

“The Role Emotions Play in Negotiations”

by

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Abstract

“The present study investigated how emotions influence the course of negotiations, including an analysis on how individuals respond when experiencing either negative or positive emotions or both. It also evaluates a list of main emotions, and classify what is known as basic emotions. By exploring different theories which goes from in favour of emotions in negotiation, to the complete opposite views, and also different segments such as gender and cultural background of the disputant parties. It argues for an understanding of how emotions can be used as a strategy during negotiation to reach the outcome expected”

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Negotiation is part of every individuals' life regularly, many times without being acknowledged by the negotiator in question. Whether in a job offer or buying a new outfit, negotiation is there even when it does not require any special skills (Kleef & Côté, 2018). Looking from the prospective commercial negotiation then becomes more evident and at times, more intense. Some buyers and sellers can be seen or be considered more or less aggressive to what extent depending very much on the way they behave during the negotiation process. Negotiation, however, takes place in many different occupational segments, for instance, commodities negotiated by two or more countries — resolution of conflicts within organizational groups, families, within a group of friends.

There are many factors which direct and indirect affect the course of negotiation as well as its outcomes, for instance, emotions. According to Irvine and Farrington emotion is a crucial concern: 'In a negotiation, particularly a bitter personal dispute, emotions may be more relevant than talk (Irvine & Farrington, 2016), another author suggests that emotions are the root both to the origins of and the inclination for conscious thought" (Izard, 2009).

Over the past decade, however, suggest Brooks, researchers have begun examining how specific emotions—anger, sadness, disappointment, anxiety, envy, excitement, and regret—can affect the behaviour of negotiators. They have studied the differences between what happens when people experience such emotions and when these emotions are expressed to the other party through words or actions. In negotiations which involve parties in long-term relationships and contain a less degree of transactional aspect, the comprehension of the role emotions play is even more critical than it is in transactional deal-making (Brooks, 2015).

The power emotions have in negotiation goes from an everyday conflict between colleagues or family members to a large-scale political affair; its potential can either facilitate or impede a wise agreement. Shapiro sustains the idea that negotiators neither can get rid of emotions, nor should they try (Shapiro, 2005).

As well as negotiation, emotions are part of our everyday life, and it is not possible to stop having emotions; the key is to be aware of the emotions in place. Regarding the reason why one engages in a negotiation process, the outcome expected is to reach a wise agreement in which parts will benefit from (Leary, et al., 2013). In order to achieve that wisely, there are some non-measurable aspects which must be considered, emotions, which indeed has been neglected by researchers until recently (Olekals & Druckman, 2008) and (Kleef, et al., 2004), has proven to be an essential aspect. Decision making was considered to be a cognitive process – a matter of estimating which of several alternative actions would better suggest positive consequences (Loewenstein & Lerner, 2006), the interest in learning about emotion is not only exploding but also changing rapidly (Linder, 2014) and (Poblet & Casanovas, 2007).

According to Warren, conflict is essential to living, and emotion is fundamental to the emergence and resolution of conflict. Early theoretical approaches to emotion described it in terms of physiological states, but more recent research points to its connection to cognitive appraisal and goal progress. Specifically, one of the characteristics emotions have is mediate between cognition and behaviour (Warren, 2015).

This paper aims to understand the role of emotions in negotiations better. Also, to understand how emotions act in an individual during a negotiation process.

The author first introduces the topic followed by the goals and objectives to be reached at the end of the project.

In the following chapter, the researcher provides an overview of negotiations and conflict as the cause of negotiations and continues in emotions and the challenge faced by the theorists to

define emotions. It is provided with a list of the most prevalent emotions according to different specialists

The literature review aims to cover the most relevant literature on the topic; the role emotions play in negotiations with a brief coverage in mediation and the dynamics of emotions during the negotiations occurring in mediation.

The following section then presents the methodology adopted along with the objectives to be reached in the conclusion of this work.

Chapter 2 - Aims & Objectives

In a conflict scenario, there are innumerable variables that take place and also influence the outcome of any attempt to resolve a conflict. This study aims to investigate the impact emotions have in negotiations and also to identify which emotions are in place. Thereby enabling a more deeply analyses on how emotions shape negotiations outcome, as well as identify the importance of this factor during the negotiation process. Another form of alternative dispute resolution that the author briefly approached is mediation and the importance of emotion during negotiation taking place during the mediation.

The objective will be based on collecting data from the known literature focusing on conflict management articles and books. The author intends to consult literature explicitly relating to negotiation and mediation, relying on specialist's opinions and studies on the topic. Also, to collect data relating to emotions and psychological literature respecting the same rationale regarding specialists' opinions and studies in order to analyse data from both sets. The outcome of the research will be to establish the impact and influence emotions have in negotiations.

2.1 Research Questions

The study, while finding theoretical support to the research aims stated above, will also find possible answers to the following:

1. How emotions shape negotiation?
2. Do gender and cultural differences have any influence on the outcome?

Chapter 3 Conflicts – The Cause of Negotiations

Most people act out because they prefer a conflict they know to the resolutions they cannot wholly imagine (White & White, 2001-2002)

The literature covering the definition about what is conflict is extensive, and many authors agree that in any human interaction there are people with different interest, goals, and perspectives when they fail to find common ground to meet their objectives a disagreement or conflict arises (Nahavandi et al., 2014). Kleef and Coté adopted a different approach and stated that conflict occurs when parties perceive that they hold different views, have incompatible goals and aspirations, in their definition were added as conflict motivation further to incompatibility of goals or aspirations parties may also engage in inappropriate behaviours (Kleef & Coté, 2018). Another literature from Kleef proposes that conflict is a ubiquitous feature of social life, pervading social interactions, and influencing people's behaviour throughout all levels of society (Kleef et al., 2004). Sometimes at the oddest times—and, on occasion, latent conflict may explode into sheer nastiness, and it may reside mainly below the surface, but it also may break into the open (Nahavandi et al., 2014).

3.1 Major Causes of Conflict

The nature of the conflict is also a vast subject and ranges from entirely personal issues to international politics, and it may be experienced with a friend, a classmate, a co-worker, a supervisor, or a subordinate (Nahavandi, et al., 2014). Wertheim argues that opposing interests (or the idea of opposing interests) are at the core of most conflicts. Nowadays, with the complexity of modern society, any individual is subject to face these situations several times a day (Wertheim, 2013).

Some authors (Wertheim, 2013) and (Nahavandi et al., 2014) presented a summarized list of the major causes of conflicts:

- Competition over scarce resources, time
- Ambiguity over responsibility and authority:
- Differences in perceptions, work styles, attitudes, communication problems, individual differences
- Increasing interdependence as boundaries between individuals and groups become increasingly blurred
- Reward systems: we work in situations with complex and often contradictory incentive systems
- Differentiation: division of labour which is the basis for any organization causes people and groups to see situations differently and have different goals
- Equity vs equality: continuous tension exists between equity (the belief that we should be rewarded relative to our relative contributions) and equality (the belief that everyone should receive the same or similar outcomes).
- People must have opposing interests, thoughts, perceptions, and feelings.

Kleef & Côté (Kleef & Côté, 2018) on the other hand state that arguably the most prevalent and consequential forms are conflicts of interest (disagreements about the distribution of scarce resources such as money, time, products, or territory) and value conflicts (disagreements about personal norms, values, and beliefs about right or wrong) which is the top item on the previous list. In order to achieve a resolution managing conflict, constructively and negotiating well is essential (Nahavandi et al., 2014). Kleef citing Pruitt and Carnevale (1993) defines negotiation as "a discussion between two or more parties with the apparent aim of resolving a divergence of interests" (p. 2) and defends that is one of the most common and constructive ways of dealing with conflict. (Kleef, et al., 2004)

Negotiations can be shaped in many different forms depending very much on the particular characteristics of each individual case, the issue being discussed, and the number of parties involves definitely aspects to be taken into consideration. Negotiation involving two parties discussing over a single issue is the purest form of negotiation whereas negotiations involving various matters, multiple parties or representatives speaking on behalf of another are unquestionably more complex process of negotiations. These factors also impact in the negotiation' length being negotiations can be short-lasting or long-lasting, ranging from a single offer that may or may not be accepted by the recipient to negotiations that go on for decades, which usually involve an intricate combination of conflicts of interest and value conflicts (Kleef & Côté, 2018).

Chapter 4 - Negotiation

Negotiation and discussion are the greatest weapons we have for promoting peace and development (Nelson Mandela).

This chapter aims to draw a better picture of the definition of negotiation, according to many experts. Moreover, also to explain the keys features of the negotiation process. By doing so, providing a more substantial background to the object of this study. The role emotions play in Negotiation.

According to Roger Fisher and Willian Ury (Fisher & Ury, 1991), negotiation is a primary means of getting what you want from others. It is back-and-forth communication designed to reach an agreement when a party and the other side have some interests that are shared and others that are opposed as well as some that may be different. The more conflicts escalate, the more negotiation is required; people have shown to be more participative in the process of decision making when it comes to matters that affect them directly instead of allowing a third party doing on behalf of them. Shonk (Shonk, 2018) observed in her article how other experts define negotiation using similar terms, for instance, Leigh Thompson defines negotiation as an "interpersonal decision-making process", and the author refers to it as "necessary whenever we cannot achieve our objectives single-handedly." Another view is provided, in their book *Judgment in Managerial Decision Making*, Max H. Bazerman and Don A. Moore write, "When two or more parties need to reach a joint decision but have different preferences, they negotiate." Combined, these definitions involve the full range of negotiations we carry out in our personal lives, at work, and with strangers or acquaintances. She continues arguing that Harvard developed a framework, which basically contains seven elements which aim to direct and help people to be more prepared when facing a negotiation, doing it in a more effective way. Paton (Paton, 2005) describes The Seven Elements framework as containing in detail important features and instruments needed to identify goals during the process and provides support in how one can be prepared to minimize surprises and make the most from any opportunities that may arise during the negotiation.

An overview of the seven elements:

- **Interests.** Interests are “the fundamental drivers of negotiation,” according to Patton (Paton, 2005) —our basic needs, wants, and motivations.
- **Legitimacy.** The quest for a legitimate, or fair, deal drives many of our decisions in negotiations. If there is at some point the feeling of one part is taking advantage of another, the offer is likely to be rejected.
- **Relationships.** Whether there is an ongoing connection with a counterpart or no remote chance to ever see them again, it is necessary to manage the relationship as the negotiation process develops itself effectively.
- **Alternatives and BATNA.** Negotiation preparation should include an analysis of the BATNA, or best alternative to a negotiated agreement, according to the book *Getting to Yes* (Fisher & Ury, 1991).
- **Options.** The author mentions the importance of analysing any available choices or options available that parties might consider to satisfy their interests, including conditions, contingencies, and trades. **Commitments.** A commitment can be defined as an agreement, demand, offer, or promise made by one or more parties. A commitment can range from an agreement to meet at a particular time and place to a formal proposal to a signed contract according to Shonk (Shonk, 2018) *Communication*. When parts express and exercise the other six aspects described above, the author emphasises: The success of the negotiation can hinge on communication choices, such as it whether threatening or acquiesce, brainstorm jointly or make firm demands, make silent assumptions about interests or ask questions to probe them more deeply.

