

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY**

**SOCIAL VALUE ORIENTATION AFFECTING THE
USAGE OF UNETHICAL NEGOTIATION TACTICS
MODERATED BY
ANXIETY AND GAIN/LOSS FRAMING**

Ph.D. THESIS

ERMAN GÖRGÜLÜ

İSTANBUL, 2021

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY**

**GRADUATE SCHOOL
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PHD PROGRAM**

**SOCIAL VALUE ORIENTATION AFFECTING THE
USAGE OF UNETHICAL NEGOTIATION TACTICS
MODERATED BY
ANXIETY AND GAIN/LOSS FRAMING**

Ph.D. Thesis

ERMAN GÖRGÜLÜ

Thesis Supervisor: Prof. Dr. AHMET ERKUŞ

İSTANBUL, 2021



**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
BAHÇEŞEHİR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL**

.../06/2021

We hereby recommend that the dissertation prepared under our supervision by **Erman Görgülü** entitled “**Social Value Orientation Affecting the Usage of Unethical Negotiation Tactics (Moderated by Anxiety And Gain/Loss Framing)**” be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the **Doctor of Philosophy Business Administration**.

Thesis Supervisor

Recommendation concurred in:

Committee Members

Approved:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I want to thank Prof. Dr. Ahmet ERKUS who is my thesis advisor for the valuable supervision and support provided by him. I also want to thank all of the members of the thesis committee, Prof. Dr. Ela Ünler, Prof. Dr. Gonca Gunay, and other committee members for valuable guidance and advices provided by them. I want to thank Bahcesehir University Faculty members regarding their valuable instructions.

I am grateful to everyone who helped me during the most challenging periods of my life. I would like to thank my brother, Dr. Orkun Görgülü, who always provided a wise counsel, be a role model and supported me in all my pursuits. I would like to thank my wife, Secil, for her tremendous understanding, toleration, and support through my phd study. I also would like to thank Dr. Dogan Recep Gümeli, for his support, guidance, and encouragement. Thanks to my friends, colleagues who voluntarily participated and took time to complete, pass out the questionnaire to other participants for this study.

My final and important appreciation goes to my lovely parents. My parents, Yasemin and Ali who raised me with a love of science and supported me in all my pursuits throughout this entire process and has made countless sacrifices to help me get to this point. Thank you so much for your love, encouragement, unending support, and understanding.

Istanbul, 2021

Erman GÖRGÜLÜ

ABSTRACT

SOCIAL VALUE ORIENTATION AFFECTING THE USAGE OF UNETHICAL NEGOTIATION TACTICS MODERATED BY ANXIETY AND GAIN/LOSS FRAMING

Erman Görgülü

PhD in Business Administration

Thesis Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Ahmet Erkuş

June 2021, 200 pages

Considering the associations of social value orientation, ethically questionable tactics, anxiety, and gain/loss framing, this thesis tries to investigate the effect of social value orientation of the individuals on the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics and how individual's level of anxiety, and the gain/loss frame of the situation moderate this relation. The research is made with 338 employees who are working as sales managers, both in private and state companies in Turkey. The present study has an advantage and practical usefulness by using both individual (social value orientation) and situational factors (gain/loss framing) to analyze the degree of unethical tactic selection by using real study cases. Results display significant difference between SVO and usage of EQNT. Besides, both gain/loss framing effect and anxiety level moderates this relation whereas the usage of EQNT is increasing with loss framing and high anxiety level. However, for individualistic-competitive and altruist-collaborative value-orientation, anxiety level and gain/loss framing partially moderating for the usage of EQNT. This of the study have practical implications about the individual social motives, usage of EQNT during negotiations with a moderated affect of anxiety and gain/loss framing.

Key Words: Negotiation, Ethics, SVO, Anxiety, Framing

ÖZET

BİREYLERİN SOSYAL DEĞER YÖNELİMLERİNİN, ETİK DIŞI MÜZAKERE TAKTİK TERCİHLERİNE ETKİSİ - ANKSİYETE VE KAZANÇ-KAYIP ÇERÇEVELEME ETKİSİNİN DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜ

Erman Görgülü

İşletme Doktora Programı

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Ahmet Erkuş

June 2021, 200 sayfa

Sosyal Değer Yönelimi, etik dışı müzakere taktik seçimi, anksiyete ve kazanç-kayıp çerçeveleme arasındaki ilişkiler dikkate alınarak, bu tez çalışmasında; bireylerin sosyal değer yönelimlerinin, etik dışı müzakere taktik tercihleri üzerindeki etkisini ve bireylerin anksiyete seviyelerinin ve kazanç-kayıp çerçeveleme etkisinin bu ilişkiyi moderatör olarak nasıl yönlendiklerini ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Araştırma, Türkiye’de hem özel hem de kamu kuruluşlarında satış yöneticiliği yapan 338 çalışanla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın avantajı hem bireysel hem de durumsal faktörleri göz önüne alıp, gerçek müzakere durumları ile etik dışı davranış tercihlerini incelemesidir. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre bireyin sosyal değer yönelimleri ile etik dışı müzakere taktik tercihleri arasında anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca kazanç-kayıp çerçeveleme etkisi ve anksiyete seviyesinin; bireylerin sosyal değer yönelimleri ve etik dışı müzakere taktik tercihleri arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolü olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Ancak bireyselci-rekabetçi ve fedakar-paylaşımçı sosyal yönelimlerinin etik dışı müzakere taktik tercihleri için kazanç-kayıp çerçeveleme etkisi ve anksiyete seviyesinin kısmi düzenleyici rolü olduğu görülmektedir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, sosyal değer yönelimi, etik dışı müzakere taktik tercihi arasındaki ilişkileri ve anksiyete, kazanç-Kayıp çerçeveleme etkilerini ayrıntılı inceleyerek olumlu verilere ve katkılara sahiptir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Müzakere, Etik, SVO, Anksiyete, Çerçeveleme

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
ABBREVIATIONS.....	xiv
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY	1
1.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY.....	6
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1 ETHICS.....	8
2.1.1 The Concept of Ethics	8
2.1.1.1 Cognitive development.....	9
2.1.1.2 Theory of moral development.....	12
2.1.1.3 Four-component model.....	15
2.2 NEGOTIATION AND ETHICS	18
2.2.1 The Concept of Negotiation.....	18
2.2.1.1 Early research on negotiation concept	19
2.2.1.2 Behavioral decision research	23
2.2.2 The Theories of Negotiation Ethics.....	25
2.2.2.1 Normative methods in business ethics	26
2.2.2.1.1 Agency theory.....	28
2.2.2.1.2 Stakeholder theory	29
2.2.2.1.3 Social contract theories	30
2.2.2.2 Descriptive methods in business ethics	33
2.2.3 Negotiation Strategies and Decision Making in Business.....	37
2.2.4 Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics.....	41
2.2.4.1 Antecedents and consequences of using ethically negotiation tactics.....	50
2.3 SOCIAL VALUE ORIENTATION	57
2.3.1 Interdependence Theory	57
2.3.2 The Concept of Social Value Orientation	63

2.3.2.1 Antecedents and consequences of SVO	69
2.4 FRAMING	72
2.4.1 The Concept of Framing	72
2.4.2 Antecedents and Consequences of Framing Effect	78
2.5 ANXIETY	82
2.5.1 The Concept of Anxiety.....	82
2.5.2 Antecedents and Consequences of Anxiety.....	85
2.6 ETHICALLY QUESTIONABLE NEGOTIATION TACTICS AND RESEARCH VARIABLES IN THE STUDY	88
2.6.1 Social Value Orientation and Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics	88
2.6.2 Moderating Effect of Anxiety.....	95
2.6.3 Moderating Effect of Gain/Loss Framing.....	97
3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	101
3.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	101
3.1.1 List of Hypothesis	101
3.2 MODEL OF THE RESEARCH.....	104
3.3 SAMPLING PLAN.....	105
3.4 PILOT STUDY	106
3.5 DATA COLLECTION AND STUDY DESIGN	107
3.5.1 Demographics of Survey Respondents.....	108
3.6 OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE VARIABLES	111
3.6.1 Measuring Social Value Orientation.....	113
3.6.2 Measuring Ethically Questionable Tactics	114
3.6.3 Measuring Anxiety and Applying Framing.....	115
3.6.4 Preliminary Data Analysis	116
4. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	118
4.1 EXAMINING THE DATA	118
4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics.....	119
4.2 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS	120
4.2.1 Reliability Analysis on EQNT	120
4.2.2 Reliability Analysis on Social Value Orientation	121

4.2.3 Reliability Analysis on Trait Anxiety.....	121
4.2.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis	122
4.2.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis	126
4.2.5.1 CFA for ethically questionable negotiation tactics...	126
4.2.5.2 CFA for trait anxiety.....	129
4.2.6 Correlation Analysis of the Research Variables.....	131
4.2.7 Validity and Reliability of the Constructs	131
4.2.8 Multicollinearity	133
4.2.9 Hypothesis Testing.....	135
4.2.9.1 Assumption check for anova.....	136
4.2.9.2 Manipulation check.....	138
4.2.9.3 Hypothesis testing for direct relationships	141
4.2.9.3.1 <i>Analysis of variance testing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT.....</i>	144
4.2.9.3.1.1 <i>Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT</i>	145
4.2.9.3.2 <i>Analysis of variance testing between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT.....</i>	147
4.2.9.3.2.1 <i>Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and deceiving- EQNT.....</i>	148
4.2.9.3.3 <i>Analysis of Variance testing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT.....</i>	150
4.2.9.3.3.1 <i>Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT.....</i>	151
4.2.9.4 Hypothesis testing for moderating relationships.....	153
4.2.9.4.1 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between prosocials/proself orientation and EQNT.....</i>	156
4.2.9.4.2 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and pretending-EQNT</i>	162
4.2.9.4.3 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and deceiving-EQNT</i>	164
4.2.9.4.4 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and lying-EQNT</i>	167
4.2.9.4.5 <i>Moderating effect of gain/loss framing between prosocials/proself orientation and EQNT.....</i>	169

4.2.9.4.6 <i>Moderating effect of gain/loss framing between SVO and pretending-EQNT</i>	174
4.2.9.4.7 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and deceiving-EQNT</i>	176
4.2.9.4.8 <i>Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and lying-EQNT</i>	179
5.CONCLUSION	183
5.1 DISCUSSION	183
5.1.1 The Relationship of Prosocial/Proself Groups on EQNT.....	185
5.1.2 The Relationship of Altruism and Collaborative Value Orientation on EQNT	187
5.1.3 The Relationship of Individualism and Competitive Value Orientation on EQNT	188
5.1.4 Moderator Effect of Trait Anxiety Between the Relationship of SVO Categories on EQNT.....	190
5.1.5 Moderator Effect of Gain/Loss Framing Between the Relationship of SVO Categories on EQNT	192
5.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS	194
5.3 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS	196
5.4 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE	199
REFERENCES	201
APPENDICES	255
APPENDIX 1: TURKISH QUESTIONNAIRE	256

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2. 1: Comparison of unethical negotiation tactics.....	46
Table 2. 2: Prisoner’s dilemma outcome comparison.....	64
Table 3. 1: List of hypotheses.....	102
Table 3. 2: Gender distribution of respondents	108
Table 3. 3: Age statistics of respondents.....	108
Table 3. 4: Education levels	109
Table 3. 5: Job title distribution.....	111
Table 3. 6: Marital status of participants.....	111
Table 3. 7: Variables of the research	112
Table 3. 8: Scales of the research	113
Table 3. 9: Social value orientation and SVO angle.....	114
Table 4. 1: Descriptive statistics of ethically questionable negotiation tactics	119
Table 4. 2: Reliability of the variables in the study	122
Table 4. 3: KMO and Barlett’s test results for EQNT	123
Table 4. 4: Items and their factor loadings for EQNT	124
Table 4. 5: Means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of variables.....	131
Table 4. 6: Validity and reliability scores of EQNT construct.....	133
Table 4. 7: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable pretending	134
Table 4. 8: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable deceiving.....	134
Table 4. 9: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable lying.....	134
Table 4. 10: Shapiro-Wilk. normality test.....	137
Table 4. 11: Test of homogeneity of variances - Levene test.....	138
Table 4. 12: Gain/loss frame scenario.....	138
Table 4. 13: Manipulation check questions.....	139
Table 4. 14: Manipulation check question-1 group statistics	139
Table 4. 15: Independent sample test.....	140
Table 4. 16: Manipulation check question-2 group statistics	140
Table 4. 17: One-sample t-test.....	141

Table 4. 18: Test of homogeneity of variances SVO and EQNT	141
Table 4. 19: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and EQNT	142
Table 4. 20: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and pretending.....	145
Table 4. 21: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and pretending.....	146
Table 4. 22: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and deceiving	148
Table 4. 23: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and deceiving	149
Table 4. 24: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and lying	151
Table 4. 25: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and lying	152
Table 4. 26: Chi-Square test for anxiety and SVO	155
Table 4. 27: Chi-Square test for gain/loss framing and SVO.....	156
Table 4. 28: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and pretending-EQNT.....	157
Table 4. 29: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and deceiving-EQNT	159
Table 4. 30: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and lying-EQNT	161
Table 4. 31: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT.....	163
Table 4. 32: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT	165
Table 4. 33: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and lying-EQNT	167
Table 4. 34: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and pretending-EQNT.....	169
Table 4. 35: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and deceiving-EQNT	171
Table 4. 36: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and lying-EQNT	173
Table 4. 37: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT.....	175
Table 4. 38: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT	177
Table 4. 39: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT	179
Table 4. 40: Result of hypothesis testing	181

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Piaget’s cognitive development.....	10
Figure 2.2: Definitions of a lie	12
Figure 2.3: Kohlberg’s stages of moral development.....	13
Figure 2.4: Four psychological components determining moral behavior	16
Figure 2.5: Stakeholders of a business.....	29
Figure 2.6: Contingency model of ethical decision making.....	34
Figure 2.7: Interactionist model of ethical decision making.....	35
Figure 2.8: Ethical decision-making models.....	36
Figure 2.9: Conflict management styles	38
Figure 2.10: Individual and situational variable for ethical decision making.....	44
Figure 2.11: Mutual exchange with profit situation	59
Figure 2.12: Dimensions of situations and interpersonal dispositions	61
Figure 2.13: The transformation process	62
Figure 2.14: A graphical representation of the SVO framework	66
Figure 2.15: The archetypal social value orientations	67
Figure 2.16: A typical s-shaped value function.....	74
Figure 2.17: Two problem defined for valuation in prospect theory.....	75
Figure 2.18: The standard risky choice framing paradigm	76
Figure 2.19: The attribute framing paradigm.....	77
Figure 2.20: The basic goal framing paradigm	78
Figure 3.1: Research model.....	104
Figure 3.2: Direct hypotheses.....	104
Figure 3.3: Moderation hypotheses	105
Figure 3.4: Age statistics of respondents	109
Figure 3.5: Professional experiences of respondents (years)	110
Figure 4.1: CFA first order analysis of EQNT.....	127
Figure 4.2: CFA second order analysis of EQNT	128
Figure 4.3: CFA first order analysis of trait anxiety.....	130

Figure 4.4: 95% confidence intervals for pretending	143
Figure 4.5: 95% confidence intervals for deceiving.....	143
Figure 4.6: 95% confidence intervals for lying.....	144
Figure 4.7: 95% confidence intervals for pretending	147
Figure 4.8: 95% confidence intervals for deceiving.....	150
Figure 4.9: 95% confidence intervals for lying.....	153
Figure 4.10: Relationship among dependent, independent, and moderating variables	154
Figure 4.11: Relationship among dependent, independent, and moderating variables	155
Figure 4.12: Comparision of marginal means for pretending-EQNT.....	158
Figure 4.13: Comparision of marginal means for deceiving-EQNT	160
Figure 4.14: Comparision of marginal eans for lying-EQNT	162
Figure 4.15: Comparision of marginal means between SVO categories for pretending- EQNT.....	164
Figure 4.16: Comparision of marginal means between SVO categories for deceiving- EQNT.....	166
Figure 4.17: Comparision of marginal means between SVO categories for lying- EQNT.....	168
Figure 4.18: Comparision of marginal means for pretending-EQNT.....	170
Figure 4.19: Comparision of marginal means for deceiving-EQNT	172
Figure 4.20: Comparision of marginal means for lying-EQNT	174
Figure 4.21: Comparision of marginal means between SVO Categories for pretending- EQNT.....	176
Figure 4.22: Comparision of marginal means between SVO Categories for deceiving- EQNT.....	178
Figure 4.23: Comparision of marginal means between SVO Categories for lying- EQNT.....	180

ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	:	Adjusted Goodness-fit-Index
AMOS	:	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
ASV	:	Average Shared Variance
AVE	:	Analysis Variance Extracted
BMR	:	Bounded Moral Rationality
CFA	:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	:	Comparative Fit Index
CR	:	Construct Reliability
CSO	:	Civil Society Organization
DM	:	Decision Maker
DV	:	Dependent Variable
EFA	:	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EQNT	:	Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics
GFI	:	Goodness-of-Fit Index
IV	:	Independent Variable
MSV	:	Maximum Shared Variance
NPV	:	Net Present Value
PD	:	Prisoners Dilemma
RMSEA	:	Root Means Square Error of Approximation
SCT	:	Social Contracts Theory

SPSS	:	Statistical Package for Social Science
STAI	:	State-Trait Anxiety Inventory
SVO	:	Social Value Orientation
TLI	:	Tucker-Lewis Index
VIF	:	Variance Inflation Factor



1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 shows a general introduction and gives ideas regarding the inspiration for the study. It contains a general description of business ethics and social value orientation in a negotiation environment. Research is made to find their effects on ethically acceptable decision making with surrounding impact of the framing effect and anxiety level of an individual. Purpose of the study and research questions are also given in this section. This chapter is concluded by explaining the structure of thesis.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

People are living together in a harmony since the beginning of our time where it is not possible to escape or ignore the choices that life put in front of us. In every part of our life from childhood to adult as a businessman or to the evening of our life, we negotiate constantly. It is not always possible to predict the outcome of negotiation even if we are aware of the habit of person who we negotiate with.

Rapid changes in globalized world brings competition onto the table with critical moves and decision such as mergers&acquisition, answering changing customer demands, and surviving in ambiguous environment (Droge et al. 2008). Vast number of multi-national companies increased their trading with different corporations from different parts of the world (Edwards and Rees 2006). In such business environments, negotiation context deepens with involving more role-playing & strategy making and critical decision making to reach desired targets and/or goals. This complex environment includes many aspects including power differences, ethical norms, culture, social motives, situational differences, that leads decision making to become an unpredictable and even more complex process (Peleckis 2016; Grafström and Pallas 2007; Kjær and Langer 2003; Shan and Hamilton 1991). Thus, to predict human nature in decision making by considering factors that are given but not limited above, observing how individuals act in certain situations and environment and which strategies are or

can be used were primary topics for researchers in negotiation context. The reason is, if we are aware of our own values and belief with the awareness of how we act under certain situations during a negotiation, we are able to develop ourself and increase awareness for other people which may sharpen our decision-making ability.

It is obvious that, competition and/or cooperation both depends on social interaction which one can say is the pillar stone in bargaining. Although, the expected communication between people seems to be similar in a certain events, most people's thoughts and decisions may vary about their counterparts in a negotiation situation. Individuals' choice of how much they insist or give up while negotiating depends on their tendency of cooperate or compete. In early research has been made by Morton (Deutsch 1960), proposed three negotiation orientations: cooperative, individualistic, and competitive. The terminology depends the individuals behavior to maximize their pay-offs which is based in game theory, (Nash 1950), as the negotiation (or bargaining) is idealized for the problem under assumption of highly rational dyads (eliminated inconsistency), that each can accurately compare their desires for various things, that they are equal in bargaining skill, and that each has full knowledge of the tastes and preferences of the other.

Individual's own values and beliefs structurize ethical decision making in a negotiation environment. These values and beliefs at individual level questioned starting from fifth century B.C.E. in ancient greek till the present day. Relativisim concept, as the oppostive view of objective standart of the truths pioneered by Plato, is brought by philosoper Protagoras who was first to deny the objective truth that is seen and accepted by all individuals as ideal way to follow ethical rules. According to his view, moral codes are created by humans and can also be changed by humans. According to another philosopher, Callicles, moral laws created by human protects weaks and the law of nature promotes the ones who have might and power. In ancient era, this relativity in ethics was about how to speak in public, and mainly in politics. Today, ethics exists in both individual and society level. It is clear that, cognitive development from starting childhood with our interaction to environment has a strong effect in individual's moral

development (Trevino and Youngblood 1990). A difficult challenge may arise among individuals who have different backgrounds, culture and cognitive development stages.

In business environment, ethics corresponds a set of rules of conduct or moral code. These rules of conduct defined by the decisions we made, our preferences about a social dilemma, the way of handling a conflict, and selection of tactics during negotiations. Normative theories seeks an answer for which path should be select to be a moral person and have a better way of living by asking series of questions (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Trevino and Weaver 1994): How should people live? Should weak be protected by strong ones? Is it an ethical way to kill hundreds of people to save millions of life? Is it good idea to clone human embriyo to multiply same person? Is it right to tell lie, act dishonest, to protect your welfare in negotiation? These topics brought the question “why and how people should behave ethically?” that lights the way of searching a constant debate regarding the morality of the strategies undertaken during the decision-making process in negotiation. While most of the research considers deceiving, bluffing, lying, mispresentation of the facts as an unethical tactics (Provis 2000), there are others who consideres them as a nature of a negotiation (Allhoff 2003). Our main aim is to understand the severity of negotiation tactics based on different personal and situational factors, therefore in the thesis the ranked ethically questionable tactics (Erkus and Banai 2010) in three main groups “pretending” or “traditional competitive bargaining”, “deceiving” and “lying” are used in order to understand how individuals’ choice differentiate under different circumstances. From a different perspective, instead of finding a good or a bad behavior, in descriptive theories, ethical dilemma problems are researched to understand the main motives behind the different choices given by individuals considering different individual and situational factors (Loe et al. 2000).

The real world cases are far from what classical game theory percieves, therefore decision makers pursue broader set of goals based on personal opinions and social motives (Lange 1999). SVO (Social value orientation) is a concept emerged to understand the social motives of individuals behind the decision they make by Messic

and McClintock (1968) and enhanced later on (Knight et al. 1985; Maccrimmon and Messick 1976). Although the studies carried out abroad have come to a certain level, it is seen that the subject has been started to be discussed in our country and it has been emphasized by the limited number of researchers (Yalçın 2016). SVO includes prosocial orientations with 2 factors cooperation (maximization of own and others' outcomes) and altruistic (maximization of others' outcomes) and proself orientations with 2 factors individualism (maximization of own outcomes with little or no regard for others' outcomes) and competition (maximization of own outcomes relative to others' outcomes) (Lange 1999).

Individuals who has different orientations have different motivations which is consistent with the rationality of their choices (Van Lange et al. 1990). This subjective rationality also affects moral judgements and can also differentiates with similar personality types but have different social motives (Sharp 1898). Forsyth (1980) describes this topic as a choice of settling on another's morality by using own system of ethics. In the current research we focus on social orientation of individuals to understand the moral reasoning during negotiations.

At personal level, anxiety is an emotion with a complex structure that can trigger guilt, worry, aggression and stress over individuals (Mantar 2008). A person can have it like a trait, or it can be triggered due to different reasons such as high stress in work environment, time pressure, and traumatic events (Brown et al. 2000; Rogers et al. 1994). In a work environment, anxiety has a relationship with performance (Tilley et al. 1982), absenteeism (Swanson et al. 2011), well-being and emotional control (Koizumi et al. 2011). In business environment, especially when critical decisions need to be made, anxiety as an emotional burden leads to increase of self-interest therefore neglecting the collaboration possibility (Shalvi et al. 2012), lack of ability to understand potential consequences of a decision (Catherine and Elizabeth 2012), and desire to maintain self-esteem and own resources (Zhou et al. 2009). Therefore, high anxiety may well indicate the tendency of high self-interest which trigger the usage of dishonest behaviors (Lopez and Rice 2006), so in this study it is attempted to explore the

moderating effect of anxiety on the relationship between SVO and ethically questionable negotiation tactics selection.

While decision making during a negotiation, not only individual factors but also interpretation of the situation has a great importance. How a person decides during a business deal is about how they perceive the situation (Fagley and Miller 1997). This perspective is defined by gain/loss frame and based on prospect theory that describes the valuation of the same decision from different frames (Kahneman and Tversky 1979). Different perspectives of a situation changes the risk taking behavior of an individual, therefore it affects the decision making process (Levin et al. 1998). Based on prospect theory, when the situation framed as gains and losses, losing idea of a deal has a higher perceived value than winning idea. Therefore, in business environment, it triggers self-serving bias (De Dreu and Mc Cusker 1997), ignoring ethical agreements (Kern and Chugh 2009), selection of risky choices, sets higher aspirations and making fewer concessions during a negotiation process (Tversky and Kahneman 1981). Thus, in this study, framing of a situation will be considered as a potential situational moderating factor that will have impact between SVO and ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

Most studies of ethical decision making tend to focus on individualistic and situational factors alone, this study tries to find out how these decision may change by individuals anxiety level and framing effect in a given business scenario that influence engaging ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

The research model developed in this thesis is descriptive rather than prescriptive. Based on individuals' social values, their choices about ethical questionable negotiation tactics are researched in a business environment with regards to a behavioral change by anxiety level of a person and framing effect by using a business-related scenario. Considering the associations of social value orientation, ethically questionable tactics, anxiety, and gain/loss framing, in this study, it is tried to find out the effect of social value orientation that consists of individualism, competitive, collaborative, and altruism motives on individual's ethical decision-making behaviour and how the usage rate of

ethically questionable tactics moderated by anxiety and gain/loss framing of a situation. Variables are discussed with their antecedents and consequences. Similarities and differences in perception of the concept for all variables are also tried to be discovered. Based on the explanations above, research questions regarding this thesis can be developed as follows:

- i. How individuals' social orientations affect their selection of ethically questionable tactics during negotiations?
- ii. As a situational factor, does gain/loss framing of a given situation affect the relationship between social value orientation and the selection of ethically questionable tactics during negotiations?
- iii. As an individual factor, how anxiety level will impact over the relationship between social value orientation and the selection of ethically questionable tactics during negotiations?

1.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

After the brief introduction in Chapter 1; Chapter 2 provides a discussion of the cognitive development of an individual and the concept of business ethics. Individual and situational factors and their influence on ethical decision-making summarized starting from 1970 until today. The negotiation concept with unethically questionable tactics and their usages are described with the preference of pretending, deceiving and lying in negotiation. Chapter 2 also focused on pro-self and pro-social individuals (as a social value orientation) on a case based differentiated situation. Literature review is also made for moderating variables (gain/loss framing and anxiety), which are assumed to interact with the dependent and independent variables resulting a baseline for the hypothesis development. Hypotheses asserted in the thesis are presented separately after the literature review of the related variables.

For the Research design and methodology section provided as Chapter 3, the purpose, scope, methodology, constraints, and model of the research are put forward; and a list of hypotheses is provided. Social value orientation variables altruist, prosocial,

individualistic, and competitive are accepted as independent variables. Moderating variables are gain/loss framing and anxiety level of the individual while ethically questionable tactics as pretending, deceiving and lying considered as dependent variables. An explanation of the data collection methods, characteristics of the target sample, the measures that will be used to assess each construct, and the methods of statistical analysis of the data are presented.

Chapter 4 covers the Data Analysis and research findings for this study. In this section, statistical outputs of the survey results and findings are presented in detail.

In Conclusion section as Chapter 5, answers to the research questions which are presented in the introduction section are presented. An integrated discussion of the major findings of the researched hypothesis is provided. Contributions to the literature, research limitations, practical implications and suggestions for future research are also discussed in this final chapter.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this literature review chapter, a discussion of the concept of ethics is given starting with the cognitive moral development of an individual. Theoretical background of the business ethics theories and their relationship with ethically questionable tactics in negotiation are discussed. Individual and situational moderating variables, anxiety and gain/loss framing and their affects on moral decision making is reviewed. Hypotheses asserted in the thesis are presented separately after the literature review.

2.1 ETHICS

In this section, the concept of ethics is explained and discussed along with business environment including roots of moral development and how it effects our decision-making progress. Different approaches to the ethics concept in the history are explained. Development of ethical decision making has roots on the earlier theories such as cognitive and moral development. Based on these theories, it is possible for us to understand the reason of behavioral choices of individuals and create opportunities for future research. As previously explained, since ethical decision making in negotiation becomes critically important in business environment, this chapter will start to describe individual's moral development. In this section, the ethics and its norms presented with its development from previous studies based on cognitive and moral judgements. The roots of ethical values in business environment discussed mainly with the concept of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. Development of ethical values in negotiation is presented and examples of studies are provided. Effects of these values in negotiation context are discussed.

2.1.1 The Concept of Ethics

From the childhood to adult stage, individuals have a continuous interaction with other people and their environment. These interactions create understanding of the out-world

by questioning what is right and wrong, the consequences of our actions and analyze the behaviors of others. The answer for the question “How to behave?” does not always has a simple answer. This leads us to the ethics concept, where we can talk about ethics, only when group of people have a desire to live together. Capra and Steindl-Rast (1991) described ethics as “how we decide to behave when we decide we belong together”. Our virtues guide our behavior and decision making towards to other individuals in our environment to drive justice and equity. Before starting to discuss business ethics and the concept of ethically questionable negotiation tactics, development of ethical values in past century is discussed by explaining developmental psychologists Piaget’s and Kohlberg’s cognitive and moral development theories and Rest’s four component model theory which explains and predicts individuals’ actual behavior.

2.1.1.1 Cognitive development

Piaget defined information as a knowledge blocks and call them “schema”. Scheme means an overview of plan and structure for future actions while schema is a knowledge and outline for the result of a specific action imagined in our minds (Overton and Gallagher 1977). Piaget explained “schema” in his book the origins of intelligence in children as (1952) "a cohesive, repeatable action sequence possessing component actions that are tightly interconnected and governed by a core meaning." Schema’s are not stable and can be modified with certain situations. These situations generate experiences from the world outside of us. It is about what we know about our environment.

When people deal with the new event on their environment or see new object in their childhood period, they try to match the new object with their existing schema’s. Piaget (1952) called this process “assimilation”. But in case new event and/or experience is not matched with existing schema, it needs to be recreated or changed. This adopting process is called “accommodation”.

According to Piaget, the main trigger for this flow assimilation through accommodation is learning process. Children try to balance new experiences and discover if they fit to an existing schema and modifying existing ones by disequilibrium if they are not matched with the existing schemas. Piaget (1952) states this process which children's try to balance of these two processes is called "Equilibrium".

According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development (1952), there are 4 development stages sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational stages which are the steps of interaction to the outworld by the development of cognition from childhood as seen below in Figure 2.1. These development stages start from the heteronomy where there are absolute truths which can be acquired from superiors such as parents stated as "laws of the gods" (Duska and Whelan 1975). After stages further develops the moral decisions becomes one's own free decisions which will be discussed in upcoming sections.

Figure 2. 1: Piaget's cognitive development

<i>Four stages of cognitive development</i>	
<i>Stage</i>	<i>Age/Period of Occurance</i>
<i>Sensorimotor</i>	Birth to 2 years
<i>Preoperational</i>	2 to 7 years
<i>Concrete Operational</i>	7 to 11 years
<i>Formal Operations</i>	Early to mid-adolescence 11 to 12 years

Source: (Duska and Whelan 1975)

At sensorimotor stage, interaction starts with simply physical environment sensing. These sensors provide a basic schema for the objects, and this perceived reality can disappear from their reality if the physical object is removed. There are no boundaries, such as norms, values, experiences which may limit their actions. After this stage, the period starts with a symbolic way of thinking and imaginations called preoperational stage. The imitation starts as they perceive their superiors as a ultimate role model which is described as "a stage of heteronomy" (Piaget 1952). The motivations of the

actions are based on egocentric thoughts and outside world is still can be understood with the physical interaction. Unawareness of social exchange during activity becomes social cooperation when infant matures. Therefore, it is called transitional state (Duska and Whelan 1975).

