantity.” Moreover, P3, another international respondent, suggests that “at the corporate level it is important to document the agreement in writing and determine which laws will apply if disagreements occur.”
P4 and P20, both Taiwanese respondents, stated that the agreements reached by parties in a negotiation will also require their signatures. Further, the signatures will require the witness of some legal entity in order to validate the agreement. However, P17 and P20, both Taiwanese respondents, further add that a contract is valid only when it is signed under the rule of law, otherwise, it is invalid, and therefore, negotiators can reach agreements on their own, through their negotiations. And P27, an international respondent, suggests that “from the Chinese perspective, many legal issues are just necessary window dressing.” Further, P25, a Chinese respondents, argues that often negotiators neglect to include the details of the agreements in the legal contract, and focus on the end results; creating future potential problems. P4 argues that this process is “essential and fundamental, although simplistic in its nature.” However, for larger enterprises, P4, argues that China will “reciprocate and engage in good treatment” by respecting a more detailed legal document. Although, P4 also argues, that with regards to small and private corporations, it is the principle of profitability that is most important in determining whether the relationship is maintained or not, and not a legal document.

P5 and P25, international and Chinese respondents, respectively, suggest that all countries abide by some form of legal principles that ultimately support the transactions of business, in order to protect the stakeholders. However, P5 argues that, for example, since China’s state-owned-enterprises are state owned, holding them legally accountable may be a challenge. Therefore, having a legal contract with a Chinese state-owned-enterprise, may not guarantee effective results. And P27, an international respondent suggests that “legal contracts come later in the negotiation process; and are necessary from the West’s point of view. Further, P27 adds that “legal recourse in China is less than clear and transparent to non-Chinese.”
According to P6, a Chinese respondent, legal contracts are important because they help protect the negotiator, in the long-term, against the non-compliance of their opponent; and thus allowing the negotiator to seek legal action in retribution. And P7, a Chinese respondent, added that legal contracts can help reduce risk during any future disputes and can also serve to protect both negotiating parties. Furthermore, P8, P9, P25 and P26, two Chinese and two international respondents, also suggested that legal contracts in international business negotiations are a must.

However, P9, an international respondent, argues that when negotiating with the Chinese government contracts, a negotiator must be careful because the consignee is not generally the buyer, but instead the Chinese bank; and resolving conflict may be a challenge. And P11, also a Chinese respondent, suggests that a legal contract during international negotiations is the final stage of the negotiation, and therefore, “a mere formality.” In contrast, P12, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that the contract is only important if there is mutual trust between the two negotiating parties. Further, P12 argues that “most Chinese companies do not think it is necessary to follow the contract if there are no significant benefits for them.”

However, another Taiwanese business negotiator, P13, argues that negotiators must adhere to the legal contract. Additionally, P15, also a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that in international negotiations, it is important to have a legal advisor during the negotiation process and before signing of the contract. And P16, P18, P19, P21, P22, P23, and P24, three Chinese and four Taiwanese respondents, suggests that legal contracts during international business negotiations are important because of their “binding obligations and rights;” thus protecting the negotiating parties, in meeting the terms of the agreement. The following Table 9 provides highlights, and thus summarizes the respondents’ responses to questions 3, and 5, relating to the significance of culture and its influence and impact during Chinese business negotiations.
Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture category</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Culture content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-verbal communications</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P5, P9, P26, P27</td>
<td>P6, P7, P8, P10, P11, P18, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P19, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>Understanding non-verbal communications is extremely important during international negotiations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P1, P2, P5, P9</td>
<td>P7, P8, P10, P11, P18, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P17, P19, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>Helps provide insight, first impressions &amp; differences on opponents’ actions, behavior, protocols, thoughts, kindness, facial expressions, arrogance, body language, attitudes, spirits, sincerity, etc., thus helping the flow of the negotiation process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of a legal contract</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>P6</td>
<td>P4, P12</td>
<td>Important to demonstrate honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, sincerity, positive attitude and appropriate standards of dress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2</td>
<td></td>
<td>P4, P12</td>
<td>Legal contracts more significant today in China than in the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P3, P27</td>
<td>P18, P19, P21, P22</td>
<td>P16, P23, P24</td>
<td>Legal contracts are very important, especially at corporate level, because of their binding obligations and rights; protection of both parties; and determination of which laws apply if a dispute arises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P4</td>
<td></td>
<td>P14</td>
<td>Contracts good for larger corporations in China but for small, private corporations, it is profitability that determines the relationship, not a legal document</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P4, P20</td>
<td></td>
<td>P17, P20</td>
<td>Signatures are required on all legal contracts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P25</td>
<td></td>
<td>P17</td>
<td>Contracts are valid if signed under the rule of law; and negotiators can reach agreements without rule of law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5, P9</td>
<td></td>
<td>P13, P15</td>
<td>Important to include the details of the negotiation in the contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5, P9</td>
<td></td>
<td>P13, P15</td>
<td>All countries abide by some form of legal principles, or representation to support stakeholder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P9, P26</td>
<td>P8, P25</td>
<td></td>
<td>Collecting from China’s SOEs and government agencies is a challenge, even if there is a contract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P27</td>
<td>P11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Legal contracts are a “mere formality only”</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P27</td>
<td>P11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Legal contracts are a “mere formality only”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P7, P16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Important because they protect negotiators against non-compliance, help reduce risk, and protects both parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Legal contract only important if there is mutual trust between negotiating parties and only necessary to some Chinese companies if there is a significant benefit for them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Chinese Negotiation Styles**

The remainder of the open-ended questions, 4, and 6 to 16, directly relate to the research question, and the second primary category Chinese Negotiation Styles, and provides the framework for this research; as well as it has a direct relationship to the literature. The following are the sub-categories for Chinese Negotiation Styles.

**Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies**

This sub-category was guided by seven research open-ended questions, and they are: Q6: What do you value as the most important aspect of the negotiation; Q7: Is it more important to achieve one’s goals during the short-term, or build a long-term relationship where everyone wins; Q8: Please describe the importance of developing relationships versus getting down to the negotiating task right away. Which is more important and which should come first; Q10: How important is saving face during the negotiation process; Q11: How is the negotiation process different with international negotiators then with Chinese negotiators; Q13: Which negotiation strategy do you prefer to use during international business negotiations; and Q16: During negotiation how are decisions made?

For Q6 (What do you value as the most important aspect of the negotiation?), respondents P1, P2, P3, P4, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P15, P18, P20, P21, and P23, four international, five Taiwanese, and seven Chinese respondents, respectively, suggested that the most important aspect of the negotiation is when both parties have an in-depth understanding of their opponent’s culture, organization, goals, governing system, backgrounds, future plans, country politics are not discussed, and there is an atmosphere of mutual respect, mutual trust, common ground, and mutual benefit for achieving a win-win for both parties, and a long-term relationship.
Further, P8 posits that a negotiator must be careful about “revealing confidential trade information or giving out sensitive technologies” before an actual contract has been signed. Additionally, P10 argues that negotiators from both sides represent “a chain link” in the entire negotiation process. And without this relationship, the chain, or process, will break down. Respondents P8, P15, P19, P25, and P26, two Chinese, two Taiwanese and one international business negotiator, respectively, suggests that profitability is also an important aspect of the negotiations, since this affects the health of their organizations.

Further, P12 also suggests that discussions about the product are an important aspect of the negotiation. And P13 and P17, both Taiwanese respondents, argue that marketing issues and innovation are amongst the most important aspects during the negotiations. And, P14, a Taiwanese respondent, suggested that technical and research and development capabilities are very important issues to discuss during negotiations.

P27, an international respondent suggested that “understanding in clear and concise terms what is expected from both sides” of the negotiation table is the most important aspect of the negotiations. Additionally, P16, P20, P22, and P24, three Taiwanese and one Chinese respondent, argued that the conclusion, final agreement and achieving one’s goals is another very important aspect of the negotiation process. Further, P20 suggests that not everyone can be a winner in a negotiation; thus supporting a win-lose orientation. And P26, an international respondent, stated that it is very important to constantly “flatter the Chinese by using the 8 virtues from the Confucius Analects.”

For Q7 (Is it more important to achieve one’s goals during the short-term, or build a long-term relationship where everyone wins?), respondents P4, P5, P7, P9, P10, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P18, P19, P22, P23, P24, and P25, two international, ten Taiwanese, and five Chinese
respondents, argue that it is it more important to achieve one’s goals through building of long-term relationships where everyone wins, and future opportunities may be available. In contrast, P1, P2, P3, P6, P8, P11, P21, and P26, four international, and four Chinese respondents, argue that there are many circumstances where both, achieving goals during the short-term, and building a long-term relationship where everyone wins, is essential. And P27, an international respondent, argues that the reason for being in business is to achieve the goals established by one’s employer, regardless of short- or long-term.

P4 suggests that while long-term relationships are supported in Taiwan, often mainland Chinese business people have a much shorter vision. That is, mainland Chinese business people will try to achieve goals in the short-term, if possible. And with regards to the long-term, P4 suggests that mainland Chinese business people think of the long-term as "far way". And since the long-term may have issues out of their control, their attitude is "let's worry about the future later!" Moreover, P2 argues that even if a negotiator pursues a short-term goal, patience and tolerance is still a requirement for doing business in China.

P7 argues that long-term relationships lead to win-win strategies with sustainability. And P9 argues that while long-term relationships take a lot of effort, profitability will be more difficult to achieve even in the short-term, without the efforts of building these long-term relationships. Additionally, P12 suggests that short-term losses are expected by opponents, therefore, strive for the long-term relationships. P15 suggests that when negotiating in the East, strive for long-term relationships. This, arguably, suggests that if negotiating with the West, long-term relationships may not be necessary. P19 suggests that international negotiators who seek short-term gains are not guaranteed future opportunities or a long-term relationship.
Furthermore, P1 suggests that when a foreign negotiator does not have international business negotiation experience, it is better to achieve short-term goals, with the prospect of building a long-term relationship. And P3 argues that although it may be more effective to build long-term relationships, often it is necessary to achieve the short-term goals because they may be required by their respective senior leadership. Additionally, P6 and P8 suggest that the determinant for achieving one’s goals, short- or long-term, will depend on several variables or issues, such as the products ones is selling, or overall business needs. P11 uses the metaphor of learning to walk before running. That is, an international business negotiator may need to achieve a short-term gain in order to develop the relationship into the long-term. And P21 argues that both are important. Moreover, P26 argues that the long-term is an investment, and short-term is for quick gains; and both have their own pros and cons.

With regards to Q8 (Please describe the importance of developing relationships versus getting down to the negotiating task right away. Which is more important and which should come first?), all respondents, except P8 and P27, argued that it is more important to develop, and nurture, relationships, guanxi, with Chinese business people, first, and then get down to the negotiating task right away. They argued that cultivating and developing mutual trust, and cooperation, that lead to a long term relationship allows for the negotiation process to begin smoothly and on more friendly terms. That is, it provides a basic foundation and building block.

And P7 suggests that cultivating and developing mutual trust, and cooperation, that lead to a long term relationship helps an international business negotiator to collect important information, behavior, tactics, motivations, goals, attitude, and so on, about their opponents; which further provides a direction upon which to develop and adjust, one’s negotiation strategies; “especially when the opponents are from a high-context culture favoring an indirect
communication approach.” P8 suggests that in determining which comes first, developing a relationship, or getting down to the task at hand, will depend on “the history of how the other party deals with its business partners.” And P27, an international respondent, argues that the importance of developing relationships versus getting down to the negotiating task right away will depend on the international negotiator’s goals.

Respondent P1 suggests that in building relationships it is important to demonstrate how one understands an opponent’s culture; including the different regional culture of the opponent’s delegation. And P2 adds that during the initial building of the relationship, a meal and gift giving may precede the detailed negotiations. Also, P2 suggests that demonstrating a genuine concern for the opponent and his family is “paramount to establishing trust.” Furthermore, P9 argues that if “you do not have the time nor interests to develop a relationship, then hire a trading company, or an agent, to do the legwork for you.”

P10 posits that with regards to developing relationship, the Chinese proverb “买卖不成仁义在 states that to sell and to purchase will not be successful unless there is kindness and fairness / committed sincerity and honor.” And P12 argues that if one can develop a friendship, relationship, then resolution of differences will be facilitated. Further, P13 posits that having established a relationship, it will be much easier to negotiate the details.

Respondent P18 suggests that while developing relationships should come first, an international negotiator must evaluate whether their opponents are receptive to building a relationship. P20 emphasizes that both, short-term goals and long-term relationships, are important. However, first an international business negotiator must develop trust, a relationship, and then get into the details of the negotiations. Moreover, P25 posits that going straight to the details of the negotiations without developing a relationship first, is like “a sharp knife cutting
into the jugular” or “not adding padding on the floor before tumbling; you can take a very bad tumble and get injured.” And P26 suggests that developing relationships is better than having to meet someone new during every negotiation.

The concept of saving face, Mianzi, received many comments from all participants, highlighting the significance of this basic Chinese concept during negotiations with Chinese business people. To this end, Q10 (How important is saving face during the negotiation process?) respondents P1, P2, P4, P6, P7, P8, P9, P11, P12, P13, P16, P17, P19, P20, P21, P23, P24, P25, and P26, four international, nine Taiwanese, and six Chinese respondents, argued that saving face, during Chinese business negotiations is extremely important and necessary.