4.1 Rational vs the Emotional Components of Negotiation

Wertheim proposes that all negotiations involve two levels: a rational decision making (substantive) process and a psychological (emotional) process. Intangible factors that may affect negotiation and its outcomes are psychological aspects such as:

- How comfortable each feels about conflict
- How each perceives or miss-perceives the other
- The level of assumptions about the problem and about others
- The attitudes and expectations about the other
- The importance of victory and trust
- The importance of keeping away from conflict
- The importance of appearance

The author suggests that the rational part of the negotiation is an easy task, whereas the challenge rests mostly in understanding the psychological part. In addition, he argues, the outcome of a negotiation is as likely to be a result of the psychological foundation as it is the rational element. In many cases, the failure of two parties to reach the best resolution or best alternative stems from intangible factors (Wertheim, 2013)

Chapter 5 - Emotions

Emotions are not the obstacles to a successful negotiation; they are the means.
Christopher Voss

According to Poblet & Casanovas emotions are an essential aspect of the process of conflict resolution, and its emerging is notably when parties have many concurrent goals, including mutually incompatible ones, and their resources of time, ability, and processing power are too

limited to make an entirely rational choice. Moreover, the authors argue that interaction is vital as one usually is not able to achieve his or her more valuable objectives alone. Co-operation requires mutual plans, but guarantee that copies of the plan kept by each partner are identical is not possible. The competition requires hostile plans, and it is impossible to determine its outcome. Emotions enable social species to coordinate their behaviour, to respond to emergencies, to prioritize goals, to prepare for appropriate actions, and to make progress toward goals (Poblet & Casanovas, 2007).

As well as negotiations, emotions are present and seem to rule our daily lives according to Kendra Cherry (Cherry, 2018) one tends to make decisions based on the present emotion for instance happiness, anger, sadness, boring, or frustration. Although people often have a good sense of what emotions are, defining them is not as easy.

5.1 The Challenge of Defining Emotions

Experts have proposed hundreds of definitions. The challenge, however, is to comprehend what exactly is an emotion (Shapiro, 2005).

Emotion is defined as a feeling and its distinctive thoughts, psychological and biological states, and propensities to act. There are hundreds of emotions—good and evil. Emotions have their own variations and nuances, not to mention the ability to blend with other emotions. Some people manifest their negative emotions in outbursts, others through quiet storms. However, one thing for sure is that when people are acting on an emotion (be it for a split second or for a lifetime), they honestly feel it is the best thing to do, no matter how stupid it may appear later. (White & White, 2001-2002)

Cherry pointed according to the book, "Discovering Psychology," "An emotion is a complex psychological state that involves three distinct components: a subjective experience, a physiological response, and a behavioural or expressive response" (Cherry, 2018).

Klaus Scherer who holds the chair for Emotion Psychology at the University of Geneva and directs the Geneva Emotion Research Group (Steinhauser, 2018) on the other hand define as an episode of interrelated, synchronized changes in the states of all or most of the five organismic subsystems in response to the evaluation of an external or internal stimulus event as relevant to significant concerns of the organism (Scherer, 2005). The components of an emotion episode experienced by an individual are the respective states of the five subsystems, and the process consists of the coordinated changes overtime (Scherer, 2005). From a different point of view, Daniel Shapiro (Shapiro, 2005) then defines an emotion not as a distinct biological entity but rather as an "emotional syndrome," a constellation of common characteristics with none defining its essence. Interestingly, Evelin Linder (Linder, 2014), questions this statement, whether emotions are cultural, biological, or even both? According to Linder, it is known that thoughts, behaviour, and feeling are intimately connected. Moreover, this insight is not only crucial for the psychology field but also it is crucial for the studies of conflict resolution. Linder (Linder, 2014) highlights that some influential psychologists and political psychologists believe that a pronounced separation between cognition and affect is not possible and a person who acts purely rational, not affected by emotions whatsoever, would be someone impossible to deal with. Psychologist Paul Ekman conducted a survey to better evaluate on each grounds the most prominent names of psychology agree when it comes to emotions. According to Ekman (Ekman, 2015) in response to the question, "which of the following best captures your orientation toward emotion in your research?" 49% chose "discrete emotions (anger, fear, and others) combining both biological and social influences,"

11% chose "emotions as constructed, either socially or psychologically to fit current conditions," and 30% indicated they used both approaches.

Shapiro, for instance, defines symptoms of an emotion that often occur together include a specific facial expression, a unique subjective feeling, a pattern of physiological arousal, and a readiness to act in ways that promote one's wellbeing. As an example, in that regard, the emotion of anger may include a hostile glare, an "explosive" feeling in one's body, heightened physiological arousal, and a readiness to attack the person perceived to be blameworthy for an offence. (Shapiro, 2005).

5.2 Types of Emotions

The onerous task of identifying and classifying different types of emotions has been attempted by researchers and experts, as stated by Kendra Cherry in her article about emotions and emotional reaction (Cherry, 2018). In 1972, psychologist Paul Ekman, who has been studying emotions for more than forty years (Ekman, 2003) presented six basic emotions that are universal throughout human cultures: fear, disgust, anger, surprise, happiness, and sadness (Cherry, 2018). It is common to think of emotion as a singular process or the response of your body to an external occurrence, according to Cherry as a contrast to Ekman's theory which presented six basic emotions, the late American psychologist Robert Plutchik suggested that there are eight primary emotional dimensions: happiness vs sadness, anger vs fear, trust vs disgust, and surprise vs anticipation. In 1999, the Ekman's list was expanded, and a number of other now consider basic emotions were included, which contain embarrassment, excitement, contempt, shame, pride, satisfaction, and amusement. These emotions can then be combined in many different forms, and by doing so, produce another emotion. For instance, happiness and anticipation might combine to create excitement. Robert Plutchik, based on the eight primary emotions, developed the system known as the "wheel of emotions," and it was designed as a

method of emotion classification. Plutchik's method demonstrated how different emotions could be combined or mixed together (Cherry, 2018). Ortony and Turner presented in their work Plutchik's colour metaphor to describe this process whereby basic emotions combine, suggesting that combination takes place in a manner similar to the way in which, for example, blue and yellow paints mix together to create a green pigment.

5.3 Elements of the Wheel of Emotions

Karimova provides in her article a clear explanation about the main characteristics of the wheel, which is divided by colours; layers and relations.

Colours – The eight emotions are arranged by colours that install a set of similar emotions. Primary emotions are located in the second circle. Emotions with softer colours are a mix of the two primary emotions.

Layers – Moving to the centre of the circle intensifies the emotion, so the colours also intensify. For instance, at the centre of the wheel, the basic emotions alter from: anger to rage; anticipation to vigilance; joy to ecstasy; trust to admiration; fear to terror; a surprise to amazement; sadness to grief; disgust to loathing. Moving to the outer layers, the colours become less strong, and the intensity of the emotions lowers.

Relations – The polar opposite emotions can be found across from each other. The spaces in between the emotions demonstrate the combinations we get when the primary emotions are mixed. So, we see the emergence of emotions like love, submission, optimism, aggressiveness, contempt, remorse, disapproval, awe, and submission (Karimova, 2017).

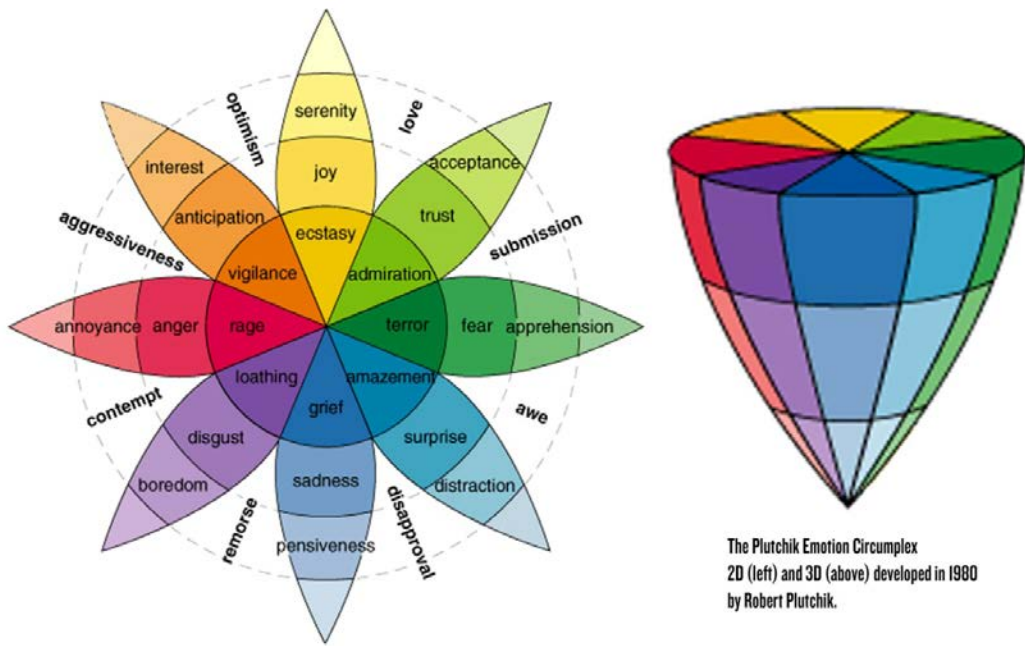


Figure 1: Plutchik's, Emotion Wheel

<https://ngpatriotacademy.com/plutchik-s/tangible-emotion-playfulness-in-communicating-emotional>

The model proposed by Plutchik, according to Korovina and her team is a well-established psychological model of emotions used for structured tagging. The primary emotions (trust, disgust, surprise, anticipation, anger, fear, sadness, and joy) are divided into opposite polarities (e.g., joy versus sadness) and each emotion has three degrees (e.g., serenity, joy, ecstasy) as explained previously. She argues that the Plutchik Wheel of Emotions has been adopted mainly in studies in diverse segments and has been shown to be effective in initial studies also in terms of motivating respondents (Korovina, et al., 2018).

Similarly to the model proposed by Plutchik, there are other mechanisms available for better comprehension and detect emotions, such as the Geneva emotion Wheel (Karimova, 2017).

Shuman and Scherer presented a clear explanation regarding The Geneva Emotion Wheel, which, according to them, consists of discrete emotion terms corresponding to emotion families that are systematically aligned in a circle. Underlying the alignment of the emotion terms are

the two dimensions of valence (contrary to positive) and control/power (low to high), separating the emotions in four quadrants: negative-low control/power, negative-high control/power, positive-low control/power, and positive-high control/power. The response options are spikes in the wheel that correspond to different levels of intensity for each emotion family. The range goes from low intensity (towards the centre of the wheel) to high intensity (toward the circumference of the wheel). The response option "no emotion" and "other emotion" is also offered in the very centre of the wheel. The GEW directly reflects the complementary approach to a discrete and dimensional assessment by visually combining discrete emotion terms in a dimensional structure (Shuman & Scherer, 2014).

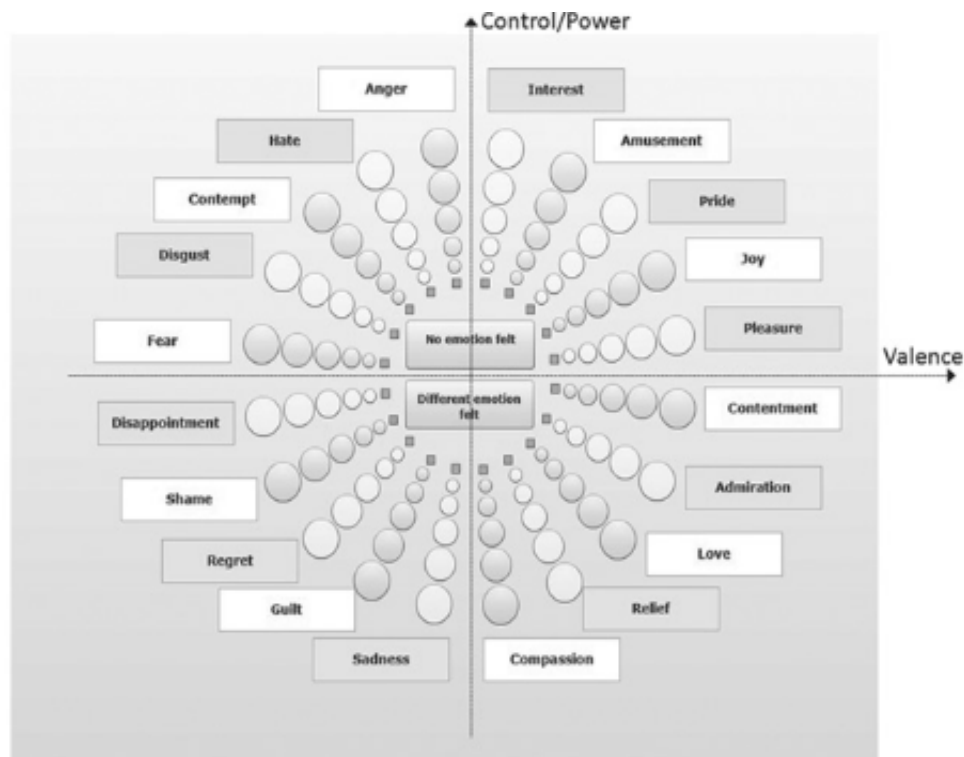


Figure 2: Geneva Emotion Wheel Version 3.0; Shuman & Scherer, 2014). Lines indicate the underlying dimensions of valence (negative-positive) and control/power (low–high).