After first two stage, in concrete operational stage, the social interaction starts, and egocentric thoughts partly diminishes. Cause and effect relationship will appear for the situations. Children realize the importance of maintaining social relationship in society. The desire of cooperation between peers is strong at this stage that even children is able to question the rules or standards they are omitted and/or differences compromised (Duska and Whelan 1975). According to Piaget (1952) children are able to come up with a reasoning by inductive thinking. They can get experiences from their observations to make generalization while, the deductive thinking is not developed yet.

At final formal operational stage, cognition reaches its final form by creating logical explanations for the situations. These judgements not only for sensed physical objects but also for hypothetical thoughts (Piaget 1952). The perception of the details for a situation at its highest level (Duska and Whelan 1975). The will to maintain social connection within the group is still very high.

Even all rules are critically examined, it is not possible to make a rational judgement for all of them. Some of them become habits in daily life with a heteronomous submission which will become person's lifestyle. These rules become an interpretation of our look for ethical dilemma's and effect the way of thinking in a critical decision. As an example, infant's realization of telling a lie is analyzed by Piaget (1952), starting from no understanding of a lie at sensorimotor stage, realization of lie but including mistakes as a lie at preoperational stage, differentiating lie and mistakes at concrete operational stage and finally lie can be realized only if it is done intentionally as seen below in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2. 2: Definitions of a lie

Age	2-5 years old	5-8 years old	8-10 years old	10-12 years old
Any statement intentionally false				X
Something that isn't true			X	
Something isn't true that incl. mistakes		X		
A naughty word	X			

Source: (Duska and Whelan 1975)

2.1.1.2 Theory of moral development

Kohlberg (1958) created a new field within psychology by extending Piaget's stages of cognitive development for childhood period. The main aim to understand an individual's moral reasoning in situations instead of analyzing the chosen moral behavior. The reason for this selection is explained as, moral behavior does not reflect why a person initiates that kind of action and even the same behavioral response can have a different reason.

Kohlberg identified 3 levels which contains 6 development stages and then extended his studies to the other cultures which is also supported his theory of moral development as seen below in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2. 3: Kohlberg’s stages of moral development

<i>Level/Stage</i>	<i>Age/Range</i>	<i>Description</i>
<i>I.A: Obedience/Punishment</i>	Infancy	No idea to differentiate right thing or avoiding punishment
<i>I.B: Self-Interest</i>	Pre-School	Instead of punishment, rewarding is more motivating to secure benefits
<i>II.A: Conformity and Interpersonal Accord</i>	School-Age	Approval from others become important
<i>II. B: Authority and Social Order</i>	School-Age	Morality is equal to preserve social rules.
<i>III.A: Social Contract</i>	Teens	Self benefit shifts to mutual benefit and reciprocity. Morality concept and legal concept differentiates. Mostly Utilitarian rules apply in this stage.
<i>III.B: Universal Principles</i>	Adulthood	Morality becomes personal principles that transcend mutual benefit.

Source: (Kohlberg 1958)

For each step of moral development, Kohlberg defined four rules (Duska and Whelan 1975). First, individuals must start from the first level and every time proceed one step to advance. After that, the social interaction and moral reasoning cannot be understood if the realization is more than on top beyond of a person’s stage. Third, the desire to advance for a next stage is about the satisfactory moral reasoning in higher levels. Advance to a next stage is possible only a person find himself/herself is in an unresolved or not satisfactory situation which is called cognitive disequilibrium (Kohlberg 1958).

At pre-conventional stage the child has a materialistic instinct. The results of an action can only be classified as good or bad, right or wrong therefore there is an expected result of a behavior as a punishment or reward. This stage is divided into 2 sub-groups.

First one is the punishment and obedience orientation. At this orientation, focus for a child is to see the result and avoid any unwanted physical consequence like punishment not due to the rules, and authority (Kohlberg 1981). In addition, morality is not established yet (Duska and Whelan 1975). Therefore, child cannot be able to distinguish between moral reasoning of an action or an avoidance of a punishment since they only consider materialistic instinct. The basic example for this orientation is giving a decision if stealing a toy from another child can cause a punishment or not. Second sub-group in this stage is the instrumental relativist orientation. According to Kohlberg in instrumental relativist orientation right action is the one, which fulfills needs, mainly in a physical way without include any moral perspective such as equality, social norms, and appreciation (Duska and Whelan 1975). Therefore, the interest shifts from understanding the consequences to, more rewarding actions. These rewarding actions brings the elements of fairness, reciprocity, and equality at this stage (Kohlberg 1981).

The second stage is conventional level in which materialistic instinct shifts to a more social relationship maintenance. The main tendency is to maintain and support individual's close environment. Instead of looking for direct results, individual realizes the importance of long-term relationship and invest for it. This stage is divided into 2 sub-groups. First one is the interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation. The main idea is to have an approval from superiors by selecting a behavior what majority considers 'natural' behavior (Kohlberg 1981). At this stage, for the first time, intention of an action is considered by an individual based instead focusing directly the results. (Duska and Whelan 1975). Second sub-group in this stage is the "law and order" orientation. At this orientation, moral behavior selection is purely based on laws and order (Kohlberg 1981). The ultimate rules are present and obeying them is necessary to avoid conflicts in their social environment (Duska and Whelan 1975).

The last stage is post-conventional, autonomous, or principled level. At this last level, individual's behavior become more dependent on moral values and principles instead of appreciation from social group, laws, or own identification within group. This stage is divided into 2 sub-groups. First one is the social-contract legalistic orientation. In

social-contract legalistic orientation, relativistic view of personal values and opinions is recognized by an individual. Correct behavior must be analyzed and accepted by whole society (Duska and Whelan 1975). Individuals at this stage, observe other opinions and search for a consideration in their moral judgements. Still law and order exist but the right moral behavior depends on a situation and personal values with opinions. This leads to utilitarianism where instead of rigid “law and order orientation”, there can be changeable rules if it is beneficial for whole society. The second sub-group is the universal ethical-principle orientation. This orientation is defined by universal ethical principles such as human rights, freedom, equal rights (Duska and Whelan 1975). There are no more strict rules and boundaries for an individual. Morality is not based on utilitarianism and culture anymore. These ethical principles are self-chosen, and individual know that there is no absolute right or wrong.

2.1.1.3 Four-component model

The cognitive development theory pioneered by Piaget and Kohlberg in late 1950s, became a theoretical framework for the field of descriptive ethics. The main drawback for these frameworks is they mainly focus on moral reasoning instead of explaining actual moral behavior of an individual (Hoffman 1984; Blasi 1980). Since the previous theoretical framework focusses more on reasoning of a moral behavior, situational and motivational factors of a behavior or use of strategy to give a moral decision is not considered.

As a student of Kohlberg, Rest (1986) set his target to find out why individuals are making unethical and/or non moral decisions in real life. Therefore, Rest’s research is based on real life cases instead of imaginary moral dilemmas. By this approach, he realized that the moral act might differ according to the situation so cannot be justified with a general trait of an individual. Even though, Piaget and Kohlberg defined a sequential stage where an individual cannot be at the same moral stage, Rest’s model states that a person can be present in multiple defined stages at the same time and actual moral behavior precedes by an individual’s priorities. These stages called four-

component model and named as ethical sensitivity, moral judgement, moral motivation, and moral character as seen below in Figure 2.4. According to Rest’s four component model (1986) the main objective is: "to understand and predict actual moral behavior and decision making”.

Figure 2. 4: Four psychological components determining moral behavior

<p>1. Moral Sensitivity <i>Interpreting the situation</i></p>
<p>2. Moral Judgement <i>Judging which action is morally right/wrong</i></p>
<p>3. Moral Motivation <i>Prioritizing moral values relative to other values</i></p>
<p>4. Moral Character <i>Having courage, persisting, overcoming distractions, implementing skills</i></p>

Source: (Rest 1986)

According to Rest (1986), ethical sensitivity posits if an individual is aware of possible consequences and affect of their moral decision in others life in different ways. The reason behind that the right moral path can only be chosen only after understanding the impact of a decision to others lives. Empathy and role-taking skills play major role unless the decision maker does not have any information regarding the possible affects on others (Rest 1986; Hoffman 1984). It can be described to sense possible cause-effect relations and predicting possible scenarios by using empathy and considering gut feeling (Rest 1986). An example can be given to this component from a daily life. If an individual has two different option of buying a product with the same price, without knowing one can be only manufactured by destroying the rainforest, the decision he or she makes will not depend on that topic since there is no information regarding how it is affecting the nature and possible consequences.

While moral sensitivity component tries to create empathy and searches for different paths that leads to different results, in moral judgement component an individual uses

his cognitive thinking to make a decision from different alternatives which might have different consequences. Together with ethical sensitivity, this stage corresponds Kohlberg's pre-conventional stage which is focused only to the individuals' own ideas and self-decisions. These self-decisions are based on personal social motives, values and beliefs. Same example from the previous component can be given for this component as well. If an individual knows the possible consequences of buying a product which might cause a harm to a rainforest, he or she needs to decide the different courses of decision which means moral judgement will take place to make a moral decision.

While the first two component establishes the options and the results that may affect people, third component "Moral Motivation" describes the priority of the doing the right thing. This component is widely researched by showing moral identity is defined by the desire of an individual to be a moral person to make moral decisions. But morality is interpreted differently by people due to instrumentalism, ethical egoism (Nucci 2002) and self-conception (Blasi 1984; Damon 1984). The choices an individual has uniquely have their own values with the perception of that individual. Sometimes these choices will deviate from the moral decision due to the framing effect of the situation which will be one of our variables in our thesis model and will be discussed in detail in next chapters. Therefore, sometimes people select different behaviors by judgment than establishing moral decision since selected value suppress the moral behavior. An obvious example for this component can be given as human trafficking, while possible consequences and how this affects people life are known, still some people are contributing. This moral failure is not based because it is not known instead another value for them completely compromised moral values.

The first 3 components of Rest may highly exist in an individual. The person can have the awareness of his action that affect other people in different ways. He or she can be able to make good process of the information for choosing different paths, or even prioritize his values based on doing the ethically right thing. Also, lack of moral character may create a moral failure. Rest (1986) stated these components as ego

strength, perseverance, backbone, toughness, strength of conviction, and courage. Person might fail to make a moral decision under stress (Caviola and Faber 2014), pressure from superior (Timmermans and Breeman 2012) and even anxiety level of an individual which will be one of another our research variables for this thesis and will be discussed in more detailed in next chapters.

As a summary, in real life cases an individual moral failure can occur in each of these components. The framework as described by Piaget and Kohlberg's cannot be considered as a sequential process but rather direct interaction is possible between components.

This chapter aims to give information about the concept of cognitive development and moral reasoning in literature. In the next chapter, the negotiation concept, theories of negotiation ethics and ethically questionable negotiation tactics with its roots from previous studies will be explained.

2.2 NEGOTIATION AND ETHICS

This section starts with the short history of the psychological study of negotiation. Different approaches to the negotiation in the history are explained starting from 1960 until today. Psychological study of negotiation examined by explaining the different domains starting from social psychology, cognitive revolution, behavioral decision-making perspective, and its restrictive structure in the school of management. The roots and theories of negotiation ethics in business environment is discussed. Development of decision making in negotiation is presented and examples of studies are provided.

2.2.1 The Concept of Negotiation

Individuals have different kinds of interests. These interests can be defined as their needs, desires, concerns, or even fears which will influence on personal life or negotiation in a business environment. These motives exist in every point of our life, in

business environment like promotion, salary increase, or in a personal life like buying new car, summer vacation in an exotic country. People's interest on something can be described as the main source of negotiation. It occurs when there is no written procedure handles the situation which needs an agreement for both involved parties. Negotiation happens every point in our life, in business environment like promotion negotiation with your manager, in a procurement process or tender cases. It exists also in our personal life such as discussing with your friends about your favorite sport or the selection for the color of a new family car while having different opinions within your family.

People act based on their psychological situation, needs and goals. In negotiation, based on these parameters, an interaction occurs between involved parties to decide an agreement. Social psychology is defined and researched to explain how the interaction between individuals flows. It is systematic way to understand about how individual feels, behaves and effected by other's opinions (Michener et al. 1990; Allport 1958). Following sections describes earlier studies about the concept of negotiation and behavioral decision research.

2.2.1.1 Early research on negotiation concept

Based on the high requirement of communication activity between parties, social psychology actively researched in negotiation context starting from 1960s and 1970s. The research started with the idea of a structured world which is developed by rational considerations of our actual world (Rubin and Brown 1975). With supporting this same idea, Druckman, tried to understand human behavior in a structured environment with an interaction between individuals (Druckman 1977).

In this period, there were two main focus areas that are mostly experimented in negotiation topics among resarchers: Individual differences and situational factors. Since the negotiation is about exchanging values among individuals to come up with an agreement, one can say that personality and demographic difference as an individual

differences may have a determinant role in how the total value is divided. For that reason, hundreds of studies conducted to explain the variance in negotiation behavior of the people (Neale and Bazerman 1992; Lewicki et al. 1988; Rubin and Brown 1975).

Individualistic differences such as, gender, age, culture, race can be classified as demographic factors while five-factor model-personality traits, positive beliefs about negotiation, anxiety, cognitive&emotional intelligence, creativity, risk-taking tendencies, cognitive complexity, tolerance for ambiguity, self-esteem, and machiavellianism can be classified as personality variables. These variables become the focus topics and widely researched in 1970s (Rubin and Brown 1975).

Gender is one of the most studied contradicting topics in negotiation behavior studying from 1960s until today. In 1977, one of the experiments resulted that (Deaux and Elizabeth 1977), in sample group, when it compared between genders, men are overconfident than women in negotiation cases. This resulted with the decision of unnecessary risks and behaviors. Due to the overconfidence level of men, the tendency of negotiation strategy shifts more competitive and more risky approach (Ertac and Gurdal 2010; Campbell et al. 2004). Although these findings are in line with the previous findings as women generally takes less competitive and less risky decisions than men (Babcock et al. 2006; Craver and Barnes 1999; Walters et al. 1998; Kimmel et al. 1980; Conrath 1972), there are many different reasearches which created an absolute contradiction about gender role in negotiation behavior. In one of the researches (Pruitt et al. 1986), it was found that there is no evidence of showing different behaviors among male and female during negotiations. This condradiction continues with the findings in one article (Hottes and Kahn 2006) that it is found a female tend to be more focused and less agreeable than a male while, according to the conducted meta-analysis (Walters et al. 1998), results showed that females are more coperative than males which is also supported by other articles (Bedell and Sistrunk 1973; Oskamp and Perlman 1965).

Culture is another major variable as an individual factor which is researched in social psychology and negotiation area for years. As described by Hostede (1980), culture is a collective mindset of a group, and since every group or individual have a different experience and different developed cognitive codings (Schwartz 1992). According to the study executed by Hofstede, culture is not a standalone variable but has a multi-dimension which can be able to explain 50 percent of the data analyzed: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism versus Collectivism, and Masculinity versus Femininity. Power distance is society's acceptance of the unequal distribution of power and differential across countries and cultures. Second dimension as uncertainty avoidance shows the tolerance of deviation from norms and procedures. Individualism and collectivism is one of most studied topic among Hofstede's cultural values as when compared with collectivist culture, individualistic groups gives more importance to their own ideas rather than the group benefits (Triandis 1989). The debate in gender is more clear with the last dimension of Hofstede as Masculinity and Femininity. People have different beliefs, characteristics, cultural background, and these items create markers on their behaviors not the sexes (Lewicki et al. 2010). Hence, perspective should not be about the sex itself but the role of their gender.

Decision making behavior and cultural dimensions are long examined in different studies. Studies showed that high Power distance cultures are engaging more unethical (Curtis et al. 2012; Khatri 2009). Also, cultures with high uncertainty avoidance more tend to compete, select more aggressive tactics and have difficulty in decision making if there is insufficient information (Vitell et al. 1993; Bell 1982). Another finding is that individualistic cultures are more self centered and less caring about joint outcome in negotiation (Cai et al. 2000; Triandis 1989). These findings are supported by several other research. (Cai and Fink 2002; Pruitt and Carnevale 1993). In an ethical negotiation tactics point of view, research showed that, individualistic cultures prefer to use unethical negotiation tactics more than collectivist cultures (Erkus and Banai 2010; Smith and Hume 2005). Research supports that, masculine characters prefer more competitive ways, while feminine individuals prefer more collaborative ways in negotiation (Brewer et al. 2002; Kimmel et al. 1980).

Besides demographic factors, behavioral decision making in negotiation depends on the characteristics of negotiators as well. Five-factor model-personality traits is one of the most studied topics in negotiation and has a strong relationship in handling conflicts in negotiation (Moberg 2001). These factors are described as Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism. Studies shows that, people who are more open to new things, who can easily reach to other individuals in order to avoid and resolve conflicts more tend to use integrative approach than compete in negotiation that fosters positive outcomes (Ome 2013; Yiu and Lee 2010; Liu et al. 2005; Rahim et al. 2000; Barry and Friedman 1998). People who have an asset of conscientiousness are living more organized way which enables them to create more systematic conflict resolution skills to generate joint outcome (Barry and Friedman 1998; McCrae and John 1992). Last trait in five factor model is Neuroticism which is an asset for being emotionally stable and have low anxiety (Narayanan 2008). Studies shows that, people who has increased level of this asset suffers from self confidence which causes an avoidance of negotiation or finding solutions in conflict (Hettema et al. 2006).

Even by considering these hundreds of studies, it was unclear that if same person behaves differently in another negotiation environment or under different situation. Therefore, social Psychologists' studies also shows that individual factors alone are insufficient to explain the variance in negotiation behavior (Lewicki et al. 1999; Pruitt and Carnevale 1993; Ross and Nisbett 1991; Thompson 1990).

In addition, in social psychology field, some research debates that, these findings are only looking for single factor to estimate the behavior of an individual in a negotiation environment. Therefore, it is not possible to predict the opposing strategy in negotiation due to poor clinical assessments about other individuals' personality and has a very limited use since it will be diminished by slight changes in situational variables (Morris et al. 1999; Morris et al. 1998; Bazerman 1998; Thompson 1998; Morris et al. 1998; Lewicki et al. 1993; Pruitt and Carnevale 1993; Ross and Nisbett 1991).

Therefore, in order to understand the individual behavior under different circumstances, situational variables are considered in different studies of negotiation during the 1960s and 1970s. Individual's behavior change in negotiation environment is studied by considering four different conditions where participants interactions are restricted, limited, or allowed. It was found that individuals who can freely allow to communicate each other tend to make more collaborative decisions while isolation increase the competitive behaviors (Wichman 1970). Another research conducted by including dogmatism as personality and presence of a group as situational factor to see their behavior effects (Druckman 1967). In addition, reasearch conducted by Marwell (Marwell et al. 1969) showed that response of an individual changes to more noncooperative if the designed situation creates more inequality in relative power for respective groups. There are also different studies which analysed the effect of an observer or a third parties involving during negotiation process (Pruitt and Johnson 1972; Vidmar 1971; Lamm and Kogan 1970), time pressure on decision behavior (Pruitt and Drews 1969), number of participants for each negotiator group (Marwell and Schmitt 1972).

In summary, social psychology studies about negotiation had some limitations. The main drawback of these research that situations are not under the control of an individual to decide how to behave. They are very limited to describe how a negotiator needs to perform during a negotiation, since these researches are focusing the descriptive side of which individual does not have a control over individual and situational variables (Lewicki et al. 1999; Pruitt and Carnevale 1993). Therefore, 1960s and 1970s literature studies conducted with the lack of interpretive process.

2.2.1.2 Behavioral decision research

Early research in negotiation context assumes individuals who are making rational decisions. These analyses were based on mathematical foundations to calculate how rational dyad will behave during negotiation even with different characteristics and situations. Behavioral studies are more focused on how people are actually making their

decisions and how do they deviate from the rationality during this period as a descriptive research, while decision analyze field is focussed more about to find out and suggest how an individual should behave in a negotiation situation.

Prescriptive theories, which are also called as normative theories, are analyzing individuals' ideal way of making decision in real life. It is about how should they behave, and which decision is right or wrong. Descriptive theories, on the other hand, focused on individuals' actual behaviors about situations that exists in real life. It researches that how individuals' decisions effected by different factors and how they behave accordingly.

During the 1980s, with the effect of cognitive development theories and research, scholars in business schools, by putting aside the fully rational dyads, discussed that, it is important to understand reality of how an individual behaves. Raiffa (1982), figured out individuals are not always choosing logical decisions as it suggested by analytic fields. Instead of assuming pure rationality, Raiffa claimed that, to create correct prescriptions in behavior, one should understand true/actual behavior of an individual, which can be defined as “asymmetrically prescriptive/descriptive”. These findings are accepted as a pillar stone of developing behavioral decision-making analysis in negotiation field of study. Same idea is supported by Kahneman and Tversky (1982) by claiming that there is a lack of knowledge for individuals about how to understand and control their behaviors, but at the same time it is possible to understand the nature of the behavior which can be biased. Their idea is that, understanding the nature of behavior can be the key to increase awareness and select appropriate decisions. In addition, they showed that (Kahneman and Tversky 1979; Kahneman and Tversky 1973), individuals' decisions differentiate and not consistant if there exist various effects such as framing which is one of the main components of our proposed model to be discussed in next chapters.

Following Raiffa's footsteps, experimental evidence showed that (Samuelson and Bazerman 1984), individuals can make a systematical error by not considering the

impact of their decision for their counter parts in negotiation. Another research (Bazerman and Carroll 1987) supported this by showing lack of perception for opponent's cognition prevents rational decisions and decreases the probability of joint outcomes between negotiators. There is other research executed to understand, how and why individuals deviate from rational decision making. Lack of understanding probability calculations during negotiation decreases the rationality of decision making due to overconfidence which can be overcome by training (Bazerman and Neale 1982). In addition to that, research shows a deviation from rationality exists in situations like initial estimation depending on insufficient information creates a base point named as anchoring where the latest decision is widely affected by anchor point (Kristensen and Gärling 1997; Ritov 1996).

These findings showed that, depending on the situation and social motives, rationality of a decision can vary. This shift is described by Bazerman as a "marriage" between negotiation and behavioral decision making and proposed that individual's decision making processes could be applied to negotiation research (Bazerman et al. 2000). Therefore, it is possible to use description techniques to understand how individuals behave under different conditions to prescribe the most optimal behaviors. In next section, it is described how these behaviors have an impact in business negotiations.

2.2.2 The Theories of Negotiation Ethics

From our childhood to adulthood, we belong to an environment that we need each other. This dependency naturally triggers communication, having a relationship, and making a business deal with other people. Business environment is individual's daily routine where they work and interact with others. People work to live, to produce something, for their passion, completeness, and satisfaction or to become more creative. These single items can be grouped as people are working for themselves, for their families and for their environment. The morality issues they faced for their social life is also occur on daily routine of business.

In this regard, the approach on negotiation ethics in business environment are the values consist of personal moral reasoning, business expectations and/or combination of these items including situational and individual factors (De George 1999). Gini (1997) defined individuals' own moral values and the decisions in business environment as a "symbiotic relationship". Therefore, we can define negotiation ethics as a process of finding common approach which serves the business expectation without having a contradiction of individual's own belief of ethics.

During last 30 years ethical theories are adapted to business environment and advanced mainly considering two perspective, normative and descriptive (O'Fallon and Butterfield 2005). These studies are concerned with explaining the right behavior and predicting the reason of individuals' actual behavior (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Weaver and Treviño 1994).

2.2.2.1 Normative methods in negotiation ethics

Normative methods, which is also called as prescribed theories, are searching and creating an ideal way in a situation where how people should act, what should be the best practices mainly between 1980s and 2000s. The word itself "normative" obviously comes from expected "norms" from people. The curiosity of answering questions of what is right or wrong, how do we decide good or bad behaviors triggered research to find a guidance for the selection of morally acceptable decision. Therefore, normative ethics studied by moral philosophists and theologists to guide individuals in which way they should behave (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Trevino and Weaver 1994; Freeman and Gilbert 1988; Donaldson 1982; French 1979). Individuals' social motives, their moral reasoning and the possible consequences of an action are considered as three seed points for two main normative theories in moral philosophy: deontological and teleological theories (Belak and Rozman 2012; Jonsson 2011; Fisher and Lovell 2009; Boatright 1998).

The word “Teleological” described in Philosophy terms means an ultimate object or aim that comes from an original Greek name “telos” (2020). In the late 18th century, Aristotle’s idea of approaching the morality from the consequences of an action has made him accepted as the father of teleology which is also supported by the philosopher Karl Marx and G. W. F. Hegel (Johnson 2005). The teleological theories mainly focus on the result of an action instead of which path an individual chooses. Three types of teleological theories; ethical egoism, utilitarianism and Eudaimonism have different interpretations of the results. Ethical egoism considers the result as the most beneficial if the result maximizes person’s self interest. Utilitarianism theory tries to understand the consequence of the result and how well it serves the community and make the moral decision solely based on these consequences rather than on moral duties or obligations (Murphy and Iacznik 1981; Beauchamp et al. 1979). Therefore, individuals’ personal motives should not play role in utilitarianism while managing the ethical decisions instead an individual’s obligation is to consider other people interests and welfare as a community (Hunt and Vitell 1986). Eudaimonism combines these two theories as a decision should be made by considering individuals personal goals and the welfare of the community (Annas 1998).

The word “Deontological” described in philosophy terms as a duty to describe an individual’s obligation to make a moral decision that comes from an original Greek name “deon” (2020). This word describes the reasons of a behavior defines the morality of an action than the actual results (Beauchamp 2001; Frankena 1963). In the late 18th century, Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), identified the moral values are very important so the rules cannot be left to the personal judgements and preferences. Also, he argued that the moral judgement cannot be made by looking the consequences but the intentions of an individual. Therefore, in deontological view there are universal rules which is an obligatory for an individual such as “do not kill”, “do not lie”, “do not hurt anybody” (Hunt and Vitell 1986).

With the aim of serving business environment, normative theorists aim was to create the set of principles to guide business practitioners and managers for moral challenges. For

this purpose, normative theories are adapted to normative business ethics in order to make them explicitly understandable by the businesspeople who does not have philosophy and/or theology background (Hasnas 1998). In the next section, three normative theories of business ethics are described named as agency, stakeholder, and social contract theories.

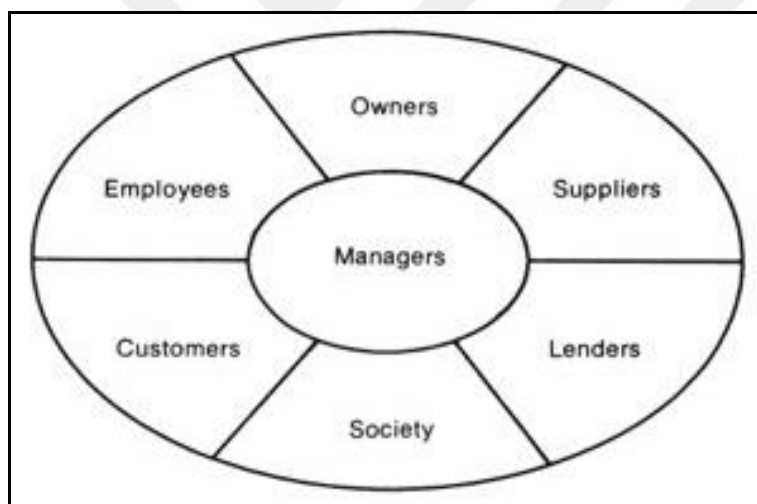
2.2.2.1.1 Agency theory

In business environment, there are stockholders who owns the capital, and the managers are authorized in order to run the business by the orientation of the stockholders and business welfare which basically speaking profit or NPV (net present value) (Quinn and Jones 1995; Drucker 1984). Agency theory, also named as stockholder or shareholder theory, defines how should managers behave and what is the purpose of managerial positions. As an ethical point of view, this theory implies that managers and employees are not permitted to spend company's sources for the benefit of others or selves such as private expenditures, donations to non-governmental organizations or schools, or helping poor people without permission from stockholders (Hasnas 1998). In his book, Milton Friedman (1962), described this relationship as "social responsibility" to use the resources of the company but only towards the business itself. The main target of the manager is to increase company value/profit by all means if the legal rules permit. Therefore, it is stated that agency theory has its legal boundaries by political law (Hasnas 1998; Milton 1962). Agency theory is based on teleological theory since the morality of a decision is based on the result of an action. Even it has been referenced by the theory of Adam Smiths invisible hands in many articles since the unintended contribution to the society (Nwanji and Howell 2007; Hasnas 1998), as stated in utilitarianism view the moral action still defined by how well the decision serves the company.

2.2.2.1.2 Stakeholder theory

Stakeholder term is first used at Stanford Research Institute, in 1963. It refers “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives” (Freeman 1984). In his book, Edward (1984) rejects the opinion of the responsibility of managers as solely based on shareholders satisfaction. Instead, managers are responsible for all stakeholder’s shown as below figure 2.5. The term stakeholder, expended by replacing achievements to output of a company since the either it is an achievement, resource sharing, focus area and even failure of a company might affect the stakeholder (Bryson 1988).

Figure 2. 5: Stakeholders of a business



Source: (Tample 2013)

The normative theorists seek answer for the connection between stakeholders and the company in order to set the obligations for managers during decision making (Schendel and Hofer 1979). The suggestion made by Freeman (1984) by setting the company strategy which serves both shareholders and as well as stakeholders so the managers can able to serve the stakeholder needs as well as having company benefit. This is explained by Evan and Freeman (1993) by using Kantian Approach that every individual is valuable and as a stakeholder, they should not be neglected while shaping the company strategy. Therefore, unlike stockholder theory, the main focus for the manager while

making decision is to oversee all stakeholder's welfare since only taking into account the profit itself will not enough for long term survival for the company but the contribution of all stakeholders (Hasnas 1998).

Evan and Freeman (1993) defined by two principle in stakeholder management: "corporate legitimacy" and "Stakeholder Fiduciary". Corporate legitimacy principle describes the role of a manager is to give beneficial decisions for all stakeholders and include them in the decision. Stakeholder Fiduciary principle describes a manager as an agent who is appointed to serve for the interest of the stakeholders as well as ensure the long-term success and survival of the business. For its nature of the selection of a behavior which serves well for its stakeholders and the company, stakeholder theory is accepted as deontological normative theory (Quinn and Jones 1995).

In addition to these developments of stakeholder theory, different perspectives are studied in literature such as fairness of the decision for all stakeholders (Phillips 1997), relationship-based approach for the stakeholders such as feminist (Wicks et al. 1994) and collaborative control (Burton and Dunn 1996).

2.2.2.1.3 Social contract theories

Traditional concept of a social contract theory based on the idea of the requirements of a society without a properly established government. It has been discussed between 16th to 18th centuries among theorists such as Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau to understand the preconditions of establishing a government in a society (Donaldson 1982). The need or the mutual benefits for the society to have companies have similar roots with this idea. What will be the social benefit for having an established government or an entity within the society? The social contract theory allows to establish an entity only if it serves social benefits by a non-verbal agreement (Hasnas 1998). Regulated by the law, the benefit which society can demand described in two terms: social welfare and justice. Therefore, the decision in a society and in a business, environment should be regulated by this social law. Justice term is used to

describe set of rules in a society, such as human rights, avoid fraud and deceptive motives, destroying nature. Social welfare describes an obligation for the company to fulfill the requirements of individuals either by customers or by a worker. As a customer, the benefit can be described as an increased the quality of life such as technological improvements, advancement of health care, and wide range of products and their distribution channels as a worker, having an income without taking big risks and the bliss of working with a community who servers the welfare of the society (Hasnas 1998). Therefore, the agreement between the companies and society can be formed and business may be developed only if the corporations fulfill the requirement of ethical obligations towards members of society (Hasnas 1998; Donaldson 1982).