For example, P1, and international respondent, suggested that to “lose face is to lose trust.” And therefore, as a result of losing face the negotiations could be abandoned, and restarted, at a later period, with new and different negotiators. In contrast, P27, an international respondent, argues that in the short-term saving face is not important. However, if a long-term relationship is required, then saving face is very important. To this end, if an international business negotiator causes an opponent to lose face in the short-term, in order to achieve their short-term goals, it will be very difficult to establish a long-term relationship at a different time. That is, the behavior in the short-term, by the international business negotiator, may affect the long-term relationship unfavorably; consistent with the literature.

Additionally, P2, P15, P24, P25, and P26, two international, two Taiwanese, and one Chinese respondents, argued that face, or reputation, is the “single most important thing to remember when dealing with Chinese” business people. Further, “the moment you question or even prove there is reason to doubt the integrity of a Chinese businessman that relationship is
forever marred.” P2 adds that “sometimes it is best to show restraint and use diplomacy; even to the point of putting the blame for misunderstanding upon you.”

Taiwanese respondent P4 argued that mainland China has been perceived as somewhat “backwards” by the international community; and therefore “were neglected and looked down upon.” As a result of this “humiliation, it caused them to build up a very strong self respect and self-esteem, while waiting to be vindicated.” Therefore, P4 argues that saving face is equally important to both the Chinese and Taiwanese people. To this end, maintaining an opponent’s dignity is paramount when negotiating with the Chinese business people.

P6, P16, and P19, one Chinese and two Taiwanese respondents, respectively, suggest that if an opponent no longer shows respect, then they will make the negotiation process more difficult, making future negotiations ineffective. Further, P7, another Chinese respondent, posits that in “the culture of wide power distance, the senior negotiator will care more about their status and authorities. And therefore, saving face means your respect to them.” P8, also a Chinese respondent, argues that saving face is more important for the Chinese business people, then Western business people.

Moreover, P9, P12, and P13, one international and two Taiwanese respondents, argue that “nothing is worse than not giving face to an opponent.” That is, “always maintain a high level of respect.” P9 argues that the negotiation process is based on the issues and not on the individual negotiator, so personal attacks should be avoided, since a negotiator is only representing the perspectives and issues of their respective organizations, and are therefore, only “doing their jobs.” Therefore, P9 argues that it is “outright rude and arrogant” for someone to cause an opponent to lose face. Further, often a negotiator forgets that there are going to be differences of opinions and goals during negotiations. Therefore, rather than cause an opponent
to lose face, apply a different approach. Additionally, P9, and P11, also a Chinese respondent, suggest that at times complimenting an opponent, “flattery,” when appropriately used, is giving a lot of face, which helps the negotiation process, while losing face causes a break-down in the entire negotiation process, and possibly irreversible damage.

P24, a Taiwanese respondent, added that if a negotiator causes an opponent to lose face, in essence they too will eventually lose face, since the negotiation process will break down, and their opponents may reciprocate with the same. And P25, a Chinese respondent, suggests that international business negotiators should learn how to use face savings to achieve their goals. However, P25 also argues that “due to the influence of the emerging Global Village the concept of face may be gradually cooling off.” P25 further argues that “the new reality is more concerned now with achieving mutual monetary benefits. Thus the concept of face may no longer be as important. In contrast, P26, an international respondent, argues that the concept of face savings will be practiced and remembered for a very long time. That is, this is an effective approach to “seal a solid business friendship with Chinese business suppliers; providing friends for life.” Therefore, making opponents lose face will cause an international business negotiator to “build many enemies.”

Alternatively, P3, P5, P10 and P18, two international and two Chinese respondents, respectively, offered somewhat contradictory responses to the How important is saving face during the negotiation process? For example P3, stated that “it is important to me but on a scale of 1-10 I would give it a 6.” The researcher would argue that a rating of 6 does not suggest importance. However, this perspective could, arguably, suggest that it is important that P3 does not lose face, although practicing saving face with opponents, may not be very important, thus a rating of 6.
And P5 argues that saving face is only important if their goals are met. One can argue that if their goal is not met, losing face is acceptable. Additionally, P10 stated that saving face is not important. P10 added that business and relationships are more important than saving face. However, researchers argue that saving face leads to trust which is one of the basic foundations of effective relationships. Therefore, to cause someone to lose face, would suggest that trust, and therefore, the relationship will be lost. Moreover, P18 argues that an international business negotiator should be “respected only if they represent a company or a country, but not themselves.” This is arguably a contradiction as well.

With regards to Q11 (How is the negotiation process different with international negotiators then with Chinese negotiators?) respondents provided differences between the international and Chinese negotiation processes, highlighted in Table 10. P1, an international respondent suggested that the Chinese are eager to achieve their goals, but not at the Chinese people’s expense. Further, P1 argues that this consideration is not often part of an American negotiator’s mindset.

P4, a Taiwanese respondent, argues that during international negotiations, the focus is on the issues; where everything pivots around maximizing benefits, and this becomes the criteria for measurement of effectiveness. In contrast, P4, suggest that in mainland China, opponents not only want to keep good face, but also want to feel good inside about the issues, achievement of goals, and achievement of personal benefits.

P6, a Chinese respondent, argues that the international negotiation process is more formal and much stricter than the Chinese negotiation process. Further, P6 suggests that Chinese negotiators are more informal and much more relaxed when negotiating with each other due to similarities in culture, rules and laws. And P7, also a Chinese respondent, suggests that the
“Chinese value collectivism in their culture; with high power distance.” To this end, “negotiators, even the chief negotiator, can not make his/her own proposals and final decisions; which many times leads to inefficiency in the negotiation processes.”

Chinese respondent, P10, suggests that in international negotiations, business comes first, and then friendship would follow. In contrast, P10 argues that in Chinese negotiations, it is the opposite, where friendship comes first, and then business follows. And P11, another Chinese respondent, argues that the biggest difference between international and Chinese negotiations is the importance given to "face saving." P11 further argues that the Chinese take face saving much more serious than the international negotiators.

P12, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that in Chinese negotiations, there is no established, logical or rigid, format of a negotiation process to follow. The negotiation process is determined by the senior Chinese negotiator. And P16, also a Taiwanese respondent, suggested that the Chinese will tend to “negotiate with their international opponents from the perspective of Chinese culture, history, and philosophy.” Further, P18, a Chinese respondent, argues that the issues and problems during international negotiations are generally clear, and negotiators will tend to permanently solve problems. In contrast, P18 argues that during Chinese negotiations problems are more difficult to find and resolve. Therefore, problem finding and solutions are more challenging during Chinese negotiations.

P21, a Chinese respondent, suggests that the international culture tends to be more discrete and distinctive. In contrast, P21 argues that the Chinese culture, for example, will place greater emphasis in other areas such as etiquette. And P24, a Taiwanese respondent, argues that international negotiators, Westerners in particular, are able to dissect the complexities of very challenging issues into many small and simple questions and answers. In contrast, P24 argues,
the Eastern Chinese mindsets tends to treat complexities as a whole, and once they are dissected into more minute details, they associate the relationship of the details to the overall “big complex picture.” That is, P23, a Taiwanese respondent and P24, a Chinese respondent, argues that Westerners focus on the details of the issue, losing sight of their relationship to the big picture; the whole.

And P25, a Chinese respondent argues that there are so many differences between international and Chinese negotiators, but one area that stands out the most is that of how to treat the concept of face. However, P26, an international respondent, argues that while there are many differences between Chinese and international negotiators, the Chinese are the most Westernized nation in Asia. Additionally, P24, associates being more Westernized by the economic performance of China, relative to other Asia country performances. P24 further argues that based on his or her experience “European and American suppliers, for example, are much less industrious, and not quick witted enough.”

International respondent P27 argues that “all negotiators enter the process with cultural baggage.” Additionally, P27 posits that it is “not a matter of what country, but more of what their past experiences have been. Further, P27 adds that “international negotiators have broad and deep experiences that they bring” to the negotiation table. And Chinese negotiators may have the same or different experiences.

Moreover, P3, P5, P8, and P9, three international respondents, and one Chinese respondent, argue that negotiations in China also have a bureaucratic element, especially when negotiating with the government; that is, Chinese business negotiation uses a Maoist Bureaucrat approach; consistent with the literature review; influenced by government bureaucracy. For example, P3 suggests that while “every culture is different and must be understood prior to
negotiations,” one aspect of the Chinese cultural influence on negotiations is that it embraces capitalism, in the major cities, but at the same time, there is a strong influence from the Chinese government on how they chose to conduct business.

Additionally, P5, an international Chinese-American respondent, argues that “negotiations in China are always with a bureaucratic tone.” Further, although representing an international organization, the Chinese-American international respondent is expected to help, and side with, the Chinese negotiators from mainland China, and not the international organization. And P8, a Chinese respondent, suggests that negotiations with a Chinese government owned company, can take on a very different bureaucratic tone, and with different priorities. Therefore, the behaviors and “motivations of the Chinese negotiators can be very different for an organization that is fully or partly owned by the government.”

P9, an international respondent argues that while many private Chinese companies are adapting to the Western negotiation approaches, when negotiating with Chinese government owned businesses an international negotiator may need to have “an established relationship with someone from the government;” while at the same time be expected to “have the same levels of personnel as found in the government, in order to be able to work within the bureaucracy.”

P13, and P17, both Taiwanese respondents suggests that when negotiating with international or Chinese negotiators, a negotiator should focus on using “good manners.” P14, P15, P20, and P22 argue that the Chinese negotiators are more tolerant during international negotiations, and international negotiators have many differences, identities, and ideas.

Table 10 provides highlights of the differences between the international and Chinese negotiators, from the international, Chinese, and Taiwanese respondents’ perspectives.
Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Differences between International and Chinese Negotiators</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
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<tr>
<td>P6, P22</td>
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<tr>
<td>P7</td>
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<td>P10</td>
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<td>P12</td>
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<td>P16</td>
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<td>P26</td>
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<tr>
<td>P27</td>
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<tr>
<td>P21</td>
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<tr>
<td>P24</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
For Q13 (Which negotiation strategy do you prefer to use during international business negotiations?) P1 and P3, international respondents, posit that by observing and asking opponents questions, understanding their goals, and strategies, during the pre-negotiation stage, an international negotiator can develop a strategy. That is, focus on the pre-negotiation stage elements in developing a strategy that could be applied during the negotiations.

And P4, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P13, P17, P18, P19, P22, and P24, one international, six Taiwanese, and five Chinese respondents suggest that a cooperative, win-win, strategy is the preferred approach during international business negotiations. In contrast, P5, P20, P21, P23, and P26, two international, two Taiwanese, and one Chinese respondent, argue that a competitive strategy is more effective during international business negotiations; associated with win-lose strategies. And P6, P7, P16, P25, and P27 argue that the most effective strategy during international business negotiations is a cooperative-competitive strategy; associated with a win-lose and a cooperative egoism strategy, suggesting using cooperation for selfish gains.

P4, a Taiwanese respondent suggests that developing mutual trust and mutual relationships (friendships) can help resolve disagreements and problems with greater ease. And P8, a Chinese respondent, suggested that focusing on mutual benefits can lead to a win-win outcome for both parties. P9, P10, P12, P19, and P22 an international, two Chinese and two Taiwanese respondents, suggests that demonstrating ones knowledge with humility and humbleness, sincerity, being polite, honest, finding commonalities, showing interest and willingness to help opponents achieve their goals, while at the same time achieving one’s goals, provides a win-win strategy, where both parties benefit.

P5, an international respondent, argues that an international negotiator must know when to fight and stay on conventional approaches to negotiation. And P6, a Chinese respondent,
argues that a negotiator must enter international negotiations believing that they will win. P7, a Chinese respondent, argues that a negotiator should go into international negotiations using first a soft, cooperative, approach and then apply a hard, competitive, approach. Further, P7 posits that these two approaches will lead to a winning strategy in achieving goals. P16 argues that “coercion and rewards” are general strategies to employ during international negotiations.

P25, a Chinese respondent, argues that both soft and hard approaches should be applied continuously during international business negotiations; that is, observe the opponent’s strategies, take a step back, patiently listen, never show one’s bottom line and then “attack at the appropriate time.” And P27, an international respondent, argues that the strategy to employ during international business negotiation depends on the goals. However, when negotiating with the Chinese, use a cooperative approach, and then a competitive to achieve one’s goals.

Respondents P4, P10, P11, P15, P16, P20, P22, P24, and P25, five Taiwanese and four Chinese, responded to Q16 (during negotiation how are decisions made?) by suggesting that decisions made during negotiations focus on fairness, cooperation, mutual interest and benefits, common ground, in achieving a win-win for all parties. Such an approach, they argue, requires being mutually receptive to give and takes, with regards to many issues. Additionally, during negotiations, negotiators generally “lose some and gain some;” so that applying this to a win-win strategy would help everyone achieve optimum desired outcomes and long-term relationships.

And P7, P8, P12, P19, P26, and P27, two Chinese, two Taiwanese and two international respondents, posit that within the negotiation process, less important decisions are made by the negotiating parties, and the larger, more critical, and final decisions are made by a higher authority, a senior executive, within their respective organizations. They also argue that this is especially true of very large organizations, as opposed to small and medium size organizations.
P26, an international respondent, posits that “at times, they strategically stall the decisions.” P26 argues that “indecision is the best decision.” P26 adds that “sometimes it is necessary to do so in place for making the Chinese lose face.”