When comparing the two systems, Karimova declares one of the most significant differences is that the Geneva Emotion Wheel gives individuals an ability to select options for 'no emotions' or 'other emotions' (Karimova, 2017). Another interesting point and also a considerable difference is that Plutchik's wheel does not express emotions such as pride and shame, while the GEW does. Aside from that, both tools provide a high starting point for detecting one's emotions. (Karimova, 2017). Korovina and her team, on the other hand, seem to also agree on the similarities of the two systems. However, she argues the Geneva Emotion Wheel (GEW) arranges information along the vertical and horizontal axis based on valence and dominance. This representation has also been validated in theory and practice. Furthermore, these representations have been shown to be effective in collecting emotions in terms of commonly adopted metrics such as the ability to collect a broad set of emotions, reduction of recourse to "other" categories, and the ease of understanding and tagging by non-experts (Korovina, et al., 2018).

In a context of conflict, understanding what is initially considered to be secondary factors, that is to say not explicitly declared as a cause, is crucial to its resolution (Karimova, 2017). However, the author, argues when the object of the discussion concerns emotions, a phenomenon that happens on the subconscious level, identifying and verbalizing is much harder.

5.4 Negative and Positive Emotions

In order to provide a good foundation for positive emotions as they are commonly experienced by any human being, the author extracted a list of emotions from Courtney Ackerman's article for the Positive Psychology website where she affirms that the list of positive emotions that individual experience is pervasive. She suggests that not all of these words listed below refer to emotions as the scholars comprehend them. However, they are the words most often used by ordinary people in describing one personal emotion:

Admiration – a feeling of warm approval, respect, and appreciation for someone or something.

Affection – an emotional attachment to someone or something, accompanied by a liking for them and a sense of pleasure in their company.

Altruism – usually referred to as an act of selflessness and generosity towards others, but can also describe the feeling got from helping others.

Amusement – a feeling of light-hearted pleasure and enjoyment, often accompanied by smiles and easy laughter.

Awe – an emotion that is evoked when one witness something grand, spectacular, or breathtaking, sparking a sense of overwhelming appreciation.

Cheerfulness – a feeling of brightness, being upbeat and noticeably happy or chipper; feeling like everything is going well.

Confidence – emotion involving a strong sense of self-esteem and belief in themselves; can be specific to a situation or activity, or more universal.

Contentment – peaceful, comforting, and low-key sense of happiness and well-being.

Eagerness – like a less intense form of enthusiasm; a feeling of readiness and excitement for something.

Elevation – the feeling one get when see someone engaging in the act of kindness, generosity, or inner goodness, spurring one to aspire to similar action.

Enjoyment – a feeling of taking pleasure in what is going on around one, especially in situations like a leisure activity or social gathering.

Enthusiasm – a sense of excitement, accompanied by motivation and engagement.

Euphoria – intense and the all-encompassing sense of joy or happiness, often experienced when something extremely positive and exciting happens.

Gratitude – a feeling of thankfulness, for something specific or merely all-encompassing, often accompanied by humility and even reverence.

Happiness – a feeling of pleasure and contentment in the way things are going; a general sense of enjoyment and enthusiasm for life.

Hope – a feeling of optimism and anticipation about a positive future.

Inspiration – feeling engaged, uplifted, and motivated by something one witnessed.

Interest – a feeling of curiosity or fascination that demands and captures one's attention.

Joy – a sense of elation, happiness, and perhaps even exhilaration, often experienced as a sudden spike due to something good happening.

Love – perhaps the strongest of all positive emotions, love is a feeling of deep and enduring affection for someone, along with a willingness to put their needs ahead of one's personal will; it can be directed towards an individual, a group of people, or even all humanity (Ackerman, 2018).

Optimism – positive and hopeful emotion that encourages one to look forward to a bright future, one in which they believe that things will mostly work out.

Pride – a sense of approval of oneself and pleasure in an achievement, skill, or personal attribute.

Relief – the feeling of happiness one experience when an uncertain situation turns out for the best, or a negative outcome is avoided.

Satisfaction – a sense of pleasure and contentment one get from accomplishing something or fulfilling a need.

Serenity – a calm and peaceful feeling of acceptance of oneself.

Surprise – A sense of delight when someone brings you unexpected happiness or a situation goes even better than you had hoped.

The list of opposite emotions is provided by the website: The Emotions, specialist in emotions, and emotional intelligence the page provides a list with the most common negative emotions an individual may experience.

Abandoned - An emotional state in which people feel discarded, undesired, left behind.

Affliction - to be distress by a physical problem or mental function or even monotony.

Afraid - Filled with fear, apprehension or regret over an unwanted situation.

Aggravation - To feel annoyed or bothered.

Aggressive - To feel or show aggression. To use effective methods to succeed.

Apprehensive - anxious or fearful about the future. Uneasy.

Astonishment - To fill with sudden wonder or amazement.

Angry - Displeasure, hostility - an emotional state that may range in intensity from mild irritation to intense fury and rage.

Annoying - To feel disturbed or troubled, evoking moderate anger. Annoy refers to a mild disturbance that can be caused by an act that triggers one's patience.

Anxious - An abnormal and overwhelming sense of apprehension often marked by physiological signs. Sweating, tension, and increased pulse.

Arrogance - The feeling that comes from believing that one is better, smarter, or more important than other people.

Betrayed - To feel harmed when one have trusted them.

Boring - Lack of interest.

Confusion - Being unable to think with clarity or act with understanding.

Denial - An unconscious defence mechanism characterized by refusal to acknowledge painful realities, thoughts, or feelings.

Defensive - Protecting oneself from emotional pain.

Depression - Pessimistic sense of inadequacy, lack of activity.

Displeased - Dissatisfied or dislike.

Disgust

Disappointed - Disappointments may be caused by not meeting one's expectations. Every single person has a specific set of standards. This serves as the personal quality control of the individual.

Envy - Painful or resentful emotion. Awareness of an advantage enjoyed by another joined with a desire to possess the same advantage.

Fear – Aversion - Fear Articles

Frustrated - A deep dissatisfaction arising from unresolved problems or unfulfilled needs.

Guilt - Culpability especially for imagined offenses or from a sense of inadequacy.

Negative - Being pessimistic, expressing disagreement or refusal.

Offence - To result in displeasure.

Pride - Exaggerated positive evaluation of oneself based on a devaluation of others.

Regret - Sorrow, repentance, disappointment.

Shame - A condition of humiliating disgrace or disrepute. Shame is also a central feature of punishment, shunning, or ostracism. In addition, shame is often seen in victims that had suffered child neglect or child abuse. Moreover, a host of other crimes against children.

Vulnerable - Feeling exposed to being attacked or harmed (The emotions, 2011).

5.5 Basic emotions

The previous topic presented a broad list of the most popular emotions popular among the general public, from that what do theorists agree to be basic emotions?

The table below represents basic emotions on the view of the most renowned authors, specialists on the topic many of which publications have been widely considered for the purpose of this paper, for example, Plutchik and Ekman.

Theorist	Basic Emotions
Plutchik	Acceptance, anger, anticipation, disgust, joy, fear, sadness, surprise
Arnold	Anger, aversion, courage, dejection, desire, despair, fear, hate, hope, love, sadness
Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth	Anger, disgust, fear, joy, sadness, surprise
Frijda	Desire, happiness, interest, surprise, wonder, sorrow
Gray	Rage and terror, anxiety, joy
Izard	Anger, contempt, disgust, distress, fear, guilt, interest, joy, shame, surprise
James	Fear, grief, love, rage
McDougall	Anger, disgust, elation, fear, subjection, tender-emotion, wonder
Mowrer	Pain, pleasure
Oatley and Johnson-Laird	Anger, disgust, anxiety, happiness, sadness
Panksepp	Expectancy, fear, rage, panic
Tomkins	Anger, interest, contempt, disgust, distress, fear, joy, shame, surprise
Watson	Fear, love, rage
Weiner and Graham	Happiness, sadness

Table 1: Basic emotions (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990)

Chapter 6 - Literature Review

6.1 Emotions and Negotiations

Anger. Sadness. Fear. Disgust. Shame. As well known, disputes are often full of powerful, negative emotions on both sides. Sadly, these emotions can overwhelm good judgment and damage attorney/client relations, thereby reducing the possibility of a

timely and successful out-of-court resolution. Sometimes, they even force otherwise risky and unnecessary (White & White, 2001-2002).

Kleef & Côté emphasize that affection, mood, and emotions are terms often and erroneously used to describe an emotional phenomenon, however, to better conceptualize the role of emotions in negotiations and its dynamics it is essential to clarify the meaning of each of these terms. The author suggests that affect is the most general term, referring to a subjective feeling state that can range from diffuse moods such as cheerfulness or depression to specific and acute emotions such as happiness or anger to support their statement they mentioned the literature published by Frijda in 1994. They use Watson's work to explain the word "affect" is also used to refer to relatively stable individual dispositions, i.e., trait positive and negative affect; Watson et al. 1988. Emotion and mood are generally conceptualized as subtypes of affect. They are differentiated by the degree to which they are directed toward a specific stimulus— be it a person, an object, or an event Ekman & Davidson 1994. A considerable amount of emotion theories holds that discrete (specific) emotions emerge as a result of an individual's conscious or unconscious interpretation of some event or situation as positively or negatively relevant to a particular concern or goal. Therefore, emotions are directed toward something, or, more typically, someone (e.g., a colleague, a customer, a negotiation partner), whereas moods are not directed at anything in particular—one can feel cheerful or grumpy for no apparent reason. The authors also explain that comparatively, emotions are short-lived and intense, whereas moods tend to be more enduring and milder. Furthermore, unlike moods, emotions are characterized by distinct subjective experiences, physiological reactions, expressions, and action tendencies as a reference to Ekman & Davidson 1994 (Kleef & Côté, 2018).

The researcher finds it essential to highlight that a considerable amount of literature published prior to this term clarification provided by Kleef and Côté in relation to emotions feelings and

mood was used to the purpose of this paper. Therefore, the term feeling may be used to describe emotion.

Researchers have dedicated a great deal of attention to the study of emotions, particularly social emotions, such as guilt, shame, pride, embarrassment, disgust and lust and its influences in social interaction, as highlighted by Linder (Linder, 2014) and mentioned previously, nowadays researchers no longer endorse a single view on emotions, it is safe to state that they now prefer an approach which describes emotions and its multilayers to conceptualize elaborated emotions as comprehensive packages of meanings, behaviours and social practices.

Fisher and Shapiro (Fisher & Shapiro, 2006) stated that no one could be spared of the reality of emotions; furthermore, they can ruin any possibility of an agreement and sour hopes for a fair settlement. An intriguing question raised by the authors, what makes emotions so troubling? According to them, emotions can divert attention from substantive matters, they can also damage relationships, and they can be used to exploit parties. As well as negotiation, emotions are part of our everyday life, it is not possible to stop having emotions, and the key is to be aware of the emotions in place and how to deal with them.