Thomas Donaldson and Thomas Dunfee (1994) argued about the unclear situations where traditional normative business theories are insufficient. They took into consideration a real-life case, such as present giving or taking by an employee. They found that, by adapting classical normative theories and concepts, one would neglect the effect of a culture, individual social motives, emotions, perception of the situation, the effect of non-monetary compensation in a society, and the questionable morality of the action since there is an explanation to each situation only up to a certain point which are insufficient to create a solution for a general moral behavior (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994). Thus, they come up with integrative method that has two concepts, namely, BMR (bounded moral rationality) and SCT (social contracts theory).

In daily business life, one of the main dilemmas for the businesspeople is how to make right moral decisions. Although, normative philosophists have developed how to behave in a moral dilemma, which is defined by the theories, there are still conflicting situations that may arise in daily contradictory situations. Bounded moral rationality focuses the reason why in different situations, the same choice individuals made may create a different result. The perception of the decision, or outcome differs from people to people so, prototyping is one of the main problems. For example, while giving gift may accepted as a politeness in some countries, it is also accepted as a bribery. It has been criticized that the classical normative business ethic theories are unable to explain

the payment systematic differences for the same corporation for different countries (Donald and Dunfee 1994). The main problem identified by Donald and Dunfee (1994) is the misleading expectation of a general golden rule for each real life ethical problems since the real life cases have huge amount of different factors to be considered by managers and therefore the capacity of a human intellect may not be enough to analyze and use approaches such as Kantian deontology to define the right approach by the nature of an action and/or teleological approach to see the possible long term consequences of an action. Therefore, suggestion made by them to look at social contract each individual business and cases where communities can act in integrity to their traditions.

Integrative social contracts theory tries to set rules about how to consider a situation with tailor made rules and standards in business ethics. According to Donaldson and Dunfee, there are 4 principles to comply for creating macro social contracts (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994). First is Moral Free Space which describes the freedom of using micro-level information between contractors. This micro-level information corresponds the different factors in the society or to say stakeholders for the business. In order to describe a decision as a moral or not, the action itself, such as gifts, trust-based agreements, bluffing, decision in uncertainty, choice of relativist or idealist view, needs to be filtered by micro-level contracts of a society and/or stakeholders. This micro level contract needs to be defined by companies with their stakeholders. The second principle describes the freedom in a society including an economic organization. Therefore, individuals have a birth right to attend or leave. Third principle, hypernorms, makes a detailed analyze for micro social contracts. Since every culture has its own beliefs and culture, moral principles should not create a conflict with these beliefs, in other words obliged to be compatible. In case there is a conflict between these principles, priority must be set (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994).

2.2.2.2 Descriptive methods in negotiation ethics

Starting from 1980s the concept of negotiation ethics flourished mainly in normative wing for the purpose of finding universal moral principles for the business cases. These studies are mainly under the assumption of stable business environment and prototyping the individuals who are working in this environment. These assumptions are mainly criticized by emphasizing the illusion of a constant business environment, lack of communication between real business cases and theoretical world, by not providing concrete guidance for ethical dilemmas for individuals and by the different human behavior observations than suggested by normative theories during ethical dilemmas (Hasnas 1998; Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Trevino and Weaver. 1994; Weaver and Trevino 1994; Stark 1993; Kahneman and Tversky 1979).

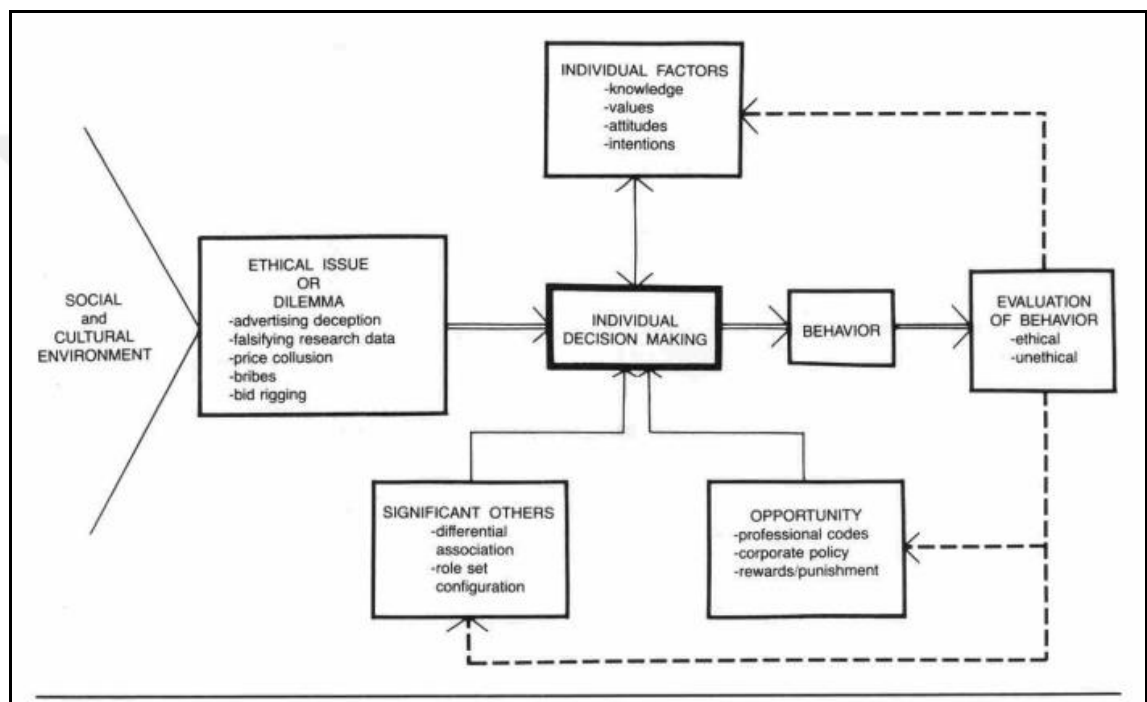
Therefore, starting from mid-1980s and early 1990s, theorists with business background try to solve the problem of neglected effects of human behaviors and situational factors, with the aim of ending the lack of ability to implement solely prescriptive theories to the business cases and dilemmas. The main question shifts from how should people behave - normative wing, to how they actually behave - descriptive wing (Fraedrich et al.1994; Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Jones 1991; Rest 1986; Trevino 1986; Ferrell and Gresham 1985).

Criticism of normative theories led to the development of positive perspectives and models in three main areas the contingency framework (Ferrell and Gresham 1985), the person-situation interactionist model (Trevino 1986), and the moral intensity model (Jones 1991). These models are used as a baseline for the empirical studies for description wing.

The contingency model created a framework to analyze how individual select a decision in a business environment such as marketing organization under the assumption of vulnerability of individuals of selecting unethical negotiation tactics and behaviors. The main factors effecting the human behavior are described shown below in figure 2.6 as:

Individuals' values, beliefs, attitudes, and intentions; significant others which is the interaction with other individuals who are in the same social group, so the learning occurs; opportunity for action which is based on company ethical policies, rewarding/punishment situation and the benefit of the results of an action (Ferrell and Gresham 1985).

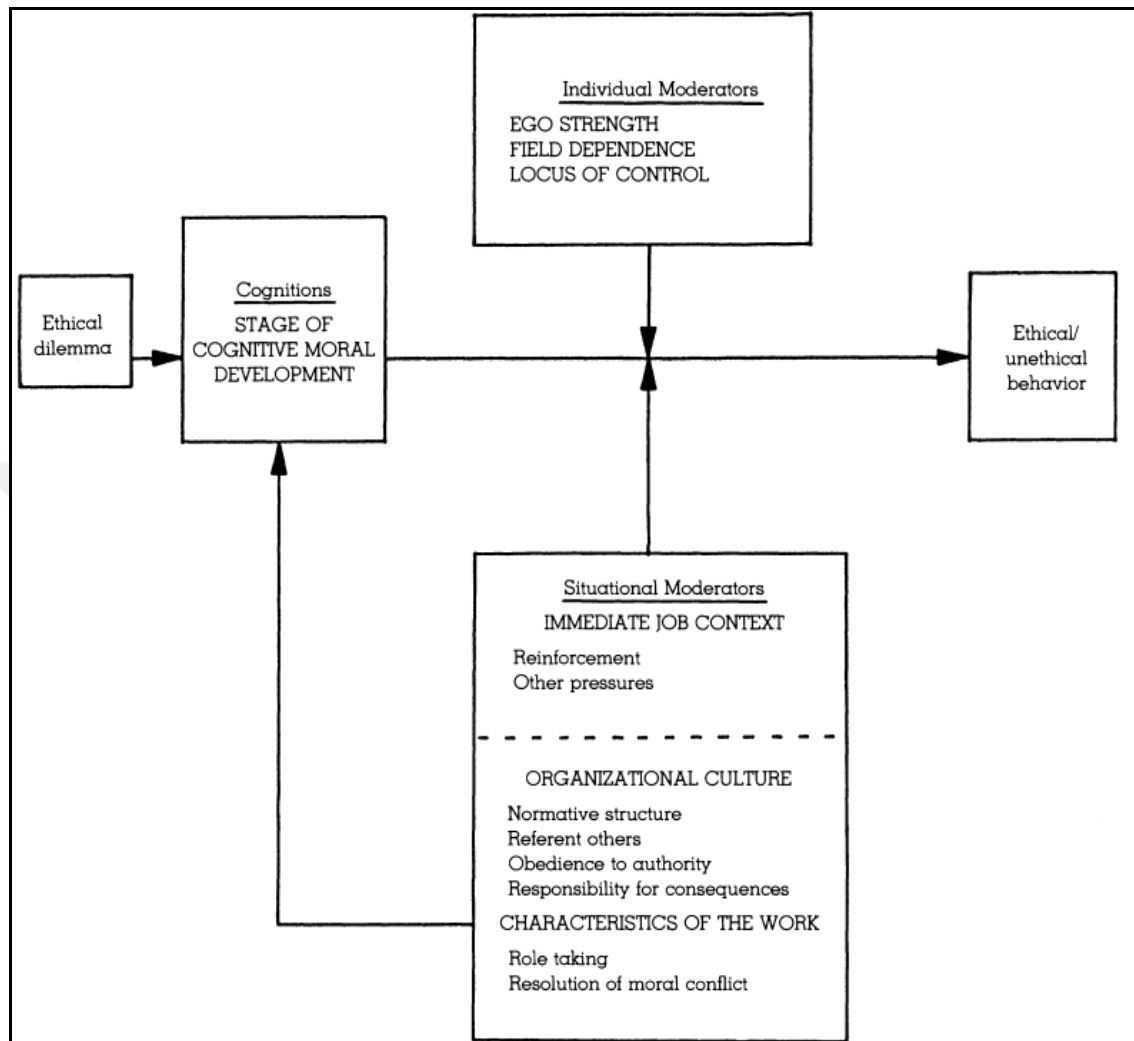
Figure 2. 6: Contingency model of ethical decision making



Source: (Ferrell and Gresham 1985)

The second model, which criticized the normative wing, is the person-situation interactionist model. This theory describes that, it is not possible to understand the nature of an individual by only considering cognitive development since that person is constantly at interaction with its environment. Therefore, the framework model (Trevino 1986) as shown below in figure 2.7 is suggested by involving individual characteristics and situational factors such as organizational culture, job context and individual's stage of moral development based on Kohlberg' theory (1958).

Figure 2. 7: Interactionist model of ethical decision making

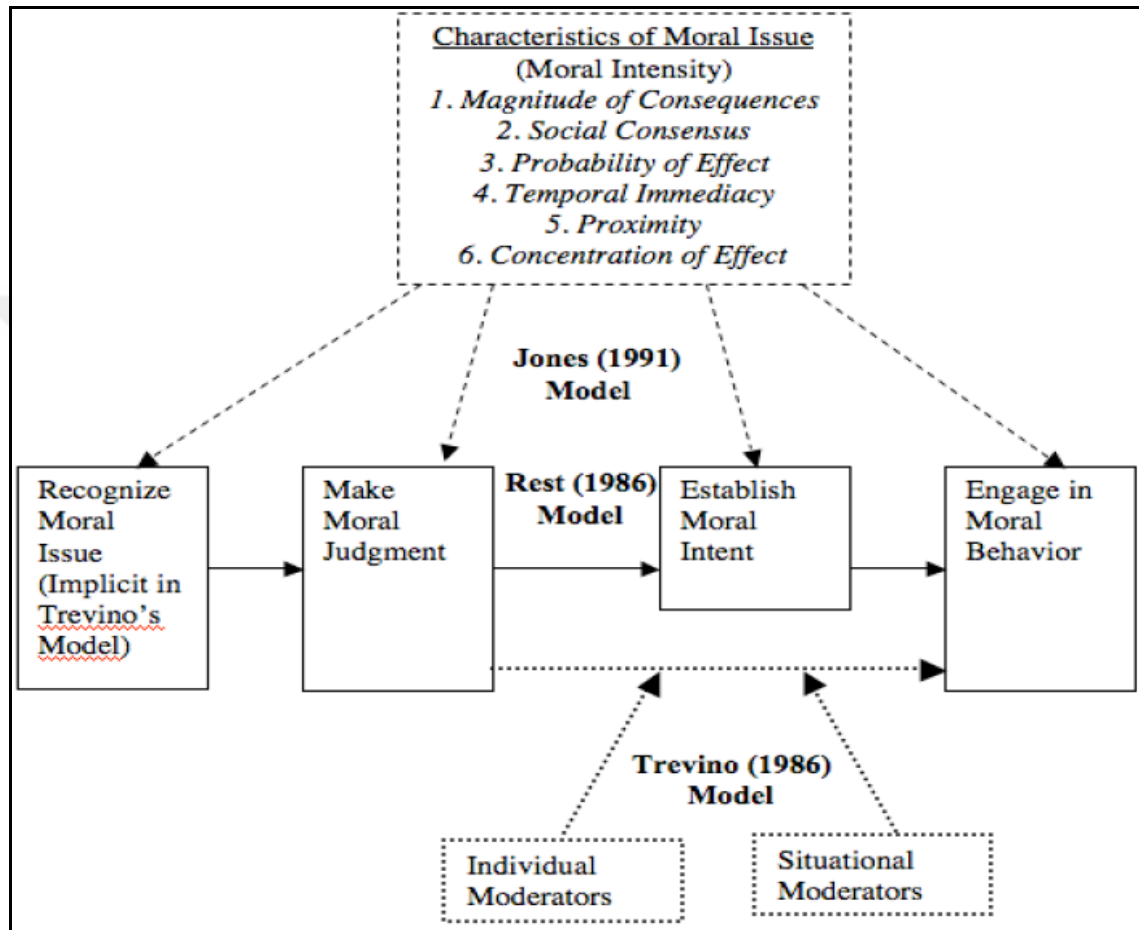


Source: (Trevino 1986)

The third model, moral intensity, is based on Rest’s four-component model (1986) described in previous part as as ethical sensitivity, moral judgement, moral motivation, and moral character. Jones (1991), described moral intensity as how an individual perceives the moral value of a situation. His assumption is that since this perception changes the cognitive thinking, it will affect the judgements and behavior during ethical dilemmas. Therefore, he defined the characteristics of a moral issue as shown below in figure 2.8. In addition to personal choices, Jones claimed that the organizational factor such as social learning, group dynamics and principles, social motives and dependency,

the consequences of an action, interpersonal relationships are some other key elements in shaping the individual's perception of a situation.

Figure 2. 8: Ethical decision-making models



Source: (Schell-Busey 2009)

In the light of the mentioned theories, empirical studies are established in order to find answers about what and why actually happens instead of what should occur in daily business dilemmas (Hunt 1991; Hunt and Vitell 1986). Empirical theorists not only tried to find if there exists a certain connection between theoretical prescribed frameworks and business environment such as financials, organizational structure, work motivation (De George 1999; Akaah and Riordan 1989; Freeman and Gilbert 1988; Donaldson 1982; French 1979), but also, investigated situational and individuals'

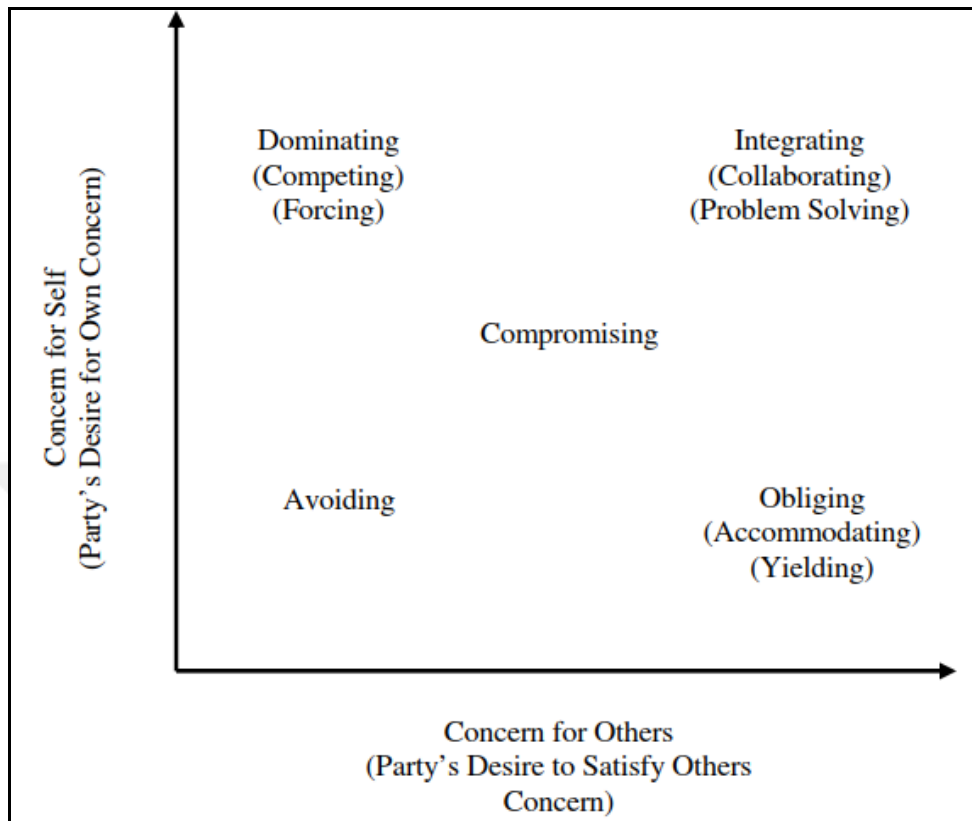
factors to understand the antecedents and consequences of moral decision making (Trevino 1986; Ferrell and Gresham 1985).

2.2.3 Negotiation Strategies and Decision Making in Business

Starting from 2000s, it is possible to say that negotiation cases and research in business environment had an increased attention. Individuals in business are engaging in many discussions and at the end, the decision needs to be taken either by collaboratively joint outcome, or win-lose approach. Since these decisions have a direct effect in business it is analyzed by Harnish (2013) to show how they contribute to business to grow and how they jeopardize running business in different sectors. In cases like, there is no decision maker and co-workers with different ideas exists, or there is a possibility to persuade your co-workers/superiors to support your ideas, or if a business associates are in discussion with the aim of improve their outcome, negotiation will occur.

Strategy decision in negotiation plays an important role in business environment since it has a direct effect about distribution of outcomes. Individuals try to increase their portion of gain by using different negotiation strategies which sometimes leads conflict. Therefore, the distribution of outcome in negotiation is directly related with how individuals select their strategy in negotiation. Research defined dual-concern model which explains behaviors to select a negotiation strategy, began from 1964 (Blake and Mouton 1964) and contributed respectively by Thomas (1976) and Rahim (1983). The model indicates two dimensions which is described as “concern for self” and “concern for others” as it is indicated in figure 2.9.

Figure 2. 9: Conflict management styles



Source: (Rahim 1983)

When these two behaviors are in high, it is assumed that individual will behave by using more “integrating” strategies also called as integrative tactics by contributing ideas, caring about others wishes and try to create opportunities to increase mutual benefit from negotiation. In case both dimensions are low, it is defined as “avoiding” where individual does not pro-actively search for an output instead waiting others to make first move. This type tries to avoid to create an argument for the topic and sometimes misses opportunities. The most win-lose approach can be seen in “dominating” style also called as distributive tactics, where concern for self is high and low concern for others. This type can lead strong competition and instead of looking ways to solve problems for mutual benefit, maximization of own gain is prioritized either by dominating or even forcing. “Obliging” type is mostly characterized by escaping conflict to create and/or not lose a sustainable relationship with co-partner. The main priority is to satisfy other side and so high concern for other while having less concern for self in case of conflict. This

type can be very vulnerable to “dominating” style. The last defined style in dual-concern model is “compromising” where, there is moderate concern for both sides. Even it is considered five different types for a negotiation strategy, research showed that it is not possible to totally isolate these strategies since shifting can occur due to several reasons such as to reach best possible solution, group or personal negotiation, effects of situational or individual factors during negotiation (Pruitt 1991; Carnevale and Pruitt 1991). The research conducted to understand which strategy is used in different cases, either in 1-to-1 or in a group negotiation, found that, group negotiation tend to be more integrating style since it is more creative, has increased information sharing and increased joint outcomes for both parties than 1-to-1 negotiation (Thompson et al. 1996). By using bargainer characteristics in negotiation, authors researched the effects of personality and cognitive ability for distributive and integrative dyadic negotiations. It is found that (Barry and Friedman 1998), since extroverted individuals tend to share more information and open to communication, this results a selection of integrative than distributive behaviors. Also, in the same research it is found that negotiations with individuals who are high on agreeableness, results more joint outcome. Power is another research area in the selection of negotiation style. Wolfe and McGinn (2005) found that, relative power difference is negatively correlated with the integrative approach in negotiation. In addition to power, trust is researched to understand its effect in negotiation. It has been found that (Kimmel et al. 1980), dyads who have low trust and high aspiration tend to select more distributive behavior since lack of open communication and tendency to increase own gain. Also, sharing similar interest and priorities in group negotiation increases more integrative approach with having increased joint outcome (Beersma and Dreu 2002).

In business environment, how to settle a negotiation becomes even more complex process since it is influenced by different parameters such as creating sustainable relationships, long term customer satisfaction, sustainability of business in market, and getting an agreement with totally different culture not only assuming different norms and values but also different professional background as it happens in international business cases. Researchers are trying to understand the nature and how individuals

behave in such conditions in business negotiation cases. One of the most important researched topic is culture in business negotiation. It has been researched in many areas since Hofstede (1980) defined cultural values framework. In business context, organizational or national culture has an impact in dealing with business cases since different cultures have different values and assumptions which has been studied so far (Simintiras 2000; Tinsley and Pillutla 1998; Graham et al. 1994; Cohen 1993; Rubin and Sander 1991). In business schools, these research are mainly conducted to understand the behavior of negotiators in different cultures. Research conducted in order to understand international business context in China and India, found that, (Kumar and Worm 2004) attitude towards foreign investments and business activities are unfavorably in India due to their colonial historical background while in China these attitudes seem lower. Also, thinking behavioral patterns for both nations is identified as collectivist culture. Another study conducted for USA-China international joint venture company to understand how individuals behaves during negotiation. According to the findings (Lin and Miller 2003), individuals from USA, have more tendency to use more legalistic approaches by using problem solving technics while Chinese partners use more relationship commitment that contributes integrative strategy approach. These ideas are supported in research (Zhao 2000) by examining Chinese people in international business environment prefers more integrative strategies in order to build long relationship, built trust, and trying to find a ways to receive benefits for both parties.

The negotiation strategy and decision making in business are also analyzed in setting strategies for supplier negotiation and selecting a supplier to develop long term relationship (Wang et al. 2009), negotiation strategy in e-commerce business and web based purchase (Lee 2004; Kersten and Lo 2003), online tendering strategies in construction business (Kerridge et al. 2000), negotiation strategy determination by using bargaining power assesment in an international trade (Peleckis 2016), friendship effect in decision behavior due to much effective information sharing in real estate transaction (Halpern 1996) and the role of power for decision making in business news negotiation (Grafström and Pallas 2007; Kjær and Langer 2003).

After all these examples, one can ask why individuals in business should select integrative strategies, when in many times it is hard to deal with someone who has different culture, professional background, relative power and under different constructional conditions. Walton and McKersie (1965) answered this question as, when negotiation occur with distributive strategy, mostly there left some items which actually have no benefit for anyone. It can be exemplified as new ideas, possible common agreements, solution for dead ends. As we accept negotiation never ends in business and if individuals would like to develop sustainable market, creating mutual trust, long term partnership and commitment are mandatory to gain mutual benefit in business environment. But do we really know if a decision made by a negotiator is ethically acceptable by other people? How will it affect long term development or trust? Do we have any cases in business where business or deal itself suffered due to broken trust, and damaged relationship? In the next section, we will describe the theoretical background of ethically questionable negotiation tactics as a dependent factor for our model in business environment.

2.2.4 Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics

International companies who had suffered due to the lack of guidance for an ethical conduct starting from 1970s, tried to develop their code of ethics (Farrell et al. 2001) started to prevent mainly illegal activities within the company such as preventing bribes, financial manipulation, misuse of funds, exchange of confidential information and improper dealings (Hite et al. 1988; Cressey and Moore 1983; Levy 1980). While, the type of rule-based corporate code of ethics supported by some researches in preventing environmental damage, bribery, confidential information sharing and illegal political activities (Benson 1989; Levy 1980), it has been criticized mainly by its dictating rules, punishment systematics and creating a bias to obey prescribed rules instead of personal judgement based on organizational values and culture which fosters the lack of a guidance or aid for ethical decision making (Robin et al. 1989; Cressey and Moore 1983). According to the criticism they made, inspirational content instead of prescribed ethical guidelines provides and supports corporation by establishing trust, increasing

employee commitment, fostering brand image and it enables organizational ability to adapt during inevitable changes such as acquisitions and mergers (Pelfrey and Peacock 1991).

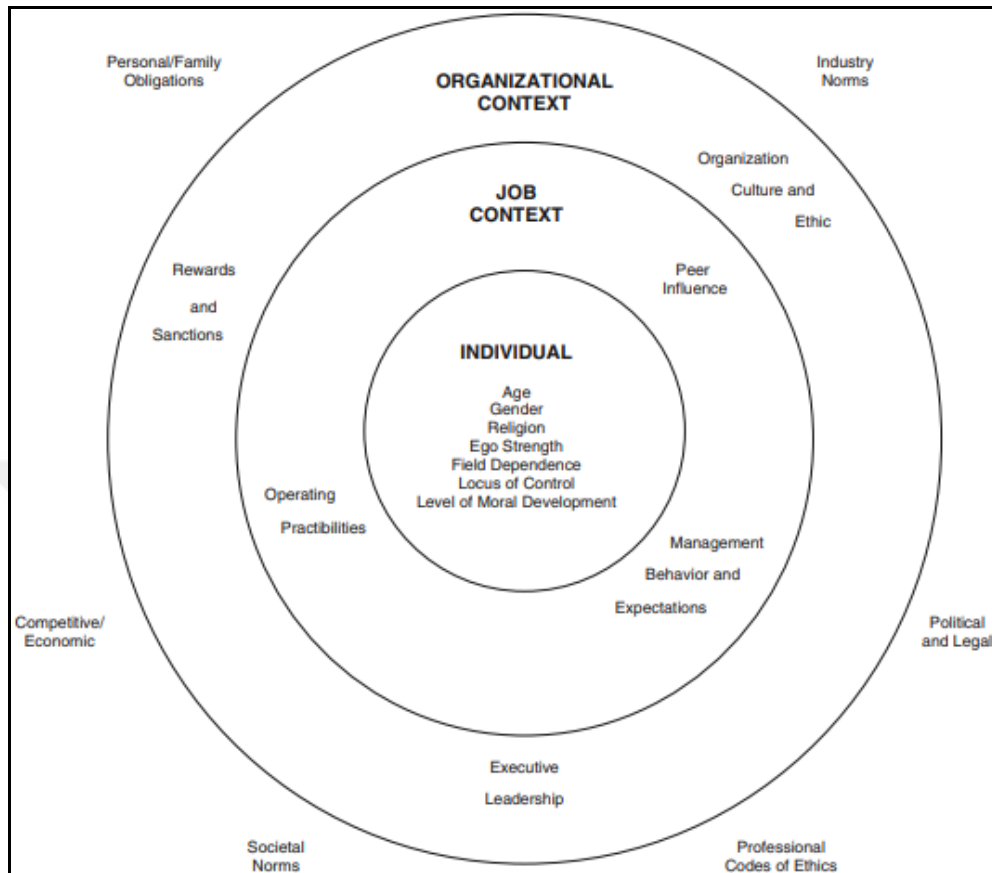
Even with the guidance of these ethical business conducts, businesspeople had trouble in finding the right decision in ethically ambiguous cases. A Newsweek published a survey, organized by The Pinnacle Group, Inc., by asking 1093 input from high school seniors and the results were created a big impact in society. It has been widely used in literature and was a start point to understand the perception of people for various tactics: 36 percent of people were okay with plagiarism to have success in exam, 50 percent of people had a common idea to present inappropriate documents towards insurance company to capture even more value, 59 percent of the people are okay to be guilty with conditional freedom in front of the laws for 6 months in return of 10 million dollar illegal deal, 67 percent of people had the same idea, lying about the business expenses to achieve their target (Newsweek 1989).

Ethically ambiguous cases and behaviors in business negotiations, created a series of conflict and contention behind them. United Automobile went to court by claiming that the company Textron used a lie during negotiations (1998). Similarly, Digital Equipment Corporation was accused of deceiving their partner (1994). Another case was happened by Woolworths's misrepresentation the amount of asbestos during negotiation of a lease (1992). Another scandal revealed in 2002, the manipulation of Worldcom's stock price organized by their C-level senior managers which is the the USA's second largest long-distance telephone company (Rossiter and Thomson 2004). Even today, due to selection of ethically questionable tactics results some corporations having ethical scandals include Facebook, Equifax, Texas Instruments, Renault-Nissan-Mitsubishi Joint Venture, Enron, General Motors, Toyota, BP, Takata (Shonk 2019; Atkins 2019; Morgan 2018; Silverstein 2013; Forbes 2002; Aronson 2002). There is no doubt, businesspeople involved to these scandals, have different backgrounds and different professional level in their organizations. The demographic data for these people are also different like their age and gender. In addition, different moral values

and perceptions are another factor which creates ambiguity about nature of the decisions as an ethically acceptable or not. Therefore, one can easily see that, there can be more than one reason why and how these individuals select the way of unethical decisions.

Individual factors contribute in literature to understand how individual behavior differs under different personal values. While understanding the individual factor differences has an undisputed importance, one cannot say solely it explains the reason of the behavior. Therefore, analyzing situational factors is critical to clarify how personal behavior might change under different situations. Different researches are conducted to understand why and how individuals' ethical behavior changes under certain conditions (Bersoff 1999; Robinson and Kraatz 1998). In his book Lewicki et al. (2003) listed some situational factors which might affect the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics as experience of an individual, incentives, relationship and relative power of the 3rd party and existence of a moderator as an agent. In addition to that, comprehensive list of factors which might affect individual's ethical decision making summarized by McDevitt et al. (2007) in two parts: individual and situational shown below as in figure 2.10.