Furthermore, P3, P6, and P9, two international and one Chinese respondent, argue that ultimately the decisions made are determined by the financial and profitability goals that were established by the senior leadership, or each organization, prior to the negotiations. And P9 suggests that although profitability is a very important determinant of the decision-making process, often smaller decisions are made during the negotiations by the negotiators. Ultimately, beyond profitability, P3 and P9 argue that a sustainable long-term relationship is also important.

P1, an international negotiator, suggests that the decisions are made throughout the negotiation process by both parties, and after an agreement, the details are reviewed by their respective legal representatives, until a final agreement is signed. And P2, another international respondent, stated that “a decision is made when the other side perceives you have given something and not just taken;” suggesting a win-win approach. P5, also an international respondent, argues that throughout the negotiation process they “look at problems from various perspectives, even the opponent’s perspectives” in making decisions as they surface; that is, they view the different perspectives to problems throughout the negotiation process.

P13, P17, P18, P21, and P23, three Taiwanese and two Chinese respondents argue that decision-making is influenced by their opponent’s “sincerity, fairness, attitude, manners and style of conversation;” which could, arguably, lead to a cooperative, a competitive, or combination, cooperation-competition, approach to decision-making.

Table 11 provides highlights of the Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies, from the international, Chinese, Taiwanese respondents’ perspectives.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation category</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Chinese business negotiation content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most important aspect of the negotiation</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P9, P27</td>
<td>P6, P7, P8, P10, P11, P18, P21</td>
<td>P4, P12, P15, P20, P23</td>
<td>An in-depth understanding of their opponent’s culture, organization, goals, governing system, backgrounds, future plans, no discussions on politics, and an atmosphere of mutual respect &amp; trust &amp; benefit-common ground to achieve a win-win for all, and a long-term relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P26</td>
<td>P8, P25</td>
<td>P15, P19</td>
<td>Pricing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>P26</td>
<td>P13, P14, P17</td>
<td>Marketing, technical, R&amp;D, and innovation issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>P26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>P6, P8, P11, P21</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P19, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>Achieving both short-term goals and developing long-term relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing relationship vs. getting down to the task immediately</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P5, P9, P26</td>
<td>P6, P7, P10, P11, P18, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P19, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>Develop relationships (Guanxi) first with Chinese business people and then get down to business</td>
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<tr>
<td>P27</td>
<td>P6, P7, P11, P21, P25</td>
<td></td>
<td>Depends on the company’s goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saving face</td>
<td>P1, P2, P9, P26</td>
<td>P6, P7, P8, P11, P21, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P15, P16, P17, P19, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>Extremely important and necessary</td>
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<tr>
<td>P27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not important in short-term; only in long-term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3, P5</td>
<td>P10, P18</td>
<td></td>
<td>Contradictory responses (not important, very important but a 6 on a 1-10 scale, important if met goals)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred negotiation strategy</td>
<td>P9</td>
<td>P8, P10, P11, P18, P22</td>
<td>P4, P12, P13, P17, P19, P24</td>
<td>A cooperative/Win-Win/Confucian strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>P5, P26</td>
<td>P21</td>
<td>P20, P23</td>
<td>Competitive/Win-Lose/Sun Tzu strategy</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>P27</td>
<td>P6, P7, P25</td>
<td>P15, P16</td>
<td>Cooperative-Competitive/Win-Lose/Maoist bureaucracy strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>P1, P2, P5</td>
<td>P10, P11, P22, P25</td>
<td>P4, P15, P16, P20, P24</td>
<td>By focusing on fairness, cooperation, mutual interest, mutual benefits, common ground, in achieving a win-win outcome for all parties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P26, P27</td>
<td>P7, P8</td>
<td>P12, P19</td>
<td>Less important decisions made by negotiators, &amp; more critical decisions by a higher authority or senior executive, within their company</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3, P5, P9</td>
<td>P18, P21</td>
<td>P13, P17, P23</td>
<td>Determined by profitability goals</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Influenced by their opponent’s sincerity, fairness, attitude, manners and style of conversation</td>
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</table>
**Chinese business negotiating tactics**

In response to Q9 (How do you prefer to resolve conflicts during international negotiations?) respondents P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P16, P21, P22, P24, and P25, one international, two Taiwanese, and seven Chinese, used the following words or phrases on how they would prefer to resolve conflicts during international negotiations: solve conflicts by finding common ground and standards; common interests; cooperation; long-term relationships (which help facilitate conflicts since both parties are committed to the long-term relationship); compromise; all characteristics of a win-win, cooperative and negotiation business exchange (social exchange theory) tactics, where all parties benefit; consistent with the literature review.

P6, a Chinese respondent, suggests that by focusing on the common ground and reserving the differences, a foundation has been established. This foundation, build on commonalities and long-term relationships allow negotiating parties to slowly and carefully resolve their differences over the course of the negotiations. P7, another Chinese respondent, adds that when identifying the details of the differences, negotiators can find solutions that could satisfy both parties.

P10, a Chinese respondent suggests that the strength of a long-term relationship in solving conflict can be understood through a Chinese saying, 留得青山在,不怕没柴烧, which translated suggests that “if we keep the trees in the mountains always growing and not chop the trees down (severing a relationship) then we will never have to worry about not having fire woods for cooking and keeping the house warm.” That is, the strength of the relationship will help facilitate conflict resolutions.

P3, P11, and P27, one Chinese and two international respondents, suggests that the best approach to resolve conflicts in international business negotiations is to use a face-to-face or a head-on approach. Further, they suggest being truthful, perhaps taking a break to cool down, if
the discussion was heated, regroup and return using a different approach, and perhaps, even asking the opponent for advice on resolving the conflict may also help resolve conflicts.

P4, P5, P13, and P17, one international and three Taiwanese respondents, suggests that in resolving conflicts during international business negotiations first wait for both parties to calm down, and ease the tension, reflect, regroup, and apply a different round-about tactic. That is, retreat a little, and lose the unimportant things, in order to exchange for the more important things. They add that this Chinese tactic originates from Sun-Tzu’s stratagems.

Two international and two Taiwanese respondents, P9 and P12, suggested that one alternative to resolving conflicts in international business negotiations is using a trading company, an agent, or a neutral arbitrator to help mediate and therefore resolve differences. And P1, and P23, an international and Taiwanese respondent suggest that if all else fails use international law and courts, that is, the legal system, to resolve the conflicts.

Respondent P2, an international negotiator, suggests that at times applying some leverage (i.e.: withholding funds, etc.) can help resolve conflicts. And P14, a Taiwanese respondent, states that treating opponents to a dinner and perhaps playing golf can help develop and build the relationship that could lead to facilitating, with greater ease, the resolution of the conflicts. Further, P18, a Chinese respondent, posits that doing a root/cause analysis to find the reason for the conflict may lead to alternative solutions acceptable by both parties. Moreover, P20, a Taiwanese respondent, suggests that giving gifts and letting the opponent know that the negotiation was not successful, but still appreciated, could help the relationship in establishing a future date for another attempt.

Regarding Q14 (what is your preferred negotiation tactics during international business negotiations?) respondents P1, P2, P3, P9, P10, P11, P13, P14, P16, P22, P23, P24, and P26, five
international, three Taiwanese and five Chinese respondents, argue that listening, cooperative relationships, negotiated business exchanges with mutual benefit (a social exchange theory), reciprocal exchanges (also a social exchange theory), receptivity to opponent’s needs, mutual trust, and friendliness, which lead to a win-win strategy is their preferred strategy. This preferred strategy focuses on a Confucius negotiation tactic, where mutual interest, mutual benefits, cooperation, guanxi, mianzi, and long-term relationships are important during international negotiations; consistent with the literature review.

P2, an international negotiator, also argues that “Americans are heavy handed and demanding during international business negotiations; and when abroad, we need to display diplomacy and tact.” P9, another international negotiator, adds that it is important to keep issues transparent and make every effort not to be viewed as an enemy. Furthermore, P4, P5, P6, P8, P12, P18, P21, P25, and P27, two Taiwanese, two international, and five Chinese respondents, argued that preferred negotiation tactics to be used during international business negotiations is that of a cooperation-competition, win-lose, strategy that uses a soft and then hard approach; and has applications found in Sun-Tzu’s stratagems, and in the Maoist Bureaucrat Chinese negotiation approaches; also consistent with the literature review.

P8, a Chinese business negotiator, also adds that a negotiator should “try to avoid overt conflict, such as screaming and shouting, but let the opponent know, politely and firmly, that one is ready to walk off the negotiation table, if the terms are not favorable enough for their organization.” And P12, a Taiwanese respondent posited that a negotiator should “listen & invite them in before trapping them;” a Sun-Tzu stratagem. Further, P21, a Chinese respondent stated that a negotiator should try to “hamper the opponent’s progress, while trying to increase their interests.” Moreover, P7 and P20, Chinese and Taiwanese, business negotiators, suggested
that their negotiation tactic will be dependent on their preparation and observations of their opponent’s culture, strategies, and their final decision-maker. Table 12 is highlights of the Chinese business negotiation tactics during negotiations with Chinese business people.

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation category</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Chinese business negotiation content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resolving conflicts</td>
<td>P9</td>
<td>P6, P7, P8, P10, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P16, P24</td>
<td>Solve conflicts by finding common ground and standards; common interests; cooperation; long-term relationships (which help facilitate conflicts since both parties are committed to a long-term relationship); compromise; all characteristics of a win-win, cooperative and negotiation business exchange (social exchange theory) tactics, where all parties benefit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P3, P27</td>
<td>P11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Face-to-face or head-on approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5</td>
<td>P4, P13, P17</td>
<td></td>
<td>First wait for both parties to calm down, and ease the tension, reflect, regroup, and apply a different round-about tactic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>P23</td>
<td></td>
<td>Use the legal system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P2</td>
<td>P14, P20</td>
<td></td>
<td>Apply leverage to resolve conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conduct a root/cause analysis to determine cause of conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred negotiation tactic</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P9, P26</td>
<td>P10, P11, P22</td>
<td>P13, P14, P16, P23, P24</td>
<td>Listening, cooperative relationships, negotiated business exchanges with mutual benefit (a social exchange theory), reciprocal exchanges (also a social exchange theory), receptivity to opponent’s needs, mutual trust, and friendliness, which lead to a win-win strategy is their preferred strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P5, P27</td>
<td>P6, P8, P18, P21, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12</td>
<td>Cooperation-competition, win-lose, that uses a soft and then hard approach, and has applications found in Sun-Tzu’s stratagems, and in the Cooperative Egoism Chinese negotiation approaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P7</td>
<td>P20</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dependent on their preparation and observations of their opponent’s culture, strategies, and their final decision-maker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Chinese business negotiation approaches**

After much discussion about the responses from participants about culture and its impact on Chinese negotiations, Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies, and Chinese business negotiation tactics, respondents to Q12 (Which do you prefer during international negotiations, a cooperative approach, a competitive approach, or a cooperative and competitive approach?) stated that the Chinese business negotiation approach they would apply during Chinese business negotiations would fall under several categories. For example, P1, P5, P6, P9, P10, P12, P23, and P24, two international, two Chinese, and four Taiwanese business negotiators argued that they would prefer to use a cooperative business negotiation approach during international negotiations.

In contrast, P2, P4, P11, P13, P15, P16, P17, P18, P19, P20, P21, P25, P26, and P27, three international, seven Taiwanese, and four Chinese business negotiators argued that they preferred both a cooperative and then competitive business negotiation approach during international negotiations. And P3, P7, and P8, an international and two Chinese business negotiators, posited that they prefer to first begin the negotiation process with a cooperative business negotiation approach, however, if they cannot achieve their goals, they will resort to the cooperative and competitive business negotiation approach; that is, a combination of two business negotiation approaches: a coop, and then a coop-comp. Additionally, P4, a Taiwanese business negotiator stated that their preference was to use a cooperative-competitive approach, and then, if possible switch to a more cooperative business negotiation approach to save the long-term relationship.

Proponents of the coop-comp business negotiations approach argued that it is important to approach the Chinese business negotiations with a cooperative approach and then apply a
more competitive approach. This is associated with a win-lose strategy. In contrast, respondents’ preference in using the cooperative approach to Chinese business negotiations is associated with a win-win strategy, where mutual trust, mutual benefits, cooperation, guanxi, mianzi and long-term relationships are essential.

Additionally, proponents of using first the cooperative business negotiation approach during Chinese business negotiations is associated with applying Confucian business negotiation principles to soften the negotiations and then conclude with a more hard, competitive, business negotiation approach, which is associated with a Maoist Bureaucrat business negotiation approach, and the Sun-Tzu-like approach, as discussed above, by applying different aspects of Sun Tzu’s 36 stratagems in achieving the win-lose strategy. Advocates of the coop-comp business negotiation approach suggest that being cooperative helps facilitate the competitive approach and thus outcomes.

To this end, Table 13 provides highlights of the Chinese business negotiation approaches applied by international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators, during negotiations with Chinese business people.

Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation category</th>
<th>Preferred negotiation approach: cooperative approach, a competitive approach, or a cooperative and competitive</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Chinese business negotiation content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P1, P5, P9</td>
<td>P6, P10</td>
<td>P12, P23, P24</td>
<td>Cooperative business negotiation approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P2, P26, P27</td>
<td>P11, P18, P21, P25</td>
<td>P4, P13, P15, P16, P17, P19, P20</td>
<td>Both a cooperative and then competitive business negotiation approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P3</td>
<td>P7, P8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer to first begin the negotiation process with a cooperative business negotiation approach, however, if they cannot achieve their goals, they will resort to the cooperative and competitive business negotiation approach; that is, a combination of two business negotiation approaches: a coop, and then a coop-comp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators

Research suggests that during the initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators international business negotiators must have an in-depth understanding of Chinese culture, history and philosophy, protocol, business etiquette, focus on the general agreement on principles, the projected contents of the negotiation agreement, the decision-making process, overall negotiators’ satisfaction, conveying patience, developing mutual trust, mutual benefits, guanxi, mianzi, and establishing long-term relationships. However, if the focus upon entering the negotiations is on a short-term gain, then international negotiators must be cognizant that this short-term goal may jeopardize potential long-term mutual trust, mutual benefits and, most importantly, a long-term relationship. Further, research also suggests that during the initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators, international business negotiators will use many different negotiation styles: strategies, processes, tactics, and approaches, as discussed in the literature review and in this chapter’s participants’ responses.

To this end, the participant’s responses to this research concludes with a discussion of their responses to Q4 (What do you prefer to discuss during the first stage of negotiations?), and Q15 (What do you perceive are the most important goals to be achieved during the initial meeting of negotiations with international negotiations?), in reference to this category; the initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators.

With regards to Q4, 21 respondents, P1, P2, P4, P5, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P14, P16, P18, P20, P21, P22, P23, P24, P25, P26, and P27, six international, seven Taiwanese, and eight Chinese business negotiators, argued that during the pre-negotiation, Chinese business negotiation phase, the following elements should be addressed, before entering the second phase of the Chinese business negotiations, the formal, actual, negotiations.
That is, the 21 respondents above argued that international business negotiators, during the initial meeting with Chinese business people, should utilize this stage as a feeling out period; a getting to know one another period; learning about their opponent’s individual and organizational backgrounds and experience; have informal discussions about nearly any topic; do not discuss the business at hand at this point; have introductions; begin to develop relationships and guanxi; find mutual interests; learn opponent’s strategies or plans; exchange information and ideas; follow local protocols; learn of any competitors; and understand each other’s family, and personal interest.

The researcher posits that the elements identified by the 21 respondents represent basic introductory elements discussed during the pre-negotiation phase, in order to assess and develop one’s strategy, tactics and approach for going forward in the negotiation. Additionally, P3, an international respondent, suggested that during the first stage of negotiations, an international business negotiator should seek to discuss the “best case scenario in reference to what would be a win-win scenario.” That is, in contrast to the 21 respondents above who prefer a feeling out period in order to develop a strategy for the actual negotiations, P3 suggested a preference for developing the win-win scenario, before the feeling out period.

And P13, P15, P17 and P19, all Taiwanese respondents argued that during the first stage of negotiations it is important to establish one’s position first by discussing one’s interest indirectly, such as discussing their financial goals and objectives. This suggests a more direct approach to the negotiations. Moreover, P4, P6, P7, P18, and P25, one Taiwanese, and four Chinese respondents, suggested that after the initial phase, the pre-negotiation phase, the international business negotiators can now develop a strategy to enter the next, and formal, negotiation phase of the Chinese business negotiation process.
Respondents, to the last research question Q15, P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P9, P11, P16, P17, P18, P19, P20, P21, P22, P24, and P25, five international, seven Chinese, and five Taiwanese respondents, stated that the most important goals to be achieved during the initial meeting in international negotiations was to learn about each negotiators’ background, experience and interests; develop mutual trusts, mutual interest, and establish, and solidify, a relationship for the long-term; in order to achieve a win-win outcome for all parties involved in the negotiations.

In contrast, P4, P10, P23, P26, and P27 respondents, two international, one Chinese, and Two Taiwanese respondents, argued that the most important goals to be achieved during the initial meeting in international negotiations was that already pre-determined by the organizations they represent; also maximize their benefits; thereby focusing solely on their organizations goals and objectives, and not on their opponents’ interests. That is, their focus is on a win-lose strategy. Further, P10, a Chinese respondent, also stated that an international business negotiator should try an figure out their opponent’s bottom line, because 知彼知己,百战不殆, or in English, “If you know your enemy, as well as you know your own self, then you will win 100 battles.” This represents one of Sun-Tzu’s stratagems for defeating an opponent; a win-lose strategy; and also discussed in this research.

Additionally, P8, a Chinese respondent, suggested that the most important goals to be achieved during the international negotiations are to know the opponents very well, and their decision-making infrastructure. P12, a Taiwanese respondent, stated that an important goal is to have a clear definition of the requirements and deliverables, as well as who are the decision-makers. And P13 and P14, both Taiwanese respondents, argued that the most important goal to achieve is that of understanding the ultimate consequences based on the strategies implemented.
Table 14 provides highlights of the initial meeting with Chinese business people.

Table 14
Initial Meeting with Chinese Business Negotiators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation category</th>
<th>International</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Taiwan</th>
<th>Chinese business negotiation content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preferred discussions during the initial phase of negotiations</td>
<td>P1, P2, P5, P9, P26, P27</td>
<td>P7, P8, P10, P11, P18, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P4, P12, P14, P16, P20, P23, P24</td>
<td>A feeling out period; a getting to know one another period; learn about the opponent’s individual and organizational backgrounds and experience; have informal discussions about nearly any topic; do not discuss the business at hand at this point; have introductions; begin to develop relationships and guanxi; find mutual interests; learn opponent’s strategies or plans; exchange information and ideas; follow local protocols; learn of any competitors; and understand each other’s family, and personal interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most important goals to achieve during the initial meeting of international business negotiations</td>
<td>P1, P2, P3, P5, P9</td>
<td>P6, P7, P11, P18, P21, P22, P25</td>
<td>P16, P17, P19, P20, P24</td>
<td>Establish one’s position first by discussing one’s interest indirectly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P26, P27</td>
<td>P10</td>
<td>P4, P23</td>
<td>Goals already pre-determined by the organizations they represent; also maximize their benefits; thereby focusing solely on their organizations goals and objectives, and not on their opponents’ interests; a win-lose strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P12</td>
<td>Know the opponents very well, and their decision-making infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>P13, P14</td>
<td>Understand the ultimate consequences based on the strategies implemented</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Restatement of the Research Question

In helping the focus of this study, and in providing a framework for this dissertation, this research began with the following research question: What are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people? The researcher has argued that conducting effective negotiations with Chinese business negotiators during international business negotiations are influenced by many different elements, such as culture and Chinese negotiation
strategies, processes, tactics, and approaches; demonstrating a high level of complexity for international business negotiators.

Therefore, Chapter 1 identified the problem, background, limitations, and the significance of the study. This was followed with, Chapter 2, an exhaustive review of the literature of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and the impact of culture on Chinese business negotiations, Chinese business negotiation processes, strategies, tactics, and approaches; as well as the significance of conducting an effective initial meeting during international business negotiations. Chapter 3 discussed the methodology. And Chapter 4 discussed the results and findings that support the research question, and consistent with the literature review; as guided by a self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questionnaire with responses from experienced international, Taiwanese and Chinese business negotiators in negotiating with Chinese business people.

Summary

The literature review has focused on two major categories, culture and Chinese negotiation styles, in responding to the research question ‘what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people,’ and the research topic ‘Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations.’ Therefore, in maintaining continuity, the quality, rigor, credibility, and reliability of the research, Chapter 4, Results and Findings also focused on the two major categories, discussed above, culture and Chinese negotiation styles.

The self-administered questionnaire, used for this Chapter 4 research included five demographic, structured questions, and sixteen unstructured, open-ended, questions that were directly associated with responding to the dissertation research question and overall research topic, discussed above. After analysis, interpretation and drawing of conclusions, relative to the
demographic data, the researcher used SPSS, to provide the demographic statistics discussed in this chapter.

Additionally, having coded the participants, the researcher also coded, classified and categorized the sixteen open-ended questions’ responses based on thematic units that correlated to the categories in the literature review, culture and Chinese negotiation styles, in developing a framework; since these categories were initially used in developing the sixteen self-administered open-ended questions, and were therefore, directly associated and related. Moreover, coding and classifying the themes developed from the responses into discrete content categories generated an in-depth qualitative and triangulation data from the analysis. Moreover, after each major category, tables were developed to highlight, summarize, the results and conclusions from the respondents’ responses.

The results and findings of the study were presented in an in-depth narrative format, also supported with direct quotes from the respondents. Tables were also used to show the highlights, and summary, of the findings by major category and sub-categories, culture and Chinese negotiation styles, and by participant categories, international, Taiwanese, and Chinese respondents. These tables provided a comparison of responses by negotiator category and by topic categories and sub-categories.

Researchers argue that combining Ghauri’s (1996) and Ghauri and Usunier’s (2003) Chinese three phase business negotiation process, discussed in the literature review, to Graham and Lin (1987) and Graham and Sano’s (1989) international business negotiation four-stage model, generates the following Chinese business negotiation process: “pre-negotiations: lobbying, presentation, informal discussion and trust building; formal negotiation: task-related exchange of information, persuasion, concessions and agreement; and post-negotiations:
implementation and new negotiations” (Ghauri & Fang, 1999, p. 6). The findings in this Chapter 4 were consistent with this Chinese business negotiation process.

The researcher argues that there are many contradictions from the participant’s responses, where respondents may have responded as they though they support one approach, and yet conclude with another. The following highlights a couple examples for discussion, although there are more. For example, P10, a Chinese business negotiator, stated that they would prefer to use a cooperative business negotiation approach during international negotiations. Yet in responding to Q15, what do you perceive are the most important goals to be achieved during the initial meeting of negotiations with international negotiations?, P10 quoted in Chinese, 知彼知己, 百战不殆, (or in English: if you know your enemy as well as you know your own self, then you will win 100 battles); a Sun-Tzu stratagem, which suggests not a cooperative, win-win, business negotiation approach, but instead a cooperative-competitive, win-lose, business negotiation approach. Such responses, while contradictory, and appearing to be confusing to an inexperienced international negotiator, suggests, arguably, that P10 is a supporter of a win-lose strategy, and not a win-win. However, P10 does begin, as supported by the coop-comp tactic, with a cooperative approach to soften their opponents and project a win-win strategy, while learning about the opponents and then introducing the competitive tactic to ultimately achieve a win-lose outcome.

And P3, an international business negotiator has responded in support of win-win strategies, but has also expressed the need to achieve a win-lose outcome, especially when meeting their corporate financial goals. Such contradictions, supports the researcher’s argument that understanding the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people is very complex.
Further, an international business negotiator may enter a Chinese negotiation’s initial meeting with a specific focus of a win-win strategy, but throughout the negotiation process may realize that a win-win strategy will not yield them their desired outcomes, and therefore, switch to a win-lose strategy in order to assure achieving their goals. That is, international business negotiators may begin with win-win strategies, only to find they have changed their strategies to win-lose, due to many unforeseen elements.

In contrast, many respondents’ responses were consistent. As an example, P26, an international respondent stated that they supported a more cooperative and then competitive strategy. This was further supported by P26’s response to Q15 that the most important goal to be achieved during international business negotiations is that of meeting all the objectives they originally set out to achieve and in the process gain some more surprises; suggesting a coop-comp, win-lose strategy.

The next chapter, 5, will summarize discussions, conclusions, implications of the study, and recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Researchers argue that China is on the verge of the same historic economic ascendency as Great Britain, Japan, the United States, and Germany (York, 2006). China’s economic growth in the past three decades is one of astonishment, and momentous scope. China has experienced a remarkable transformation on a ranking similar to that of the Industrial Revolution in the West (McGregor, 2010). This recent significant growth of China's economic power and geopolitical influence is understandably drawing interest from experts and the world public (Titarenko, 2009). And, China’s growth in the next two decades will have implications for the entire world (Perkins & Rawski, 2008). Further, China is already a major influence of the world’s economy through its growing exports, its demands for natural resources, its influence on global warming and many other areas.

Therefore, the importance of this study focuses on the argument that “the globalization of economic and business activity, now more than ever before, requires people from all disciplines and professions to make deals with companies and organizations throughout the world” (Salacuse, 2003, p. viii). And the basic tools for achieving these deals are through international negotiations. Therefore, this research adds to the existing and limited literature associated with Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations. Furthermore, China, as an emerging country with the second largest economy in the world, also a low-cost country, and with the potential of becoming one of the leading consumer markets in the world, has caught the interest of foreign countries.

However, this rapid economic growth from China, and global interest, has come with much challenge and difficulty from international business negotiators, and Chinese business
negotiators, on how to effectively negotiate with each other, due to cultural, historical, philosophical, and various other elements that differ. To this end, this research adds to the existing and limited literature on the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people and Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations that have professional, academic and general public implications.

Researchers argue that research associated with international business negotiations has had a Western bias (Zhao, 2000; Ghauri & Fang, 1999; Zhu, McKenna & Sun, 2007). Therefore, the intent of this research problem focuses on the importance of understanding, both, what influences Chinese negotiators and the different negotiation styles they apply during international negotiations; providing therefore a more Eastern perspective.