In spite of presenting clear arguments in defence of the negative aspect of emotions in the negotiations, the authors contrast their own statement suggesting that, although emotions often tend to be taken as a restriction to a negotiation, they can also be a valuable asset, argues Fisher and Shapiro (Fisher & Shapiro, 2006). Positive emotions have the ability to motivate the negotiator to achieve more and more and then prolong the negotiation process more efficiently with increased emotional commitment.

Scherer proposed that componential theories of emotion generally assume that the relevance of an event is determined by a rather complex yet very rapidly occurring evaluation process that can occur on several levels of processing ranging from automatic and implicit to conscious

conceptual or propositional evaluations. The author suggests that the component process model postulates that different emotions are produced by a sequence of cumulative stimulus evaluation or appraisal checks with emotion-specific outcome profiles Ellsworth and Scherer, 2003; Scherer, 1984a, 1993, 2001 (Scherer, 2005).

There is always a positive and negative aspect of anything in life, with emotions that would not be any different. A positive emotion feels personally uplifting. Whether pride, hope, or relief, a positive emotion feels good. In a negotiation table, a positive emotion toward the other person is likely to build rapport, a relationship marked by goodwill, understanding, and a feeling of being connected. In contrast, anger, frustration, and other negative emotions feel personally distressing, and in the presence of those the likelihood of building a rapport is decreased (Fisher & Shapiro, 2006). In general, it is expected that positive emotions increase the likelihood of achieving a wise agreement by the disputant parties (Maiese, 2005). According to Maiese, negotiators themselves are not immune to be influenced by emotions; the author highlights that negotiators who are in a positive mood tend to use less aggressive tactics, be more participative and as a result achieve more integrative outcomes. She extent her argument by presenting a result from previous research, which states that positive emotions promote problem-solving, creativity, respect for others' perspectives, and even improved cognitive ability (Maiese, 2005). With regard to negative feelings, Maiese (Maiese, 2005) advocates that it has a detrimental impact on negotiations and mediation processes. Barry (Barry et al., 2004) on the other hand, defends negative emotions play a fundamental role in regulating social interaction by acting as a call for mental or behavioural adjustment, whereas positive emotions serve as a cue to stay the course Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999. Thus, according to Barry (Barry et al., 2004) in a negotiation, negative emotion may be used to express some level of dissatisfaction with a particular state of affairs, which may be interpreted by the opponent as endangering agreement and may thereby produce more conciliatory behaviour. Maiese (Maiese, 2005) defends

otherwise, she believes that at the negotiation table, negative emotions may be intensified as a result of comprehension of rudeness, rule violations, misrepresentations, challenges to one's own authority, or parties' sense of shame, and bring along others negative feelings such as distrust, anger, fear, contempt, embarrassment, shame, pride, and disappointment, which may discourage the parties from agreeing to reach a settlement. In addition, these same negative emotions inhibit communication during mediation and make it difficult for parties to engage in constructive discussion, she firmly believes that negative emotions tend to lead toward inaccurate judgments, lessened concern for the other parties' preferences, and neglect of one's own goals. Conversely, positive emotions may be taken to suggest that no further concessions are needed. This would suggest that it is not in the negotiator's strategic interest to express happiness, as it may cause the opponent to refrain from making any further concessions. (Barry, et al., 2004).

The author agreed that positive as well as negative emotions bring some beneficial aspects during negotiations at some stage, despite the strong view on negative results of strong negative feelings, Maiese (Maiese, 2005) assume that, there are some instances when the expression of negative emotions can benefit negotiation or mediation. Legitimately expressed anger, for example, can be an extremely effective way to communicate one's commitment, sincerity, and needs. In addition, strategically highlighting one's feelings can sometimes serve as an effective negotiating tactic. Furthermore, empathizing with another party's emotions and sharing one's own vulnerable feelings can help to build trust and provide reassurance. The author points that in Western cultures, this means being assertive without being provocative or confrontational as well as being willing to make small concessions in order to build trust and defuse anger (Maiese, 2005).

6.2 The role of emotions in negotiation - Intrapersonal and Interpersonal effects

Gerber Van Kleef (Kleef, et al., 2004) believes that for a broader or better understanding of the concept the role emotions play in negotiations is important to address the difference between interpersonal and intrapersonal, which he defines as:

- Intrapersonal: Effects of a negotiator's emotions on his or her own negotiation behaviour.
- Interpersonal: Effects on counterpart behaviour.

The author who holds an extensive list of publications and citations on this field argues that most researchers have so far focused their work on the interpersonal effect, he also states that emotions have important social functions and consequences and cites Frijda & Mesquita, 1994; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Oatley & Jenkins, 1992 to support his statement, according to Kleef such consequences may influence negotiation behaviour and outcomes in a number of ways (Kleef, 2008). Similarly, other studies suggest affect and emotion as triggers of behaviour; this approach proposes a comparison between positive versus negative moods and emotions. The results suggest that positive affect, empathy, and happiness induce prosocial motivation, whereas negative affect such as anger, and frustration appears to elicit more egoistic and self-centred behaviour. Following the same reasoning, researchers believe that fear and surprise heighten uncertainty motivation in conflict and negotiation context; however, it highlights the author's further research is needed to verify this (De Dreu, 2004).

Irvine and Farrington also state that if a disputant party feels less strongly about the dispute, the emotional resolution is not achieved. Emotions are volatile and mercurial, however, and it can feel like 'one step forward, one step back'. They present as examples of 'emotional resolution': Mayer: apology and forgiveness, and suggests exact resolution of the conflict must occur on all three dimensions: behavioural, emotional and cognitive (Irvine & Farrington, 2016).

6.3 (EASI) Model - Emotions as Social Information

Kleef (Kleef, 2008) developed the EASI Model theory – Emotions as Social Information, which basically promotes that emotions provide information. The model gives attention on discrete emotions, as opposed to more diffuse mood states. The author suggests that the central differential of this model is that it explains how one part is affected by the emotion of the other. EASI distinguishes two distinct paths through which emotions may exert interpersonal influence: the strategic information path and the affective reactions path. The critical assumption is that emotional expressions may elicit both strategic inferences and affective reactions, both of which may turn into behaviour.

According to the EASI model, emotions may also exert interpersonal influence through a more affective route. Research has documented that, much in agreement with lay intuition, positive affect is more conducive to positive impressions, interpersonal liking, and constructive interpersonal relationships than negative affect (Fredrickson, 1998; Isen, 1987). Compatible effects on impressions have been found in negotiation research. As indicated earlier, negotiators' expressions of anger (compared to neutral or positive expressions) have been found to produce negative impressions, low satisfaction, negative feelings, and a reduced willingness to engage in future negotiation (Friedman et al., 2004; Kopelman et al., 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2004a, 2004b), which promote competitive behaviour.

The EASI model posits that one of the two main processes through which emotions may exert effects on the interpersonal level is by providing strategic information. For example, in a negotiation an opponent's anger may indicate that he or she has ambitious goals and is "hard to get" Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2004a, b, implying that one needs to make a better offer in order to reach an agreement.

The EASI model predicts that individuals are more likely to act on the strategic information conveyed by other's emotions to the degree that they are motivated to pay attention to and process this strategic content. In line with this prediction, research has found that negotiators exhibit stronger strategic responses to their counterpart's emotions (i.e., more concessions to an angry opponent than to a happy one) when they have a low rather than a high need for cognitive closure, when there is low rather than high time pressure (Van Kleef et al., 2004b), and when they have low rather than high power (Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef, De Dreu, Pietroni et al., 2006). Apparently, factors affecting individuals' information processing tendencies moderate their reactions to the strategic information provided by other's emotions. As a further illustration of this point, Van Kleef et al. (2004b) demonstrated that the moderating influence of time pressure on negotiators' responses to their counterpart's emotions was mediated by the depth of their information processing.

Social-Relational Factors

The second class of moderators that determine the relative impact of the affective reactions path and the strategic inferences path concerns social-relational factors. Among other factors, these include status relations (e.g., equal or different), the structure of interdependence (e.g., who depends more on whom), organizational or cultural norms pertaining to the expression of emotion (e.g., the presence or absence of "display rules"; Matsumoto, 1993), the way the emotion is expressed (e.g., whether the intensity of the expression is commensurate with the significance of the situation), and the appropriateness of the emotion in light of its cause (e.g., whether the emotion is warranted given what happened). The idea is that emotional expressions are more likely to elicit strong affective responses (and thereby trigger the affective reactions path) when they are in some way unfitting given the situation. As the power of the affective reactions path thus increases, the relative predictive power of the strategic information path

decreases, and negotiators should be less likely to act on the strategic implications of their counterpart's emotions.

Some initial support for this prediction comes from a recent study by Steinel, Van Kleef, and Harinck (in press), who showed that negotiators responded in a conciliatory fashion to angry (as opposed to happy) opponents when the anger was directed at their offers, whereas they responded with competitive behaviour when the anger was directed at them personally. According to the EASI model, directing negative emotions at a negotiator's behaviour rather than at them personally might be advisable for two reasons. First, directing negative emotions at someone's behaviour may be seen as more acceptable and less affronting, resulting in less powerful affective reactions. As a result, the affective reactions path should have relatively low power in driving the target's behaviour. This idea fits nicely with the popular advice to "separate the people from the problem" and direct negative feedback at a negotiator's offers rather than at them personally (Fisher & Ury, 1981). Second, emotions may be more informative when they are specifically targeted toward a person's concrete behaviour. As a result, the predictive strength of the strategic information path should be higher when anger is directed at a negotiator's offers rather than at their behaviour. In support of this idea, Steinel et al. (in press) found that the opponent's expressions of anger affected negotiators' appraisals of the opponent's limits (and thereby their behaviour) when the anger focused on the negotiator's offers, but not when it focused on them as a person (Kleef, 2008).

The above section was the entire extract from Kleef's article that was cited to the purpose of this paper.

6.4 The Role of Emotion in Mediation and Negotiation

An article published by Sherwood regarding emotions in mediation, he clearly points out that by the time a case comes to mediation, the choice of whether to settle should be a

straightforward risk management decision. All too often, however, the emotions underlying the dispute are the paramount consideration of the parties involved, the author sustains the view that emotions cannot be ignored and must be addressed if mediation is to be successful because success at mediation does not just include resolution of the conflict. A successful mediation leaves the parties feeling they were heard and with a better understanding of why they should settle their case (Sherwood, 2018).

According to Maiese a great deal of the training literature for negotiation and mediation promotes that emotions should not take place at the negotiation table, in other words, they should be ignored (Maiese, 2005). As an example, the negotiation book Fisher, Ury and Patton's *Getting to Yes* which has been widely adopted by mediators as points the author, promotes the idea of separating people from the problem (Fisher & Ury, 1991), basically to exclude emotions and focus on facts (Irvine & Farrington, 2016). Another author who also defends the idea that emotions represent harm to negotiation is Scott; the theorist firmly believes that to reach a resolution in any conflict is crucial first to rid the situation of any negative emotions, such as feelings of anger, resentment, mistrust, or fear. Whether the source of the feelings is from one party or another, is necessary to channel emotions to keep them from interfering with the conflict resolution. Once negative emotions are under control or dissipated, it is then possible to work on resolving the problem in a calm and collected way. Otherwise, as often happens during an awkward situation, people tend to strike out verbally and stir emotions, which can make the problem even more difficult to solve (Scott, 2008).

The below case may serve as a representation of how emotions can act as an attenuate of the conflict.