Figure 2. 10: Individual and situational variable for ethical decision making



Source: (McDevitt et al. 2007)

In today's business environment, where negotiators often look for more benefit, ethical behavior topic has an increased importance more than ever. How individuals in their working life use negotiation tactics? Do they consider ethical norms? Which ethical norms do they believe? Why managers in work environment should behave ethical? In order to answer these questions, normative and descriptive theorists brought the ethics concept to the business environment from different approaches since the beginning of 1980s. While normative ethics have been criticized mostly its theoretical, generalized and impractical nature which was considered not useful to help daily business dilemma's (Hasnas 1998; Donaldson and Dunfee 1994; Stark 1993), descriptive ethics on the other hand, tried to observe the human behavior based on different individual, situational and organizational factors (Loe et al. 2000). Therefore, empirical findings got much more attention from businesspeople since they are often facing with critical situations where they need to negotiate and use certain tactics which may or may not be

considered as ethical. These business cases are debated while businessman is using ethically questionable tactics during negotiations. Since these tactics have long term consequences for the business, it is not always crystal clear to understand the outcome of using these tactics. Therefore, in business ethics literature ethically questionable tactics are discussed since 1980s.

The most observable unethical tactic is lie in a business negotiation. The definition of lie in Cambridge dictionary (2020) and Oxford dictionary (1993) includes the deception by intention for the 3rd party. When we look at the literature, different approaches of morality of lying are conducted. One of the theoretical approaches goes back to 17th Century where Immanuel Kant (1724-1804), described the absolute necessity to be truthful in any case. On the other hand, in an economic modelling approach do not considers the effect on the 3rd party if lying if it satisfies the self gain while utilitarian approach suggests deciding by looking harms and benefits for both parties (Gneezy 2005).

At first glance, since lying has a direct intention to deceive 3rd party it does not seem like an appropriate decision, the different types of lie are widely used in business environment (Aquino and Becker 2005). Attacking opponents' networks, omitting facts, intentionally giving false information, deceiving by avoiding the truth, bluffing, and falsification are some of the different types of lying accepted in literature and business cases (Erkus and Banai 2010; Provis 2000; Grover 1997; Lewicki 1983). Individual's view of acceptability to use of these tactics are vary based on different situation and individual factors. As an example, individuals more tend to use lying tactics and consider acceptable moral behavior to the corporations such as insurance companies, while lying to friend or co-worker is not viewed as an appropriate behavior (Tennyson 1997). Before looking at which factors might create a tendency to pick inappropriate, or ethically questionable tactics, the theoretical background of ethically questionable tactics is presented.

Lewicki (1983) made first proposition of five different types of lying, in negotiation environment. This categorization is analyzed by Anton (1990) by adding the differences

in age, gender and occupation changes the perception of an individual which creates a necessity for more empirical studies and data. With the advancement of business literature and ethics in business, to assess the perception of individuals about the types of lying, 18-item questionnaire was developed, and studies are conducted by analyzing the data of 1100 individuals (Lewicki and Stark 1996; Lewicki and Robinson 1998). The most obvious types of lying are shown table 2.1 as below.

Table 2. 1: Comparison of Unethical Negotiation Tactics

Lewicki (1983)	Anton (1990)	Lewicki and Stark (1996) Lewicki and Robinson (1998)
Misrepresentation of value to opponent	Misrepresentation of value	Traditional competitive bargaining
Bluffing	Bluffing	Bluffing
Falsification	Falsehood	Misrepresentation to opponent
Deception	Deception	
Misrepresentation to constituencies		Misrepresentation to constituency Misrepresentation to opponent's network Inappropriate information gathering

Source: (Robinson et al. 2000)

Misrepresentation of value to opponent or traditional competitive bargaining is considered as the most appropriate negotiation tactics. It can be considered as a usual decision for an ordinary salesperson, or among people who would like to make a purchase with a lower cost than their expectations to generate highly favorable agreement. This value or information can be various to gain advantage during negotiation like pretending to be in a different mood (Erkus and Banai 2010), making high opening demands (Chertkoff and Baird 1971), or purchasing goods with a lower price level than your breakeven point by telling the salesperson it is your upper limit to purchase required goods (Lewicki and Robinson 1998).

Bluffing is another tactic which is discussed in business ethics literature. It was argued that, if bluffing should be considered under the perspective of universal ethics or should there be moral perspective according to the role of individual (Allhoff 2003). Thus, based on different roles bluffing can be ethical (i.e., Salesperson) or not ethical (i.e.,

Parental role). Apart from that, bluffing is considered totally unethical due to its nature of intention of deceive 3rd party and removing collaborative approach and persuasion from the negotiation (Provis 2000). Bluffing is described as false promises or threats where a bluffing person intentionally giving false conditions to expect some input from co-negotiator without possessing any power or wish to execute the promises and/or threats (Lewicki and Robinson 1998).

Falsification or misrepresentation can be described as passing the incorrect or false information to other negotiator by trying to influence his/her opinion and to veer from the facts (Lewicki and Robinson 1998). False reports can be given as an example. In case an airplane crash occurs, if the owner company announces the failure is due to pilot's mistake not the company procedures by showing false certification of proof, while the reality says vice versa.

Deception is a form of negotiation tactic, based on the manipulation of a negotiator with the information which is not totally false but at the same time hides the reality. Exaggerating your work experience in one topic during negotiating for a job while having less than expected can be a good example to deceive a component since the argument is not showing totally truth but still not a direct lie and can be proved (Lewicki and Robinson 1998).

Inappropriate information gathering or misrepresentation to constituencies represents the direct use of a 3rd party to gain advantage over an opponent. This form of negotiation tactic can occur in two different direction by misrepresenting the constituencies' wishes and requests to an opponent or intentionally make different interpretation of a negotiation outcome to constituencies (Lewicki and Robinson 1998).

Lewicki and Stark (1996) compared the ideal world possibilities for absolute truths and right ethical decisions with the reality where businesspeople are often faced with ethical dilemmas. In real world, even during an ordinary negotiation, businesspeople are required to keep company's confidential information and find opportunities to gain high

outcome for business profitability while trying to develop trust, open communication, honesty and personal gain from a social interaction. While one of the target for an individual using ethically questionable tactics is to increase gain or profit, there are long term consequences of choosing these behaviors. Some of the consequences of using these tactics are discussed as loss of trust (Butler 1999; Kimmel et al. 1980), decreased information sharing between parties so less mutual gain which may lead to financial loss (Olekalns and Smith 2009; Butler 1999), negatively affected satisfaction from the outcome which leads to jeopardizing future business (Crosby et al. 1990), and damaging reputation of the company for future agreements (Ferris et al. 2005) with increased public relations problem (Cramton and Dees 1993). Similarly, Reitz et al. (1998) claimed 4 different consequences of unethical behaviors in negotiation: behavior change into uncompromising and less enthusiastic for future negotiations, damaged and unhealthy relationship development, ruined reputation, and loss of upcoming opportunities.

In negotiation, and moral decision making while some tactics still considered as ethically acceptable others accepted as unethical and jeopardizing partner relationship. Even, some studies show that, same ethical decisions may be perceived by different individuals as an ethical or not. In his study Erich Goode (1996), asked the perception of participants to understand their view about deception. While the result shows 80 percent of people perceives deception as an unethical tactic, rest of the people thinks it is an acceptable tactic in negotiation. While 80 percent of individual's idea is supported by Chris Provis (2000), it is rejected by Fritz Allhof (2003), considering the nature of a negotiation is based on bluffing and deception, therefore if one considers them as not ethical than whole process of negotiation will become deceitful. The main reason of these different perceptions regarding the ethical decisions might be the consideration of the severity of tactics. While ethically questionable or unethical negotiation tactics were studied along with the consideration of the perception of individuals, the main drawback of ethical and unethical bargaining tactics classified by Lewicki and Robinson (1998) is that there was no rank among these tactics based to their severity level. The ranking system provides benefits by indication the severity degree since it serves a good starting

point to see the influence of individual and situational factor changes among sample population. Researchers might be able to understand how the specific changes affect the personal consideration for the usage of lower ranked unethical tactics and compare if the same factor also changes perception or decision making to use higher ranked unethical tactics. The ranking of these ethically questionable tactics is empirically classified based on the degree of an individual's perception by Erkus and Banai (2010). According to their study, based on their severity each questionable tactic can be summarized and ranked in three main groups "pretending" or "traditional competitive bargaining", "deceiving" and "lying". According to these 3 groups, the lowest ranking is the most accepted and basic unethical tactic which is considered as pretending while the most unethical behavior considered as lying.

Pretending is one of the most discussed tactics among scholars, due to its commonly used nature in negotiations which makes it lowest rank among ethically questionable negotiation tactics such as endearing one to the other party, pretending to be in a different mood, and making demanding requests (Erkus and Banai 2010; Lewicki and Robinson 1998; Chertkoff and Baird 1971). One step above in the ranking, deceiving tactics are perceived by individuals who evaluated morality of tactics such as creating a false perception to deceive, requesting false demands and concessions. "Lying" tactics are the most severe ones, such as false promises, paying members of other group to cheat, distort or denial of the facts. This classification with severity of ethically questionable tactics is widely researched and validated with different cultures such as Turkey (Erkus and Banai 2010), Peru (Stefanidis et al. 2013), Greece (Stefanidis and Banai 2014), Israel and Kyrgyzstan (Banai et al. 2014), and Austria (Goelzner et al. 2019).

In this thesis the three groups of the ethically questionable negotiation tactics developed by Erkus and Banai (2010), will be used to evaluate the negotiators' attitudes toward questionable negotiation tactics under various situational and individual factors.

2.2.4.1 Antecedents and consequences of using ethically negotiation tactics

Different personal and situational factors are studied in literature to understand their affect on perception and decision making in an ethical dilemma. The most studied individual factors that affects ethical decision making are given as gender, moral philosophy, education level and work experience and organizational factors as reward-punishment situation, and culture (Loe et al. 2000). These factors are analyzed to understand if there is a significant difference between ethical decision making among individuals.

One of the main research about personal attribute is how ethical ideology influences the approach of an individual. Forsyth (1980) defined two different ethical ideology: idealism and relativism. Idealism is defined by the set of idealized rules which is acceptable for all individuals. As discussed in previous chapter, idealistic moral perspective has roots on deontological philosophy in normative ethics which states there is a set of defined moral actions that enables ultimate ethical approach (Hunt and Vitell 1986). Relativism, on the other hand, rejects universal defined rules that applies in every situation since an individual need to make an ethical judgement based on the conditions in a certain situation (Forsyth 1980). From business perspective, these two ideologies affect the decisions differently. One of the researches found that tendency to avoid lie increases by managers who scored high idealism perspective (Vitell et al. 1993). This finding is supported by different studies with businesspeople and student by showing the avoidance of ethically questionable tactics for the individuals who have high on idealistic perspective (Al-Khatib 2005; Perry and Nixon 2005; Banas and Parks 2002).

Apart from the ethical ideology of an individual after 1980 the global business increased rapidly which create a communication channels between different enterprises which are established in different countries. Therefore, the impact of values, thoughts and behavior in different cultures become even more essential for business negotiations (Lin and Miller 2003; Cohen 1993). In this multicultural environment, the perception of the

usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics among companies and businessmen with different cultural background is one of the many reasons identified as a failure such as losing long term relationship, trust and profit (Sheer and Chen 2003; Volkema and Fleury 2002; Volkema 1998). The reason for that is an individual with a different cultural background have different tendency to see what morality is, therefore, it results the usage ethically questionable tactics such as more usage of deceptive tactics as such in collectivist cultures (Triandis et al. 2001). These findings are also supported by the study which analyzed the different perception and usage of tactics among different cultural groups: USA, British, Australia and Russia, Greek, Japanese (Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser 2001).

Even it is clear that cultural differences exist, there are at micro level individual differences among the same culture group. One of them is analyzed by Anton (1990) as demographic differences: age and gender. The finding suggests that, individuals who are younger, considers ethically questionable tactics as an acceptable choice or claims that the selection depends on a situation while older people prefer to avoid since they believe these tactics have long term consequences than short term benefits. While this tendency is agreed by most of the researchers, it is not possible to say there is an agreement for the gender differences affect on morality topic. While many studies claim that, woman considers non-ethical tactics less than man (Erkus and Banai 2010; Bersoff 1999; Ekin and Tezölmez 1999; Lewicki and Robinson 1998; Barnett and Karson 1989; Kidwell et al. 1987; Chonko and Hunt 1985; Beltramini et al. 1984), other contradictory results shows that there is no significant gender differences in behaving ethically (Wimalasiri et al. 1996; Browning and Zahriskie 1983; Hegarty and Sims 1978). In addition to that, the different approach man and women is further investigated within different cultures. It is found that the significant difference in Canada where man tend to use ethically questionable tactics more than women disappears in Chinese culture (Ma 2010).

Education level and work experience has also mixed findings regarding ethical judgements. Some studies found that with age and education level ethical sensitivity

increases (Kracher et al. 2002; Razzaque and Hwee 2002; Larkin 2000; Weeks et al. 1999; Smith and Oakley 1997; Browning and Zahriskie 1983), while some other studies found that there is negative or no correlation between education level, work experience and ethical decision making (Roozen et al. 2001; Malinowski and Berger 1996; Verbeke et al. 1996; Wimalasiri et al. 1996; Elm and Nichols 1993; Muncy and Vitell 1992). Therefore, alone these demographic factors are not enough to define the reasons of moral actions.

Apart from demographics, different research items are conducted to analyze the affect of personality in ethical decision making. Machiavellianism is one of the personality traits in dark triad model which is defined as an individual who lives in a self-centered world, neglecting the moral values, and manipulating others for own wishes and desires (Hunt and Chonko 1984; Christie and Geis 1970). Studies showed that, individuals who have scored on high machiavellianism scale, prefers ethically questionable negotiation tactics more than those who scored less (Al-Khatib et al. 2005; Beu et al. 2003; Verbeke et al. 1996). Another research studied narcissism also a component of the dark triad which is coming from Greek man named Narcissus who fell in love to the reflection of his own image on the water. This trait is introduced by Sigmund Freud's book about narcissism which can be summarized as a self love (Freud 1914). It has been found that individuals who score high level of narcissism prefers less ethical tactics while, individuals with high rates of empathy prefers to use more ethical tactics (Brown et al. 2010). Other than dark triad traits, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness are defined as five factor model, which enables us to describe of a personality trait of an individual (Roccas et al. 2002). The study showed than individuals who have high conscientiousness and agreeableness scores are shows less dishonesty than low scored ones (Giluk and Postlethwaite 2015). The comparison has also been conducted between the dark triad and big five personalities to establish the personality in ethical decision making and moral development of an individual. Williams et al. (2006) found that, high scores on machiavellianism and psychopathy increase the tendency to show unethical behaviors while there was no correlation found between narcissism and ethical behavior. At the same research,

openness and conscientiousness at the same sample group were found to be associated with higher honest and moral development. On the other hand, while these researches were able to find the association between personality and ethical decision making, there are some researches which cannot able to find meaningful relationship between big-five personality factors and ethical behavior (Heck et al. 2018).

Apart from those studies, additional personal attribute researches were conducted to report their influence on negotiators ethical behaviors such as: Goal setting, role model affect, moral emotions, locus of control, trust and self-continuity. Research conducted to understand the effect of a goal/target setting on ethical behavior which showed that individuals who cannot be able to achieve their targets have more tendency to take risky decisions and therefore more likely to engage unethical behavior (Schweitzer et al. 2004). In case there is a friend or advisor role model, who can able to guide or pass the experiences such as long-term consequences of an action, there is a less tendency to use unethical behaviors (Perry and Nixon 2005). Emotions are also affecting individual's ethical decision making. Some researches found that, individuals who posses negative emotions such as envy to opponent during negotiations more tend to use unethical tactics in negotiation (Olekalns and Smith 2009; Moran and Schweitzer 2008). This finding is supported by research which identified the role of having empathy skills that is negatively related with the usage of unethical negotiation tactics (Cohen 2010).

People's beliefs of their lives control are determined by themselves or by external forces is described as internal and external external locus of control respectively. Their affect on the decision of ethical behavior is researched by Trevino and Youngblood (1990), individuals with internal locus of control behave more ethically than individuals with external locus of control. This study is supported with the finding of individuals with an external locus of control behave more unethically than internal locus of control (Jones and Kavanagh 1996). In negotiation, a party's trust in co-partner shapes individual's decision during ethical dilemmas. In different studies even with different cultures, it is found that trust is negatively correlated with the selection of ethically questionable tactics in negotiation (Olekalns and Smith 2009; Elahee and Brooks 2004; Elahee et al.

2002). In addition to this, as an individual attribute, self continuity showed itself as a predictor of ethical behavior. Individuals with low-self continuity selects ethically ambiguous tactics more frequently (Hershfeld et al. 2012).

Apart from individual factors, situational factors are influencing the ethical decision making for individuals. Organizational context can be considered as an environmental situation and a place which also involves job context. Different research has been conducted by analyzing what kind of organization has an impact on moral decisions. One of the researched factors that effect the usage of ethical tactics is ethical training. While some researches claimed that ethical trainings are not creating an impact on professionals' moral decisions (Levin 1989; Etzioni 1989), others supported that moral training is a valuable asset to increase ethical sensitivity among individuals (Laczniak 1983; Bok 1976). The research is conducted with the members of the Columbia University Graduate School of Business to understand how training affects the unethical behavior. It was found that, members who received ethical trainings more tend to use ethical tactics and making ethical decisions (Delaney and Sockell 1992). Apart from training, it has been found that existance of organizational ethical code positively influence the use of ethical tactics (Ferrell and Skinner 1988). During this research, it is also found that individuals in higher hierarchy in the organizational structure are more ethically responsible.

Organizational size is another contradictory variable. Some studies showed that individuals within the companies with higher workers are more open to make favorable deals and receive gifts from the 3rd party since they believe, they are the pillar stones of the company (Weber 1990; Browning and Zabriskie 1983). While one can find this result reasonable, it is discussed that, due to bigger impact of tough competition for smaller companies, individuals in these companies tend to use unethical tactics more than others to survive especially when dealing with the external partners (Vitell and Festervand 1987). Similarly, it is found that increased competition brings immoral use of tactics due to the survival instinct (Tinari 1993; Hegarty and Sims 1978). Not only deal with the 3rd parties but also internal ethical climate and availability of alternatives

are important factors for ethical decision making. The study showed that, increased ethical climate in organizations decreased the use of ethically questionable tactics such as deception (Aquino 1998). This finding is also supported by a research where it is found that individuals prefer not to use lies or use neutralization strategies during negotiation if an organization has a strong ethical climate (Aquino and Becker 2005). Same study did not find any relationship between the availability of alternatives and the use of deception (Aquino 1998). The consequences as rewards and punishments of unethical behavior are one of the strong predictors of moral actions. Studies shows that, individuals were more likely to engage in unethical behavior if in return they experienced reward and were more likely to avoid in unethical behavior if in return they expect punishment (Beams et al. 2003; Shapeero et al. 2003; Cherry and Fraedrich 2002; Glass and Wood 1996). This idea is analyzed by the research made for insurance company employees to understand the systematic effect of rewarding, in this case paying incentives, about selecting unethical behaviors and tactics towards their customers. While there is no significant relationship found between incentives and ethically negotiation tactic usage (Kurland 1995), another study found that incentives granted for accomplishment are increasing the tendency to use deceptive and dishonest tactics (Cramton and Dees 1993). This finding is supported by other investigations which found the incentives of an individuals influences the negotiator's usage of misrepresentation and changes the expectations from the opponent (Yamagishi et al. 2008; Tenbrunsel 1998). Rewarding unethical behavior is found to contribute the usage of unethical tactics which is shown in a marketing decision experiment (Hegarty and Sims 1978).

Quality of work experience is another factor which might affect the use of unethical negotiation tactics. The study showed that, low payment than expected and no appreciation or recognition from management may decrease the commitment and quality of work experience so they are the main reasons of behaving unethically to compensate individual's low-quality feeling (Jones and Kavanagh 1996).

Individual's moral reasoning during negotiation is found to be influenced by their peers' view. This influence is based on social learning theory (Bandura 1971), where an individual reference himself/herself their peers or managers as a role model. Different studies showed that, individuals are framed during ethical dilemmas based on their peers' ethical beliefs and actual behaviors for previous experiences (Flynn and Wiltermuth 2010; Deshpande and Joseph 2009; Westerman et al. 2007; McDevitt et al. 2007). These findings are also supporting an earlier research which showed individuals engage higher unethical behaviors if they perceive the same from their superiors or managers (Jones and Kavanagh 1996). The relative power difference between managers and their employees is one of the main reasons to influence employee behaviors. Therefore, the power affect in social context is studied by comparing relative power of individuals and their social influences on others. Different research papers showed that, individuals with lower power are much more impressionable while individuals with high power are less vulnerable for external stimuli (Weick and Guinote 2008; Guinote 2007). Moreover, it was supported that since the individuals who possess higher power are more self-focused, they tend to ignore ethical behavior and make immoral decision (Pitesa and Thau 2013).

In some cases, negotiation process is mediated by the third party who can ensure the collaboration, follow-up negotiation process and enabling open communication between parties. Therefore, with the presence of mediator, negotiators cannot ignore the basic universal ethical norms to only have a personal or professional gain (Bush 1989).

This chapter aims to give information about the concept of business negotiation, negotiation strategies and decision making and ethically questionable negotiation tactics. Antecedents and consequences are discussed. In the next chapter, social value orientation and its affect on decision making is discussed.

2.3 SOCIAL VALUE ORIENTATION

In this section, the concept of social exchange is explained with individual and group level interdependence theory and social dilemmas. The effects of social values are discussed, and examples of studies are provided. Effects of social values in ethical decision making are discussed by rooting the concept of interdependence theory.

2.3.1 Interdependence Theory

Since the existence human life has a social interaction. These interactions in human life depend on a dyadic and group relationship. Based on these social sciences questions several aspects: Why do people help each other in everyday of a life such as volunteering non-State, not-for-profit entities like CSO (Civil Society Organization), contributing to a social project, make donations, doing voluntary medicals, etc.? What motives individuals to come up with a decision in a certain situation is a key topic for social, cognitive, behavioral sciences. The interaction between individuals and their social environment creates a social exchange, which is discussed in literature, has its root in earlier study about social psychological way of thinking. According to earlier study by Lewin, our desires and behaviors are not only predicted by the properties of the person, but also by features of the situation, or social environment (Lewin 1936). As it is noted, the social exchange is not only about the similarities, but also the dependence of individuals since every action is affecting the other's needs, thoughts and motives (Lewin 1948). These social interactions among individuals, are based on social exchange and these exchanges are depended on different features, such as another person's decision, their needs, thoughts, motives and as well as environmental/situational conditions. Therefore, it is obvious that most of desires and behaviors of individuals depends on another feature. These features in the concept of interdependence theory is wide including perception, emotion, morality, social psychology, justice, power, conflict, bias, leadership and so on (Fiske et al. 2010). The formulation of this behavior change based on interdependence developed by Lewin (1936) as "Behavior" = f ("Person", "Environment").

Interdependence theory includes a social psychological approach which is developed by John Thibaut and Harold Kelley (1959). The main aim of interdependence theory is to understand how behavior shapes in different social situations and how these situation shapes interpersonal and intrapersonal processes in a dyadic or a group dynamic (Kelly et al. 2002; Kelley and Thibaut 1978). Based on this interaction, the behavior change formulation is extended by Holmes (2002) and Kelly et al. (2002), by changing the behavior to interaction between individuals and their relations to each other in a specific situation “Interaction” = f (“Social Situation”, Individual-1, Individual-N). The social interaction between individuals is analyzed by Thibaut and Kelly (1959), by creating using conceptual games to understand interdependence dimensions under fictitious environment and rules. There are two main pillar stone for this theory: Social exchange theory and game theory.

The focus of social exchange theory is to understand how exchange is happening both for tangible and intangible goods within communities. Social exchange theory suggests that these exchanges are happening in our daily lives such as sharing ideas or discussing with a friend, in a romantic relationship, and professional life by exchanging ideas, goods, and at the end generation of expectation from them (Redmond 2015). First approach of exchange theory was based basic economic principles such as rewards and costs. The theory posits that, exchanged goods between parties needs to be in equilibrium, otherwise unbalanced exchanges create conflicts. Therefore, individuals who take much than give are under pressure to supply more since the exchange is under basic economic principles which is about rewards and costs (Homans 1950). Later on, this economic principle extended to more social exchange by showing to aid others who request it without expecting anything in return to preserve and maintain the communal relationships (Mills and Clark 1982). After that, the social exchange theory extended and used in different disciplines such as economics, sociology, and social psychology. The part which was considered by Thibaut and Kelly (1959) is the situations where people are having social interactions in a community that social exchanges affect other’s behaviors or direct outcomes. This effect later emphasized by the function of interaction between individuals and situation that contains personal social values and preferences

which may result beneficial or costly to other parties and self without considering strategical approach (Murphy and Ackermann 2013).

Game Theory (Nash 1950), as the second pillar stone in social exchange theory, tries to find out the mathematical equation of best possible move where one individual's choice is directly depends on the other. The theory has two main assumptions which are the rationality of dyads and the desire to maximize the pay-off where under these assumptions it is adapted in different fields such as economics, politics, psychology, and many business cases. Prisoners' dilemma is a famous decision-making simulation where the different behavior of an individual will create a different result but also this critically depends on the 2nd person decision as well.

Based on an interdependence theory perspective, Holmes (2002) reshaped the prisoners dilemma into a set of problems and opportunities. The main idea was to understand dyads personal choices of cooperation or competition behavior.

Figure 2. 11: Mutual exchange with profit situation

<i>Exchange of Profit</i>	<i>A1</i>	<i>A2</i>
<i>B1</i>	10-10	15-0
<i>B2</i>	0-15	5-5

Source: (Holmes 2002)

According to Figure 2.11 as shown above, the numbers represent the outcome for the Person-A and Person-B who are dependent of each other's behavioral decision. If the decision maker (DM) is Person A, he or she is selecting between certain distributions of resources, yielding some amount to herself and some amount to another person B. If both Person-A and B tries to co-operate in cooperative manner, their total gain will be maximized (20 points). The main idea that complicates the dilemma is there is an option to choose a non-cooperative way (we can also say as competitive or individualistic way) to maximize individuals own gain and/or maximize the difference of the shares. Individuals who are playing make decisions simultaneously and without any

information regarding their counterpart's intentions hence this is not a strategic decision. The choice by Person A has a social dimension, so his or her decision will influence Person B's payoff and is aware of this potential consequence. Interdependence of the preferences and situation generates a behavior for DM which provide information about the DM's own payoff in with the payoff for Person-B (Kelley and Thibaut 1979).

Holmes (2002) created a classification of dependence situations among dyads by using inputs from both social exchange theory and game theory. This classification has four dimensions. First dimension describes the level of dependency among dyads. The second one if the dyads in situation have an inequality or difference in relative power. The third dimension is based on the persons own self-interests and values and expectations from other party about their goals, trustworthiness, and trust during interaction. The fourth dimension of the interdependence of dyads based on the outcomes of the situation which leads to collaborate or compete. As a contribution, Kelley et al. (2002) added two more dimensions to the list. The fifth dimension is about the expectation of the outcome either having immediate effects or delayed results which needs to have a long-term commitment from both parties. The last dimension is about the lack of information regarding the other party's decisions and outcomes during interaction. These dimensions of situations are summarized shown below in Figure 2.12.

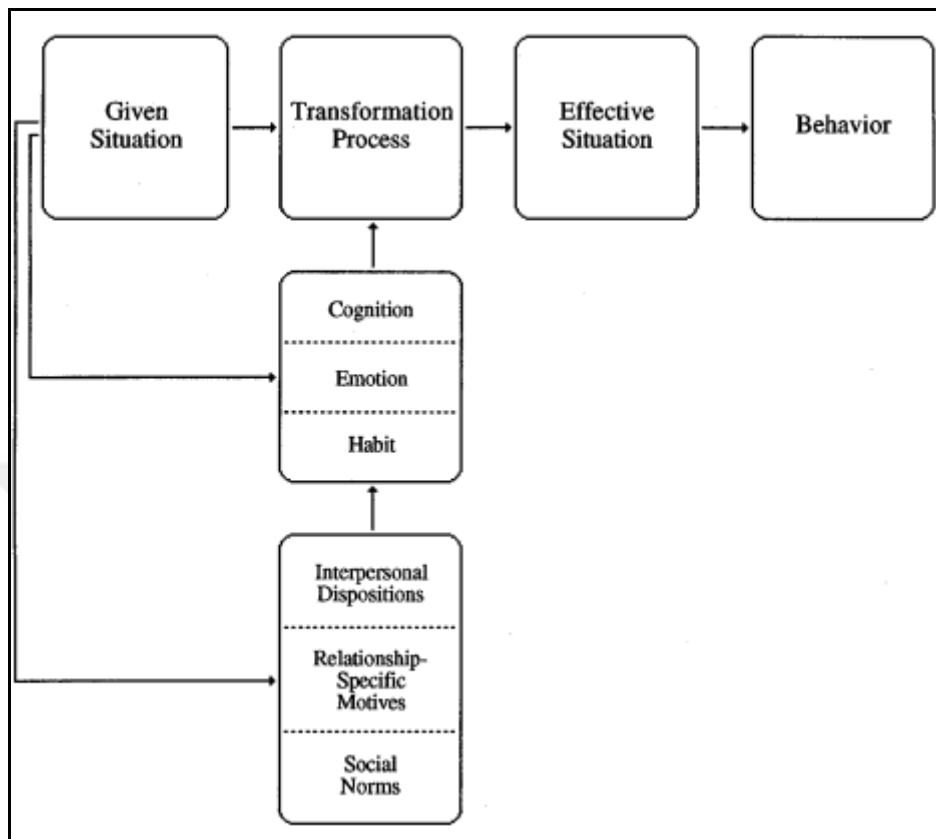
Figure 2. 12: Dimensions of situations and interpersonal dispositions

<i>Dimension of situation</i>	<i>Function of rule</i>	<i>Interpersonal disposition</i>
1. Degree of Interdependence	Increase or decrease dependence on partner	Avoidance of interdependence/Comfort with dependence
2. Mutuality of interdependence		
3. Correspondence of outcomes	Promote prosocial or self-interested goals	Cooperative/competitive Responsive/unresponsive
	Expectations about partner's goals	Anxiety about responsiveness/Confidence or trust
4. Basis of control	Control through exchange (promise/threat) or coordination (initiative/follow)	Dominant/submissive Assertive/passive
5. Temporal structure	Promote immediate or distant goal striving	Dependable/unreliable Loyal/uncommitted
6. Degree of uncertainty	Cope with incomplete information or uncertain future	Need for certainty/openness Optimism/pessimism

Source: (Holmes 2002)

According to Rusbult and Van Lange, (2003) during interaction in a given situation, individual behavior is a result of “transformation” which is based on that person’s habits, emotions, and cognitive capability as well as social norms, motives, and interpersonal relations. The process of transformation therefore, having a given situation and interpreting as individual’s own effective situation and acting accordingly as shown below as figure 2.13.

Figure 2.13: The transformation process



Source: (Rusbult and Van Lange 2003)

One of the most important aspects of transformation process is the social value orientation of an individual. The concept social value orientation is inspired by Messick and McClintock (1968), describes an individual's social motives by weighting one's own and a partner's outcomes.

Under specific conditions, individual behaves differently in other words the transformation process changes or situation is considered only as given without any interpretation. Some of these constraints can be listed as time pressure (Maule et al. 2000), self-capacity (Baumeister et al. 1998), uncertainty (Lebiere and Anderson 2011), anxiety (Grecucci et al. 2013), and framing (Pinkley and Northcraft 1994).

In the present research, decision making about ethically questionable negotiation tactics is examined as a function of;

- i. The initial given situational structure of a task including constraints such as framing and anxiety level of a person which will be represented as a scenario,
- ii. The social value orientation of the individual decision makers.

2.3.2 The Concept of Social Value Orientation

The interdependence theory made it clear that, individuals have different experiences based on their social interactions. The transformation of a given situation based on personal experiences, takes place for each individual differently (Kelly and Thibaut 1979). It is claimed that one of the most important factors which affect this transformation is correspondence of outcomes (Van Lange et al. 1997). Individual's experience of a correspondence type that permits cooperation or fosters conflict of interest, shapes his or her behavior while interpreting a given situation (Thibaut 1968; Thibaut and Faucheux 1965). Therefore, the social interaction experience is a function of an interdependent situation and social situation where both considered as a "Person" and "Environment" by Lewin (1936).