Furthermore, the purpose of this study relates to the researcher’s argument that Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations are influenced by many different elements that affect international business negotiators’ behaviors, motivations, and negotiation styles; such as, differences in culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, global flows, Chinese culture, history, and philosophy, emotional and cultural intelligence, Chinese communications, and Chinese negotiation style elements; demonstrating a very high level of complexity. Moreover, these elements have provided a framework, and construct, for understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations. Additionally, this study has relevance in not only the business world, but in the private sector as well.

In order to provide a methodology for this study that captured an in-depth research, analysis, interpretation and understanding of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, a qualitative and triangulation methodological approach, using primary and secondary data, was utilized. This is supported by researchers who
argue that a qualitative methodology provides an in-depth evaluation from data collected through detailed open-ended questionnaires, used in this study that can respond to research questions. Further, a “qualitative research is particularly well suited for exploratory studies of phenomena that have not been studied extensively and not well understood” (Argosy, 2005, p. 3); that is, limited research, such as Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

**Findings**

**Research Framework and Themes**

As part of the qualitative triangulation methodological process used in this research, the study focused on developing themes that could be used as a framework for coding and categorizing elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people and Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations. These themes and framework, detailed and summarized in Chapter 4, from respondents to the self-administered questionnaire, were directly associated with categories, culture and Chinese negotiation styles, discussed in the literature review; and therefore, have a direct correlation. The following is a discussion of the findings, as summarized in Chapter 4, and guided by the 5 structured demographic questions, and the 16 self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questions; as a direct response to the research question ‘*What are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people?*’

The participants for this study were 27 experienced international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators; specifically, with experience negotiating with Chinese business people. Further, the self-administered questionnaire included 5 structured questions (or a total of 135 total questions), to capture the demographic data from the 27 participants; and 16 open-ended,
unstructured, questions to capture an in-depth understanding of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people.

Additionally, in order to assure the rigor, reliability, validity, and quality of the study, a total of 432 (16 questions times 27 respondents) open-ended, unstructured, questions were analyzed, and interpreted, in drawing conclusions from the results; that provided the in-depth understanding, in the form of themes, from experienced international, Chinese, and Taiwanese business negotiators during negotiations with Chinese business people.

**Culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations**

Research suggests that “managing across cultures gives international negotiators more possible pathways to achieving their goals” (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998, p. 195). And Hofstede (2001) posits that negotiations will have a much better probability of succeeding if negotiators have an in-depth understanding of the reasons for the differences in perspectives from all negotiating parties.

The first theme developed from the participants’ responses was that of culture, and its impact on Chinese business negotiations. Further, sub-categories of this first theme, also discussed in Chapter 4 (i.e.: understanding an opponent’s culture during Chinese business negotiations, most important cultural skills to apply during negotiations, non-verbal communication during international business negotiations, and significance of a legal contract during the negotiation process), directly correlated with the self-administered open-ended questions 1, 2, 3, and 5 and the sources from the literature review, Chapter 2; Appadurai (1990); Chang (2003); De Groot (2009); Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002); Hofstede (1980, 1984, 2001); Ma (2006); Ma and Jaeger (2005); Salacuse (1999);
Sommer (1995); Thomas and Inkson (2009); and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998); and therefore to the first theme culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations.

Responses to the first sub-category suggested that understanding an opponent’s culture is extremely important because it helps predict opponent’s strategies, minimize cultural noise, helps provide cultural intelligence, and specific to China, helps in understanding Confucianism, the application of Sun-Tzu’s stratagems, and the significance of also understanding local and regional Chinese culture, philosophy, literature, and dialects, during effective negotiations with Chinese business people; thereby consistent with the sources from the literature review, in Chapter 2; Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Gundykunst (2003); Seligman (1999); Thomas and Inkson (2009); Yao (2008). Further, respondents suggested that to compensate the international negotiators’ lack of speaking and understanding of the Chinese language, it may be feasible to use a third party, or agent, who can help with understanding Chinese culture and also serve as a translator, or mediator.

Additionally, the most important cultural skills to apply during negotiations with the Chinese business people, the second sub-category, was that of non-verbal communications; including etiquette, meeting protocols; being calm, patient and tolerant; listening; understanding the Chinese people’s behaviors; the application and use of Chinese culture and philosophy during international negotiations; understanding Confucianism principles (group-orientation, developing long-term relationships, guanxi, mianzi, mutual interest and benefit, etc.); understanding and speaking the opponents’ language; understanding the decision-power orientation and organization; politeness, humility, sincerity in helping opponents; and observing and studying opponents.
Furthermore, understanding non-verbal communications, the third sub-category, is also extremely important during international negotiations because it helps provide insight, first impressions & differences on opponents’ actions, behavior, protocols, thoughts, kindness, facial expressions, arrogance, body language, attitudes, spirits, sincerity, etc.; thus helping the flow of the negotiation process. In addition, through non-verbal communication it is important to demonstrate honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, sincerity, a positive attitude and appropriate standards of dress.

An important element of culture, the fourth sub-category, is the practice, importance, and application of legal contracts during international business negotiations. Therefore, the significance of a legal contract in China is more important today then it had been in the past. That is, this theme developed from the responses from participants suggesting that legal contracts are very important, especially at the corporate level; because of their binding obligations and rights; protection of both parties; and determination of which laws apply if a dispute arises. Additionally, respondents argued that contracts are much better for larger corporations in China, but for small, private, corporations, it is profitability that determines the relationship, not a legal document; suggesting differences in perspectives and practice.

Moreover, this theme, legal contracts, suggested that signatures are required on all legal contracts; and contracts are valid only if signed under the rule of law; although negotiators can reach agreements without rule of law. Also respondents suggested that it is important to include the details of the negotiation in the contract. Furthermore, respondents argued that all countries abide by some form of legal principles, or representation to support their stakeholders.

Another theme that developed from the research was that collecting from China’s SOEs and government agencies is a challenge, even if there is a contract. However, legal contracts are
a must during international business negotiations. In contrast, some respondents argued that legal contracts are a “mere formality only.” And they are only important because they protect negotiators against non-compliance, help reduce risk, and protect both parties.

Further, legal contracts are only important if there is mutual trust between negotiating parties and only necessary to some Chinese companies if there is a significant benefit for them. The theme for the significance for a legal contract, as an element required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, suggests that the legal system, in China, has contradictions and enforcement may be an issue for international business negotiators. This is supported by literature on the differences in cultural dimensions; specifically related to China.

To this end, culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations during international business negotiation “takes a great deal of cultural intelligence (CQ) drive, requiring not only the motivation to do what’s best for one’s own organization and interests, but also to consider what’s best for the interests of the other parties” (Livermore, 2010, p. 150). Further, Livermore (2010) suggests that “effective negotiating depends on CQ knowledge” (p. 150), where international negotiators require “an understanding to anticipate where the key differences may lie in the cultural systems and values involved” (p. 150). Additionally, the author posits that this understanding enables international negotiators “to use CQ strategy in developing a thoughtful plan for how to go about the negotiation process in a particular context” (Livermore, 2010, p.150). Livermore (2010) also posits that “there are four specific behaviors useful for cross-cultural negotiation: altering your timing, adapting your style, remaining flexible, and acting with integrity” (p. 150).

**Chinese negotiation styles**
Research suggests that strategy provides an overall direction with the final end in sight being long-term objectives. In contrast, tactics always follow strategies, creating and developing action-oriented moves in the direction of objectives; although not directly oriented towards the objectives themselves. Further, “strategy is the thought, and tactics are its formulation” (Saner, 2003, p. 51). Therefore, the thought, strategy, comes before the action, tactic. And tactics are only effective, if they achieve their goals. To this end, tactics have a greater flexibility then strategies; thus being versatile and adaptive to changes.

Negotiation strategies are also associated with words and phrases such as win-win, or win-lose. And negotiation tactics are more associated with words, and phrases, such as: conflicts, threats, persuasion, asking a lot of questions, avoidances, making promises, accommodating, recommendations, collaborating, Ji (Chinese stratagems), compromise, disclosure, cooperation, commitment, competition and so on (Saner, 2003).

And in order to understand Chinese negotiation approaches, during the Chinese negotiation process, Fang (as cited in Ghauri & Fang, 2003), developed “a model of Chinese culture that analyzes Chinese negotiation styles” (p. 414). This model of Chinese business culture includes three fundamental elements: The PRC condition, also called “the Mao bureaucracy” (Fang, 2006, p. 54), Confucianism, and Chinese Stratagems. That is, Fang (2006) argues that Chinese negotiation styles is a combination of a Maoist bureaucrat (influenced by the Chinese government), a Confucian gentleman (influenced by Confucianism philosophy), and a Sun-Tzu strategist (who applies Sun-Tzu’s 36 stratagems to business and who believes that the marketplace is a battle zone).

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) posit that “strategies tend to vary with national culture” (p. 196). However, Livermore (2010) argues that “regardless of the cultural
context, the objective in negotiation is for people to reach an agreement that mutually satisfies their respective interests, both personally and organizationally” (p. 150); a win-win strategy. Moreover, research suggests that “the negotiation process typically goes through different phases, and there are intercultural differences in the emphasis on each phase. The phases are: building a relationship; exchanging information; trying to persuade each other; making concessions; and reaching agreements” (Thomas & Inkson, 2009, p. 102).

The second major categorical theme, developed from the research, Chapter 4, and guided by the remainder of the 12 self-administered open-ended, unstructured, questions is that of Chinese negotiation styles; which includes the sub-categories, Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies; Chinese business negotiating tactics; Chinese business negotiation approaches; and the initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators.

In response to the sub-category Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies, nearly all negotiator categories, overwhelmingly, stated that the most important aspect of the Chinese negotiation process was having an in-depth understanding of their opponent’s culture, organization, goals, governing system, backgrounds, future plans, avoidance of political discussions, and an atmosphere of mutual respect & trust & benefit-common ground to achieve a win-win for all, and a long-term relationship; also supported by the sources in the literature in Chapter 2; Chang (2003); Fang (1999, 2006); Ghauri (1996); Ghauri and Fang (1999); Ghauri and Usunier (2003); Jehn and Weigelt (1999); Li and Labig (2001); Ma (2006); Ma and Jaeger (2005); Thomas and Livingston (2009); Tu (2007); Wall (1985); Wall and Blum (1991); Zhu, McKenna and Sun (2007). Further, international, Chinese and Taiwanese negotiators suggested that pricing, marketing, technical, R&D, and innovation issues, the final agreement, achieving
goals and flattering the Chinese, were also very important aspects of the Chinese negotiation process.

Additionally, in response to the question, which is more important, achieving short-term goals, or developing long-term relationships; a couple of international, several Chinese and all Taiwanese negotiators respondents, stated that developing long-term relationships to achieve win-win outcomes was most important. In contrast, an overwhelming majority of international business negotiators, and a few remaining Chinese business negotiators argued that achieving short-term goals was more important than developing long-term relationships.

Moreover, all of the respondents, except one international business negotiator, suggested that developing relationships (Guanxi), first with Chinese business people and then getting down to business was the most effective approach during Chinese business negotiations. And one international business negotiator argued that the company’s goals would determine whether developing relationships should come first, over getting down to business right away. These different perspectives are consistent with the sources from the literature in Chapter 2; Adair (1999); Fang (2006); Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Jehn and Weigelt (1999); Ma (2007); Molm, Peterson and Takahashi (1999); Palich, Carini and Livingston (2002); Seligman (1999); Ting-Toomey (1985, 1988); and Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998); and with regards to win-win or win-lose, and competitive or cooperation strategies.

The sources from the literature in Chapter 2, above, argued that a very important element of Chinese negotiation styles was that of mianzi, or saving face, during negotiations with Chinese business people. Therefore, the majority of international, Chinese, and Taiwanese business negotiators stated that saving face during Chinese business negotiations was extremely
important and necessary. In contrast, one international business negotiator argued that saving face is not important in the short-term, only in the long-term.

The above response would arguably be a problem in Chinese business negotiations since the Chinese culture is heavily influenced by Confucianism, which suggests that developing relationships is very important in the short and long-term; consistent with the sources from the literature review, in Chapter 2, listed above. That is, without developing the relationships with Chinese business negotiators during the initial meeting, short-term, the possibility of a long-term relationship is therefore low. To this end, if the international business negotiator seeks a short-term approach, and chooses not to focus on developing a long-term relationship, the company may be required to send another international business negotiator during the next meeting where they would be seeking a long-term relationship with the Chinese business people.

Further, two international and two Chinese business negotiators had contradictory responses, such as saving face is very important, although they would rate saving face a 6 on a scale of 1 to 10, suggesting it is not important, as opposed to very important. And another respondent suggested that saving face is only important if they achieve their goals, otherwise saving face is not important.

With regards to their preferred negotiation strategy, only one international business negotiator, half of the Chinese respondents, and a majority of the Taiwanese business negotiators stated that a cooperative, win-win, Confucian negotiation approach is preferred. In contrast, two international, one Chinese, and two Taiwanese respondents stated that they prefer a more competitive, win-lose, Sun-Tzu approach. And one international, three Chinese and two Taiwanese respondents prefer a combined cooperative and competitive, win-lose, Cooperative Egoism strategy. These different responses are also consistent with the sources in the literature
review, Chapter 2, Adair (1999); Fang (2006); Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Jehn and Weigelt (1999); Ma (2007); Molm, Peterson and Takahashi (1999); Palich, Carini and Livingston (2002); Seligman (1999); Ting-Toomey (1985, 1988); and Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998); and demonstrated how the international negotiators lean towards a more win-lose strategy, whereas the Chinese and Taiwanese are split in their use of a win-win or win-lose strategy.