“One of the authors of” mediated a seemingly impossible employment conflict pitting a “facts-only” corporate attorney against an abrasive, highly emotional plaintiff. The

breakthrough finally came in caucus when the mediator validated the plaintiff's frustrations and asked her what could be done to make the process easier. That is when she confided that she had a mental disability (unknownst even to her attorney) that interfered with her ability to communicate civilly under stress. The mediator then decided to keep the two sides apart and to translate their particular points of view in a manner each could respect. That critical finding made all the difference for a variety of logical and emotional reasons. The case settled quickly because the plaintiff finally felt heard and understood. Also, the defending attorney was able to appreciate the validity of the plaintiff's position" (White & White, 2001-2002).

The main idea proposed by the book 'Getting to Yes' seems to be that feeling should be put aside and the discussions to be conducted towards "rational" behaviour (Fisher & Ury, 1991). However, according to Maiese, it seems evident that strong emotions, in particular, fear and anger, are typically part of the negotiation process (Maiese, 2005). Daniel Shapiro expressed as "*infeasible and unwise*" the attempt to get rid of emotions, he suggested that despite the idea promoted by the book Getting to Yes that emotions can be a barrier to a value-maximizing agreement, it can actually become a valuable source of information by gaining understanding of what has been communicated by emotions (Shapiro, 2004).

"When emotions are hidden and disguised, "the dispute becomes a labyrinth, with layers and layers of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours so concealed that the conflict seems inevitable and insoluble." -- Thomas J. Scheff, from Bloody Revenge: Emotions, Nationalism, and War, p. 14" (Scheff, 2000).

Other authors who seem to think otherwise to what is proposed by the reputed 'Principled approach' from *Getting to Yes* (Fisher & Ury, 1991) are Adler and colleagues, they emphasise that emotions are an unavoidable part of human life, cannot and should not be eliminated (Adler, et al., 1998).

Emotions have the potential to play either a positive or negative role in negotiation, the decision as to whether or not to settle rests in part on emotional factors (Maiese, 2005) (Adler, et al., 1998). Maiese sustains her reasoning proposing that parties must acknowledge the fact that certain emotions are present and allow the other side to express their feelings. Another interesting evaluation by the author is that they must also be careful not to dismiss others' feelings or lash out in response to emotional outbursts, as this is likely to provoke an even more intense emotional response from the other side (Maiese, 2005). According to Adler and his colleagues, on the positive side, emotions make people care for our own interests and about others. Empathy can improve understanding and facilitate communication. He believes that legitimately expressed anger may communicate the party's sincerity and commitment. The controversial aspect is that fear and anger usually play negative roles in negotiation (Adler, et al., 1998). Another point is that faking anger can create authentic feelings of anger, which in turn diminish trust for both parties as suggesting Alison Brooks a Harvard professor in business administration and negotiation by mentioning a Research conducted by Rachel Campagna at the University of New Hampshire, other researchers considered in Brooks's work are Jeremy Yip and Martin Schweinsberg who concluded on their work that facing an angry opponent one tend to walk away letting the process end in a stalemate. In addition, the author herself strongly believes that showing anger in negotiation damage the long-term relationship between the parties; furthermore, it reduces liking and trust. Nevertheless, she admits that there are situations when a clear demonstration of anger may result in a better outcome, as per results from a research conducted by Gerben van Kleef at the University of Amsterdam 'transactional

negotiation with few opportunities to collaborate to create value, an angry negotiator can wind up with a better deal'. She suggests that anger can even be used as a strategy, for example in negotiating a vehicle, the opponent in an attempt to contain the anger of the other party may reconsider the terms first given (Brooks, 2015).

Adler observes that there a number of other emotions arise during the course of a negotiation (Adler, et al., 1998) as such disappointment which Brooks believes that if it is shown at the right moment during the negotiation can be a powerful force, this right moment according to her is at the end of the negotiation (Brooks, 2015).

Brooks provides a definition of anxiety as being a state of distress in reaction to threatening stimuli, particularly novel situations that have the potential for undesirable outcomes. She argues that in contrast to anger, which motivates people to escalate conflict (the "fight" part of the fight-or-flight response), anxiety trips the "flight" switch and makes people want to exit the scene (Brooks, 2015). Anxiety is believed to be the most common emotion experienced by disputant parties (Lieberman, 2006)

To understand how anxiety can affect negotiators Brook proposed an experiment which is described below (Brooks, 2015)

"It was then asked a separate group of 136 participants to negotiate a cell phone contract that required agreeing on a purchase price, a warranty period, and the length of the contract. It was induced anxiety in half the participants by having them listen to continuous three-minute clips of the menacing theme music from the film Psycho, while the other half listened to pleasant music by Handel. (Researchers call this "incidental" emotional manipulation, and it is quite powerful. Listening to the Psycho music is

genuinely uncomfortable: People's palms get sweaty, and some listeners become jumpy.)

In this experiment and three others, the researchers found that anxiety had a significant effect on how people negotiated. People experiencing anxiety made weaker first offers, responded more quickly to each move the counterpart made and were more likely to exit negotiations early (even though their instructions clearly warned that exiting early would reduce the value they received from the negotiation). Anxious negotiators made deals that were 12% less financially attractive than those made by negotiators in the neutral group. We did discover one caveat; however: People who gave themselves high ratings in a survey on negotiating aptitude were less affected by anxiety than others” (Brooks, 2015).

Despite the variety of emotions that one may be vulnerable to experience during the negotiation (Brooks, 2015), Adler suggests that the two that affect negotiations “most often and most dramatically are fear and anger.” (Adler, et al., 1998) Moreover, proposes how anger emerges in the course of the negotiation, he suggests that anger can come from perceived rules violations. Rudeness can make a person feel vulnerable and exposed, which prompts anger. Feelings of shame may turn into anger. In negotiations, anger can occur when parties are under time constraints, unconcerned with maintaining a working relationship or facing angry constituents. Anger may also be a response to misrepresentation, excessive demands, and illegitimate exercises of another's authority, challenges to a person's own authority, or trivia. The author believes that usually, anger disrupts negotiations, according to him anger darkens the objectivity because one loses trust on the other side, restrict the focus from broadening matters to anger-producing behaviour, and also misconduct objectives of reaching an

agreement to act reciprocally towards the offender. (Adler, et al., 1998). Furthermore, anger and frustration seem to inflate more self-interested behaviour (De Dreu, 2004).

Commence the negotiations procedure feeling unprepared may be the origin of fear according to Adler and his colleagues, feeling unable, or facing a more powerful opponent are also precedents to fear. While an opponent's fear can motivate them to make a hasty agreement, it can also paralyze them, turn into anger, or block the development of a relationship. Empathy plays its role in this case; the author suggests that deal with the other side's fear by being alert for emotional build-ups. Empathizing with their fears or sharing personal fears can build trust and provide reassurance (Adler, et al., 1998)

Irvine and Farrington affirm that emotion and thinking are closely linked, and each requires the other for accurate perception (Irvine & Farrington, 2016).

Emotions have been claimed to act as a positive or negative reinforces for other individual's behaviour as states Kleef supported by Klennert, Campos, Sorce, Emde, & Svejda, 1983 studies (Kleef, 2008). Another emotional process or state that encourages cooperation and prosocial behaviour is empathy. Empathy, as suggesting Cohen, along with guilt and shame, is part of a family of moral emotions that aid in socialization and moral development and discourage unethical behaviour. Empathy is more likely to stimulate moral action, possibly because it is more challenging to take advantage of people once their feelings have been acknowledged and taken into consideration, as opposed to their thoughts the author cites the literature by Batson et al., 2003 to support his statement (Cohen, 2010). However, as Brooks highlights there isn't much research on how positive emotions affect negotiations, specifically happiness and excitement (Brooks, 2015) Kleef proposes positive emotions may encourage others to continue their course of action, whereas negative emotions may serve as a call for behavioural adjustment in other words and among other things, positive moods and emotions have been shown to increase concession making (Kleef, 2008), on the contrary Brooks presents a different

view, according to her expressing these emotions can have significant consequences (Brooks, 2015). As an example of her rational on that statement, she mentioned "The National Football League prohibits and penalizes "excessive celebrations" after a touchdown or big play because such conduct can generate ill will. For the same reason, the "winner" in a deal should not gloat as the negotiations towards the end. Nonetheless, this happens all the time", and may as well culminate in some consequences, such as the other party's invoking a right of rescission, seeking to renegotiate, or taking punitive action the next time the parties need to strike a deal (Brooks, 2015).

6.5 Gender and Emotion

Gender is always a popular topic when it comes to their differences and their impact in negotiations (Barry, et al., 2004), however, as the author argues these studies tend to focus either on differences in negotiation style. There are no much studies done in the field of emotions and gender, according to the author little is known about how gender differences in emotional expression or in ability to interpret the cues of others might impact negotiation outcomes (Barry, et al., 2004), Simon & Nath stated in their article for the American Journal of Sociology 'in light of prevailing cultural beliefs about gender differences in emotion as well as the surge of scholarly interest in both gender and emotion there is surprisingly little sociological research that compares men's and women's everyday feelings and expressive behaviour' (Simon & Nath, 2004)

"To date, most of the empirical research on gender and emotion has been conducted by psychologists, who focus on gender differences in emotion beliefs as well as on subjective feelings and expressive behaviour" (Simon & Nath, 2004).

According to Barry and his colleagues some empirical research point that men and women do not necessarily experience emotions differently citing (Kring e Gordon, 1998), however, women tend to express their emotions in a more expressive way than men, such fact may be explained as a result of biologic factors, evolutionary mechanisms and/or from social influences regarding gender-appropriate behaviour. From an observer point of view, women would transmit an emotion more precisely, the same apply to their ability to read an emotional reaction the authors suggest they tend to do it better than men. (Barry, et al., 2004). Women may as well evidence more negative emotions such as sadness, fear, shame, and guilt, whereas men would experiencing and expressing more anger and other hostile emotions, according to Agneta Fisher and her colleagues (Fischer, et al., 2004)

Thomas Scheff past chair of the Emotions Section of the American Sociological Association suggests that all over the world, in all different cultures adult males are expect to demonstrate to be strong, competent, potent, brave and hide shame, weakness, impotence or incompetence. Instead of experiencing such feelings or emotions, men often go blank or enraged. (Sheff, 2011). To illustrate that the author uses Hitler as an example of the enraged path. According to Scheff, Hitler experienced the defeat of Germany in 1918 as a humiliation, both for him personally and for Germany. Therefore his entire political career was built on the need to regain pride for himself and for his country, by transforming shame to rage and aggression. Scheff defends that one should allow himself to experience emotions not acted on them. Once emotions are suppressed, the tendency is to become tense and distracted. Most emphatically, suppressed emotions interfere with clear thinking. (Sheff, 2011)

According to Barry and his team the strategic use of emotion in negotiation, Barry 1999 suggested that sex differences in emotional expressiveness might be related to sex differences in attitudes toward the use of emotion as a tactic. Future research could take this a step further by exploring the mechanisms by which gender differences in emotional expression and

perception might affect the selection of emotion management tactics in negotiations (with implications for performance outcomes). Another question is whether women use emotion-related information to frame their decisions in a negotiation context differently than men: Are there situations in which women are more cognizant of and reliant upon emotion-related outcomes alongside economic outcomes? If so, the risk–reward profile of a given negotiation might look different depending upon gender, with implications for negotiator behaviour. For example, prospect theory suggests that individuals tend to seek risk in a perceived loss situation and to avoid risks in a perceived gain situation (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979); the decision to engage in risky behaviour in a given negotiation (e.g., disclosure of information) is likely a function of how the negotiation payoffs are mentally calculated, which may vary by gender as a result of the relative weight given to emotion-related factors versus other factors. (Barry, et al., 2004)

6.6 Cultural Aspects

When it comes to cultural aspects, an interesting question to bear in mind is, does culture influence people's responses to emotional events? If so, how? Jeswald W. Salacuse (Salacuse, 2004) presented reports of negotiating behaviour in other cultures is frequently directed to a particular tendency to an emotional reaction, he argues that According to the stereotype, Latin Americans show their emotions at the negotiating table, while the Japanese and many other Asians hide their feelings. Obviously, the individual personality should be taken into consideration in this case, as it is a significant factor. Various cultures have different rules as to the appropriateness and form of displaying emotions, and these rules are brought to the negotiating table as well. The author highlights the results from the previous survey where Latin Americans and the Spanish were the cultural groups that ranked themselves highest with respect to emotionalism in a clearly statistically significant fashion. Among Europeans, the

Germans and English ranked as least emotional, while among Asians the Japanese held that position, but to a lesser degree. (Salacuse, 2004). To illustrate a point Gelfand and Jackson (Gelfand & Jackson, 2019), mentioned the breakdowns occurred between Native Americans and Western settlers, and between Maori natives and British settlers in New Zealand, where they defend that in each of these historical cases, cultural factors proved an insurmountable obstacle to effective negotiation. Tsai, J. (2019) expressed her view on the importance of accounting and understanding cultural similarities and differences in emotions. According to her that is the key to understanding emotions in general, and the role emotions play in humans' interactions, especially to preventing potentially costly miscommunications.