These different experiences triggering the individual differences such as motives, attitudes and emotions noticed by Deutsch (1949) and Heider (1958) by examining the different motivations in the same environment. With the help of Game Theory (Nash 1950), different individual motivations can be observed in the same interdependent situation. One of the most important practical game approaches based on the Game theory is Prisoners Dilemma. The concept of PD is first described by Albert Tucker (1983) and shown table 2.2 as below. According to Prisoners Dilemma, there are two criminals who are arrested and imprisoned. They are not allowed to communicate each other, and case is under investigation.

- If both confess, they will be imprisoned 1 year each.
- If no-one confesses, they are free to leave the jail.
- In case, one of them confess and the other don't, the silent will remain in jail for two year while first person will leave the jail immediately even with a reward of money.

Table 2.2: Prisoners dilemma outcome comparison

	II. Confess	II. Not Confess
I. Confess	(-1, -1)	(1, -2)
I. Not Confess	(-2, 1)	(0, 0)

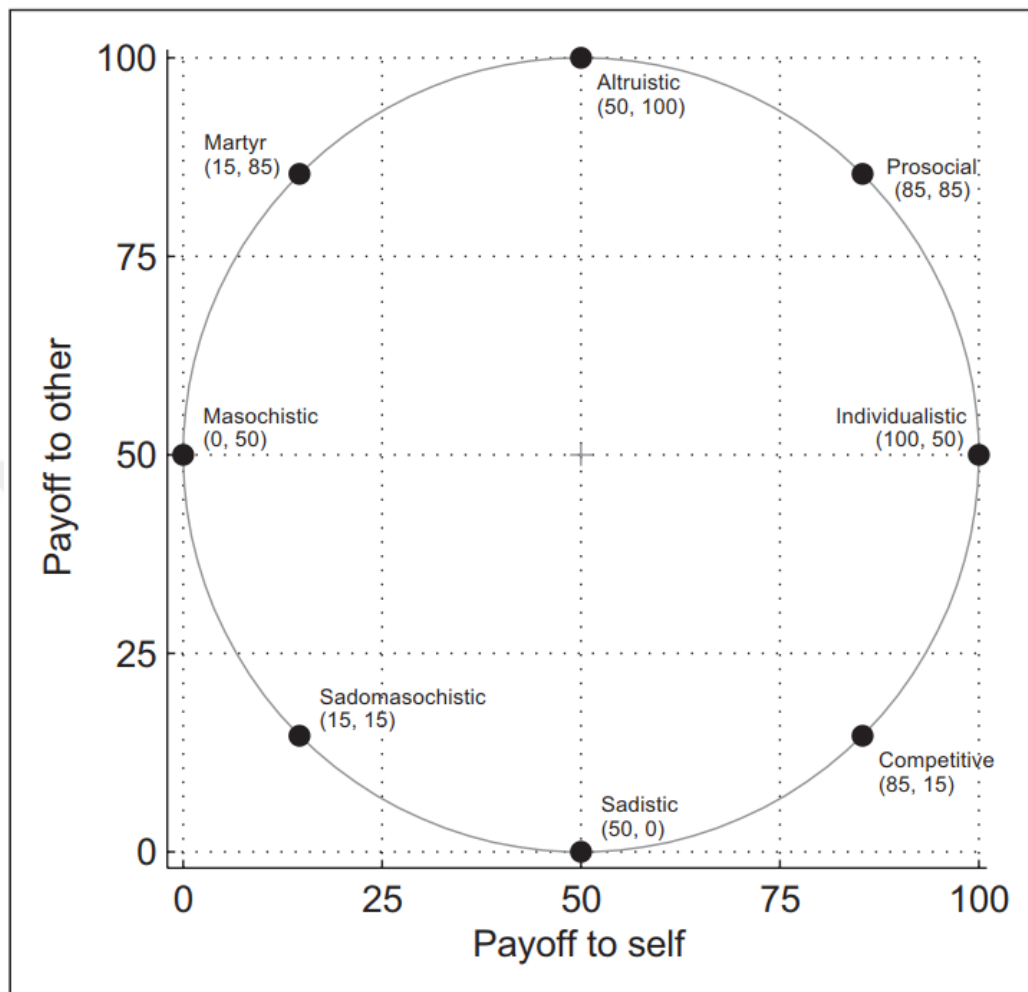
Source: (Tucker 1983)

In a mathematical perspective, its optimum strategy for a mutual outcome is to confess for a rational individual. From the interdependence theory perspective, even under the assumption of a rational dyads, individual differences and situational conditions will affect the decision to more cooperative or competitive and change the outcome of the game. Therefore, in order to understand individual motives, research was conducted by considering in decomposed prisoners dilemma, there is one decision maker who can give decision for both sides so direct affect to the outcome (McClintock et al. 1973; Messick and McClintock 1968). One of the main contributions of a decomposed prisoners dilemma game is a removed interaction with the second person. This eliminates any pre-discussion and any feedback. Also, to understand direct individual differences and personal choices, both selections for 1st and 2nd person must be made by the decision maker. As a result, these conditions weaken the interdependent situation in an interaction by removing strategic approach and strengthen personal approach. This allowed researchers to stimulate series of studies to understand motivational orientations which is conceptualized by Griesinger and Livingston (1973) and originally proposed by Deutsch (1960) who categorized individuals social values into the three groups: cooperative, individualistic, and competitive. These three groups of orientations classify the individuals by the selection of a choices based on the outcome. In addition to these studies, another comprehensive study had been conducted by Liebrand (1984) to analyze the consistency of the motivational orientations. The study considered altruism as a fourth motivational orientation in addition to the first three. The results of the studies were consistent with motivational orientations and personal choices in a n-person dilemma stimulated as a decomposed game of sharing limited resources (Liebrand and Van Run 1985; Kuhlman and Marshello 1975; Messick and McClintock 1968).

Individualism described as an individual orientation which tries to maximize own gain while nearly zero concern for their counterparts gain or loss. Their main motivation is only to maximize their own outcome therefore cooperative involvement, helping behavior, or common goal targeting is not expected. Cooperative and competitive orientations both concerns about others gain or loss but in a different way. While in cooperative motivation tries to maximize both gains, competitive tries to maximize the difference of outcomes. Individuals who have cooperative orientation believes in long term relationship development with their partners. These individuals proactively search and endeavor to find win-win situation and strategy. On the other hand, individuals with competition orientation uses strategies and behaviors to create win-lost situation which most of the time creates a conflict situation. Competitors do not afraid to take a risk since they always target to win. Also, they are not concerned with a long-term relationship building strategy. Competitors see this conflict environment as a playground and a chance to force their partners to make them accept their ideas. Altruism orientation is a totally opposite of individualism orientation from a self-interest perspective. They have a relatively low self-interest when compared to other orientations. Individuals who have this orientation have a main target to increase the other's outcome even if that means to sacrifice their's.

In addition to these four main social orientations, Liebrand (1984) provided a broader graphical representation of this framework as shown in figure 2.14.

Figure 2.14: A graphical representation of the SVO framework



Source: (Murphy et al. 2011)

The figure displays the social value orientations based on DM's selection of payoff to self and the payoff to other. As an example, consider that DM needs to give 0-100 points to self and other which simulates a payoff. In case the DM make nearly 50 points to self and 100 points to other graph shows that the DM's orientation is moving to altruistic. This motivation shifts to masochistic if DM's selection to self is decreases to zero. Another example can be given as DM tries to maximize the difference of outcomes such as 85 to self and 15 to other, than this shows a competitive orientation. For those selections, the summary of possible binary choices corresponding to social value orientation is shown below as figure 2.15.

Figure 2.15: The Archetypal Social Value Orientations

<i>Self</i>	<i>Other</i>	Orientation	Inferred motivation	Weight on one's own outcome	Weight on other's outcome
85	85	Prosocial	Max. the joint payoff or min. the difference	1	1
100	50	Individualistic	Max. the payoff for self	1	0
85	15	Competitive	Max. the positive difference between the payoff for oneself and the payoff for the other	1	-1
50	0	Sadistic	Min. the other's payoff	0	-1
15	15	Sadomasochistic	Min. the joint payoff or min. the difference between payoffs	-1	-1
0	50	Masochistic	Min. the payoff to oneself	-1	0
15	85	Martyr	Max. the negative difference	-1	1
50	100	Altruistic	Max. the other's payoff	0	1

Source: (Murphy and Ackermann 2013)

While the figure 2.15 represents all possible motivational orientations, different empirical studies mainly focused and found consistency within four main orientations, cooperative, altruistic, competitive, individualistic (Van Lange et al. 1997; Messick and McClintock 1968; Deutsch 1960). Cooperative and altruistic orientations grouped as prosocial due to their collective interest nature. Competitive and individualistic orientation grouped as proself due to their self-interest nature. In addition to these studies, prosocial and proself orientations are studied in different researches in literature with different naming's of SVO such as social value (Liebrand and McClintock 1988; Liebrand et al. 1986; Knight and Dubro 1984; McClintock et al. 1982), motivational

orientation (Kuhlman and Wimberley 1976; Kuhlman and Marshello 1975; McClintock et al. 1973; Messick and McClintock 1968; Deutsch 1960), social orientation (Kagan 1977; Knight and Kagan 1977), and social motivation (Liebrand 1984; McClintock 1972). These studies are contributed for the clarification of the SVO.

The SVO concept is widely researched in literature with different topics. Through these studies, structurally there are three main findings. One of the findings is the durability of SVO which is supported by several studies by showing social value orientation is not easily changed over time (Kuhlman et al. 1986; McClintock and Allison 1989). Therefore, it is included in different research areas including sociology, anthropology, social psychology, economics, and even biology.

Another key finding is that the social value orientations are consistent and empirically proved in different countries and cultures (Kuhlman et al. 1986; Bornstein et al. 1983; Liebrand 1983; Teraoka 1983; Zajonc 1982; Poppe 1980; Kagan and Knight 1981; Kelly and Thibaut 1979; Kagan 1977; Maccrimmon and Messick 1976; Griesinger and Livingston 1973; Wyer 1969; McClintock 1968; Sawyer 1966). According to the study conducted between Anglo and Mexican-American children, there exists a significant difference between social value orientation where Anglo-American childrens are more competitive (McClintock 1974). On the other hand, a cross country study showed that, there was no difference between SVO distribution of individuals in Dutch and USA (Liebrand and Van Run 1985).

Third key finding is the ecological validity which can be described as in real life people behave same as they have answered the social value orientation measurement questions and the results are consistent with the predictions (McClintock and Allison 1989; Kramer et al. 1986; Liebrand and Van Run 1985; Bem and Lord 1979; Kuhlman and Marshello 1975).

In the following part the interaction between social value orientation and different variables are examined in literature.

2.3.2.1 Antecedents and consequences of SVO

Development process of social value orientation, as addressed by social-cognitive theory (Bandura 1971), based on the interactions between individuals' cognitive and demographic characteristics which was generally explained as expectations, beliefs, perceptions, values, and situational factors. These factors develop behaviors which provides an experience for an indirect learning (Bandura 1971) to develop SVO with a repeated action i.e., parents might modify their children behavior (Van Lange et al. 1997). The study showed that, mothers' ethnic background is directly related with the children's social value orientation (Knight et al. 1993). Parental influence can be replaced with a macro affect of the society as a culture which is also affecting the SVO of individuals. It was found that, in USA the majority of children sample group aged between 8–11 year-old were proself oriented as individualist or competitive (Knight, et al. 1981). In contrast to western culture SVO, it was found that Chinese children were more prosocial oriented as collaborative or altruist (Li et al. 2013). This difference is explained as the learning in collectivist cultures possess the importance of collaboration, social interdependence and the obligation feeling for the needs of other members in society whereas for individualistic cultures freedom of speech and choice becomes important (Eisenberg et al. 2006; Miller 1993). Since individuals living in collectivist cultures exhibits greater levels of secure attachment, the social value orientation shifts from proself to prosocial (Van Lange et al.1997). Similarly, SVO shaped by the society also within the different economical areas identified as rural and urban. It was found that the development of orientations from rural to urban areas, individuals are becoming more proself oriented (Timilsina et al. 2019; Shahrier et al. 2016).

Apart from cultural differences, individual factors also play a role in development of behaviors. Human emotions depend on different factors and changeable during different situations. During personal interaction, sometimes conflict is inevitable. During these situations, individuals explicitly showing their emotions either as a disappointment, happiness, sadness, fear, or anger (Barry 1999). Since the reaction to different emotions are vary, different researches were conducted to understand the role of social value

orientation role, in the reaction of these emotions. Prosocials have higher concern for others than proselfs, so one perspective of the literature suggest that emotions might affect prosocials higher than proselfs. On the other hand, due to competitive strategies of proselfs, emotion might directly affect the decision of strategies. The study had been conducted to understand the moderation effect of social value orientation, in interpersonal affect in case of an existing disappointment emotion during a negotiation. It was found that proselfs are more reacting by modifying their strategies in case of an observed disappointment from other side while there was no significant change of a behavior or strategy for prosocials (Van Kleef and Van Lange 2008). This finding supports the first perspective of the literature. Another study inspected the affects of facial expressions during negotiation for different social orientation values. It is found that prosocials feels more threatened in negotiation with an individual who has an anger face than individualistic orientation. Also, individuals strategically select avoidance tactics in case of a fearful and sad facial expression (Kaltwasser et al. 2017).

According to interdependent theory, in society welfare caring is inevitable (Kelly and Thibaut 1979). The degree of caring other's welfare depends on different factors. Since the social behaviors are affected by social value orientation of the individuals, researchers focussed on the affect of SVO in helping behavior decision. In paralel with the theoretical background of cooperative value orientation as caring others welfare, the tendency to select helping behavior also increases while in proself orientation this tendency is lower (McClintock and Allison 1989). This finding is later supported by finding the strong relation between altruism and helping behavior (Ouden and Russell 1997; Russell and Mentzel 1990).

In literature, willingness to sacrifice and committment is two key research variables which are important for enduring long-term interdependent relationships. Similar to helping behavior, the connection between commitment and willingness to sacrifice is differentiated by the SVO of individuals. It was observed that, willingness to sacrifice is higher in prosocials than competitive value orientation. In addition to that, there was significant difference between proself orientations. The relationship between

commitment and willingness to sacrifice is amplified by the moderating effect of individualism while cooperators have less tendency to sacrifice or commit (Van Lange et al. 1997).

The sacrifice for self or other is also an important topic for society. It is obvious that some people tend to care the collective well being more than their individualistic gain therefore more willing to sacrifice their own gain. Among these people, prosocials feel higher social responsibility and care about helping others (Van Lange et al. 2007; De Cremer and Van Lange 2001). Some of the examples for the important environmental problems are pollution and infrastructure network. Social value orientation is researched to understand the person's decision on selecting the transportation method based on these problems. The results showed that, prosocials are much more caring about long-term welfare of the society by considering the damage caused by using car vs public transportation. The prosocials mostly concern for their own welfare by considering which transportation method will give them advantage over society (Van Vugt et al. 1995).

Since the social value orientation affects the tendency and behavior of the individuals, the tendency in politics was also a question in social psychology. Study conducted by Chirumbolo et al. (2016) revealed three findings. First, when compared to prosocials, prosocials tend to select social orientation decisions in politics due to their motivation to have joint outcome and social responsibility (Van Lange et al. 1997). Second finding proved that, SVO is the antecedent of the political view. And last finding is individuals with prosocial orientations tend to have prejudice on immigrants which is inline with the tendency of prosocials to fear of losing their welfare and sharing with others. Apart from political view of an individual, the society they are living has an effect on their social orientations. The study found that, individuals SVO distributions increase to more competitive orientation from prosocial when moving from rural to capitalistic societies (Shahrier, et al. 2016).

Social value orientation is also studied to understand its effect on organizational development mainly in team performance evaluation and goal orientation. In a daily

business life, individuals are in a constant process of negotiating on different topics. Decision taken in these negotiations shape the organization. As prosocials tend to find a mutual benefit in conflict situations and agreements, they also perform better organizational development than proselfs (Van Lange et al. 2013; De Dreu and Boles 1998). One of the reasons for these findings is, during these negotiations prosocials tends to find a common solution for the business problem which create a benefit and common goal for both sides (Nauta et al. 2002). This allows organization to solve interdepartmental problems in a collaborative way and fosters learning within organization. In a group studies, group consist of prosocials tend to work collaboratively which creates an increased group performance when compared to proself group's individual or competitive way of work (Upton 2009).

2.4 FRAMING

In this section, the concept of framing is explained by considering prospect theory. The effects of gain/loss framing are discussed, and examples of studies are provided. Antecedents and consequences of framing on decision making are discussed.

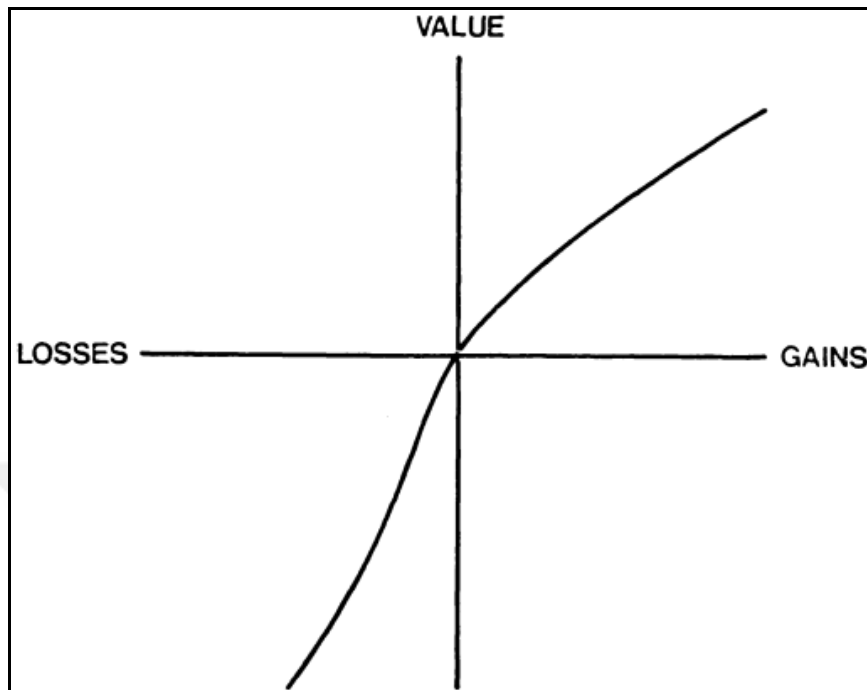
2.4.1 The Concept of Framing

How individuals interpret a situation and act according to that interpretation has long been investigated in literature. In a risky situation, the decision at the end is based on different perspectives of risk takers and risk averse individuals. Framing is defined as a perception of an individual based on contingencies, personal characteristics, experiences, habits which in total scene of a particular situation (Tversky and Kahneman 1981). It leads individual to an option from various choices in a decision-making problem. During a decision-making process, framing becomes a function of a situation view for an individual by having contradictory attitudes toward risk perceptions (Tversky and Kahneman 1981), differentiates processes and outcomes of a situation (Pinkley and Northcraft 1994).

In behavioral decision research, normative decision theories are predicated on rational individual's ideal way of decision making (Donaldson and Dunfee 1994). While according to utility theory the assumption considered by normative theory is logical, the main criticism raised as normative theories considers only logical game of analysis rather focussing on the psychological perspective which triggers the gap between actual and predicted behavior. This gap can also occur in an exact situation which can be observed from different points of view. As an example, imagine that there is water crisis spreading through the world and threatening human life. There are two different alternatives giving the same rational outcome while the perspectives are different. Plan A found a way to recover from this crisis by explaining there is a 30 percent possibility of a success while Plan B found a way to recover but expressing 70 percent possibility of a failure. How will different individuals see the different choices with the same outcome and give their decision?

Framing concept was originally named as "decision frame" by Tversky and Kahneman (1981). They described framing as decision maker's mental representation of situations with simplification of the results for a particular choice. The framing concept depends on a behavioral economic theory named as prospect theory. Prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky 1979) describing a neutral reference point and the actual value proposition based on outcomes as gains and losses. The gain type of outcomes of a situation are considered as positive deviations of a reference point and the loss type of outcomes of a situation are considered as negative deviations of a reference point. Kahneman and Tversky (1979) found the relation between value proposition and the outcomes as gains and losses as S-shaped curve as shown below in figure 2.16. In the figure, the reference point considered as "0" value.

Figure 2.16: A typical s-shaped value function



Source: (Kahneman and Tversky 1979)

There are 2 main properties of a typical value function in prospect theory. First one is about the S-curve shapes for both domains. In the gain domain, above the reference point is concave shaped while below is convex shaped. In the loss domain same logic applies. This shape describes the not rational perspective of an outcome when compared in different gains or losses. As an example, during a negotiation, perceived value of discounting 200 € to 180 € is much higher than discounting 1.000 € to 980 €. The same logic applies also for the losses. Second property of the S-curve shape is the comparison between the perspective of gains and losses. The analyze of a human behavior showed that, perceived value of losing something is much greater than winning the same thing (Tversky and Kahneman 1981).

With the development of prospect theory, framing concept describes the deviations from standard decisions due to different perceptions of a situation. According to framing concept, it is possible to manipulate individual's perspective for a specific situation. This manipulation progresses with the risk probability identification of an outcome. This identification is described with a famous "Asian disease problem".

The problem states that there is an outbreak from which is called Asian disease which is expected to kill 600 people. There are 2 different alternative programs suggested to fight with this disease. Based on the estimation of the result of each program individual needs to select one of them. The same problem is also asked in a different way as a Problem 2 as shown below in figure 2.17.

Figure 2.17: Two problem defined for valuation in prospect theory

Problem 1 [N = 152]: (Gain Frame → Risk Averse Choice)	
• If Program A is adopted, 200 people will be saved.	[72 %]
• If Program B is adopted, there is 1/3 probability that 600 people will be saved, and 2/3 probability that no people will be saved.	[28 %]
Problem 2 [N = 155]: (Loss Frame → Risk Seeking Choice)	
• If Program C is adopted 400 people will die.	[22 %]
• If Program D is adopted there is 1/3 probability that nobody will die, and 2/3 probability that 600 people will die.	[78 %]

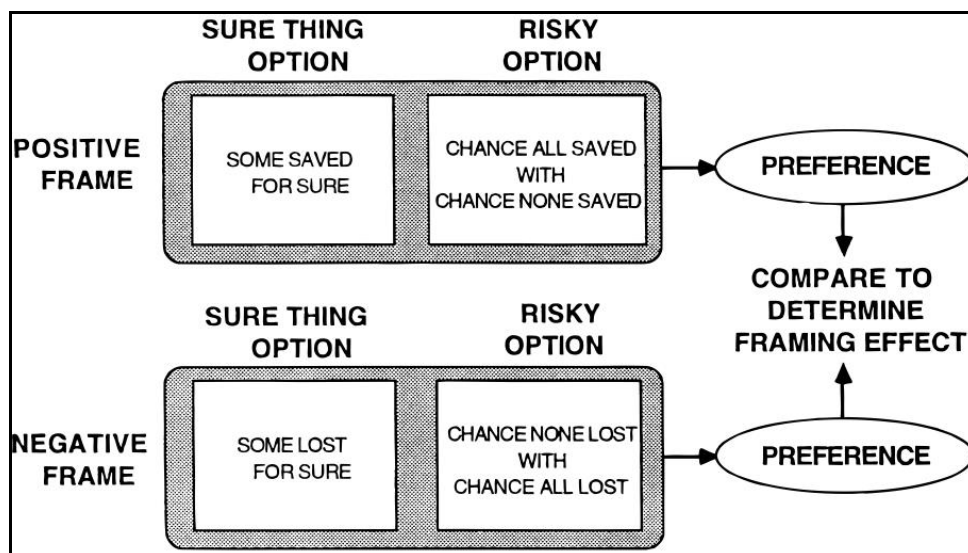
Source: (Tversky and Kahneman 1981)

In first problem, even based on the utility theory, the result of a Program A is exactly the same as Program B, individuals tend to select Program A due to a desire to have a certainty when facing a positive frame called gain frame. This behavior shows that 72 percent of individuals tend to be more risk averse. In problem 2, the same problem negatively redefined called loss frame. This time, in program C the perceived outcome is much higher than the previous Problem, Program A. That perception triggers the risk seeking behaviors and the result of 78 percent of individuals selects Program D even it has same utility outcome but without certainty.

This behavior is mathematically modelled by S-curve shape in prospect theory which is studied in different reasearches. One of the studies conducted to examine the risk-taking behaviours of managers during potential continuous losses. It was found that risk seeking behaviour diminishes when there exists a high potential continuous loss

(Laughunn et al. 1980). This behavior proves the evaluation of a potential gains or losses are changing with the interpretation of a same situation from a different perspective. Another researched used a different utility functions to understand the risk seeking behavior of individuals while given the below and above target values as a condition. It was observed that, 66 percent of individual behavior is risk seeking that corresponds the below part of reference point shaped as convex while more than 60 percent of individual behavior is risk averse corresponds the above part of reference point shaped as concave in prospect theory (Fishburn and Kochenberger 1979). The prospect theory not only studied in the business environment but also in clinical studies to assess the behaviors of the patients. The study showed that patients are more willing to try the new drug therapy when the side effects described as positive and more risk averse when it is described as negative while there was no significant difference found between the between the ill patients and other group (Eraker and Sox 1981). These findings are also supported by further studies and typology accepted as a standart framing behavior in literature schematized shown below as in figure 2.18 (Kühberger 1998; Budescu and Weiss 1987).

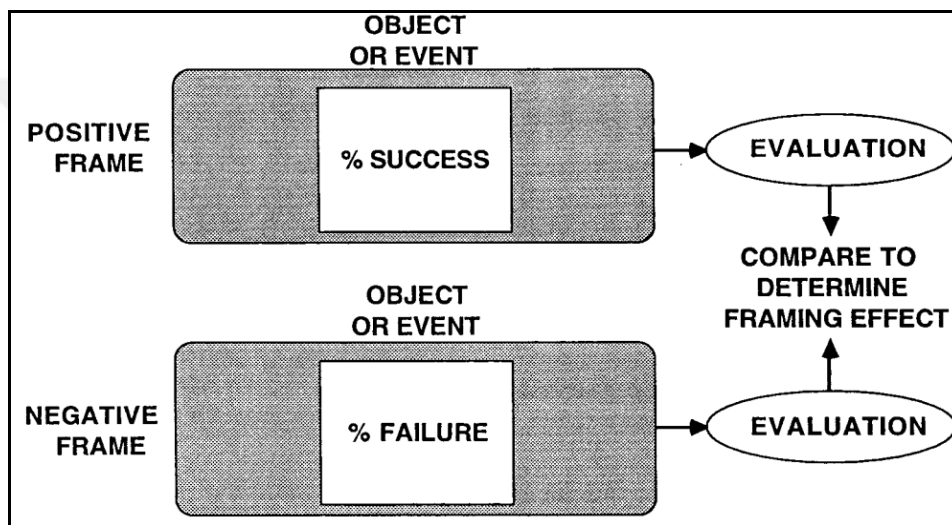
Figure 2.18: The standard risky choice framing paradigm



Source: (Levin et al. 1998)

Levin et al. (1998) extended this work by adding 2 different framing typologies. The first framing typology named as “attribute framing” which focusses only one property of a situation. Similar with the standart gain/loss framing, the individuals decisions are analyzed to understand the behavioral change but this time without two independent choices. Instead, situations described as either positively or negatively which reflects the outcome of the behavior as shown below in Figure 2.19.

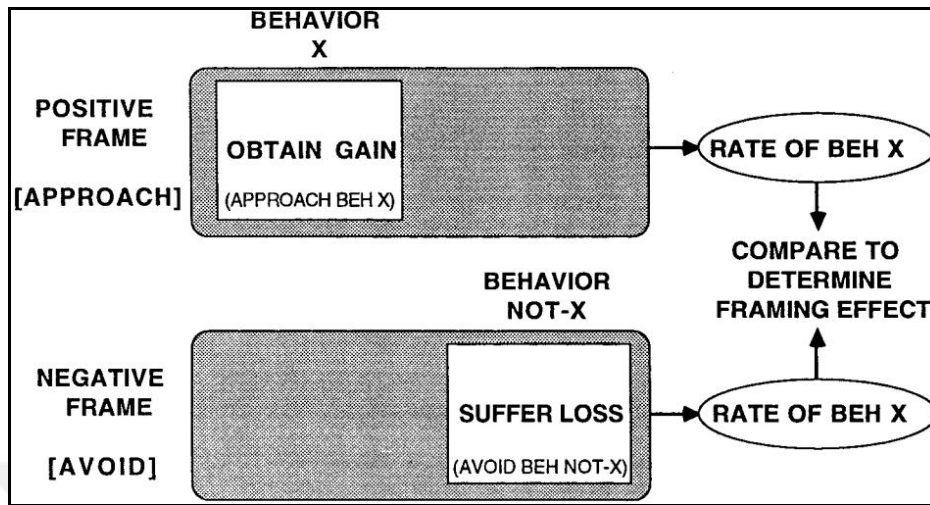
Figure 2.19: The attribute framing paradigm



Source: (Levin et al. 1998)

The second framing typology named as “goal framing” which targets the view perspective by the result valuation. Again, similar with the standart gain/loss framing, the individuals decisions are analyzed to understand the behavioral change but this time consequences are described from positive and negative perspective without having 2 independent choices. The main difference of goal framing is, since the goal valuation can differ person to person, it can be designed based on individualistic desires. This paradigm is shown as below in figure 2.20.

Figure 2.20: The basic goal framing paradigm



Source: (Levin et al. 1998)

Series of research topics conducted to understand ethically unacceptable behaviors such as stealing, cheating, and lying at University of Chicago regarding living places, educational places and churches by finding that moral behavior is not consistent for every situation. Therefore, the situational factors are also affecting the moral decision. (Duska and Whelan 1975).

2.4.2 Antecedents and Consequences of Framing Effect

Framing is one of the important research variables to understand the individual's decision-making modification that have impacts on different areas in literature. It is used in different purposes literature and in real business cases. The first focus in literature was to re-examine the famous Asian disease problem. These studies confirmed the significance of framing affect by making different changes from the original problem, such as re-testing with more population and different group (Highhouse and Yüce 1996), phrasing of the original questions (Bohm and Hans 1992), adapting the original question to a monetary value with explaining the consequences (Jou et al. 1996), changing imaginary asian disease content to known pandemic (Levin and Chapman 1990), extending decision from individual levels to a group decision (Paese et al. 1993).

As explained with prospect theory, most used approach for the risk-taking behavior is increasing risk taking behavior of loss framing and avoiding behavior for gain framing (Tversky and Kahneman 1981; Kahneman and Tversky 1979). The tendency of risky decision selection increase often resulted due to a heavy loss or life-threatening situations as suggested by prospect theory. When compared with monetary situations, individuals willing to take more risk if the situation framed as loss, particularly loss of human life-threatening situations (Fagley and Miller 1997). Medical centers are daily facing this particular situation. Although, the decisions made by doctors are depending on medical facts, the selection criteria depend on the probability of the treatment will work or not. The study to illustrate this situation is made among medical students showed that, when the outcome is framed as mortality, individuals are adapting more risk-taking behavior when compared to framed as survival rates (Marteau 1989). While these examinations were conducted by unknown patients so there is no relationship between the doctor candidates and the patients, the importance of having a bond is examined separately. It was found that, when the decision is made for relatives with a negatively framed, the selection of risky behavior is increasing while if positively framed risk averse becomes even more dominant selection (Wang 1996). Similarly, it was researched how trust and reciprocity for dyadic exchange affected by gain/loss frame. The risky choice of trusting a partner considered as a less risky choice in the presence of loss frame while the reciprocity was not affected (Evans and Beest 2017).