A majority of international, Chinese and Taiwanese respondents suggested that the decision-making process, during negotiation with Chinese business people, is most effective when focusing on fairness, cooperation, mutual interest, mutual benefits, common ground, in achieving a win-win outcome for all parties; again consistent with the literature review in this study.

Further, two of each of the negotiator category respondents suggested that less important decisions during Chinese business negotiations are made by negotiators themselves; and the more critical decisions are made by a higher authority, or senior executive, within their respective organizations. However, three international business negotiators argue that decision-making is determined by profitability goals. And a few of the Chinese and Taiwanese respondents stated decision-making during Chinese business negotiations is influenced by their opponent’s “sincerity, fairness, attitude, manners and style of conversation.”

In discussing the differences between international and Chinese business negotiators, respondents suggested that international negotiators are eager to achieve goals, even at the expense of the American people’s expense. In contrast, Chinese negotiators are eager to achieve their goals, but not at the Chinese people’s expense. Further, international negotiators’ focus is on the issues; where everything pivots around maximizing benefits, and this becomes the criteria for measurement of effectiveness. And, the Chinese negotiators’ focus is the same as
international negotiators; except that in mainland China, opponents not only want to keep good face, but also want to feel good inside about the issues, achievement of goals, and, achievement of personal benefits.

Also the international negotiation process is more formal and rigid than the Chinese negotiation process; with many differences in identities and ideas. Whereas, the Chinese negotiators are more informal, tolerant, and much more relaxed when negotiating with each other due to similarities in culture, rules and law. Further, the Chinese value collectivism in their culture; with high power distance. And Chinese negotiators, including the chief negotiator, cannot make their own proposals and final decisions; that is, proposals and the final decisions are based on group consensus; also consistent with the sources in the literature review, Chapter 2; Chang (2003); Fang (1999, 2006); Ghauri (1996); Ghauri and Fang (1999); Ghauri and Usunier (2003).

Respondents suggested that with international negotiators the actual business comes first, and then friendships follow. In contrast, during Chinese negotiations, friendships come first and then the business follows. This is consistent with the sources in the literature review; Chang (2003); Fang (1999, 2006); Ghauri (1996); Ghauri and Fang (1999); Ghauri and Usunier (2003); demonstrating the significance of relationships, guanxi, during Chinese business negotiations. Further, international business negotiators argued that saving face should not be taken seriously during Chinese business negotiations, while the Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators argued that saving face, mianzi, is very important; also consistent with the Chinese culture and philosophy supported by the sources in the literature review, Chapter 2; De Groot (2009); Fang (1999, 2006); Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Ghauri and Fang (1999); Grief and Tabelline (2010); and Sommer (1995).
Moreover, the international negotiation process is a more rigid and formal negotiation process. In contrast, the Chinese negotiation process has no established, logical or rigid, format of a negotiation process to follow. And, the negotiation process is determined by the senior Chinese negotiator. Further, international negotiators use a Western based negotiation approach. In contrast, the Chinese negotiators negotiate with international negotiators from a Chinese culture, history, and philosophical perspective. Additionally, Chinese negotiations also have a more bureaucratic element; the Chinese business negotiation Maoist Bureaucrat approach; especially when negotiating with the government. While the Chinese embrace capitalism, in the major cities, at the same time, there is a strong influence from the Chinese government on how to conduct business.

The international negotiators’ culture also tends to be more discrete, and distinctive. In contrast, the Chinese negotiators place a greater emphasis on their culture, history, philosophy, etiquette, and other areas. And international negotiators are able to dissect the complexities of issues into many small and simple questions and answers. And the Chinese negotiators argue that Westerners’ focus on the details causes them to lose sight of the big picture. And the Chinese negotiators tend to treat complexities as a whole. That is, they associate the relationship of the details to the overall big complex picture.

“In feminine cultures, China, for example, there is a preference for resolving conflicts through compromise and negotiation” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 316). Respondents suggested they prefer to resolve conflicts by finding common ground and standards; common interests; cooperation; long-term relationships (which help facilitate conflicts since both parties are committed to a long-term relationship); compromise; all characteristics of a win-win, cooperative and negotiation business exchange (social exchange theory) tactics, where all parties benefit; and
these responses are also consistent with the sources in the literature review, Chapter 2; Fang (2006); Gao and Ting-Toomey (1998); Jehn and Weigelt (1999); Ma (2007); and Molm, Peterson and Takahashi (1999).

Additionally respondents suggested that other approaches to resolving conflicts are face-to-face or head-on approaches; first wait for both parties to calm down, and ease the tension, reflect, regroup, and apply a different round-about tactic; use the legal system; apply leverage to resolve conflicts; treat opponents to a dinner, and other entertainment activities, in order to build the relationship; and conduct a root/cause analysis to determine cause of the conflict.

The research also highlighted that the preferred negotiation tactics by some respondents were listening, cooperative relationships, negotiated business exchanges with mutual benefit (a social exchange theory), reciprocal exchanges (also a social exchange theory), receptivity to opponent’s needs, mutual trust, and friendliness, which lead to a win-win strategy as their preferred strategy. In contrast, some respondents’ preferred negotiation tactics was a combination of cooperation-competition, win-lose, that uses a soft and then hard approach, and has applications found in Sun-Tzu’s stratagems, and in the Cooperative Egoism Chinese negotiation approaches. Both of these opposing responses are consistent with the sources in the literature review in Chapter 2; Ghauri and Fang (1999); Lam (1998); MacFaruhar (2009); Tzu (2009); Zhao (2000); Zhu, McKenna and Sun (2007). Additionally, a few respondents suggested that the preferred negotiation tactic is dependent on their preparation and observations of their opponent’s culture, strategies, and their final decision-maker.

Research suggests that “negotiation is a special communication situation in which the objective is often for people to overcome conflicting interests and to reach an agreement that is advantageous to all” (Thomas & Inkson, 2009, p. 100). Further, the “practice of negotiation
includes the making of threats and promises, the use of persuasion, the signaling of concessions, and the development of compromises and creative solutions. And the existence of cross-cultural differences complicates things” (Thomas & Inkson, 2009, p. 100).

A small proportion of the respondents suggested that they prefer a cooperative business negotiation approach; associated with a win-win strategy, and the Chinese Confucian gentleman approach. In contrast, the majority of the respondents argued that they prefer both a cooperative and then competitive business negotiation approach; which is consistent with a win-lose strategy, and the Sun-Tzu strategist or Maoist bureaucrat approaches. And a few of the respondents stated they prefer to first begin the negotiation process with a cooperative business negotiation approach, the Chinese Confucian gentleman; however, if they cannot achieve their goals, they will resort to the cooperative and competitive business negotiation approach, the Sun-Tzu strategist or Maoist bureaucrat approaches; that is, a combination of two business negotiation strategies: a coop, and then a coop-comp.

The vast majority of the international, Chinese and Taiwanese respondents stated that their preferred discussions during the initial phase of Chinese negotiations relates to a feeling out period; a getting to know one another period; learning about the opponent’s individual and organizational backgrounds and experience; having informal discussions about nearly any topic; avoiding discussions related to the business at hand, at this point; having introductions; the beginning of developing relationships, and guanxi; finding mutual interests; learning opponent’s strategies or plans; exchanging information and ideas; following local protocols; learning of competitors; and understanding each other’s family, and personal interest. Further, a few Taiwanese respondents also stated that it is also important to indirectly establish one’s position.
Additionally, the majority of respondents added that the most important goals to achieve during the initial meeting in international business negotiations is learning about each negotiators’ background, experience and interests; developing mutual trusts, mutual interest, and establishing, and solidify, a long-term relationship; in order to achieve a win-win outcome for all parties involved in the negotiations. In contrast, the remainder, several, of respondents argued that the most important goals to achieve during the initial meeting in international business negotiations were goals already pre-determined by the organizations they represent; also maximizing their benefits; thereby focusing solely on their organizations goals and objectives, and not on their opponents’ interests; a win-lose strategy.

**Conclusion**

Livermore (2010) argues that “learning to negotiate and expand internationally fosters a sense of creativity that can’t be gained” (p. 54) via another method. And, while the negotiation process is challenging when similar cultures are involved, “learning how to achieve win-win outcomes, when dealing with multiple cultural backgrounds, increases a general sense of innovation and creativity that can also be applied across many other aspects of life and work” (Livermore, 2010, p. 54). Livermore further argues that “it’s one thing to understand the cultural differences between Westerners and the Chinese” (p. 54); however, “it is quite another thing to have creatively found a way to develop a working relationship that achieves the respective performance objectives while also demonstrating dignity and honor for one another” (Livermore, 2010, p. 54).

The results and findings of this study has highlighted and provided the in-depth understanding of the many elements that are required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, from the perspective of experienced international, Chinese and
Taiwanese business negotiators; as well as the literature and research findings, suggested that Chinese negotiation styles are, arguably, paradoxical, contradictory, and complex. Further, the elements discussed in these findings associated with the elements discussed in the literature review, such as culture, cultural dimensions, cultural dynamics, global flows, Chinese culture, history, and philosophy, emotional and cultural intelligence, Chinese communications, and Chinese negotiation style elements; demonstrating a very high level of complexity.

Additionally, the findings were presented through various themes, culture and its impact on Chinese business negotiations, and Chinese negotiation styles; which included the sub-categories Chinese business negotiation processes and strategies, Chinese business negotiation tactics, Chinese business negotiation approaches and the initial meeting with Chinese business negotiators. These themes findings were consistent with the literature review, Chapter 2 and the sources identified above.

The conclusions of the findings, supported by the literature review, suggested that culture does have a significant impact on the Chinese and international business negotiation process. Further, understanding the differences in culture can help an international business negotiator, to alter their negotiation strategies, processes, tactics and approaches during the initial meeting with Chinese business people, in order to establish long-term relationships that can yield win-win, or win-lose outcomes, through the application of cooperative, competitive, or the combined cooperative-competitive strategies. These negotiation applications will help determine the appropriate Chinese business negotiation approaches, Confucian gentleman, Sun-Tzu-like strategist, or Maoist Bureaucrat that may be used.

Moreover, conclusions were consistent with the literature by highlighting the many differences between international and Chinese business negotiators that are influenced by their
respective cultures, and by having an understanding of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, international business negotiators may be able to succeed during the initial meeting with Chinese business people, by focusing on commonalities, mutual interest, mutual benefits, guanxi, mianzi, in achieving win-win outcomes. However, since Chinese business people also practice win-lose strategies, international business negotiators with an understanding of the elements required to conduct effective negotiations with Chinese business people will also have an understanding on how to alter their negotiation strategies depending on the strategy of their opponents.

Limitations

Research suggests that a phenomenon will have biases due to the interactive process that is influenced by an individual’s, international, Chinese and Taiwanese business negotiators in this study, political, economic, social and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, biases are inevitable. Further, cultural biases will also exist, regardless of the sophisticated translation equivalence techniques used. Additionally, the self-administered questionnaire included biases, even though precautions were made to minimize the biases, and leading questions. Therefore, although the researcher took measures to minimize these biases, they nevertheless still exist.

Another limitation in this study, as discussed in previous chapters, was that of costs, since the study focused on international, Chinese and Taiwanese people, who reside, in different countries and primarily in the East. This limitation has affected the availability of participants due to distance and, therefore, cultural differences in responding to questionnaires. And as discussed in previous chapters, the Chinese culture suggests building of relationships and guanxi before opening up to others, especially people from foreign countries. This was also a limitation in this study.
Implications for Research

The researcher has argued that culture is not static, but constantly changing, heavily influenced by global flows resulting from the interrelationships between many different countries and therefore, many different cultures. Further, researchers argue that the eastern and southeastern parts of China, the more industrialized areas, are more heavily influenced by Western culture, and inner, western China, is more traditional.

Therefore, since culture has such a significant impact on Chinese and international business negotiations, the implications from this study is that as cultures change, the business negotiation processes, strategies, tactics, and approaches may also need to change. And international business negotiators must understand the continuous changing cultural environment, prior to engaging in international business negotiations.

Additionally, negotiation strategies focus on win-win, win-lose, or cooperation, competition, or the combined cooperation-competition strategies. The researcher has argued that these negotiation strategies are practiced in different countries. However, where they differ relates directly with the country-specific cultural influences. In this study, the Chinese culture and philosophy suggested that elements of the Confucianism philosophy, Sun-Tzu’s stratagems, and Mao’s bureaucracy, convey the use of these cultural elements, specific to China, in the universally practiced negotiation strategies win-win, win-lose, or cooperation, competition, or the combined cooperation-competition.

That is, these universally accepted negotiation strategies can be applied to different countries’ negotiation process, only an international business negotiator must have an understanding of the impact of the country-specific culture; different from China, for example. Arguably, the implication is that these universal negotiation strategies would have to be adjusted
to include an in-depth understanding of the specific country an international business negotiator wishes to negotiate with.