Tsai (Tsai, 2019) believes that an alternative explanation for cultural differences in emotion is that they come from temperamental factors—that is, biological predispositions to react in specific ways. (Might European Americans be more emotional than East Asians because of genetics?) Indeed, most models of emotion acknowledge that both culture and temperament play roles in emotional life, yet few if any models indicate how. As pointed by (Gelfand & Jackson, 2019), scholars have neglected researches on this particular field. Nevertheless, argues Tsai it is strongly believed by most researchers that despite genetic differences, culture has a more significant impact on emotions, she exemplify her point mentioning one theoretical framework, Affect Valuation Theory, which proposes that cultural factors shape how people want to feel ("ideal affect") more than how they actually feel ("actual affect"); conversely, temperamental factors influence how people actually feel more than how they want to feel.

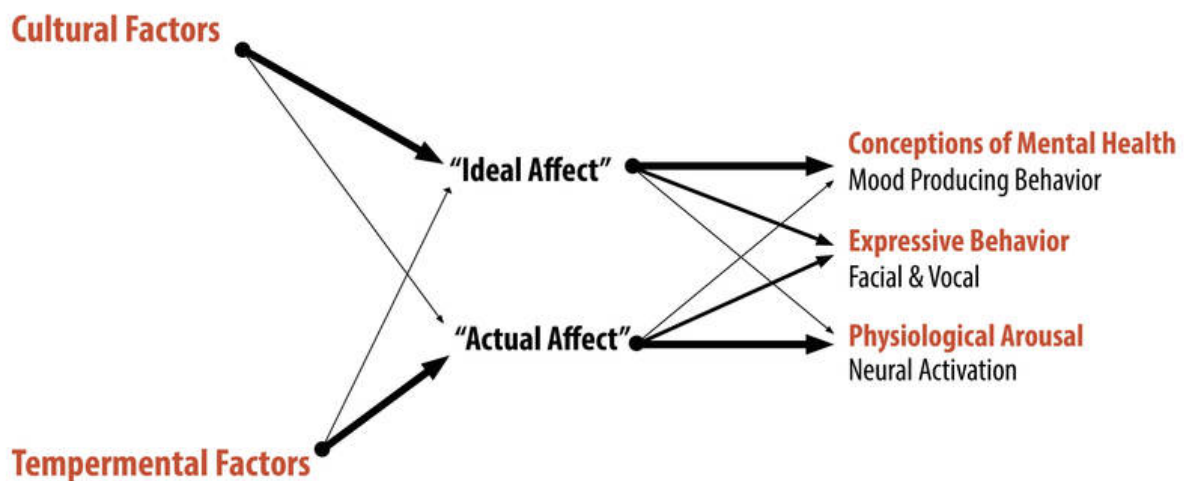


Figure 3: Affect valuation theory. Thicker lines indicate stronger predicted relationships (Tsai, J. 2019).

6.8 Emotions in Intercultural Negotiations

It's expected a higher level of complexity in the dynamics of emotions in negotiations intercultural than negotiations intracultural, discordance in values and beliefs impede individuals to find common ground for open discussions, furthermore, cultural distance diminishes the sense of control and also lessens the opportunities for rewarding interaction in intercultural settings, parties may enter in the negotiation expecting a difficult battle, which may lower the trust at the beginning of the negotiations; as a result there might occur negative emotions towards the opponent (Kumar, 2004).

The below text extracted from Fernandez-Dols and Russel's publication exemplifies how different cultures express themselves differently about the same subject, which exemplifies the complexity exposed by Kumar, it is essential to consider that in this case language plays its role.

“In everyday conversation, Spaniards occasionally describe someone as being emocionado(a). To be emocionado means to be emotional, but this translation is misleadingly simple. Whereas English speakers use the phrases to be emotional and to have an emotion largely interchangeably, Spaniards make a clear distinction between estar emocionado and sentir una emoción. Emocionado is perhaps better rendered into American English metaphorically as "to be touched" or "to be moved" (as a psychological state); emocionado can be used in either positive or negative contexts. Spaniards recognize different expressive behaviours for emocionado and emoción, even when both occur in a positive context. For example, a Spanish journalist described two medal winners on an Olympic podium, one smiling and the other crying. The journalist described the smiling woman as alegre (joyful) and the crying woman as emocionada (Fernández- Dols & Ruiz-Belda, 1995). Emocionado is an emotional state distinct from specific emotions such as anger or joy. In fact, as early as 1921, Gregorio Marañón, a Spanish doctor, pointed to Spaniards' use of emocionado as a recognition of the nonspecific nature of physical changes in emotion (Ferrandiz, 1984). If emocionado denotes an emotional state not recognized clearly in English, Spanish may segment emotional experience in a subtler way than does English” (Fernández-Dols & Russel, 2003).

Kumar also suggests that may have cultural differences in the form that one experience and express emotions, he cites Maio e Esses 2001 where they proposed the theory ‘need of affect’, which imply the degree in which individuals allow their behaviour to be forged by emotions. The researchers noted that people with a great need for affection are more vulnerable to allow emotions to control their behaviour, actions, and thoughts than those without such a need for affection. Kumar keeps his argument by stating in cultures where there is less need for

emotions; individuals may attempt to keep emotions from shaping their behaviour, either because their emotions are low in frequency or intensity, or because of cultural norms for suppressing emotions. As an example of the above, he provides a result from an experiment made by Eid and Diener 2001 where they assessed the frequency and intensity of emotions experienced by college students in Australia, China, Taiwan, and the People's Republic of China. Notably, the frequency and intensity of emotions experienced by the Chinese students were the lowest among all of the groups studied. In the Chinese society, "... there is a general attitude to consider emotions as dangerous, irrelevant, or illness causing" (Kumar, 2004)

Kleef & Côté argue that because most research on emotional dynamics in conflict and negotiation has been conducted in Western societies, the role of culture in shaping the effects of emotions at various levels of analysis remains imperfectly understood. For example, displays of anger were found to have counterproductive effects in negotiations with East Asian counterparts, because displays of anger are not normative in East Asian cultures Adam et al. 2010 (Kleef & Côté, 2018).

Chapter 7 - Research Methodology

7.1 Definition

Research is an instrument to explore the knowledge to evaluate, to observe, and to drive us to a deeper level of understanding regarding one specific subject, factors, or circumstances. There are many definitions of the term research to guide us on a full comprehension of its importance. Some authors consider research as an art of systematic investigation (Mishra & Alok, 2011). Oppose to others who define research is a way of thinking: examining the various aspects of one's day-to-day professional work critically; understanding and formulating guiding

principles that govern a particular procedure (Kumar, 2011). Also, the author expands his view by adding in his definition that research is also a way of developing and testing new theories that contribute to the advancement of the work (Kumar, 2011). To ensure success, that is to say, to ensure the achievement of the aim, Walliaman, suggests as with all activities, the rigour with which this activity is conducted will be reflected in the quality of the results (Walliman, 2011). Moreover, also to use the appropriate tool considering the type of research to be carried out, subject, and how the findings will be measured in the end.

The research process is, therefore, concerned with collecting data and processing information to be analysed. Once the result is delivered the information provided can be used by the general public to add to their knowledge. (Moore, 2000)

7.2 Adopted Research Methodology

Cohen highlights that in planning research, it is essential to clarify a distinction that needs to be made between methodology and methods, approaches and instruments, styles of research and ways of collecting data (Cohen et al., 2007).

Kothari then defines *Research methodology* is a way to systematically solve the research problem, whereas research methods may be understood as the tools and instruments required for the conduction of research. (Kothari, 2004).

7.3 Research Approaches

Some theorists such as Kothari suggest that there are two basic approaches to research, *quantitative approach*, and the *qualitative approach*. A qualitative approach to research is concerned with the subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions, and behaviour (Kothari, 2004)

There are many considerations when deciding whether to adopt a qualitative or quantitative research methodology. Some authors believe that qualitative methods are appropriate to understand better a topic which is not well known or gain new perspectives on subjects widely known and discussed. Also, to obtain more in-depth information that quantitative methods may not be applicable when measuring results as expressed by Hoepfl citing Strauss and Corbin (1990). Hoepfl (Hoepfl, 1997) believes that qualitative methods are very much recommended in situations where one finds the need to identify the variables that might later be tested quantitatively. Also where the researcher has identified that quantitative measures cannot adequately describe or interpret a situation (Hoepfl, 1997)

Therefore, the research methodology that has been adopted to evaluate the role emotions play in negotiation is one of a qualitative analysis approach.

Inductive approaches are intended to assist in understanding meanings in relation to the spectrum by developing topics or categories summarized from the raw data (Thomas, 2006). This approach is used on a daily basis, as individuals learn from what they have experienced and tend to set this up as a rule or a pattern points the author.

7.4 Qualitative Analysis

It is believed that qualitative data has the ability to better draw a picture from a specific phenomenon, not only from the researcher's point of view but also from the reader's perspective (Hoepfl, 1997). Hoepfl is citing Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 120. "If you want people to understand better than they otherwise might, provide them information in the form in which they usually experience it."

In concordance with that, another author suggests that qualitative analysis aims to provide a full and detailed description. No attempt is made to assign frequencies to the linguistic features which are identified in the data, and rare phenomena receive (or should receive) the same

amount of attention as more frequent phenomena. Qualitative analysis allows for subtle differentiation to be drawn because there is no need to support the data into a finite number of classifications (Atieno, 2009). Hoepfl further argues that qualitative research usually provides detailed reports, insights into participants' experiences of the world, which, according to her, promote a more meaningful analyse (Hoepfl, 1997).

7.5 Sources of Data

Anderson promotes that qualitative research concerns the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data that are not easily translated into numbers. These data, argues the author, is related to the social world and the concepts and behaviours of people within it (Anderson, 2010).

The author mention what types of qualitative data include:

- Field notes (notes which were taken by the researcher while in the field [setting] being studied)
- Video recordings (e.g., lecture delivery, class assignments, laboratory performance)
- Case study notes
- Images
- Documents (reports, meeting minutes, e-mails)
- Diaries, video diaries
- Observation notes (Anderson, 2010).

As one of the many sources of information that can be considered to qualitative researchers according to Hoepfl is an analysis of documents, as well as the published data used in a review of the literature (Hoepfl, 1997). Walliman defends that sources in the form of texts and documents provide a great deal of data about society, both historically and of the present. There is a wide range of analytical methods that can be applied to the analysis of the subtleties of the text. (Walliman, 2011)

For the purpose of this paper, the researcher chose to analyse the literature review and studies conducted in the field of Psychology and Conflict management in order to formulate the foundation for the evaluation.