The affects of framing widely discussed especially for the different cultures. For collectivist cultures, as a general orientation interdependency, being part of a community, and maintaining social harmony are some of the key characteristics, while for individualistic cultures independent self-view, goals and personal achievement are more important (Heine and Lehman 1997; Triandis 1989). Therefore, individuals in collectivist cultures favor prevention over risk taking strategies by focusing negative outcomes to avoid while individuals in individualistic cultures focuses on more positive outcomes they would like to approach (Elliot et al. 2001). The research showed that, individuals from more individualistic British tend to focus and are persuaded more on gain-framed information while individuals from East-Asian as collectivist culture focus

and are persuaded more on loss-framed information (Uskul et al. 2009). Similarly, study for promoting a vaccine campaign across three cultural groups as, Hispanic, non-Hispanic White, and non-Hispanic African-American, showed that loss-framed information is more effective for the collectivist Hispanic and non-Hispanic African-American group (Lechuga et al. 2011). Contradictory results also found that loss framing was found more effective for both individualist and collectivist cultures if individuals have self-oriented appeal (Yoon and Ferle 2018). This result indicates that individual orientation has more influence on interpretation the transmitted information.

The tendency of the risk-taking behavior based on framing affect was researched by also considering individual factors. These factors were researched as the personal reality of an outcome (Rottenstreich and Hsee 2001), emotional stability (Shiv et al. 2005), and individual feelings (Isen et al. 1988). One of the recent studies tried to understand the positive and negative feelings for the relation of framing and risky taking behavior. It was found that the positive relation between loss framing and increased risk-taking behavior weakens with pleasant feelings while during gain framed situation less risk-taking behavior also weakens due to the the positive feelings lowers the hesitation of risk-taking behavior (Seo et al. 2010).

The framing affect is also used by marketers for brand ads. In order to create positive mood and attitude towards product, the positive sides of the products are used in most of the product ads (Batra and Ray 1986; Aaker et al. 1986). For certain products i.e., safety equipments emphasizing the negative consequences of not using the products certainly improved the marketing strategy. When this advertisement or ads combined with brand awareness and improved by the facts of the results by showing the visual images or reports, the framing impact for the ads is increasing so to determine owning an advertised product (Homer and Yoon 1992). The assigned value of the product differs from person to person. It was found that the assigned value for a product is changing when a person owns that product. This increased value of a product to for a person is described as “endowment effect” (Thaler 1980). The endowment effect states that, when individuals acquire an object the assigned value not to lose that object is

higher than the assigned value when acquiring it. This evaluation is combined with the prospect theory and the decision making. It was found that, when a value assigned to a coffee mug owned by individuals, when it is loss framed it was harder to give up than acquire the brand-new mug (Kahneman et al. 1990). This finding is supported by an additional research as well (Loewenstein and Issacharoff 1994). This risk averse behavior is occurred in other business areas such as insurance topic. According to this research, an insurance company tries to modify their customer contracts by loss framed information such as limiting the coverage of insurance rates but giving a discount, while another company informs with gain framed by standart insurance will be cheaper but with additional premium they can acquire the same benefits. It was seen that the loss framed information had greater impact since the individuals did not want to give up their insurance benefits, although the same information provided by the second insurance company had the same conditions with the gain frame (Meszaros et al. 1991). With the same point of view, there was a debate between merchants and banks due to the usage of credit cards on purchasing. While for every transaction, merchants had to pay banks a fee, putting additional surcharge for customers while using credit card received a pushback both from customers and banks. Therefore, instead of loss framing this transaction, merchants found a way by naming the sale as a cash discount if payed by cash which contains an information with gain framed and positively affects the perception of the customer (Thaler 1980). The time is a valuable resource that people have and should be spent carefully (Lakein and Leake 1973). It is obvious that there are some activities we love to make and others which we do not want to spend our valuable time. Therefore, the perception of the activity is affecting the decision of spending our time or not. On special task we are receiving, it is found that if the task were positively framed individuals would like to spend more time on these tasks than negatively framed which is inline with prospect theory (Paese 1995).

The perception of buyers in business also affected by framing concept. Organizational climate in business refers to the conditions of the work environment, supporting and rewarding a behavior in workplace and individual perceptions (Forehand and Haller 1964). According to the Qualls and Puto (1989), organizational climate creates a

reference point for businesspeople which was identified by prospect theory. Therefore, they suggested that based on this reference point and the framing of a situation, the perception of the businesspeople changes. As anticipated, during positively framed situations business buyers are risk averse to select the suppliers, while negatively framed their behaviors are becoming more risk seeker. In addition to this finding, investment decision in organization is also affected by the framing of the situation. Management is more willing to put additional resources to a department when the accomplishment is presented as percent success (Duchon et al. 1989), project fundings decreasing if the project team presents with loss frame such as 40 percent failure instead of 60 percent success rate (Dunegan 1993). This performance evaluation is not only framed in business analysis but also in sports. According to the study (Levin 1987), the given ratings are higher when the evaluated basketball team with percent of success shots compared to percent missed shots.

Based on provided findings, it is possible to suggest that framing concept is an important factor in human decision making.

2.5 ANXIETY

2.5.1 The Concept of Anxiety

Anxiety is an emotion which is one of the most important variables that affect the cognition and behavior of an individual. As a term, anxiety defined as “a state of distress and/or physiological arousal in reaction to stimuli including novel situations and the potential for undesirable outcomes” (Brooks and Schweitzer 2011). Individuals past experiences characterizes their thoughts in certain situations. For these situations they develop different emotions. Some of these emotions can be listed as tension, worry, stress, anger, fear, frustration, sadness, grief, worry, guilt, shame, jealousy, and anxiety. Scientist have long been researching if we are developing emotions based on the experiences or they are innate. While a research showed that facial expressions based on

emotions are innate (Matsumoto and Willingham 2009), others claims that most emotions are developing based on experiences such as survival instinct (LeDoux 2012).

The etymological root of the word anxiety has two main streams. One of them is coming from the Indo-Germanic word “Angh”, which means to constrict, to narrow, or to strangulate (Lewis 1967). The second one as Greek word “anchein”, which means to strangle, to suffocate, or to press shut. Today, the word itself survived from Latin roots “angor” and “anxietas” which means overconcern (Glas 1996). Anxiety is defined by American psychological association (2020) as an emotion which is a combination of different feelings such as tension, worried thoughts, and stress. Another definition considers anxiety as a future-oriented mood states that modifies behavior for possible upcoming negative events (Barlow 2004). These events can be considered as an evaluative threat since a person can be anxious due to the negative perception of the other persons. Therefore, the definition of anxiety can also be considered as a result for the consequence of social self threat (Isen et al. 1988).

The theoretical background of anxiety roots to the beginning of 1900s. Freud described anxiety concept as a preventive behavior to avoid danger which might develop long lasting psychological problems. He also described “anxiety” as a disorder since it is a reaction and/or avoidance to a real or imaginary danger which consists excessive fear and behavioral disturbances (Fradelos and Komini 2015). According to Freud, the first input for anxiety is our birth, so the excitement of the first day of our life. His theory states that anxiety develops from childhood to adulthood, different dangers will be perceived and the development of guilt, worry and stress seen (Mantar 2008). Anxiety is confused with stress or fear due to the similar responses of our body over a situation. The main difference between stress and anxiety is the reason of the trigger. While stress is a sudden or for a period of a time triggered by a situation which individual find hard to cope with, anxiety does not need any trigger and may appear around the things which might not happen. It can be triggered even when there is little or no stressful situation present.

According to the studies high number of individuals have anxiety. Anxiety becoming a serious threat worldwide. Its lifetime prevalence is estimated as 5 percent for individuals (Fricchione 2004). According to Anxiety and Depression Association of America (Adaa), in U.S. only, it affects 40 million people per year which leads physical, emotional and economic problems. It is found that anxiety level is high in 28.8 percent of the US population, 6.4 percent of six European countries, 12 percent of sixteen European countries and world-wide it is estimated one over eight people has high anxiety level (Bouayed et al. 2009). The economic burden of Anxiety in US is estimated \$42.3 billion in 1990 (Greenberg, et al. 1999). Since the impact is high, social, and business scientist focussed on this area to understand how it affects daily life and business cases. The question asked how anxiety is changing in different countries with different values. As expected, anxiety level found to be correlated with the uncertainty avoidance of the society defined as the resistance and feeling secure when the ambiguous situations happens (Hofstede 1983). High anxiety in societies with high uncertainty avoidance results emotions like high stress and aggression.

Cognitive psychology approach has built upon Freud's pioneering concept of anxiety as the reason of anxiety is not the person himself but the perception of these situations. The perception of a dangerous situation depends on schema's where an individual gain during childhood to adulthood (Mantar 2008). Therefore, the similar situation might be perceived from a different perspective based on experiences and time which might create an anxiety on person (Salkovskis 1996).

In social psychology, high stress and aggression is caused by role conflict and work overload which in the long run becomes a burnout for the individual in organizational context. In literature, two types of Anxiety are defined (Spielberger et al. 1970). First type of anxiety is long lasting, not depending on a situation named as trait anxiety. Second type of anxiety is more like stress which is triggered by a stress-producing environmental circumstances named as state anxiety (Beehr and McGrath 1992). As in line with the definition above, the job stress and the situations in organizations caused

by the stress-producing environmental circumstances (SPECs) is considered as state anxiety.

The trait anxiety on the other hand, considered as a personality dimension with different namings in literature. One of them is considered as neuroticism (Eysenck 1963). Individuals who score high on neuroticism found to have higher feelings on negative emotions such as anger, fear, guilt and frustration when compared with low scored individuals. In parallel to neuroticism, other researchers used similar definitions of personality such as negative emotionality and low emotional stability when defining anxiety (Goldberg 1992; Tellegen 1982). This similarity enabled them to work with ABCD framework for personality which is used to analyze personality. ABCD conceptualize of personality analyze where A stands for “affect”, B stands for “behavior”, C stands for cognition” and D stands for “desire”. This conceptualization is exemplified (Wilt et al. 2011) by analyzing anxious feelings of student during the exam preparation. The performance outcome will be affected due to uncertainty of succession in life which might prevent the desires for future (A-D). This triggers the search of a best way to achieve the goal might result the change individual’s behavior (C-B).

2.5.2 Antecedents and Consequences of Anxiety

Although the development anxiety is not yet fully clarified, the antecedents of anxiety development in people are analyzed by different researchers. Some of the findings which can cause anxiety are economic conditions of the individuals (Brantley et al. 1999), traumatic events such as wars (Brown et al. 2000) and high stress with depression of an individual (Rogers, et al. 1994). Personal experiences of an individual such as parental threatening situations, hostile attacks, and exclusion from a social group are some of the key elements that might trigger anxiety in a person (Scher and Stein 2003). In childhood some of these past experiences called as “discrete and chronic” stressors are found to be related with the development of an anxiety (Allen et al. 2008).

Personality also plays an important role for the level of anxiety. It was found that extraverted individuals have lower anxiety levels than introverted individuals while neuroticism has a positive correlation with anxiety (Kotov et al. 2007; Bienvenu et al. 2001). For the other three personality values, while some studies (Rosellini and Brown 2011; Norton et al. 1997) found that openness to change, agreeableness, and conscientiousness negatively correlated with anxiety level, other studies could not find any relation at all (Bienvenu, et al. 2001). A similar study was also conducted in the field of sports. Personality resources as self-efficacy and optimism were studied within the sample group consisting of athletes found that high level of these resources help to cope with stress and prevents the increase of anxiety (Olefir 2018).

Cultural relationships are another predictor of anxiety. It was discussed that previous negative experiences with other cultures from outgroup members or society might trigger anxiety especially for intergroup relations due to the expected responses from others (Plant and Devine 2003). It was also argued that lack of information and/or knowledge might cause a change in anxiety level. This idea is researched in health sector by examining insufficient knowledge level in a specific topic increases person's anxiety level (Topf 1976). Similar study was repeated to validate this relationship for students. It was found that the knowledge level is correlated with the anxiety level when students have an obligation to present a study or take an exam (Hong and Karstensson 2002; Trimarco 1997). It is possible to say that possessing sufficient knowledge increases self-esteem for individuals (Wingen, et al. 2018). From 1950s until today, studies conducted with different sample groups showed that high self-esteem is negatively correlated and inverse relationship with anxiety level of a person (Wray and Stone 2005; Riddick et al. 1999; Rosenberg 1962).

Consequences of anxiety can be described in two groups: physical and emotional. The physical effects of anxiety are sleeplessness, fatigue and muscle pain. Most people are spending most of their time with working and sleeping, so these physical conditions are directly related with the daily work-related topics. It can be easily realized that a person without a good sleep cannot fulfill the requirements of a topic requires which requires

full attention such as preparing a contract for an important agreement at work. The research showed that work related performance of individuals who are having less sleep, is lower than others (Tilley, et al. 1982). The disturbance of sleep also researched with the individuals of different age. It was found that, while older people are more resistant to sleep disturbance, sleeplessness affect both outcome which deteriorates performance (Bonnet 1989). Anxiety results affects tiredness, fatigue and sleeplessness are lately researched to understand consequences on possible work-related topics. While the first finding showed in parallel with the other research as they are decreasing the work outcome of an employee, second finding showed that it creates occupational accidents, absenteeism and presenteeism (Swanson, et al 2011).

The emotional effects of anxiety are varying. The common ones are worried thoughts, sadness, and stress. Individuals with high stress and sadness have different priorities in their mind than focusing on work. Therefore, less outcome generation is expected than happy employees (Oswald et al. 2015). The existence of anxiety also affects the individual's perceptions. During studies it was seen that the perception of individual group with high anxiety is enhanced when seeing a fearful facial expression, while control group's perception is not changed for this expression (Richards, et al. 2002). This bias is also validated in the research of interpretation of emotions where high trait anxiety causes an individual to be more sensitive for negative feelings and anger expression (Koizumi, et al. 2011).

With the light of these findings, it is possible to say negative feelings are related with the physical and mental health of an individual. Team members well-being, physical and mental health contributes the commitment and are related with the work satisfaction (Sheep 2006; Moore and Casper 2006).

This chapter aims to give information about the concept of anxiety and its antecedents and consequences for an individual. Next chapter deals with hypotheses development and research variables.

2.6 ETHICALLY QUESTIONABLE NEGOTIATION TACTICS AND RESEARCH VARIABLES IN THE STUDY

In this section, research variables which are explained above in general, are analyzed in the context of ethically questionable negotiation tactics which are used during business negotiation. Fundamentally, relationships between social value orientation (proself as individualism, competitive, prosocial as cooperation and altruism) and selection of ethically questionable tactics (“pretending” or “traditional competitive bargaining”, “deceiving” and “lying”) is examined. Besides, it is tried to discover how individual’s anxiety level moderates this relation with the framing effect of a given situation. This section is concluded with hypotheses about each variable.

2.6.1 Social Value Orientation and Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics

The usage of tactics during a business negotiation inherently moral event. In a challenging environment, employees are using these tactics for different purposes while performing various tasks and challenges which are set on them. The accomplishment is perceived differently such as doing a better job than peers, learning a new skill, helping others to improve or demonstrating/marketing ability to a manager.

When an individual required to complete a task or a challenge, he/she could face a morality dilemma which leads them into a stressful situation where they need to make a hard decision. During business negotiations, these decisions reflect individuals preferences, expectations, and beliefs (Olekalns and Smith 1999).

Social values play an important role on effecting individuals’ moral behavior. Social values affect choice behavior in a negotiation in business environment (McClintock and Avermaet 1982). In most business cases, there are more than one stakeholder such as customers, suppliers, society, and own management where it requires to consider more than only self gain. Relation between social value orientation relation (with its dimensions individualism and competitive as proself, cooperative and altruism as

prosocial) and ethically questionable negotiation tactics (with its dimensions as pretending, deception and lie) is described in detail below.

Proself Orientation is a grouping name for individual and competitive value orientation since both are characterized mainly as high self-interest (McClintock and Avermaet 1982). Individualism refers that an individual only care about his/her targets and goals instead of being a team member. Other's targets, wishes and goals are not taken into account. Similar but the same, competitive orientation refers that a maximization of a distributed outcome where an individual constantly in a race to increase the difference of gains.

Based on social value orientation theory, proself individuals are more focused on their own targets rather others. They possess the perception of increasing own welfare is the best way to execute their job and achieve their targets assigned to them in organizations. Therefore, the choices they made are more selective towards the ones which are more beneficial for themselves (Camac 1992; Grzelak 1982). There are certain consequences when one party does not able to come an agreement with the proself counterpart and dissatisfaction is one of them. This dissatisfaction can also results due to the higher demands they make. However, proselfs are more redundant to change their demands even when they see the feeling of disappointment (Van Kleef and Van Lange 2008). While the demands proselfs made within a group, might create negative feelings and damage the well-being of the other employees, it is possible to say they are less caring the well-being of others (De Dreu and Van Lange 1995).

During negotiations, using power is inevitable. Proselfs classifies the decisions made during negotiation as weak or strong as the individualistic orientation evaluate the interaction outcome based on power (Liebrand et al. 1986). While the power is defined as the ability of forcing someone on something which normally not willing to (Ury et al. 1993), the usage in social value orientation as weak or strong is the relative power of proselfs to their opponents. In this regard, information provides a competitive advantage over negotiators when they seek to maximize their own outcome. Therefore, proselfs

focus more on the information which will be useful for themselves (Grzelak 1982). In order to get required information, they try to influence their opponents' weak points to maximize own gain (Lax and Sebenius 1986). In case their opponent lack of the information, proselves perceives that as a weakness such as opponent does not have any idea about the real price of an offering or cannot able to detect a bluff they made. By using the unbalanced weakness and power, they can easily lower their offers and become more demanding to increase their own welfare (Van Dijk et al. 2004).

Prosocial Orientation: Prosocial orientation describes the individuals with more joint outcome focus. It is a grouping name for cooperators and altruists since both are characterized mainly with the focus of finding a common interest (McClintock and Avermaet 1982).

Cooperation can be described with a degree of how much a person care about others welfare. It refers also that an individual with being a team player more than to compete with the others. The main difference between altruism is again the degree of caring and giving more attention to other's welfare instead of own gain.

Individuals with prosocial orientation, build their connection based on trust and therefore expecting the same approach from the other party (Camac 1992). During an interaction, their ultimate aim to find a decision which is taken collaboratively and fair for both parties (De Dreu and Van Lange 1995). Prosocials believes long-term collaboration therefore they value equality, fairness and caring about other's well-being. These values enable them to create empathy, avoid manipulations and increasing helping behavior (Prot et al. 2014; Barlett and Anderson 2012; Kuhlman et al. 1986).

On the contrary of proselves, prosocials sees the decisions made during negotiation from the morality perspective (Liebrand et al. 1986). For them, the ultimate goal of having a mutual outcome from a negotiation can be accomplished by mutual trust and honesty, therefore they expect the same behavior from other parties (Van Lange and Kuhlman 1994). Compared to proselves, individuals with prosocial social orientation are more

resistant to select dishonest, immoral, insincere and egoistic choices even under provocation from others (Beggan et al. 1988).

As a summary, especially during interdependent situations, prosocials and proself individual's perspective of the negotiation behavior is completely different. Prosocials evaluate their behaviors and decisions based on honesty to build up integrative relationship which is framed under good-bad dimension. On the other hand, proselfs perceives the interdependent situation as a balance of power which leads them to focus more on equity (Triandis 1995; Beggan et al. 1988; McClintock and Liebrand 1988; Osgood et al. 1957).

There is limited research for the ethical decision comparison between proselfs and prosocials in literature. The perception of the situation based on power distribution is one of them which affects the decision-making during negotiation. It is found that proselfs tend to use more deceptive tactics than prosocials if they observe that there is no alternative choice to reach their goals and especially when they are low on relative power to their counterparts (Koning et al. 2011). Another study conducted to understand individual social motive has an affect on the honesty found that, avoiding using dishonest information is higher in prosocials than proselfs (Cappelen et al. 2013). While there are studies with the same findings (Biziou-van-Pol et al. 2015; Pruitt 1981), research showed that prosocials might refer deceptive tactics such as white lies and prosocial lies (benefits for both parties) with the condition of no other choices available, to create a mutual benefit for both parties during negotiations (Levine and Schweitzer 2015; Koning et al. 2010). In addition to that, since the ultimate aim of altruist individuals is enhancing other parties' outcome, even costly to them, they might also use immoral tactics to increase their peer's welfare (Erat and Gneezy 2012).

The main motivation behind this is the consideration of deception as an instrumental tool for reaching the desired targets. Organizational reward system is also a motivator for the individuals. The degree of incentives and the type of rewarding as individual or group modifies behavior during negotiation. As expected, if the incentives are high and

the rewarding is an individual level it triggers the competition instead of teamwork (Steinel 2015). In this situation, prosocial individuals are found to be more persuasive to find a common ground for the problems while, proselfs are more focussed on giving decision based on self achievements. Therefore, when there is no other direction to fulfill their motivation, they engage unethical tactics (De Dreu et al. 2000). One of these unethical tactics is described as misrepresentation of a topic by a negotiator. The way of misrepresenting a fact can happen in two dimensions: commission and omission. While both are considered as an immoral or unethical tactics, omission is hiding the fact from the information receiver while commission is revealing but still doing. By analyzing individual behaviors, it was found that negotiators with individualism orientation uses the power of information by omitting facts more than prosocials in order to get more outcome from a bargain (O'Connor and Carnevale 1997). Another finding showed that, prosocials believes individual contribution to the group discussion in order to get better results, therefore they prefer to share information to their counterparts, while proselfs keep the important decisions for themselves or even distorted the facts (Steinel et al. 2010). This finding also proves the fact that, proselfs keeps the information which can be useful during negotiation and sees the negotiation as a win-loss situation.

In organization financial reportings, self-serving motives plays an important role. Proself individuals tend to lose their objectivity for the financial reports, give false information for financial benefit, reluctant to issue a loss and ignore evidences during audits that if revealed, might damage the society and the reputation of the organization they are working with (Donia et al. 2016; Shua et al. 2012; Prentice 2000). In addition to that, during performance reporting, individuals are hesitating to answer honestly about how they see themselves and use misrepresent information for the negotiation with their own managers due to the direct connection of personal benefits and reporting (Ruedy et al. 2013; Mead et al. 2009; Mazar et al. 2008).

In a globalized world, companies cannot stand a chance without having deals and agreements with other companies, partners and even governments. During agreements, bribery is a common and historical ethical problem which damages public health,

environmental and safety (EHS), use of common goods for own usage, changing regulations based on self purpose of a company (McKinney and Moore 2008; Tanzi 1998). The main root cause of the bribery usage is the self interest of a company during an interdependent situation. For this reason, since prosocials not only have self-interest but also takes into account the others or common interest of the society, prosocial social value orientation is negatively correlated with the usage of bribe. This obviously creates the result of that proselves with high self interest tend to use more unethical behavior such as bribery (Li et al. 2015).

In addition, the dishonest behavior depends on the other party's attitude. Studies suggested that, during negotiation if the 2nd party shows more competitive orientation, the usage of unethical tactics increases. The magnitude of unethical tactic usage is mainly based on the individual's social desires. This is behavior is also validated for prosocials with the emotion of punishment of others (Steinel and De Dreu 2004). Another possible variable that might affect the usage of unethical behavior is the risk preference of individuals. While prosocials is found to be more risk averse than proself individuals (Yamagishi, et al. 2017; Buurman et al. 2012; Suleiman et al. [no date]), risk taking behaviors is increasing in case there is no other choice for a mutual agreement for cooperators or creating a benefit for others for altruist individuals (Do et al. 2017). When compared, risk seeker individuals such as proselves tend to use more immoral behaviors such as dishonesty (Gino and Margolis 2011), bribery (Søreide 2006), ignoring regulations (Xu et al. 2019), and risky driving behavior (Brown, et al. 2017) than risk averse individuals such as prosocials.

While these studies show that proselves are using more coercive negotiation strategies than prosocials, the question of to what extent unethical strategies can be used in the morality domain is yet to be defined. In our study, the main focus will be the situational factors during a negotiation and ethically questionable tactics usage defined by Erkus and Banai (2010), by without having any information regarding the 3rd party.

Based on this hypothetical movement and social value orientation and ethically questionable negotiation tactics usage described above, the following hypothesis can be drawn for this study.

H1a: There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that pretending-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.

H1b: There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that deceiving-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.

H1c: There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that lying-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.

H1d: There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of pretending-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.

H1e: There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of deceiving-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.

H1f: There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of lying-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism, and competitive orientation.

2.6.2 Moderating Effect of Anxiety

Anxiety development theory states that the development starts from individual's childhood and extend to the adulthood where one can perceive different types of guilt, worry and stress also in workplace (Mantar 2008). These emotional states may have a negative consequences about the individual performance and/or behavior modifications. The triggers of an anxiety in a workplace can vary. Preparation for an important presentation to management, getting ready for a negotiation for an acquisition or dealing with the customer requirements under a time pressure may affect the emotions such as envy, shame, anger and the anxiety of an individual (Kouchaki and Desai 2015). The increase of anxiety during these situations stimulates behavior modification. This behavior modification is described based on theoretical roots defined by Freud as a reaction and/or avoidance to a real or imaginary danger which consists excessive fear and behavioral disturbances (Fradelos and Komini 2015). In such cases, individuals are seen to be more self-interest oriented (Grecucci, et al. 2013), less attentional control (Eysenck et al. 2007), focuses their basic needs (Kouchaki and Desai 2015), feel threatened about their resources (Mathews 1990), feels discomfort and having desire to maintain self-esteem (Zhou et al. 2009).

The consequences of such behavior change also trigger the decision taken by individuals. The person who feels threatened behave more aggressive (Baumeister et al. 1998) and individuals with more self-interest decides unfair offers (Grecucci, et al. 2013). Since the focus is to maintain basic needs, prioritization of moral standards changes in the cognitive map of an individual that influences the judgements of the ethical decisions (Haidt 2001).

The insecurities caused by anxiety is found to be positively related with the dishonest behavior (Lopez and Rice 2006; Cole 2001). Similarly, in order to avoid the ambiguity and avoid threat individuals are more focused on the targets instead of the moral principles they have (Kouchaki and Desai 2015). This ignorance of the moral principles also creates ethical sinkholes (Bazerman and Tenbrunsel 2012) for the organization's

ethical guidelines and principles. Therefore, individuals are less caring about the moral standards and guidelines when they have high self-interest due to anxiety (Shalvi et al. 2012).

In addition to that, anxiety might create an interpretation problem during negotiation which might lead to the lack of ability to understand the potential consequences of the selected decision (Catherine and Elizabeth 2012). The inability to estimate the possible consequences and the self-centered approach is found to be correlated with the increase of the usage of unethical negotiation tactics (Zhang et al. 2018).

With the guidance of these researches, it is suggested that anxiety moderates the relations between social value orientation and the ethically questionable negotiation tactics usage during negotiation.

Therefore, based on anxiety and hypothetical movement described above, the following hypothesis can be drawn for this study.

H2a: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

H2b: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

H2c: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

H2d: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

H2e: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

H2f: Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.

2.6.3 Moderating Effect of Gain/Loss Framing

Individuals approach the situations from different perspectives. These perspectives depend on how they perceive the situation or how the information transmitted to them to describe the situation. As states by the prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky 1979), positive approaches represented with a gain frame, while negative approaches represented as a loss frame. In the focus of decision behavior modification, gain/loss framing is presented with a S-Shaped curve which discriminates the valuation of a situation by converging to a natural reference point from gain and loss side (Kahneman and Tversky 1979). The loss frame representation in the S-curve is steeper than gain frame which means the valuation is bigger when compared to gain frame. This valuation results different choices and behaviors in an individual behaviour modification and decision-making processes. The study in U.S. showed that, in an application of a tax refund, tax practitioners were more munificent while approving the documents with ambiguous items for their existing clients than new client candidates with the same situation even it is not considered as an ethical behavior (Newberry et al. 1993). Since the morality prioritization differs by the valuation it was analyzed to understand the reason of a different results for the same situation with gain and loss framed perspective. In the study, gain frame is obtained by changing description to "saving innocent people" where people consider morally acceptable, and loss frame is acquired by emphasizing the killing other people whom you cannot save by any possible decisions. The results showed that, for the same option paraphrased "saving" and

“killing”, one group of individuals with loss frame are more hesitating to collaborate for a common decision than gain framed group of individuals (Petrinovich and O'Neill 1996). The main reason behind these behaviors is defined in the literature as the individuals are more motivated to search for an alternative option or to extend their boundaries in case, they see a loss framed situation which may also lead to self-serving bias and changes the risk behavior (Kern and Chugh 2009). Individuals with self-serving bias have a tendency to focus on the outcomes which serve them or situation the best. This tendency increases with the loss framed situations, where individuals begin to show lack of empathy and compete with others due to prioritizing their own targets. Individuals seems to be acting more cooperatively when they are in gain framed situation and shows more self-centered behaviors during the loss framed situation (De Dreu and Mc Cusker 1997). This finding is also supported by loss framed individuals are motivated to pay additional cost in bargaining situations to achieve better outcomes for themselves than gain framed individuals (Chang et al. 2008). Thus, loss framing triggers individuals cognitive process to become more accepting for the riskier decisions, sets higher aspirations and making fewer concessions which contributes their self-serving bias.

The negotiators during loss framed situations are more willing to risk high valued items in order to save smaller losses due to prospect theory valuation process. The higher aspirations and tolerant to a risky behavior trigger the usage of unethical behaviors during a negotiation such as giving false promises to a counterpart in order to reach targeted outcome (Kern and Chugh 2009). On the other hand, gain framed individuals are more focussed on mutual outcomes and joint benefits therefore they are reaching agreements without need of utilizing unethical behaviors or tactics during negotiation.

During business discussions such as mergers, acquisitions or deals with another company, businessman uses variety of tactics. The study showed that, the ways of information collecting can become unethical such as the usage of insider information if the situation framed as losses (Kern and Chugh 2009). From the same perspective, individuals with proself orientation, in order to increase their self-defence and not

showing any weakness to their counter part, have higher tendency to hide or falsify private information from their counter parts than prosocials. During bargaining situation, this information securing and usage as a tactic tendency is even enhanced with the loss framed situations (Gaspar and Schweitzer 2013; Reinders et al. 2012).

Therefore, it is estimated that situations framed with losses enhances the usage of unethical tactics. Especially with the consequences of the framing effect such as self-serving bias, egoistic motives, risk behavior change, setting higher aspirations, the relationship between social value orientation of an individual and the selection of ethically questionable tactics during a negotiation process is moderated. Therefore, based on framing and hypothetical movement described above, the following hypothesis can be drawn for this study.

H3a: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

H3b: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

H3c: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

H3d: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

H3e: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

H3f: Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

In this Literature Review chapter, concepts of ethics, business ethics, negotiation, decision making in negotiation, social value orientation, anxiety, framing are discussed including philosophical, historical and modern approaches. In the following chapter (Research Design and Methodology), the purpose, scope, methodology, constraints, and model of the research are presented.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter covers the purpose of the study, list of hypotheses, data collection and study design, descriptive statistics of the sample, model of the research, operationalization of the variables, and methods of the data analysis and methodological descriptions.

3.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to find how social value orientation affect individual's decision of ethical decision making in negotiation and how gain/loss framing effect and individual's anxiety level moderate this relation.

Control variables (age, gender, organization category, professional experience, experience in the current organization, education level, marital status, organization type) are collected to clarify their effects on all dependent, independent, and moderating variables

As an independent variable social value orientation have four dimensions and dependent variable ethically questionable negotiation tactics have three dimensions where different interactions may occur among different dimensions of these two variables. On the other hand other factors may affect this relation as moderators and/or affect dependent variable directly such as gain/loss framing and anxiety.