Moreover, as China continues to emerge itself in the global arena, the opportunities and implications that this study will have on future research in academics is unlimited. That is, as culture evolves, and Chinese business people gain more international business negotiation experience and international business negotiators gain a better understanding of the Chinese culture and philosophy, and its impact on Chinese business negotiations, and as China’s demographic changes impacts their future economy, the possibilities for additional academic research will be limitless.

Additional areas for future research would be related to the influence that China’s political system has, and will have, on Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations. Further, Perkins and Rawski (2008) argue that “China’s growth in the next twenty years will have implications for the rest of the world” (p. 34). Added to this phenomenon, is the future effects of China’s aging population to Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations, where Morrow (2010) argues that China’s work force will shrink by over 200 million people, and Wang (2006) argues that China’s middle class will increase to approximately 600 million people. The researcher argues that these events will cause changes to the existing literature relating to Chinese business negotiations in international business negotiations and would therefore be an area for future research.


APPENDIXES
APPENDIX A

Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations Survey – English
Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations
Survey Instrument

The researcher is currently conducting a research project in support of a doctoral dissertation. The title of this survey research project is *Chinese Negotiating Styles in International Business Negotiations*. As a part of the survey research, you are asked to complete and return this survey. Your participation is voluntary and a decision on your part to not participate will not be held against you. Further, any information you provide will be confidential and retained in a secure location for a period of no less than three years. At the end or three years, all survey or interview documentation and data will be destroyed. Your completion and return of this survey with this research project will be interpreted with your implied consent.

**Survey Introduction**

China, after decades of unprecedented economic growth, has passed Japan as the world’s second largest economy. In spite of this economic growth, research suggests that entering the Chinese market will be a great challenge for companies from other countries, especially those from the West. Additionally, increase trade between the U.S. and China, in recent years has increased the need to develop an understanding of Chinese cultures, customs, Chinese negotiating processes, strategies, and styles; especially since Western companies have expressed frustration and confusion when negotiating business with the Chinese. And, research suggests that the Chinese strategies, processes and styles are heavily influenced by patterns developed throughout their past history; thousands of years of experience. Therefore, the intent and purpose of this research topic focuses on the importance of understanding both what influences Chinese negotiators and the different negotiation styles that they apply during international negotiations. Further, in understanding what influences Chinese negotiators, this study will also focus on understanding Chinese culture and philosophy, emotional and cultural intelligence, Chinese communications, and Chinese negotiating strategies, processes and styles.

**General Information: Please put an x in the circle that best describes you or provide a response where requested.**

1. What is your country of origin?
   - O China
   - O U. S.
   - O Other ____________

2. Gender
   - O Male
   - O Female

3. Which of the following best describes your job category? (Check one).
   - O Purchasing
   - O Marketing
   - O Sales
   - O Management
O Other (Please explain): ____________________

4. What is your education level?
   O High School Diploma
   O Associates
   O Bachelor
   O Masters
   O Doctoral

5. Please provide your age range
   O 20-29
   O 30-39
   O 40-49
   O 50-59
   O 60-69
   O Other

Please respond to the following questions as best as you can.

1. How important is it, to have an understanding of an opponent’s culture before and during international negotiations?

2. Please describe the most important cultural skills you apply during negotiations.

3. How important is non-verbal communication during international business negotiations? Please explain.

4. What do you prefer to discuss during the first stage of negotiations? Please explain.

5. Please describe the significance of a legal contract during the negotiation process.

6. What do you value as the most important aspect of the negotiation? Please explain.

7. Is it more important to achieve one’s goals during the short-term, or build a long-term relationship where everyone wins? Please explain.
8. Please describe the importance of developing relationships versus getting down to the negotiating task right away. Which is more important and which should come first?

9. How do you prefer to resolve conflicts during international negotiations? Please explain.

10. How important is saving face during the negotiation process? Please explain.

11. How is the negotiation process different with international negotiators then with Chinese negotiators? Please explain.

12. Which do you prefer during international negotiations, a cooperative approach, a competitive approach, or a cooperative and competitive approach? Please explain.

13. Which negotiation strategy do you prefer to use during international business negotiations? Please explain.

14. What is your preferred negotiation tactics during international business negotiations? Please explain.

15. What do you perceive are the most important goals to be achieved during the initial meeting of negotiations with international negotiations? Please explain.

16. During negotiations, how are decisions made? Please explain.

Thank you for participating.
APPENDIX B

Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations Survey – Chinese
(Simplified Chinese)

国际商务谈判过程里的“中国谈判风格”

调查问题指示

您好！我正在进修博士学位，需要进行以下研究项目问题的支持。论文的标题是在国际商务谈判是否有所谓的独特的中国式的谈判风格。在研究的过程之间，您将会被要求填写并交回问卷。您的参与是自愿的，若您不愿意参加此调查绝对无妨。此外，任何您提供的信息将被保密，并保留在一个安全的知识存户内为期至少三年。在此三年底之后，所有问卷或访谈的文件和数据将会被销毁。您对这一研究项目填妥及交回的问卷将被考查及解释

问卷的简介

中国经过最近 20 年来的史无前例的经济增长，已超过日本而成为世界第二大经济体系。尽管这种经济增长，由国际之研究中展示，对中国国家设立的公司而论，尤其是来自西方的公司，想打入中国市场将会是一个巨大的挑战。此外，近几年美国和中国之间增长了如此多的各类贸易，更加需要建立对中国文化，习俗的了解的必要。与中国谈判的过程，战略和风格，特别是由于西方国家的公司都表示在与中国洽谈业务中常遇到挫折和困惑而且，研究中发现，中国的战略，流程和样式的模式，是受了过去数千年整个发展历史的经验而得的严重的影响。因此，此研究的意图和目的，将会以了解什么元素对中国式的谈判方式影响最大，以及中国适用的于国际谈判不同的谈判风格为重点。此外，需要了解谈判中哪些是中国文情主要的影响因素，这项研究也将着重于了解中华文化和理念，情感和文化智慧，中国通信，中国谈判策略，流程和风格。

一般消息：请把一个 X 放在最能描述你或要求提供答案的圈内

一般消息：请把一个 X 放在最能描述你或要求提供答案的圈内。

1。您是属哪一国的起源？

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<td>O 其他__________</td>
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2。性别

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<td>O 男</td>
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3。以下哪项最能描述你的工作类别？（选择一项）

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1. 在国际谈判之前和交谈期间，对一位您将交谈的对手的文化背景的了解，是否要有多大的重要性？

____________________________________________________________________________________

2. 请描述你在谈判过程中应用的到最重要的文化方面的技能。

____________________________________________________________________________________

3. 在国际商务谈判中，不属于言语的沟通，（若神情、体态、仪表上）有多大的重要性？请解释。

____________________________________________________________________________________
4. 在第一阶段的谈判初期，您喜欢用什么方面开始讨论？请解释。

5. 请说明您认为“法律合同”在谈判过程中有何重要性及意义。

6. 您认为在谈判内容方面最有价值性的是那些方面？请解释。

7. 是实现自己在短期内可得的目标比较重要，还是建立长期合作关系使每个人都是赢家比较重要？请解释。

8. 请描述发展及培养相互关系的重要，相对和开门见山的立即进行谈判细节任务。请问哪项比较重要，哪项应该先提出来谈？

9. 你喜欢怎么样来解决国际谈判中的冲突？请解释。
10. 在谈判过程中，“面子”问题是如何重要？请解释。

11. 在国际性的谈判和与自己中国的谈判，谈判过程中是有何不同？请解释。

12. 在国际谈判中，您心女较喜欢合作的态度，还是采取有竞争力的方法，或以合作和竞争双管同下？请解释。

13. 在国际商务谈判时，你更喜欢使用哪些谈判策略手段？请解释。

14. 在国际商务谈判时，什么是您认为是较适宜您(您喜欢的)谈判策略？请解释。

15. 在与国际谈判的谈判的一次会议期间，你认为什么是最重要的目标得实现？请解释。

16. 在谈判过程中，您采取什么角度来衡量如何做各种决定呢？请解释。

非常感谢您参与您珍贵的感想。
(Traditional Chinese)

國際商業談判過程裏的“中國談判風格”

調查問題指示

您好! 我正在進修博士論文, 需得進行以下研究項目問題的支持。論文的標題是在國際商務談判是否有所謂的獨特的中國式的談判風格。在研究的過程之間，您將會被要求填寫並交回問卷。您的參與是自願的。若您不願意參加此調查絕對無妨。此外，任何您提供的信息將被保密，並保留在一個安全的知識存戶內為期至少三年。在此三年底之後，所有問卷或訪談的文件和數據將會被銷毀。您對這一研究項目填妥及交回的問卷將被考查及解釋

問卷的簡介

中國經過最近 20 年來史無前例的經濟增長，已超過日本而成為世界第二大經濟體系。儘管這種經濟增長，由國際之研究中展示，對從具他國家設立的公司而論，尤其是來自西方的國家，想打入中國市場將會是一個巨大的挑戰。此外，近幾年美國和中國之間增長了如此多的各類貿易，就更加需要建立對中國文化，習俗的了解的必要。與中國談判的過程，戰略和風格，特別是由於西方國家的公司都表示在與中國洽談業務中常遇到挫折和困惑而且，研究中發現，中國的戰略，流程和樣式的模式，是受了過去數千年整個發展歷史的經驗而得的嚴重的影響。因此，此研究的意圖和目的，將會以了解什麼元素對中國式的談判方式影響最大，以及中國適用的於國際談判不同的談判風格為重點。此外，需要了解談判中哪些是中國文情主要的影響因素，這項研究也將著重於了解中華文化和理念，情感和文化智慧，中國通信，中國談判策略，流程和風格。

一般訊息：請把一個 × 放在最能描述你或要求提供答案的圈內。

1. 您是屬哪一國的起原？
   ○ 中國
   ○ 美國
   ○ 其他______________

2. 性別
   ○ 男
   ○ 女

3. 以下哪項最能描述你的工作類別？（選擇一項）。
   ○ 採購
   ○ 營銷
請以您、最佳表達能力來回答下列問題。

1. 在國際談判之前和交談期間，對一位您將得交談的對手的文化背景的了解，是否要有多大的重要性？

____________________________________________________________

2. 請描述你在談判過程中應用的到最重要的文化方面的技能。

____________________________________________________________

3. 在國際商務談判中，不屬於言語的溝通（若神情、體態、儀表上）有多大的重要性？請解釋。

____________________________________________________________
4. 在第一階段的談判初期，您喜歡用什麼方面開始討論？請解釋。

5. 請說明您認為“法律合同”在談判過程中有何重要性及意義。

6. 您認為在談判內容方面最有價值性的是那些方面？請解釋。

7. 是實現自己在短期內可得的目標比較重要，或是建立長期合作關係使每個人都是贏家比較重要？請解釋。

8. 請描述發展及培養相互關係的重要，相對和開門見山的立即進行談判細節任務。請問哪項比較重要，哪項應該先提出來談？

9. 你喜歡怎麼樣來解決國際談判中的衝突？請解釋。
10. 在談判過程中, “面子” 問題是何時重要？請解釋。

11. 在國際性的談判和與自己中國的談判, 談判過程中是有何不同？請解釋。

12. 在國際談判中, 您會較喜歡合作的態度, 還是採取有競爭力的方法, 或以合作和競爭雙管齊下？請解釋。

13. 在國際商務談判時，你更喜歡使用哪些談判策略手段？請解釋。

14. 在國際商務談判時, 什麼是您應為是較最適宜您 (您喜歡的) 談判策略？請解釋。

15. 在與國際談判的談判的一次會議期間, 你認為什麼是最重要的目標得實現？請解釋。

16. 在談判過程中，您採取什麼角度來衡量如何作各種決定呢？請解釋。
很多謝您參與您珍貴的感想。
APPENDIX C

IRB Documents
Application for IRB Review and Certification of Compliance:

Expedited Application Form Checklist

Expedited Review (Level 2) Application, Moderate Risk

To the Principal Investigator or a research project:

1. Please review the documents listed below that pertains to your research project. In the event that your project does require the use of any of the listed documents, attach a copy of that document to the application submitted for IRB review.

2. Please be advised that research projects involving interaction with human participants must have an Informed Consent Form(s) attached. If a minor or incapacitated individual of any age is involved, parent/guardian permission must be included.

3. Parental permission does not negate the child’s right to chose to not participate.

4. If you are conducting a research project in another institution (e.g., a hospital or school), you must attach a signed permission letter from a supervisor/administrator who is in a position to grant you permission to conduct the research at that site. The letter must be on institutional letterhead and must have an original signature.

5. If that institution also has a Human Subjects Review Committee—often referred to as the Institutional Review Board (IRB)—then written permission from the participating institution’s IRB must be attached to your IRB application.

6. If you are conducting the research outside of the United States, attach a letter of assurance that where the research is being conducted.