7.7 Strengths and Limitation of the Qualitative Approach

Professor Atieno highlights that all qualitative data can be quantitatively coded in many different forms. However, this does not detract from the qualitative information. She recommends the importance of recognizing the similarities between qualitative and quantitative information and the possibilities for interpretation. An interesting indicator raised by the author is that all quantitative data is based on qualitative judgment. Numbers in and of themselves cannot be interpreted without understanding the assumptions which underlie them (Atieno, 2009).

7.7.1 Strengths of Qualitative Research

- Issues can be examined in detail and in-depth (Anderson, 2010).
- The research framework and direction can be quickly revised as new information emerges (Anderson, 2010).
- The data based on human experience that is obtained is powerful and sometimes more compelling than quantitative data (Anderson, 2010).
- Good at simplifying and managing data without destroying complexity and context (Atieno, 2009).
- Qualitative methods are highly appropriate for questions where pre-emptive reduction of the data will prevent discovery (Atieno, 2009).

- Data usually are collected from a few cases or individuals, so findings cannot be generalized to a larger population. Findings can, however, be transferable to another setting (Anderson, 2010).

7.7.2 Limitation of Qualitative Research

- Ambiguities, which are inherent in human language, can be recognized in the analysis. For example, the word "red" could be used in a corpus to signify the colour red, or as a political categorization (e.g., socialism or communism). In a qualitative analysis both senses of red in the phrase "the red flag" could be recognized (Atieno, 2009).
- The main disadvantage of qualitative approaches to corpus analysis is that their findings cannot be extended to more large populations with the same degree of certainty that quantitative analyses can. This is because the findings of the research are not tested to discover whether they are statistically significant or due to chance (Atieno, 2009)

For the purpose of this project the researcher concluded that the qualitative approach has shown to be the most suitable resource regarding the essence of this paper, however, it would not be prudent to conduct this research without taking into consideration the limitations qualitative approach presents. In other words, it is crucial to consider that the accuracy of the findings obtained from research which used qualitative methods may not be as precise as a quantitative result.

Chapter 8 - Results and Discussion

Emotions do not come as the result of an observation or an experiment, but rather as the result of the things we say to ourselves about those perceptions or situations.

Marilyn J. Sorensen.

The objective of this study is to investigate the impact emotions have in negotiations and analyse through studies how this unmeasurable factor has influenced negotiations outcomes, and also evaluate the importance of this factor during the negotiation process. In order to develop a critical answer to the research question, this study began comprehensively by gathering concepts in the area of psychology to understand from a psychological perspective how emotions work, how they are classified, and yet controversial how they are defined. The same rationale was applied to negotiation and expanded from its concept to the reason why people engage in any negotiation.

According to Hutson, the predominant model proposes that people have a standard set of emotions--anger, sadness, fear, disgust, interest, and happiness--and that each one corresponds to a clearly defined pattern of brain activity and behaviour (Hutson, 2008). The table below was made based on Ortony & Turners' (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990) work which primarily presented the leading theorists and what they considered to be basic emotions which according to Hutson composed the predominant set of emotions experienced by an individual.

Basic Negative Emotions	Theorist
Anger	Plutchik; Arnold; Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth; Izard; McDougall; Oatley and Johnson-Laird; Tomkins
Fear	Plutchik; Arnold; Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth; Izard; McDougall; Tomkins; James; Panksepp; Watson
Sadness	Plutchik; Arnold; Weiner and Graham; Oatley and Johnson-Laird; Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth

Disgust	Plutchik; Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth; Izard; McDougall; Oatley and Johnson-Laird; Tomkins
Aversion	Arnold
Dejection	Arnold
Despair	Arnold
Hate	Arnold
Sorrow	Frijda
Rage	Gray; Watson; James
Terror	Gray; Watson; James
Anxiety	Gray; Oatley and Johnson-Laird
Guilty	Izard
Distress	Izard; Tomkins
Shame	Izard
Panic	Panksepp

Table 2: Basic Negative Emotions (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990)

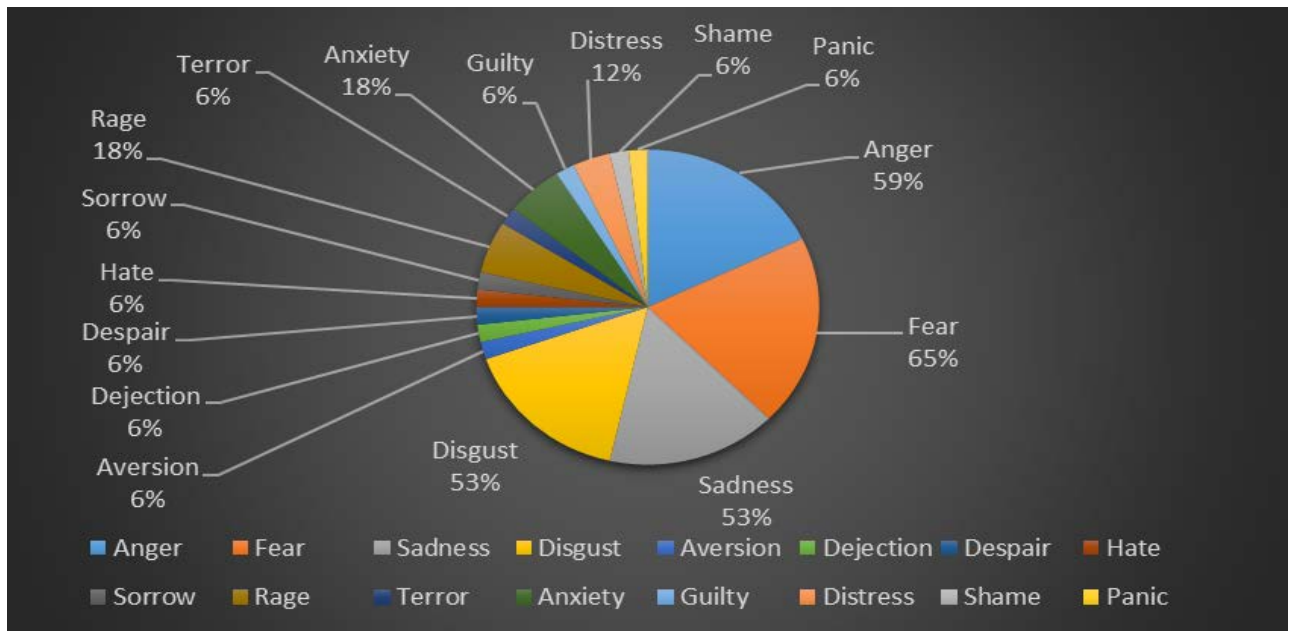


Figure 4: Basic Negative Emotions, based on table 2 provided by (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990)

The graph translates into a visual form what is believed to be the most common negative emotions, the data was based on the table provided by Ortony & J.Turner, theorists do agree that fear, anger and sadness lead the ranking of negative emotions, and these are also the most recurring emotions at the negotiation table.

Following that, the same applies to positive emotions as per the table provided by Ortony & J.Turner.

Basic Positive Emotions	Theorist
Joy	Plutchik; Ekman, Friesen, and Ellsworth; Gray; Izard; Tomkins
Happiness	Frijda; Oatley and Johnson-Laird; Weiner and Graham
Love	Arnold; James; Watson
Interest	Frijda; Izard; Tomkins

Table 3: Basic Positive emotions (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990)

With regard to positive emotions, joy, happiness, interest, and love are on the top, according to theorists' view.

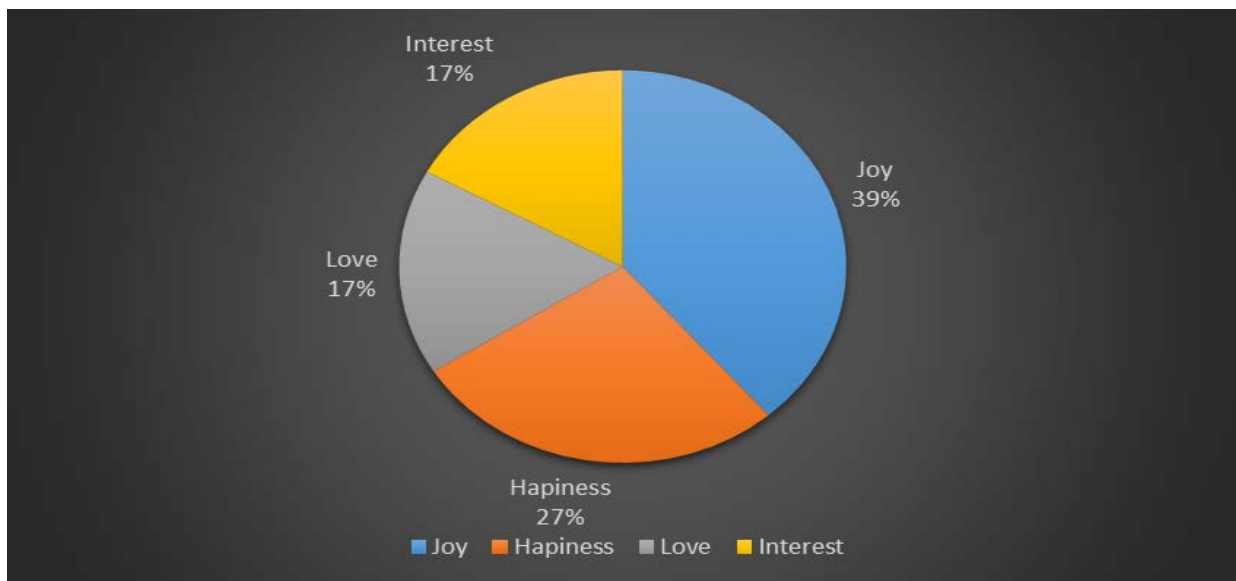


Figure 5: Basic Positive emotions, based on table 3 provided by (Ortony & J.Turner, 1990)

One interesting find is that positive emotions are not as recurrent as negative emotions at the negotiation table. As expected in a conflict context, negative emotions are much more in evidence even one is feeling positive about the matter to be discussed at the negotiation table.

Another interesting point is that emotion can vary, moving from one sentiment to another, i.e. shame may turn into anger, intensifying, or reducing in intensity over the course of negotiations. The table is based on the concept of the wheel of emotions that illustrate this concept.