3.1.1 List of Hypothesis

According to the purposes of the study and after the literature review, the study's hypotheses are the following:

Table 3.1: List of hypothesis

H1a	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that pretending-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.
H1b	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that deceiving-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.
H1c	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that lying-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.
H1d	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of pretending-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.
H1e	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of deceiving-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.
H1f	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of lying-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.
H2a	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H2b	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H2c	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself

	and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H2d	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H2e	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H2f	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.
H3a	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.
H3b	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.
H3c	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.
H3d	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.
H3e	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.
H3f	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.

3.2 MODEL OF THE RESEARCH

The research model is shown in Figure 3.1. as mentioned in the purpose of the research, how social value orientation affect individual’s decision on ethically questionable tactics and how gain/loss framing and anxiety level of an individual moderate this relation. Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3 show the hypotheses on the research model

Figure 3.1: Research Model

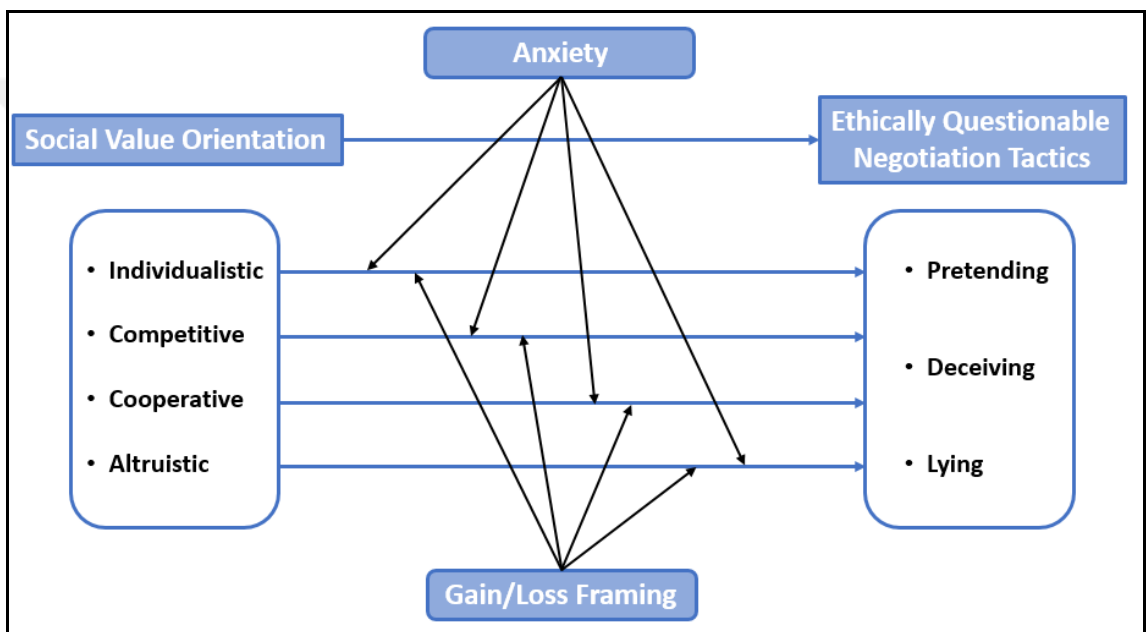
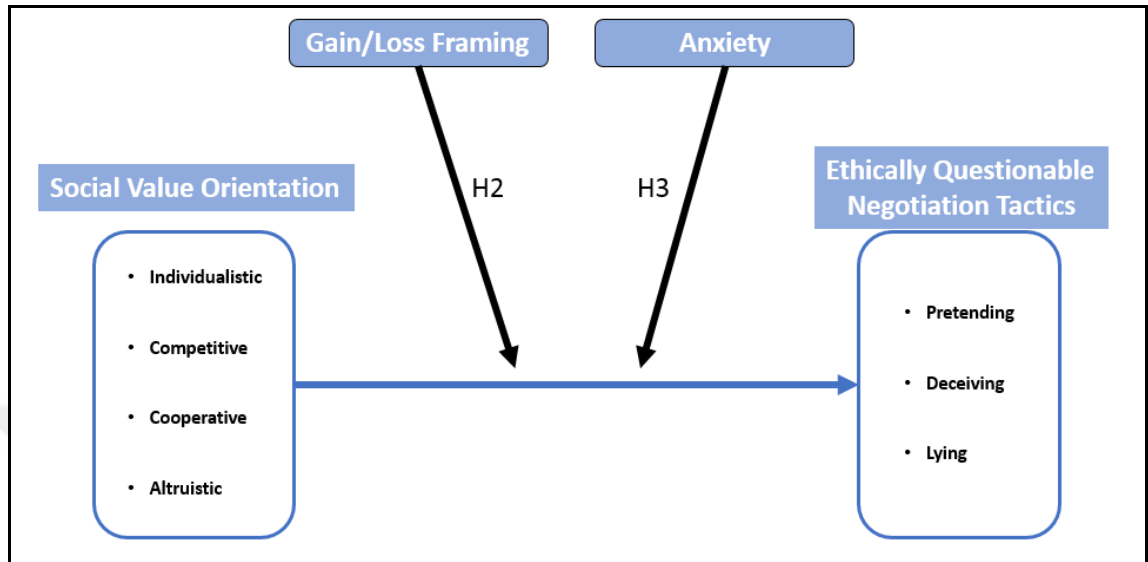


Figure 3.2: Direct hypotheses



Figure 3.3: Moderation hypotheses



3.3 SAMPLING PLAN

“Sampling begins with precisely defining the target population.” (Sekaran and Bougie 2016). In this study target population is sales managers, project managers and laborers of energy and industry sector who engages direct communication and negotiation with customers.

In order to eliminate external changes on the population (company issues, political climate change in the country etc.), time to collect data is restricted to 5 months. 338 sales&project managers and white-collar employees have participated in the study and constitutes a sample size of 338 that is suitable sample size according to Gudagnoli and Velicer (1988). According to Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988), a sample size between 300 and 400 is enough to the analysis without concerning the number of items in the scales. The surveys were applied in three electrical distribution companies, three electrical energy generation companies, three renewable energy companies working in various sectors such as oil&gas, hydro power, wind power, solar power, mining&glass. 338 sales&project managers and white-collar employees have participated in the study

randomly from the energy sector of different companies as explained above. All the respondents in this study are full-time employees.

In this research Convenience sampling method is used. Data was collected from randomly chosen governmental and non-governmental companies. Dörnyei (2007) describes the convenience sampling as “a type of nonprobability or nonrandom sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study”. This type of sampling is nonprobability, thus formulation cannot be applied to determine the adequate sample size. With this method it may not be possible to generalize the results to the whole population (Etikan et al. 2016; Saunders et al. 2012). This study aims to limit research specific area, energy sector in Turkey and specifically sectoral analysis is made.

The reason behind limiting the research to a specific area (i.e. Energy and Industry Sector) is not to generalize the research findings to the whole field. Limiting is used to overcome internal and external environmental differences which may cause unreliable results. The heterogeneity of the selected sample is secured by allowing to complete survey maximum 30-40 employees from in each company. This process contributed diverse backgrounds, heterogeneous and consistent data that allows findings are possible to reflect energy industry in Turkey. Employees who have joined the study are from more than 10 different companies. The diversified nature of the participants may help this study to overcome the bias possibility of the sampling method used.

3.4 PILOT STUDY

Pilot study is used to foresee the validity of the constructs, before distributing the forms to the participants. In this study, Turkish translations of measures are used for Turkish respondents. Among all the scales, only anxiety scale didn't have trustable Turkish translations. Ethically questionable negotiation tactics a Turkish translation and SVO

has a numeric data that requires no translation which was used in previous studies. Anxiety scale is translated from its original version in the literature and some minor corrections are made after pilot study according to the feedbacks from 20 Turkish participants that corresponds to 5.9 percent of all participants in this study. In addition to that, slight changes were made by the researcher in order to refer given scenario to analyze framing affect. Finally, for all scales minor corrections are made after pilot study according to the feedbacks of 20 Turkish participants which corresponds to 5.9 percent of all Turkish population.

The measures in this study are selected from the common measures which have previously been used and their validity and reliability have been proved in the literature. Therefore the pilot study in this research does not aim to foresee the validity or reliability of the constructs.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION AND STUDY DESIGN

The research is made with 202 Male and 136 Female with a total participant number of 338 who work in the energy sector in Turkey. The reason of energy sector selection is due to the existence of short and long-term projects where frequent decision making process is needed and negotiation is inevitable with investors and customers. Questionnaires were distributed online and developed with Google forms. Thus, the return rate of the questionnaires was nearly 100 percent. All the participants were invited by sending email or by calling them directly. Explanation of the research objectives to participants were made in detail. Each of the respondents were mainly engineers in different companies in Turkish energy sector. Turkish version of questionnaire was developed and shared with targeted respondents and then employees replied Turkish version of questionnaires. All statements measured perceptions of employees. Participants must respond on a scale ranging from 1 “Completely disagree” to 5 “Completely agree”. In addition to this, for SVO scale different distribution of resource is selected by participants.

3.5.1 Demographics of Survey Respondents

Number of male participants was 202 (59.8 %) and female was 136 (40.2 %). Gender distribution is given on table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Gender distribution of respondents

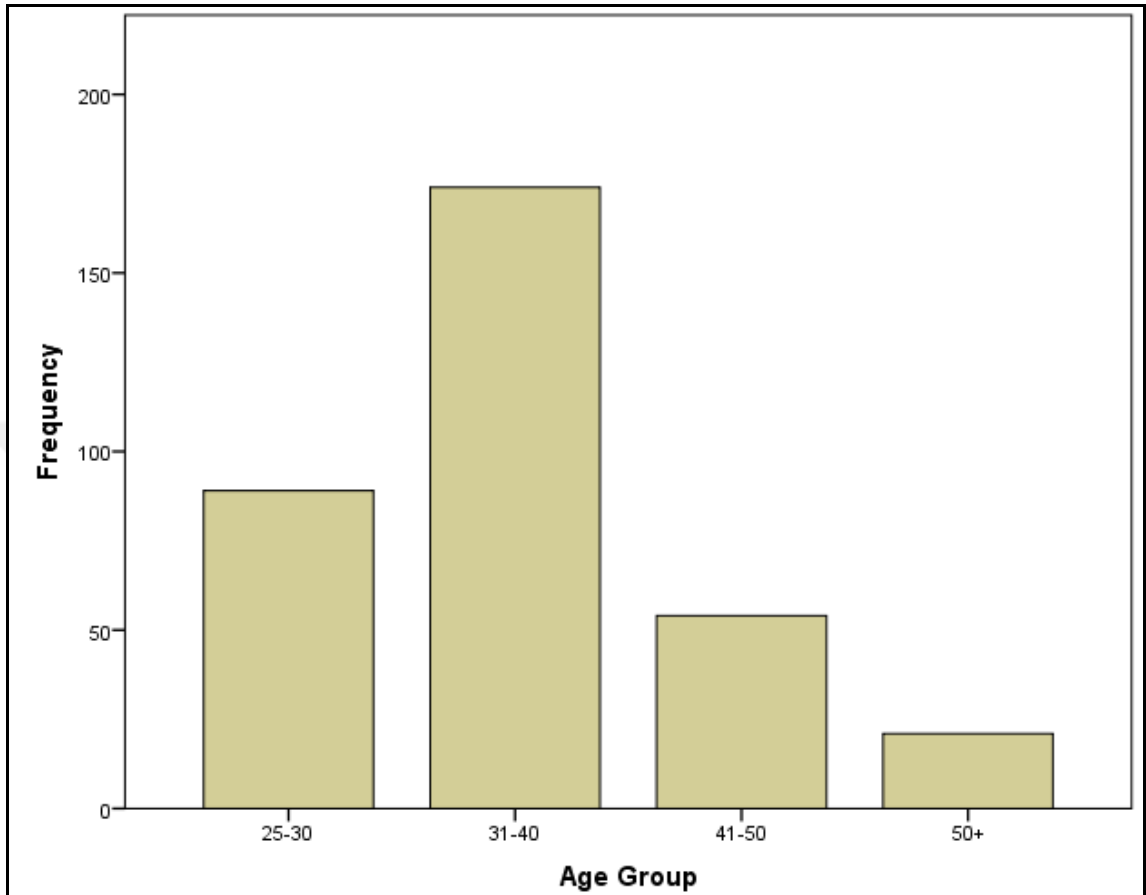
	Frequency	Percent
Female	136	40,2
Male	202	59,8
Total	338	100

Respondents were between 25 and 58 years of age. Median age of the whole group was 34. Age statistics can be seen on table 3.3 and detailed values can be seen in figure 3.4

Table 3.3: Age statistics of respondents

	Frequency
Valid	338
Missing	0
Mean	35,68
Median	34
Minimum	25
Maximum	58

Figure 3.4: Age statistics of respondents



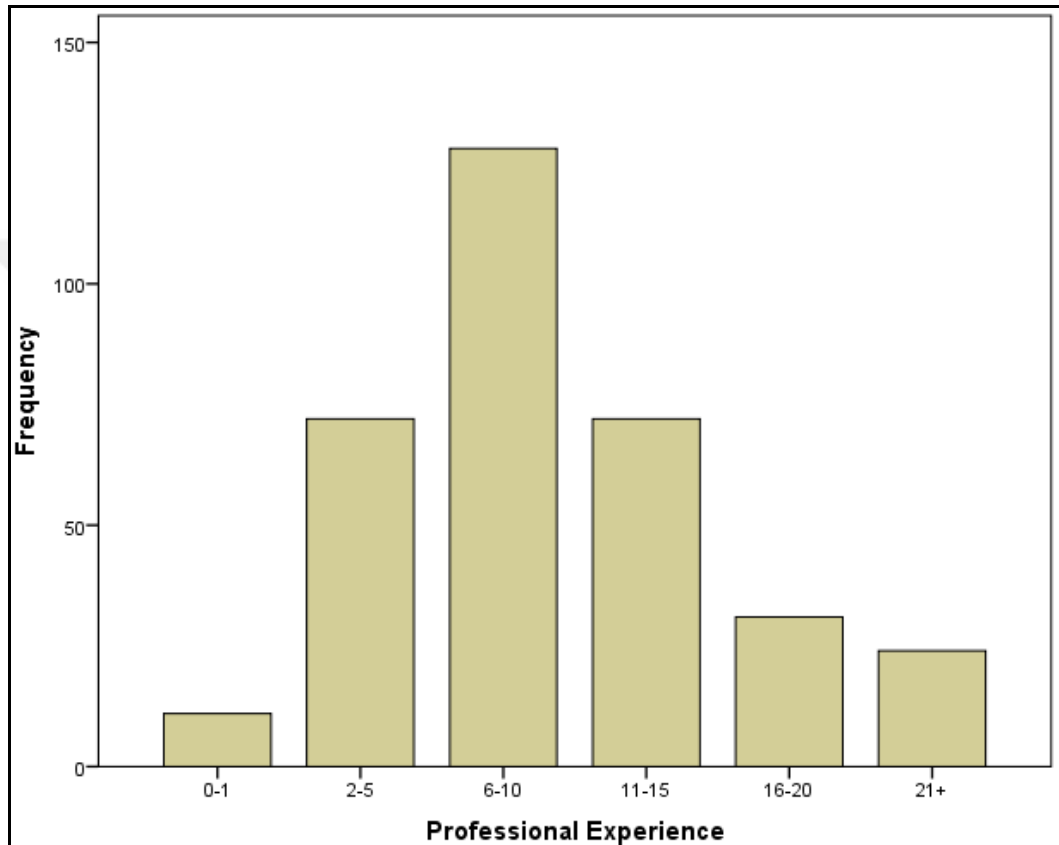
Distribution according to education level is given on table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Education levels

	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	179	50,3
Master's Degree	138	40,8
PhD	21	6,2
Total	338	100

Average professional experience was 10.29 years for total sample. Distribution according to professional experience is given on table 3.5 and detailed values can be seen in figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: Professional experiences of respondents (years)



Most people participated the research have the title “Engineer” with a percentage of 32.2. Distribution according to job title in the current company is given on table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Job title distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Business Administration	7	2,1
Chemical & Mechanical Engineer	27	7,9
Electrical-Electronics Engineer	30	8,9
Engineer (Other)	109	32,2
Procurement Manager	46	13,6
Sales - Key Account Manager	89	26,3
Unit-Department Managers	30	8,9
Total	338	100

Family situation was asked to participants, 100 of the participants (29,6 %) were single whereas 238 of them (70,4 %) were married. Marital status can be seen on table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Marital status of participants

	Frequency	Percent
Single	100	29,6
Married	238	70,4
Total	338	100

3.6 OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE VARIABLES

Variables used in this study were explained in details in previous chapters are listed in table 3.7. One independent, two moderating and one dependent variables are used in this study.

Table 3. 7: Variables of the research

Social Value Orientation	Independent Variable
Anxiety	Moderating Variable / Independent Variable
Gain/Loss Framing	Moderating Variable / Independent Variable
Ethically Questionable Tactics	Dependent Variable

This study is based on subjective responses of employees. For social value orientation, anxiety, and ethically questionable negotiation tactics respondents gave answers according to perceptions of themselves. Gain/Loss Framing is distributed based on a scenario of a situation which is framed as gains and losses. After answers received manipulation check is done.

Anxiety and ethically questionable tactics measures were originally established in English and were used to measure dependent, moderating and independent variables. Ethically questionable tactics measure is also translated to Turkish and were used to measure dependent, moderating and independent variables. Based on a given scenario, in this thesis it was modified slightly. Social value orientation measure using slider measure to distribute resources to understand tendency of an individual therefore, there is no need to translate into Turkish. Turkish translation of “Anxiety” was modified based on previous researches. It is translated from its original version in the literature and some minor corrections are made after pilot study according to the feedbacks from 40 Turkish participants.

The measures used in this study were selected from the literature which already used in released publications. The variables in the model are discussed in the literature review chapter. Scales used in the questionnaires are as below (Table-3.8).

Table 3. 8: Scales of the research

Variable	Factors	# of Items	Source
Social Value Orientation	Individualistic	6 questions each has 9 choices for the tendency	Murphy, Ackermann, and Handgraaf 2011
	Competitive		
	Collaborative		
	Altruism		
Ethically Questionable Tactics	Pretending	7	Lewicki R. 1983; Lewicki and Robinson 1998; Erkus and Banai 2010 (Turkish version)
	Deceiving	6	
	Lying	4	
Anxiety	-	20	Spielberger and Gorsuch 1966; Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene 1970 Öner and Le Compte 1983 (Turkish version)

3.6.1 Measuring social value orientation

The independent variable “Social Value Orientation” was measured using the “SVO Slider Scale” developed by Murphy, Ackermann, and Handgraaf (2011) in four dimensions (individualistic, competitive, collaborative, altruism). The scale is based on 6 primary items each has similar form that defines a tendency for 4 dimensions. Each item is a distribution for a resource allocation choice over a pre defined continuum of joint payoffs. As an example, by choosing a distribution “85-50” means, individual payoff is 85 while 2nd person payoff is 50 which is later compared with the other choices in different items and the choices within same item to analyze the tendency. When all items are answered, the SVO angle can be computed by subtracting 50 from means of each payoff and having arctangent to see the individual’s tendency on the cartesian coordinate. Following table 3.9 shows the categorization for social orientation values and computed SVO angle.

Table 3. 9: Social value orientation and SVO angle

Altruism:	$SVO^\circ > 57.15^\circ$
Collaborative:	$22.45^\circ < SVO^\circ < 57.15^\circ$
Individualism:	$-12.04^\circ < SVO^\circ < 22.45^\circ$
Competitiveness:	$SVO^\circ < -12.04^\circ$

In order to assess reliability, 46 subjects filled different SVO measures (Triple Dominance, Ring Measure, Slider Measure) where 32 were categorized in the same SVO category, yielding a consistency of 70 percent (Murphy et al. 2011). The result was consistent with a non-parametric Gamma statistic Goodman and Kruskal's $\gamma=0.391$. Further the correlation between the resulting angles from the test-retest of the ring measure was reported as 0.915.

For predictive validity, statistically significant point-biserial correlation was reported ($r = 0.239$) between the subjects' SVO angles and their choices in the Prisoner's Dilemma game, while convergent validity found by having test-retest correlation for the slider Measure ($r = 0.649$) which is higher than other types of measures such as Ring Measure ($r = 0.599$). Social value orientation Slider Measure Scale can be seen in the Appendix.

3.6.2 Measuring Ethically Questionable Tactics

The dependent variable "Ethically Questionable Tactics" was measured using Erkus and Banai's (2011) "Ethically Questionable Tactics scale" with three dimensions (pretending, deceiving, lying). According to this scale, there are three dimension to measure usage of ethically questionable tactics core construct. These multi item dimensions of scale are "pretending, deceiving, lying" and consist of 17 items (Erkus and Banai 2010). In this scale, pretending is measured with 7 items. Deceiving is measured with 4 items and Lying is measured with 4 items. This scale is used in Turkish Language by Erkus and Banai (2010).

These three dimensions of the measure has a ranking system where pretending is most ethically accepted tactics and lying is the least accepted ethical tactics during a negotiation. All respondents are informed that their answers will remain anonymous. In addition, before filling out, it was assured that there were no right or wrong answers in order to secure that they answer questions as honestly as possible.

Reported cronbach alpha coefficient of the construct was 0.87, and the coefficients of the factors were 0.81 – pretending, 0.75 – deceiving, and 0.74 – lying. This cronbach alpha cpefficient is supported by series of other researches which used the same scale (Banai, Stefanidis, Shetach, and Ozbek 2014; Stefanidis and Banai 2014). The Cronbach alphas regarding ethically questionable negotiation scale demonstrated support for the reliability of each of the there subscales as follows: lying (0.77), pretending (.66) and deceiving (0.65) respectively (Banai et al. 2014).

This scale is based on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree) as mentioned above. English and Turkish based on given case versions of ethically questionable negotiation tactics scale can be seen in the Appendix.

3.6.3 Measuring Anxiety and Applying Framing

As moderator variables; Anxiety was measured using the “state-trait anxiety inventory” (STAI) developed by Spielberger and his associates (Spielberger et al. 1970; Spielberger and Gorsuch 1966). Anxiety is an emotion that affects the cognition and behavior of an individual as a state of distress and/or physiological arousal. In order to measures both state and trait anxiety inventory uses the 20-item instrument developed and validated by Spielberger et al. (1970).

Spielberger et al. demonstrated the internal consistency of the STAI scale in 1970 and found as Cronbach’s Alpha for state anxiety between $\alpha = .92$ and $\alpha = .94$; for trait anxiety between $\alpha = .89$ and $\alpha = .96$.

Turkish translation is published by Öner and Le Compte (1983) which is slightly changed for his study. The trait anxiety scale's Turkish translation displays a total Cronbach Alpha value of found between $\alpha = .83$ and $\alpha = .87$; for state anxiety found between $\alpha = .94$ and $\alpha = .96$.

This scale is based on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree) as mentioned above. English and Turkish based on given case versions of ethically questionable negotiation tactics scale can be seen in the Appendix.

Gain/Loss framing was measured using a predefined scenario given to participants and half of them framed as gains and other half of them framed as losses. Manipulation check is examined and controlled by two additional questions.

3.6.4 Preliminary Data Analysis

Data collected from 338 questionnaires were entered in SPSS. Preliminary data analysis, coding, data screening, frequency, mean, standard deviation, reliability analysis, exploratory factor analysis, multicollinearity analysis, and normality are analyzed by using SPSS.

Moderation analysis is made as a multilevel study involving relationships among four variables at different levels; therefore cross-level relationship approach is used in this study. Since our independent variable (IV) is a categorical, anova analysis is used between independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV) without putting the moderating variables into the model and direct effect is noted. Then, univariate – two way anova analysis is used with independent, dependent and with one of the selected moderating variable each time. For framing, manipulation check is done by asking additional question to see the effect. Finally model is tested with independent, dependent and with two moderating variables. Results analyzed by SPSS are presented in upcoming chapters.

In this chapter, the purpose, scope, methodology, constraints, and model of the research are presented; hypotheses are given together in a list. An explanation of the data collection method, target sample characteristics, measures to evaluate each construct, and the statistical analysis data methods are presented. Next chapter is Data Analysis and Research Findings, where, statistical outputs of the survey results and findings are presented.



4. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, analysis of the data which was collected by questionnaires is presented. Findings of reliability analyses, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, construct validity analysis, manipulation check and moderation analysis are also shown in this chapter. Research questions and hypotheses are tested. Data analysis and hypotheses testing are made with (SPSS) software (Release 22.0.0.0) for descriptive statistics (frequency, means, and standard deviations), reliability, correlations, exploratory factor analysis and for hypothesis testing. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique is used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis. SEM analyses are made with IBM SPSS AMOS software (24.0.0 Build 596938).

4.1 EXAMINING THE DATA

Examining the data, to check the outliers and to test the normality is the first steps before starting the analysis. There are negative and reverse items in the scales used in this study. After collecting each data set, answers are checked manually before entering the values in SPSS, to notice if some misunderstanding may occur.

For Data screening purposes, all the data is controlled manually one by one, no missing data is observed during data collection and data input phases. After this stage, normality tests were made. Hair et al. (2006), states that the significance of normality is based on the shape of the distribution and sample size. Skewness and kurtosis are most commonly used normality tests in the literature. A kurtosis index less than 3, and skewness index less than 10 indicate the variables are normally distributed (Kline 2011). In this study apart from this consideration, normality is also checked with Shapiro wilk and/or Kolmogorov Smirnov before going into ANOVA and two way ANOVA analysis.

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics of continuous variables in this study (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) are shown in below tables.

Table 4.1: Descriptive statistics of ethically questionable negotiation tactics

	Construct/Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics					
Pretending					
Ethic1	"Müzakere sırasında sizin için az önemli veya önemsiz sayılan bir konuda oldukça önemliymiş gibi davranırsınız."	3,172	1,0868	-,192	-,797
Ethic2	"Müzakere sırasında her ne kadar öyle düşünmüyorsanız da, diğer tarafın sizin kendisini kişisel olarak ne kadar sevdiğinize inandırmaya çalışırsınız."	3,056	1,1555	-,052	-,904
Ethic3	"Diğer tarafın işbirliğini elde ettiğinizde bu gibi şeyleri ona veremeyeceğinizi (vermeyeceğinizi) bile bile o tarafa, eğer istediğinizi verirse, güzel şeyler olacağına dair söz verirsiniz."	2,754	1,1512	,280	-,735
Ethic4	"Müzakere sırasında gerçekten kızgın olmadığınız bir durumda, stratejik olarak diğer tarafa olan kızgınlık ifade edersiniz."	2,811	1,1136	,250	-,632
Ethic5	"Müzakere sırasında aslında onların sorunlarıyla hiç ilgilenmediğiniz halde, diğer tarafın kötü durumuna sempati gösterirsiniz."	3,166	1,0545	-,167	-,638
Ethic6	"Müzakere sırasında diğer tarafın yorumlarından tiksinişmiş gibi görünürsünüz."	2,444	1,1367	,493	-,618
Ethic7	"Henüz mutabakat ifade etmiş olmasalar bile, diğer tarafın kararı bir mutabakatmış gibi davranırsınız."	3,027	1,0289	-,086	-,572
Deceiving					
Ethic8	"Anlaşmaya gerçekte kabul etmeyi umduğunuzdan çok daha yüksek bir taleple açılış yaparsınız."	3,047	1,1443	-,069	-,809
Ethic9	"Anlaşmaya varmaya kesinlikle acelesi yok gibi yanlış bir izlenim vererek, bu sayede, rakibinizin çabucak teslim olması için, zaman açısından baskı koymaya çalışırsınız."	3,163	1,1138	-,170	-,712
Ethic10	"Öyle yüksek/düşük bir açılış talebi yaparsınız ki, diğer tarafın yeterli bir anlaşma için müzakere kabiliyetine olan güvenini ciddi biçimde zayıflatırsınız."	3,024	1,1527	,000	-,867
Ethic11	"Diğer tarafı öyle çok bilgiye boğun ki, hangi faktörlerin önemli olduğunu ve hangilerinin sadece dikkati dağıtmak için kullanıldığını saptamakta zorlanırlar."	3,207	1,1600	-,284	-,735
Ethic12	"Pahalı hediyeler, eğlendirici veya kişisel iyiliklerle arkadaşlığınızı besleyerek diğer tarafın müzakere konumu hakkında bilgi edinirsiniz."	2,843	1,1066	,142	-,601
Ethic13	"Diğer taraf ve siz, küçük bir bedel hariç, mutabık kaldığınızda, anlaşmayı tamamlamak için bu ücreti aranızda paylaşmayı teklif edersiniz."	3,112	1,1906	-,155	-,855
Lying					
Ethic14	"Diğer tarafın şimdi verdiği imtiyazlar karşılığında, gelecek için gerçekleştiremeyeceğinizi bildiğiniz imtiyaz sözleri verirsiniz."	2,464	1,0365	,570	-,139
Ethic15	"Rakibinizin sahip olduğu, görüşme konumunuzu zayıflatacak bilgilerin geçerli ve gerçek olduğunu bildiğiniz halde bu bilgilerin doğruluğunu diğer taraftan hızlı bir mutabakat almak için gereksiz kesin bir son tarih koyarsınız."	2,796	0,9728	,244	-,308
Ethic17	"Tartışma savlarınızı veya konularınızı desteklemek için diğer tarafa kasten yanlış bilgi verirsiniz."	2,441	1,0693	,543	-,243

4.2 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Reliability is a test of how consistently a scale measures whether a concept is measuring. Reliability is defined as “the extent to which measures are free from random error and therefore yield consistent results” (Zikmund 2003). If a measure consistently score for the same measure object, then it is called reliable. Several types of reliability test are used in the literature to test the goodness of measures. According to Hair et al. (2006), there are three types of reliability analysis methods, namely test-retest, alternative forms and internal consistency. Internal consistency is widely used during reliability analysis, which refers to, how well a measurement scale consistently measures a construct in one time. The relevance of items in a construct to the measured concept and correlations of those parameters with each other are the indicators of internal consistency (Allen and Yen 1979). In the internal consistency method, Cronbach’s alpha measure of reliability is commonly used. Cronbach’s alpha ranges from 0 to 1 where values above .70 are accepted values for the reliability of the measure. However, in exploratory factor analysis values above .60 are also accepted (Hair et al. 2006). In this study, Cronbach’s alpha values above .60 are accepted as reliable during exploratory factor analysis.

Cronbach’s alpha measure of reliability is commonly used. Cronbach’s alpha ranges from 0 to 1 where values above $\alpha = .70$ are accepted values for reliability of the measure. However, in exploratory factor analysis values above $\alpha = .60$ are also accepted (Hair 2010). These questions responded from participants are designed and binded to explain specific factor. Therefore, this means questions classified under involvement are reliable to measure involvement factor (Patterson et al 2005). The results of the reliability analysis are presented on Table 4.2.

4.2.1 Reliability Analysis on Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics

Reliability determines the consistency of measurement in the studies (Spector 2000). Cresswell (2003) stated that internal consistency investigates if the items in the

measure/scales are consistent with other previous measures or not. In that sense, it is important to assess reliability of scales with internal consistency. According to Santos (1999), it is critical and required to know how well the items in particular scale is related to the other one, because items in a specific scale are interrelated. To test the reliability of items, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for each dimension to provide that the items included all had indices that indicated internal consistency (Santos 1999).

Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics (EQNT) is measured via three dimensions: Pretending, Deceiving, Lying. EQNT questionnaire's Cronbach's alpha is found $\alpha = .798$ for total 338 respondents (Pretending $\alpha = .851$; Deceiving $\alpha = .879$; Lying $\alpha = .706$). All the dimensions and the total construct have acceptable reliability measures.

4.2.2 Reliability Analysis on Social Value Orientation

Social Value Orientation (SVO) consists of 6 distribution questions. Based on the answers 4 categories defined as: Altruism, Collaborative, Individualism and Competitive. Social Value Orientation questionnaire's Cronbach's alpha is found $\alpha = .872$ for total 338 respondents. SVO scale has acceptable reliability.