Please check: The attached Application for Certification of Compliance contains

☐ Institutional Permission Letter (where research is taking place)
Assurance of Adherence to Governmental Regulations concerning Human Subjects (if research project is conducted outside the US)

Letter(s) of Informed Consent

Parent/guardian Permission Letter (must have provision for written signature)

Oral statement of Assurance (used with minors)

Data-gathering instruments: Observation, Interview, Survey

Conflict of Interest Disclosure Statement

Also required on your application:

CRP or Dissertation Chairperson/Research Supervisor’ signature

Principal Investigator’s signature (2 places)

Packet reviewed by CRP or Dissertation Chairperson/Research Supervisor Initials _____
Application for IRB Review and Certification of Compliance

Expedited Cover Sheet

IRB#: _____________

Date Logged: ____________

Expedited Review (Level 2) Application, Moderate Risk

Principal Investigator/Researcher’s Name: José Aníbal Torres  Student ID Number: Confidential

Type of Research Project: Dissertation

Title of Research Project: Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations

Principal Investigator/Researcher’s Address: Confidential

Telephone Number: Confidential

Research Dissertation Committee Chair’s Name: Dr. Gordana Pesakovic

College:                                  BUS                PBS                   EDUC
                                              HS                       OTHER

Degree: Doctor of Business Administration   Program of Study: International Business

Project Proposed Start Date: 2/15/2011       Project Proposed Completion Date: 3/15/2011

Signature of Principal Investigator/Researcher _____________________________/__________

Signature of Research Dissertation Committee Chair: _______________________/__________

IRB Certification Signatures: ____________________________________________/_________

______________________________________________________________/_______________

The above named research project is certified for compliance with Argosy University’s requirements for the protection of human research participants with the following conditions:
1. Research must be conducted according to the research project that was certified by the IRB.

2. Any changes to the research project, such as procedures, consent or assent forms, addition of participants, or study design must be reported to and certified by the IRB.

3. Any adverse events or reactions must be reported to the IRB immediately.

4. The research project is certified for the specific time period noted in this application; any collection of data from human participants after time period is in violation of IRB policy.

5. When the study is complete, the investigator must complete a Completion of Research form.

6. Any future correspondence should be through the principal investigator’s research Dissertation Committee Chair and include the assigned IRB project number and the project title.

DO NOT COLLECT DATA PRIOR TO RECEIVING IRB CERTIFICATION

Notes:

- Please complete this cover and the Petition in detail. Every question must be answered. Please type your answers.

- Attached the appropriate documents and submit the entire application materials under the cover of a completed Application Checklist to the Dissertation Chairperson.

- Do not proceed with any research work with participants until IRB Certification is obtained.
• If any change occurs in the procedure, sample size, research focus, or other element of the project impacts participants, the IRB must be notified in writing with the appropriate form (see ancillary forms).

• Please allow 30 days for processing.
Application for IRB Certification of Compliance

Expedited Application

Expedited Review (Level 2) Application, Moderate Risk

Research with minors, prisoners, mentally/emotionally/physically challenged persons, pregnant women, fetuses, in vitro fertilization, and/or individual or group studies where the investigator manipulates the participants’ behavior or the subject is exposed to stressful or invasive experiences do(es) not qualify for Expedited status.

Please completely answer the requested information (NA is not acceptable for any question).

Begin typing in the gray boxes.

1. Purpose of the Study:

   The purpose of this study is to contribute to the gap in literature on the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people; and since the literature on negotiation styles has been traditionally Western biased, this will add research in understanding effective Chinese negotiations in international business negotiations.

2. Summary of the Study, Methodology (Be Specific – attach extra page if needed).

   This study will use a self-administered survey questionnaire with structured questions to capture, only, demographic data, and unstructured, open-ended, questions that will be used to respond to the research question what are the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people. Further, the open-ended questions will also be used for the telephone interviews, in capturing the in-depth understanding that is required for this qualitative research project. The survey will begin with a brief explanation of the research title, a statement of consent, privacy, confidentiality and voluntary participation.
This will be followed by a very brief introduction of the research topic; with a focus on avoiding any biases or leading statements.

To address the language limitation and quality of translation equivalence, the researcher will be using different Chinese-native translators, with an expertise in not only Chinese, but also English. And the translation equivalence process that the researcher will use is as follows: translate the initial survey questionnaire in English into Chinese. This Chinese translation will be translated back to English, by another translator. If this translation process generates any major differences, then corrections will be made by using a different translator that will be able to edit the differences; and that will result in the final Chinese version of the survey questionnaire. The responses from the participants will follow a similar translation process to assure translation equivalence.

The self-administered survey questionnaire will be electronically distributed, via email, with a WORD attachment that includes the self-administered survey questionnaire, to participants. The Letter of Informed Consent will also be included in the email. Further, the survey, as discussed above, will provide a brief explanation about privacy, consent, confidentiality and that participation is voluntary. Additionally, participants will receive instructions for returning their responses. Moreover, participants will be asked to return their responses in two weeks or sooner. And completing the survey should take approximately 20 to 25 minutes. Participation in the survey will confirm the participants’ informed consent.

3. Subject/participant Demographics:
   a. Anticipated Sample Size: 25 participants
   b. Special Ethnic Groups: Chinese and International Business Negotiators
c. Institutionalized No Protected Group (describe): **This category is not applicable to this study**

d. Age group: **Adults over the age of 18 years old**

e. General State of Health: **This category is not applicable to this study**

f. Other details to describe sample group: **No other details to describe sample group for this study**

4. Will deception be used in the study? **No**

5. Will audio or videotapes be used in the study: **No**

6. Confidentiality protection issues (pertains to audio and video as well as written documents.)

   a. What precautions will be taken to insure the privacy and anonymity of the participants? (i.e., closed doors, private rooms, handling of materials where subject’s identity could be discovered, etc). There will be no audio or video for this research. As discussed earlier, survey questionnaires will be transmitted via emails to the participants’ email addresses; and all responses will be returned via email to the researcher. Therefore, the only protection issue relates to the participants’ email, and confidentiality will be maintained per the contents within the Participant Informed Consent Form attached, and according to Federal and Argosy University’s IRB standards. For interviews, confidentiality will be maintained per the contents of the Participant Informed Consent Form, attached and according to Federal and Argosy University’s IRB standards.

   b. What specific precautions will be taken to safeguard and protect subject’s confidentiality while handling the data (audio/video/paper) both in researcher’s
possession and in reporting the findings? (i.e., coding, removal of identifying data). All information collected will not be associated with the individual participants’ identity and the data collected will be consolidated into a large aggregate, based on coding, classification and categorization. The results of the study will be based on the aggregate and not the individual participants.

c. Describe procedures where confidentiality may be broken by law (e.g., child abuse, suicidal intent). The researcher does not plan to collect sensitive data from any and all protected groups. Further, the data collected will be reviewed, seen or read, by the researcher only. And confidentiality will be maintained in accordance to the Argosy University IRB standards, and federal laws for the protection of human subjects.

7. Review by institutions outside of Argosy University/Sarasota Yes (Attach copies of Assurance of Adherence to Governmental Regulations Concerning Human Subjects, IRB certifications, and any other relevant documents). There will be no review by institutions outside of Argosy University – Sarasota, except in China, where the research will be conducted via emails. Therefore, attached is the Assurance of Adherence to Governmental Regulations Concerning Human Subjects signed by the candidate.

8. Informed Consent and Assent (Attach copies of all relevant forms). If consent is not necessary (e.g., anonymous interview), describe how you will inform all participants of the elements of consent (see instructions). All participants will receive a Letter of Informed Consent (English version attached) in their native and primary language (Chinese version to be attached). The Letter of Informed Consent counsels participants that their participation is voluntary and by their electing to participate, they are giving
their informed consent to participate. And no signature or other methodology that identifies a participant will be requested or collected during the study in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

9. If written or oral informed consent is required, describe the manner in which consent and/or assent was obtained for each category).

   a. Adult Participants (18 years and older – written consent required). Participants will receive a copy of the attached Letter of Informed Consent in their primary language, as discussed above. However, participants will be counseled that their participation constitutes their informed consent to participate.

   b. Child Participants (under 18 – parent/guardian permission and participant assent required). This category is not applicable to this study.

   c. Institutionalized participants (parent/guardian/conservator permission with appropriate participant assent). This category is not applicable to this study.

10. Describe any possible physical, psychological, social, legal, economic or other risks to participants (Attach another page if needed). There are no risks to participants.

   a. Describe the precautions taken to minimize risk to participants. This category is not applicable to this study.

   b. Describe procedures implemented for correcting harm caused by participating in the study (e.g., follow-up calls, referral to appropriate agencies). This category is not applicable to this study.

11. Potential benefit of the study:

   a. Assess the potential benefit(s) of the study for the participants: There will be no immediate personal or direct monetary benefits to participants.
b. Assess the potential benefit(s) to the professional audience in the study: The results of the study will add an understanding of the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people in international business negotiations.

As the principal investigator, I attest that all of the information on this form is accurate, and that every effort has been made to provide the reviewers with complete information related to the nature and procedures to be followed in the research project. Additional forms will be immediately filed with the IRB to report any change in participant(s), selection process, principal investigator, or faculty dissertation chair, as well as notification of any adverse incidents and final completion date of project. I also attest to treat human participants ethically and in compliance with all applicable state and federal rules and regulations that apply to this study, particularly as they apply to research work conducted in countries other than the United States.

Signature Principal Investigator

Date

Signature of Research Committee Chair

Date

Attach any other forms, tests, institutional permission slips, etc., relative to this study. Failure to do so will result in delayed processing of the certification form.
Assurance of Adherence to Governmental Regulations Concerning Human Subjects

Title of Research Project: Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations

Principal Investigator: José Aníbal Torres

Location of Research Outside of the United States: People’s Republic of China

The undersigned doctoral candidate, José Aníbal Torres, agrees to abide by the laws and regulations of the governing bodies that preside over participants in the People’s Republic of China.

José Aníbal Torres                             Date
Argosy University – Sarasota
Participant Informed Consent Form

Dear Participant,

You are cordially invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this research study is to contribute to the gap in literature on the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people; and in understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations. If you participate in this research, you will be asked to respond to the questions on demographics, and open-ended questions, in your own words, about the elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people.

There are no risks associated with your participation. And your participation will take approximately 20 to 25 minutes.

Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate at all, or choose to stop your participation at any point in the research, without fear of penalty or negative consequences of any kind.

The information and data you provide for this research will be treated confidentially, and all raw data will be kept in a secured file by the researcher. Results of the research will be reported as aggregate summary data only.

You also have the right to review the results of the research if you wish to do so. A copy of the results may be obtained by contacting the researcher at the address below:

José A. Torres
Confidential Address

There will be no direct or immediate personal benefits from your participation in this research; although, the results of the research may contribute to a better understanding of elements required to conduct an effective negotiation with Chinese business people, and in understanding Chinese negotiation styles in international business negotiations.

Your participation in this survey is your consent to participate, acknowledging that you have read and understand the foregoing information explaining the purpose of this research, and your rights and responsibilities as a participant. Neither your name nor your signature is required and no individually identifiable information will be collected.
Application for IRB Review and Certification of Compliance

Expedited Cover Sheet

IRB#: B11-004
Date Logged: 2/21/11

Expedited Review (Level 2) Application, Moderate Risk

Principal Investigator/Researcher’s Name: Joel Aguilar Torres
Student ID Number: [Redacted]

Type of Research Project: Dissertation

Title of Research Project: Chinese Negotiation Styles in International Business Negotiations

Principal Investigator/Researcher’s Address: [Redacted]

Telephone Number: Confidential

Research Dissertation Committee Chair’s Name: Dr. Gordana Pesakovic

College: BUS X PBS ☐ EDUC ☐ HS ☐ OTHER ☐

Degree: Doctor of Business Administration
Program of Study: International Business

Project Proposed Start Date: 3/15/2011
Project Proposed Completion Date: 5/15/2011

Signature of Principal Investigator/Researcher: [Redacted]
Signature of Research Dissertation Committee Chair: [Redacted]
IRB Certification Signatures: [Redacted]

The above named research project is certified for compliance with Argosy University’s requirements for the protection of human research participants with the following conditions:
APPENDIX D

Participant Informed Consent Form – Chinese
亲爱的参与者，

我们诚挚地邀请您参加一项研究。本研究的目的是研究如何促进与中国的商界人士进行有效的谈判。在文辞上的差距，以及了解在国际商务谈判时，中国商界采取的谈判方式。如果您参加这个研究，您将会被要求回答人口统计学的问题，开放式的问题，在您自己的言谈，及您认为与您中国商务人士进行有效的谈判将采取有关内容需要。

您的参与将对您没有任何相关风险。此参与调查表将大约只需要20至25分钟的时间。

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Mr. José A. Torres
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您参与这个研究将不会得有任何人直接或个人的利益，虽然其结果可能将能有助于与中国商务人士所需的要素来进行更有效的谈判而可得引更好地了解的读者，并对中国在国外洽谈业务上具有更深的了解。

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先多谢，致祝安祺
(Chinese Traditional)

參與者知情同意書

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我們誠摯地邀請您參加一項研究。本研究的目的是研究如何速進與中國的商界人士進行有效的談判，在文辭上的差距，以及了解在國際商務談判時，中國商界採取的談判方式。如果您參加這個研究，您將會被要求回答人口統計學的問題，開放式的問題，在您自己的言談，及您認為與您中國商務人士進行有效的談判將採取有關內容需要。

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您參加本次調查將是您自身同意參與，請確認您已閱讀並理解上述資料的說明本研究的目的，及您作為一個參與者的權利和責任。您的尊姓大名及您的簽名都是無必需的，沒有任何個人身份信息將會被任何人或機構所收集。

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