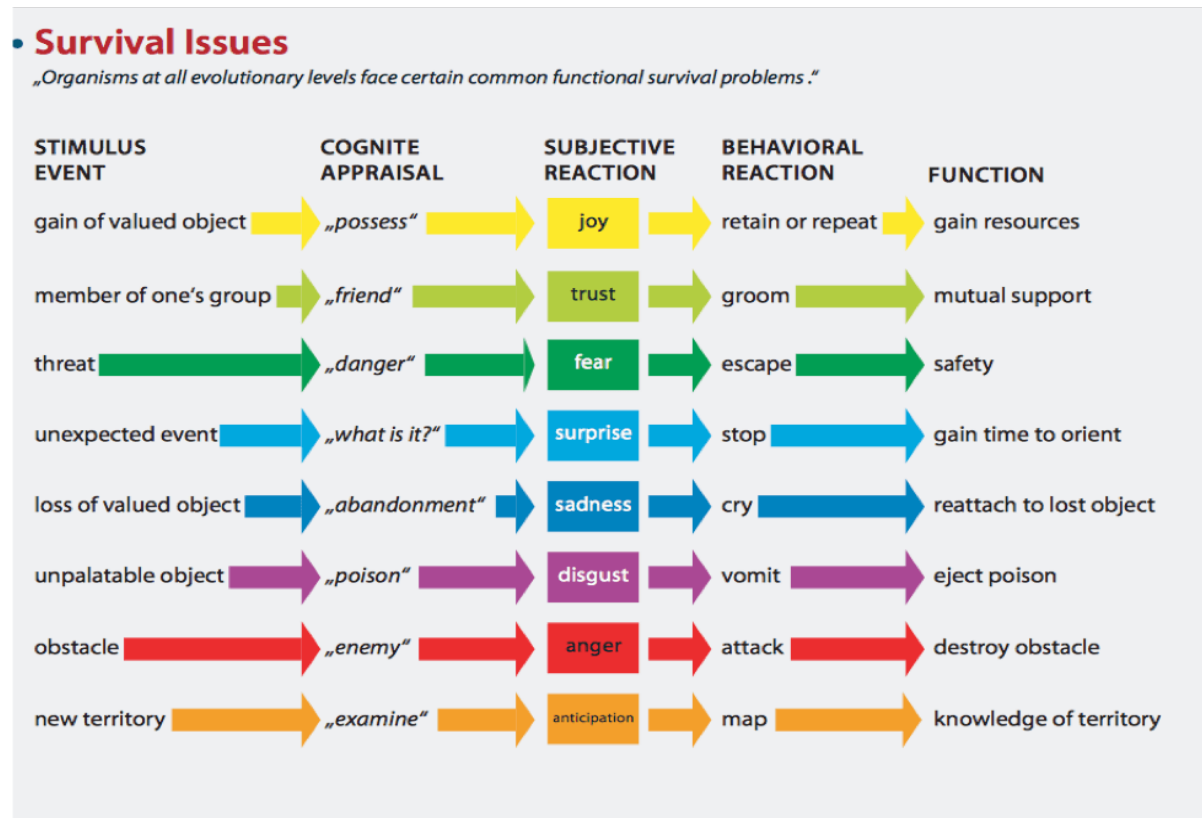


Figure 6: Survival Issues, based on the concept the wheel of emotions developed by Plutchik, (Karimova, 2017)

Based on this concept, Brooks suggests that one might consider reframing anger as sadness. Although reframing one negative emotion as another may appear illogical, she argues that shared feelings of sadness can lead to cooperative concession making, whereas oppositional anger often leads to an impasse, or as the table demonstrate to an attack (Brooks, 2015).

8.1 Discussion

“Emotion can be described in terms of multiple languages that include subjective feelings, cognitions, impulses to action, and behaviour” (Plutchik, 1984).

Kleff provides that despite the limited amount of research available covering the subject of interpersonal effects of emotions such as anger and, to a lesser degree, happiness, the studies that are out there provide some crucial insights into the workings of emotions in conflict and negotiation. For example, Thompson, Valley, and Kramer 1995 investigated how an opponent's signs of disappointment versus happiness affect a focal negotiator's judgments regarding negotiation success. They found that independent of objective negotiation performance, negotiators felt more successful when the opponent was disappointed rather than happy. This finding indicates that negotiators take the other's disappointment as a signal that the other was hoping for more, suggesting that they themselves did an excellent job in extracting concessions from the other (Kleef, 2008).

Similarly Brooks suggests that as the negotiation wrap up one should not celebrate immediately as it may seem to the other party they made extensive concessions beyond to what was necessary, as an example used previously in this paper ‘The National Football League prohibits and penalizes “excessive celebrations” after a touchdown or big play because such conduct can generate ill will’ (Brooks, 2015).

According to Brook, there is a body of research—much of it by Keith Allred, a former faculty member at Harvard's Kennedy School of Government—that documents the consequences of feeling angry while negotiating. This research shows that anger often harms the process by escalating conflict, biasing perceptions, and making impasses more likely. It also reduces joint gains, decreases cooperation, intensifies competitive behaviour, and increases the rate at which offers are rejected. Angry negotiators are less accurate than neutral negotiators both in recalling

their own interests and in judging other parties' interests. Moreover, angry negotiators may seek to harm or retaliate against their counterparts, even though a more cooperative approach might increase the value that both sides can claim from the negotiation (Brooks, 2015).

This paper also sought to evaluate if gender has any influence in the negotiation, considering emotions effect in men and women. Nadler & Lowery, 2009 presented that women have been found to be significantly more expressive in their display of emotions Ashmore, 1990. These expressions or displays of emotion are both verbal and nonverbal in nature Halberstadt, Cassidy, Stifter, Parke, & Fox, 1995. Women display sadness more than men but do not display anger more than men Rotter & Rotter, 1988. Generally, women have been shown to express more emotion, and this is culturally expected Kring & Gordon, 1998. The authors further argue that there is evidence that the subjective experience of emotion is similar between genders; cultural boundaries, however, dictate what is acceptable to display Kring & Gordon, 1998. In sum, there is strong support for gender differences in the expression of emotion, specifically sadness, with women displaying more emotion than men. There may also be a reason to suspect that gender differences in the appraisal of emotion exist, both in emotion appropriateness, and the supervisor appraisal of such emotional displays. Emotions such as anger are more associated with agentic behaviours and sadness with communal behaviours Oliver, Weaver, & Sargent, 2000; Rudman & Glick, 1999. Agentic behaviours such as being aggressive and forceful are considered masculine traits, while communal behaviours such as being caring and nurturing are more feminine. Thus, there may be differences in how men and women are evaluated as suggested by role congruity theory based on whether emotions displayed are in violation of prescriptive or descriptive stereotypes of what emotions are culturally acceptable for men or women to display (Nadler & Lowery, 2009).

A study carried by Kleef (Kleef, 2008) revealed that negotiators used their opponent's emotions to identify his or her limits, and subsequently used this information to make a counter-offer.

Negotiators who were confronted with an angry opponent estimated the opponent's limit to be high, and to avoid costly impasse they made relatively significant concessions. Conversely, negotiators with a happy opponent judged the opponent's limit to be less intense, felt no need to concede to avoid impasse, and as expected made relatively small concessions. This experiment further revealed that the effects of anger and happiness are mitigated when the opponent makes substantial concessions and thereby undermines the focal negotiator's motivation to take the other's emotion into account. Another study indicated that the effects of anger and happiness are diminished when the focal negotiator's attention is distracted from the opponent's emotion.

To sum up, the author indicates that the few studies that have addressed emotions other than anger and happiness indicate that emotions such as guilt, regret, disappointment, and worry, too, have theoretically meaningful interpersonal effects on negotiation behaviour and conflict development. These discrete emotions signal specific information that may subsequently feed into negotiators' strategic decision-making, and thereby affect their cooperative versus competitive tendencies.

Chapter 9 Conclusion

“Emotions tend to incite reciprocal or complementary reactions in others that help individuals to respond to significant social events” (Keltner & Haidt, 1999).

As the authors of the book, *Difficult Talks* states the art of understanding emotions, or even talking about them is among the most significant challenges of being human. There is nothing that will make dealing with feelings easy and risk-free. Of course, it doesn't always make sense to discuss feelings (Stone, et al., 1999), however, in scenario of conflict where a wise resolution

is being sought is necessary to take into consideration essential variables that play its part in the background and also need enough incentives to make settlement look like the best option. (Maiese, 2005)

Evaluating by the raw data is safe to say that emotions do shape behaviour, which will reflect immediately in how people behave or react at the negotiation table.

Kleef whose work was extensively adopted for the purposed of this paper states by using Ekman, 1993; Scherer, 1986 literature that in a negotiation, a disappointed or sad opponent might elicit compassion, which might, in turn, lead to more cooperative behaviour. Besides, emotions translate or transmit crucial information about how one feels about a determinate situation or subject about one's altruistic intentions Ekman, Friesen, & Ellsworth, 1972; Fridlund, 1994, and about one's orientation and intentions towards other people Knutson, 1996. In this way, emotions can act as incentives or deterrents for other people's behaviour (Klinnert, Campos, Sorce, Emde & Svejda, 1983), which may prevent negotiators from engaging in destructive behaviours by indicating what behaviours will be tolerated and what will not (Kleef, 2008). Other work provided by the same author, however, this time with the cooperation of the author Côté proposes that discrete emotions such as anger, fear, and guilt influence judgment and behaviour based on a set of dimensions such as certainty and responsibility for events. This framework extends the affect-as-information model by positing that different emotions—including emotions of the same valence—have unique effects on judgments and behaviour. Under this model, any emotion (including incidental emotions that were caused by unrelated events to the dispute) may influence the negotiators' decisions about their goals, evaluations of counterparts' offer, and behaviours. For example, angry negotiators may feel more confident than their opponents will make concessions and, in turn, be more likely to make demands compared to neutral negotiators view supported by Lerner & Tiedens 2006. Given these proposed links between specific emotions and appraisals and action tendencies, the appraisal-

tendency framework can inform predictions about how experienced emotions may influence behaviour in conflict and negotiation. For instance, expression of anger may be expected to fuel competitive behaviour, whereas feelings of guilt may motivate cooperation (Kleef & Côté, 2018).

As stated by White & White not only emotions shape negotiations, but they are also used as a mechanism to keep from getting at the core of the conflict, which may be too painful to face head-on. In any event, emotional overreactions and under reactions are merely attempts to gain or regain control (White & White, 2001-2002). Other theories suggest that people use their own emotional experiences as a source of information when deciding how to respond to (social) stimuli. Conducting a successful negotiation and conflict resolution are vital to the performance of individuals, teams, organizations, and nations. It was exposed that emotional dynamics play a crucial role in shaping the emergence, development, and resolution of not only social but any conflict. The intrapersonal process is the means in which one influence their cognitions and behaviour, through emotions that they may have experienced. Through interpersonal processes, the emotions that are expressed by parties in conflict influence their counterparts' affect, cognition, and behaviours. As the literature which combines emotion in conflict and negotiation develop, the field should move toward the development of evidence-based interventions that capitalize on emotional dynamics to improve negotiation success and enhance conflict resolution (Kleef & Côté, 2018).

Kleef's work was the foundation of this paper; there seems to have very little if any opposing view to his studies and models.

The researcher concludes that, despite many contrary views on the theory of Getting to Yes as proposed by Fisher and Ury, separate people from the problem, there is very little evidence if any on Kleef's EASI model which suggests that this theory is applicable. That is to say, the

majority of theorists consulted agree in disagreeing with Fisher and Ury. However, there is no clear evidence that they disagree with the model applied by Kleeef.

Emotions do shape negotiation in many different forms, can be used as an asset, or strategy, the usage and the outcome will very much depend on the approach the disputant part, or negotiator decides to take.

Reflection

Now that the end is near, I can safely say that I could not have chosen another topic to write about. If I had not done my bachelor's degree in Business it most certainly would have been Psychology or Law, on completion of my Masters in Conflict Resolution it feels like I have combined both subjects in one course. I can undoubtedly say that the dissertation was challenging. However, I gained knowledge, research and interpretation skills and experience.

The biggest hurdle for me throughout this journey was to learn how to deal with frustration. Frustration of not being as productive as I imagined, for example not meeting a certain pre-established schedule. A number of times it felt like I was failing. But I also learned to take a deep breath and self-regulate the doubts I had, after all this was the central topic, emotions. The more I read the more I learned not only from an academic perspective but also personally and professionally.

As it is a topic that directly and indirectly impacts many organisational segments, finding good materials was not necessarily a challenge, but there were situations where a particular article was crucial to closing an argument and I could not access. This resulted for me not meeting my initial chronogram. Despite some miscommunication issues the librarian in the college was a great help to access articles and even if the source was not available she would come up with an alternative literature.

While many student struggled to manage work and write a dissertation, I was very lucky to be placed in the IPA and be surrounded by this academic environment where every single individual would be empathetic and help me to get through this process.

There is still much studies that could be done in the area. For example, positive emotions and mediation, as I found very little literature regarding positive emotions as negative emotions seems to be the one primarily ruling the negotiation table. If given the opportunity I would extend the studies analysing specifically positive emotions.

Studying emotions made me see people differently, with a more detailed look. It made me more observant looking for the words behind the actions, the one that is not pronounced or listened to, but needs to be comprehended and that is what this project taught me, to comprehend.

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