4.2.3 Reliability Analysis on Trait Anxiety

Trait Anxiety is measured with the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) consisting of 20 rephrased items. STAI questionnaire's Cronbach's alpha is $\alpha = .928$. In this study; STAI scale has acceptable reliability.

Table 4.2: Reliability of the variables in the study

Scale	Sub-dimension	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics		17	.798
	Pretending	7	.851
	Deceiving	6	.879
	Lying	4	.706
Social Value Orientation		6	.872
Trait Anxiety		20	.928

4.2.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis is used especially in the first phase of scale formation, to understand which observed variables generate the factors of the construct. With EFA, the number of variables that form the construct is reduced. Thus, new and more meaningful factors can be explored (Conway and Huffcutt 2003). According to Gudagnoli and Velicer (1988), a sample size between 300 and 400 is enough to the analysis without concerning the number of items in the scales. In this study, the data which includes 338 samples is suitable to the EFA analysis in terms of sample size according to the literature. Before assessing the factor analysis results, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is applied. These tests evaluate if the variables under a factor are suitable for the factor analysis by measuring their correlations. KMO is ranged between 0 and 1, where 1 shows perfect correlation. A value KMO, bigger than 0.60, is stated as an indicator of a valid sample size. Significance of Barlett's test is expected to be less than 0,05 (p-value < 0,05) which means inter correlation matrix can be used for factor analysis (Gürbüz and Şahin 2015).

In this study, there are three variables (social value orientation, anxiety, ethically questionable tactics). Among those variables, social value orientation is categorical

variable and anxiety is a single factor construct. Ethically questionable negotiation tactics has three dimensions and exploratory factor analysis is applied for these variables.

Ethically questionable negotiation tactics data have reasonable KMO and Bartlett's value; 0,934. Bartlett's tests show significant values $p=0.00$ which means inter correlation matrix can be used for factor analysis.

Table 4.3: KMO and Barlett's test results for EQNT

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,934
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2519,123
	df	136
	Sig.	,000

Ethically questionable negotiation tactics data was tested with exploratory factor analysis, at first; for extraction method, eigenvalue was applied and as a result, three dimensions (factors) emerged.

Factor 1 of EQNT explains 42,988 of variance (7,308 eigenvalue) and consists of seven items where all factor loadings are above 0.60 but only one of them is above 0.50. This factor is consistent with the original scale and it is named Pretending.

Factor 2 of EQNT explains 7,882 of variance (1,340 eigenvalue) and consists of six items where all factor loadings are above 0.60. This factor is consistent with the original scale and it is named Deception.

Factor 3 of EQNT explains 6,716 of variance (1,142 eigenvalue) and consists of four items where all factor loadings are above 0.50. This factor is consistent with the original scale and it is named Lying.

Table 4.4: Items and their factor loadings for EQNT

	Factors	% of Variance	Factor Loadings
	Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics	57,586	
	Pretending	42,988	
PRE1	<i>"Müzakere sırasında sizin için az önemli veya önemsiz sayılan bir konuda oldukça önemliymiş gibi davranırsınız."</i>		,597
PRE2	<i>"Müzakere sırasında her ne kadar öyle düşünmüyorsanız da, diğer tarafın sizin kendisini kişisel olarak ne kadar sevdiğinize inandırmaya çalışırsınız."</i>		,606
PRE3	<i>"Diğer tarafın işbirliğini elde ettiğinizde bu gibi şeyleri ona veremeyeceğinizi (vermeyeceğinizi) bile bile o tarafa, eğer istediğinizi verirse, güzel şeyler olacağına dair söz verirsiniz."</i>		,732
PRE4	<i>"Müzakere sırasında gerçekten kızgın olmadığınız bir durumda, stratejik olarak diğer tarafa olan kızgınlık ifade edersiniz."</i>		,662
PRE5	<i>"Müzakere sırasında aslında onların sorunlarıyla hiç ilgilenmediğiniz halde, diğer tarafın kötü durumuna sempati gösterirsiniz."</i>		,529
PRE6	<i>"Müzakere sırasında diğer tarafın yorumlarından tiksinişmiş gibi görünürsünüz."</i>		,787
PRE7	<i>"Henüz mutabakat ifade etmiş olmasalar bile, diğer tarafın kararı bir mutabakatmış gibi davranırsınız."</i>		,592
	Deceiving	7,882	
DEC1	<i>"Anlaşmaya gerçekte kabul etmeyi umduğunuzdan çok daha yüksek bir taleple açılış yaparsınız."</i>		,685

DEC2	<i>"Anlaşmaya varmaya kesinlikle acelesi yok gibi yanlış bir izlenim vererek, bu sayede, rakibinizin çabucak teslim olması için, zaman açısından baskı koymaya çalışırsınız."</i>	,772
DEC3	<i>"Öyle yüksek/düşük bir açılış talebi yaparsınız ki, diğer tarafın yeterli bir anlaşma için müzakere kabiliyetine olan güvenini ciddi biçimde zayıflatırsınız."</i>	,731
DEC4	<i>"Diğer tarafı öyle çok bilgiye boğun ki, hangi faktörlerin önemli olduğunu ve hangilerinin sadece dikkati dağıtmak için kullanıldığını saptamakta zorlansınlar."</i>	,793
DEC5	<i>"Pahalı hediyeler, eğlendirici veya kişisel iyiliklerle arkadaşlığınızı besleyerek diğer tarafın müzakere konumu hakkında bilgi edirsiniz."</i>	,666
DEC6	<i>"Diğer taraf ve siz, küçük bir bedel hariç, mutabık kaldığınızda, anlaşmayı tamamlamak için bu ücreti aranızda paylaşmayı teklif edersiniz."</i>	,640
Lying		6,716
LIE1	<i>"Diğer tarafın şimdi verdiği imtiyazlar karşılığında, gelecek için gerçekleştiremeyeceğinizi bildiğiniz imtiyaz sözleri verirsiniz."</i>	,540
LIE2	<i>"Rakibinizin sahip olduğu, görüşme konumunuzu zayıflatacak bilgilerin geçerli ve gerçek olduğunu bildiğiniz halde bu bilgilerin doğruluğunu inkar edersiniz."</i>	,660
LIE3	<i>"Diğer taraftan hızlı bir mutabakat almak için gereksiz kesin bir son tarih koyarsınız."</i>	,754
LIE4	<i>"Tartışma savlarınızı veya konularınızı desteklemek için diğer tarafa kasten yanlış bilgi verirsiniz."</i>	,613

4.2.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As explained in the previous chapter, CFA is commonly used method to confirm the usability of a scale or a model which has been developed in the past and used in the literature. With CFA, scales or models are validated with the current data which is collected in the study. If a study tries to develop new scales, or modify existing scales, it has been a common practice to use exploratory factor analysis in the first place, and then confirm the new scale with CFA (Gürbüz and Şahin 2015). In this study, confirmatory factor analysis is made with IBM SPSS AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) software (24.0.0 Build 596938). CFA of ethically questionable tactics and trait anxiety construct is presented in this chapter.

4.2.5.1 CFA for ethically questionable negotiation tactics

Figure 4.1 shows the first order analysis for the construct ethically questionable tactics. EQNT has three dimensions with total 17 items. Each dimension has loading to its observed variables (regression weights) greater than .50 and the relationships between observed variables and the latent variables are significant. Chi-square goodness of fit is statistically significant, which may indicate a misfit, but as explained in the previous chapter, scholars agree to ignore this significance and evaluate the model fit according to other indices. All other goodness of fit indices indicate a model fit. CMIN/DF=1.895, RMR=0.049, GFI=0.928, AGFI=0.903, TLI=0.950, CFI=0.958, RMSEA=0.052. It may be concluded that there is construct validity for first order analysis for EQNT scale.

Figure 4.2 shows the second order analysis for the construct ethically questionable tactics. EQNT has loading to its sub-dimensions (regression weights) greater than .50 and the relationships between sub-dimensions and RC are significant. Chi-square goodness of fit is statistically significant, which may indicate a misfit, but as explained in the previous chapter, scholars agree to ignore this significance and evaluate the model fit according to other indices. All other goodness of fit indices indicate a model fit. CMIN/DF=1.901, RMR=0.049, GFI=0.928, AGFI=0.904, TLI=0.950, CFI=0.958,

RMSEA=0.052. It may be concluded that there is construct validity for second order analysis for Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics scale.

Figure 4. 1: CFA first order analysis of EQNT

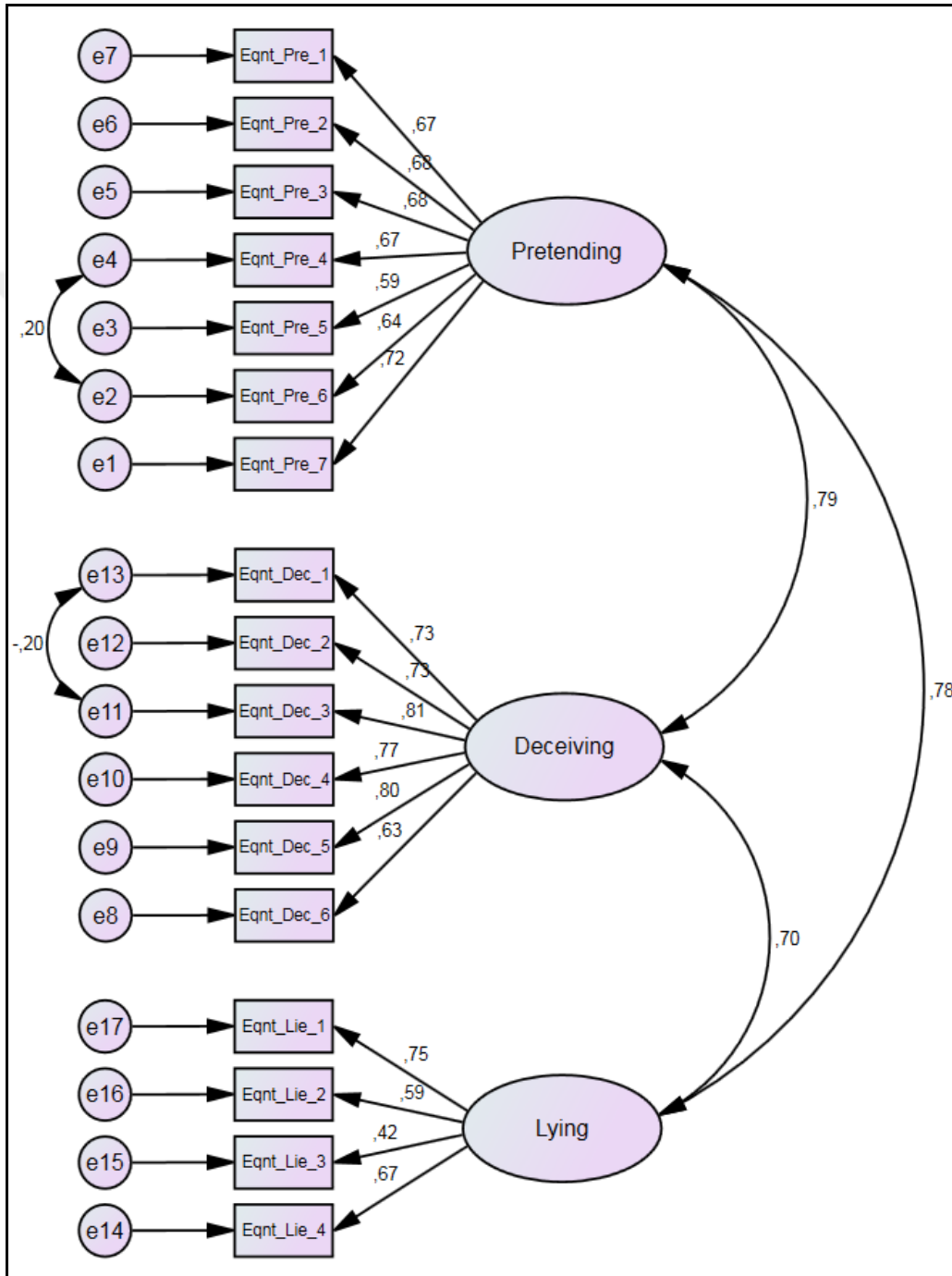
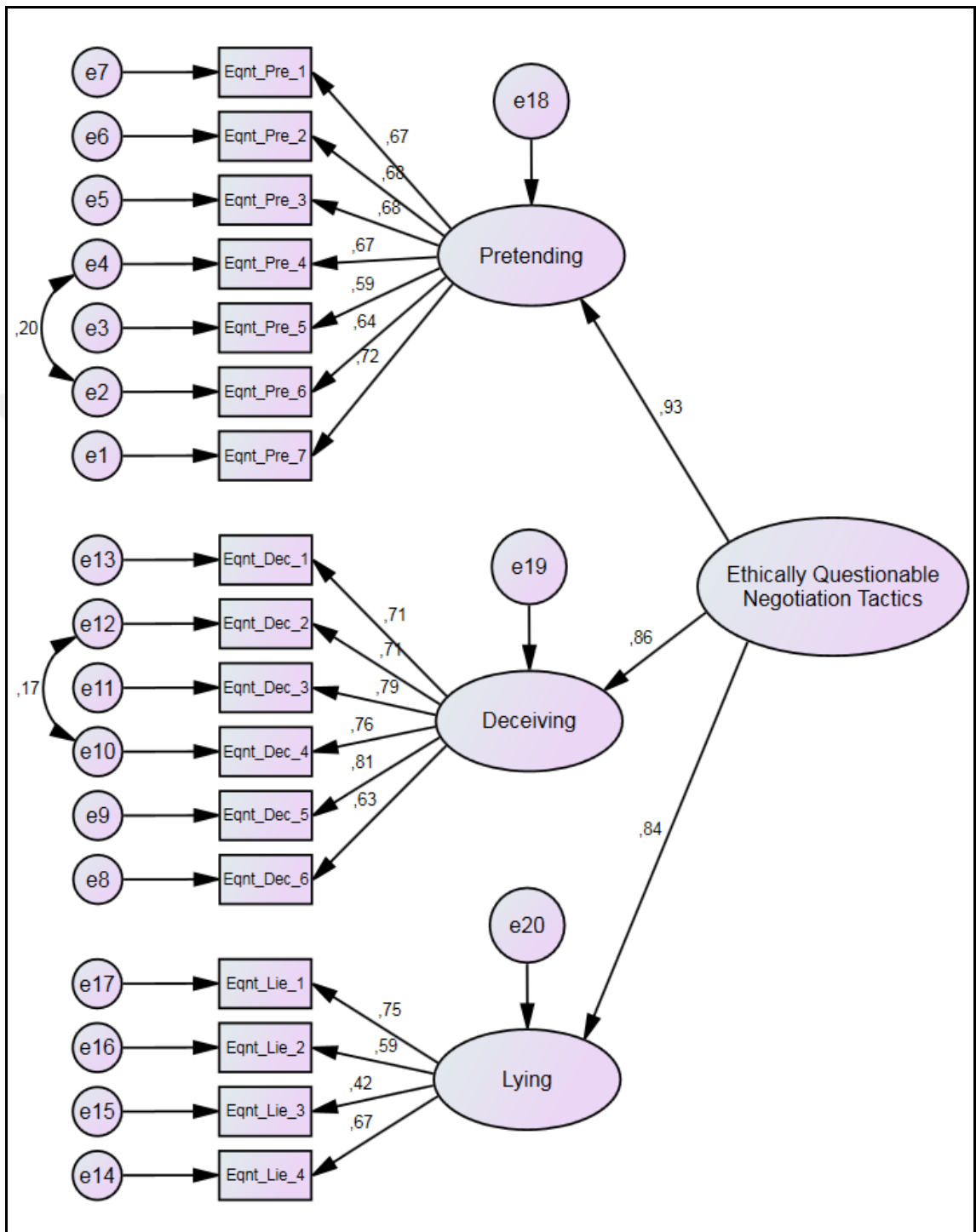


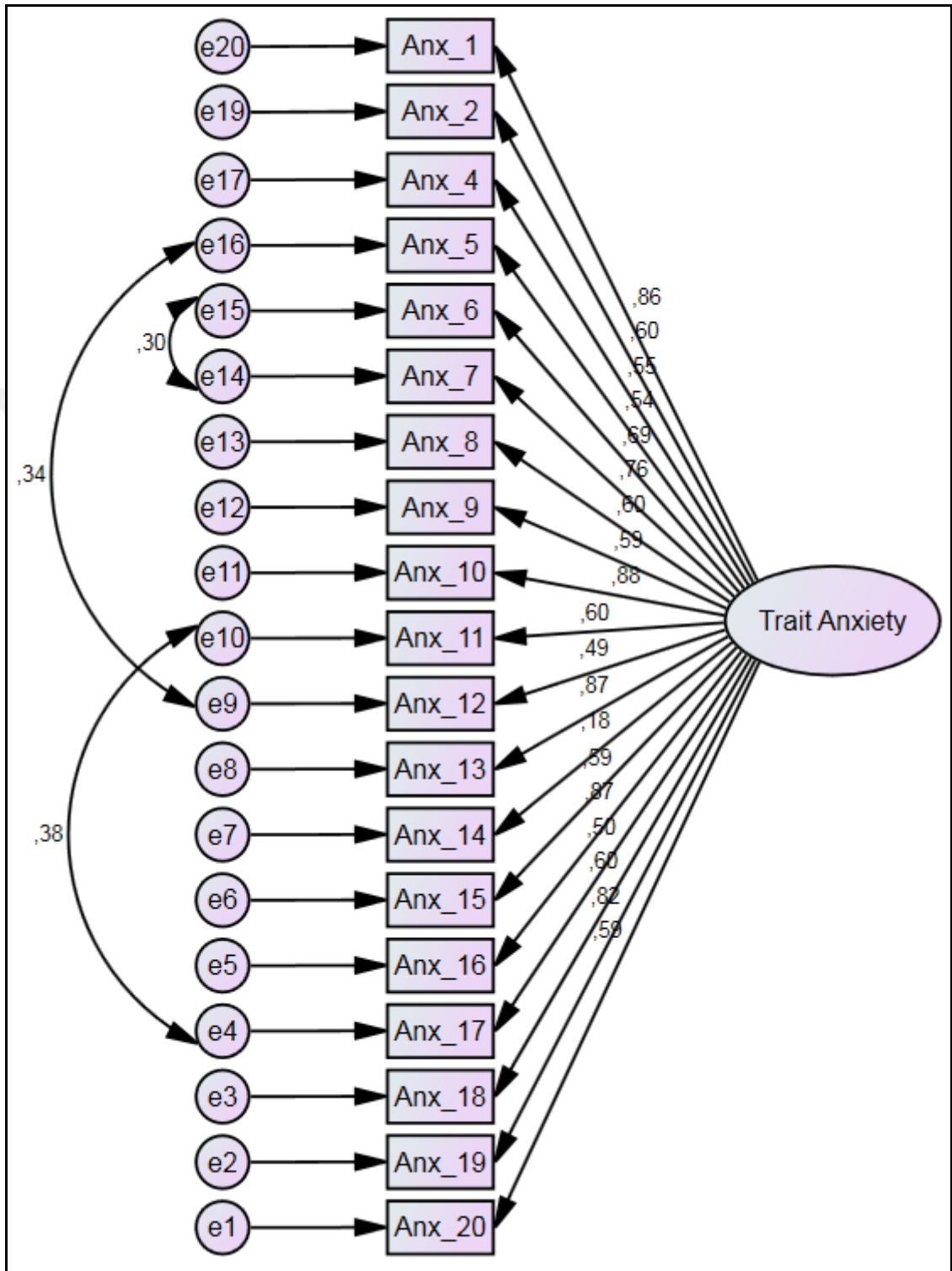
Figure 4. 2: CFA second order analysis of EQNT



4.2.5.2 CFA for trait anxiety

Figure 4.3 shows the first order analysis for the construct Trait Anxiety. Trait Anxiety has 20 items. Each dimension has loading to its observed variables (regression weights) greater than .50 except third item of anxiety with regression value of .16. After removing this item from model, the relationships between observed variables and the latent variables are significant. Chi-square goodness of fit is statistically significant, which may indicate a misfit, but as explained in the previous chapter, scholars agree to ignore this significance and evaluate the model fit according to other indices. All other goodness of fit indices indicate a model fit. CMIN/DF=3.641, RMR=0.054, GFI=0.820, AGFI=0.771, TLI=0.878, CFI=0.894, RMSEA=0.089. It may be concluded that there is construct validity for first order analysis for Trait Anxiety scale.

Figure 4. 3: CFA first order analysis of trait anxiety



4.2.6 Correlation Analysis of the Research Variables

In this study, there are three constructs (Social Value Orientation, Anxiety, Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics). Social Value Orientation has 4 dimensions (Altruism, Collaborative, Competitive, Individualism). Ethically questionable negotiation tactics has 3 dimensions (Pretending, Deceiving, Lying). Anxiety is single factor scale. Majority of the variables are correlated with each other having p values 0.01. Social Value Orientation and Anxiety Level do not display significantly as expected for Moderating affect. Table 4.5 shows the correlation matrix between the variables in the study.

Table 4. 5: Means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of variables

Variable	Mean	Std.Dev	1	2	3	4	5
1. Social Value Orientation (Degree)	17.11	24.30	1				
2. Anxiety Level	44.04	11.63	-.053	1			
3. Pretending	2.92	0.80	-.594**	.282**	1		
4. Deceiving	3.07	0.91	-.644**	.230**	.673**	1	
5. Lying	2.59	0.77	-.353**	.387**	.586**	.565**	1

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

4.2.7 Validity and Reliability of the Constructs

In Confirmatory Factor Analysis, two aspects are used to evaluate the construct validity, namely convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Convergent and discriminant validity evaluate how measures of a latent variable shared their variance and how they differentiate from each other (Campbell and Fiske 1959). Convergent validity examines the degree which two measures of the same concept are correlated. Discriminant validity assesses the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct. If observed variables of a latent variable are highly correlated to each other, this indicates

the convergent validity of the construct. If observed variables of a construct are correlated more highly to another latent variable in the conceptual framework, this indicates lacking discriminant validity. In order to have discriminant validity, highest correlations should be between observed variables and their latent variables (Hair et al. 2010). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), convergent validity can be assessed by Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR). AVE, which measures the level of variance captured by a construct versus the level due to measurement error, considered as acceptable if it has the values greater than 0.5. CR is defined as a less biased estimate of reliability than Cronbach's alpha; 0.7 and higher values are accepted (Fornell and Larcker 1981). According to Hair et al. (2006), Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and Average Shared Variance (ASV) are also measured to establish validity and reliability. To have discriminant validity MSV and ASV should be less than AVE and square root of AVE should be bigger than inter-construct correlations.

Validity and reliability of multi factor variable of the study (ethically questionable negotiation tactics) are presented in below tables. In table 4.6, AVE, CR and MSV values of the construct EQNT are shown below. For composite reliability tests, all CR values for Pretending, Deceiving and Lying is higher than 0.70 and are acceptable. For discriminant validity tests, the AVE for deceiving and lying is higher than the MSV, and pretending is nearly equal to MSV value which is at acceptable level for discriminant validity. Additionally, the square root of the AVE for Pretending, Deceiving, and Lying is higher or nearly equal the absolute value of the correlations with another factor. For convergent validity tests, all AVE values are less than CR which is one of the condition for convergent validity. The AVE for deceiving is higher than 0.5 while pretending and lying is less than 0.50 but still at acceptable level. Based on these findings and since the scale is commonly used in the literature, convergent, discriminant validity and composite reliability can be assumed as acceptable for this scale.

Table 4. 6: Validity and reliability scores of EQNT construct

	CR	AVE	MSV	Pretending	Deceiving	Lying
Pretending	0,849	0,446	0,453	0,666		
Deceiving	0,883	0,560	0,453	0,673	0,746	
Lying	0,709	0,387	0,343	0,586	0,565	0,621

4.2.8 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is an issue, where two or more variables are highly correlated to each other that they both represent the same underlying construct. Having multicollinearity between variables may cause inappropriate results, thus it needs to be overcome during the analysis (Byrne 2010).

Checking the correlation matrix for independent variables is the easiest way to detect multicollinearity (Sekaran and Bougie 2013). Correlations 0.70 and higher are indicators of sizeable multicollinearity. In this study, when the correlations between the independent variables are examined (Table 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9), none of the predictive variables have correlations above 0.70.

For complex relationships between several independent variables, checking out the high correlations between the variables may not be enough by itself. Tolerance value and varying inflation factor (VIF) are more common measures to identify multicollinearity which can be used to evaluate the relationship between the predictor variables (Sekaran and Bougie 2013). VIF values less than 10 are acceptable for Hair et al. (2010); values less than 3 acceptable for (Gürbüz and Şahin 2015). According to hypothesized model multicollinearity VIF values are examined between independent variables and dependent variable. Since VIF values are less than 3, no multicollinearity issue is observed in this study.

Table 4. 7: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable pretending

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2,484	,135		18,450	,000		
Anxiety	,017	,003	,251	6,009	,000	,997	1,003
SVO	-,019	,001	-,581	-13,894	,000	,997	1,003

a. Dependent Variable: Pretending

Table 4. 8: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable deceiving

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2,799	,147		19,085	,000		
Anxiety-Sürekli	,015	,003	,196	4,847	,000	,997	1,003
SVO Category	-,024	,002	-,634	-15,656	,000	,997	1,003

a. Dependent Variable: Deceiving

Table 4. 9: Multicollinearity analysis on dependent variable lying

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1,704	,145		11,772	,000		
Anxiety-Sürekli	,024	,003	,370	7,862	,000	,997	1,003
SVO Category	-,011	,001	-,333	-7,082	,000	,997	1,003

a. Dependent Variable: Lying

4.2.9 Hypothesis Testing

As mentioned above, all the variables have been analyzed by explanatory and confirmatory factor analyses one by one and confirmed that they can be used in hypothesis testing. The hypotheses to be tested are evaluated for the validity of specified casual linkages between the variables in the study (Byrne 2010). Hypothesized model of this study includes a moderating variable (i.e. psycap). In order to make the moderating analysis, all the variables in the model should be correlated. As documented in table 4.5, all correlations between variables in the hypothesized model are significant.

In thesis model, independent variables are categorical (SVO, Anxiety and Framing) and dependent variable is continuous therefore Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) is executed to test the hypothesis. ANOVA is a parametric statistical technique which is used to identify the affect of an independent categorical variable that has three or more groups on continuous variable by comparing the mean differences on a single response (Skidmore and Thompson 2013). ANOVA determines if these group means are statistically different than overall means of the dependent values. In case any difference exists for any group, the null hypothesis should be rejected.

In literature, reviews of statistical techniques shows the high usage of ANOVA technique especially for the social sciences (Skidmore et al. 2010; Kieffer et al. 2001; Edgington 1974; Edgington 1964). ANOVA test was used more than 90 percent of the univariate articles reviewed by Keselman et al. (1998).

There are 3 assumptions of the ANOVA test:

1. First assumption is the data for dependent variable is normally distributed. For large populations (i.e. more than 250 samples), normality can also be checked by histogram view, skewness and kurtosis as given table 4.1.

2. Second consideration is the equal variances between grouped dependent variables. The variance for each test group should be similar. Otherwise, the ANOVA probably isn't the right fit for the data.
3. Third consideration is that each sample is randomly selected.

After a significant ANOVA testing, Post hoc tests are used to dive in and look for differences between groups, testing each possible pair of groups.

In addition to assumption check for ANOVA test, a manipulation check is also conducted for gain/loss frame. Manipulation check is a method which helps researcher to understand the efficiency of given experimental design for a study (Hauser et al. 2018). A typical manipulation check consist of time control (Dhar and Nowlis 1999) or additional questions to the participants (Gino and Margolis 2011). If a manipulation check is successful, means the individuals are under the affect of the experiemental design, the researcher can conclude that the participants correctly changed their perception, reaction and/or interpretation of the situation which enable more accurate conclusion for the defined thesis model.

Since gain/loss framing was measured using a predefined scenario given to participants, it is important to see if the participants' observations are framed based on the given scenario before looking the moderating affect of framing. Before representing the hypothesis test results, assumption criterias and manipulation check presented in the next section.

4.2.9.1 Assumption check for anova

Table 4.10 shows the Shapiro-Wilk normality test result for the categorical groupings of the dependent variable. According to this analysis, the result of the normality test is not significance. Therefore, null hypothesis should be accepted which indicates the data is

normally distributed. Also considering skewness and kurtosis values which are given in table 4.1, it can be said that the first assumption of ANOVA is met.

Table 4. 10: Shapiro-wilk normality test

SVO Category		Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretending	Altruism	,922	21	,096
	Collaborating	,986	153	,120
	Individualistic	,991	97	,797
	Competitive	,983	67	,514
Deception	Altruism	,909	21	,052
	Collaborating	,983	153	,062
	Individualistic	,975	97	,065
	Competitive	,977	67	,235
Lying	Altruism	,919	21	,083
	Collaborating	,983	153	,050
	Individualistic	,982	97	,190
	Competitive	,974	67	,172

In order to check the approximately variance equality between SVO category groupings of each dependent variable (Pretending, Deceiving, Lying), Levene's F test is conducted. As seen in following table 4.11, for all three categories, Levene's F Test result is not statistically significant therefore equal variances can be assumed for dependent variables. Considering this finding, it can be said that the second assumption of ANOVA is met.

Table 4. 11: Test of homogeneity of variances- levene test

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Pretending	,985	3	334	,400
Deception	,597	3	334	,617
Lie	2,281	3	334	,079

The last criteria is also met as explained in the section 3.5 as how the data is collected.

4.2.9.2 Manipulation check

In this thesis, after exploration of individuals social value orientation, a preprepared situation is given to create a basis for a ethically questionable negotiation tactics choices. The situation is described by giving a text scenario to the participants. Half of the participants received the situation as gain framed, other half of the participants received the situation as loss framed. None of them have been told that there are two different text given for total candidates. The gain/loss framing part in the scenario is shown below in table 4.12.

Table 4. 12: Gain/loss frame scenario

Gain Framing	According to your studies, you find that it is possible to purchase the company with 25% probability.
Loss Framing	According to your studies, you find that it is not possible to purchase the company with 75% probability.

During survey, in order to understand if the framing is effective or not, additional two questions with likert scale are added as shown below in table 4.13. Question-1 is asked for all participants directly after scenario is given. Question-2 is asked at the end of survey based on each framing group.

Table 4.13: Manipulation check questions

Manipulation Check Question-1	Under these circumstances, do you believe that you can acquire the company?
Manipulation Check Question-2a	While selecting your negotiation tactics, did you consider the 25% gain probability?
Manipulation Check Question-2b	While selecting your negotiation tactics, did you consider the 75% loss probability?

By using the manipulation it was assumed that participants with gain framed scenario have higher faith for acquiring the company while loss framed participants have lower even the probability shows exactly the same. Independent t-test is conducted to understand if there is a significant difference between the gain framed participants and loss framed participants for the perception/manipulation check question-1. The results of the t-test are shown below in table 4.14 and 4.15.

Table 4. 14: Manipulation check question-1 group statistics

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Under these circumstances, do you believe that you can acquire the company?	Loss	171	2,532	1,1494	,0879
	Gain	167	3,479	1,1556	,0894

Table 4. 15: Independent sample test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Under these circumstances, do you believe that you can acquire the company?	Equal variances assumed	,125	,724	7,552	336	,000
	Equal variances not assumed			7,552	335,715	,000

The results of the table shows that, the mean of 5-point likert scale for Loss framed participants is 2.532 while gain framed participants 3.479. Since the Levene's F Test indicates there is an equal variances for these two groups (with p-value = .724), the first row with equal variance assumption is used to interpret the results. T-test for equality of means result indicates that there is a significant difference between two groups of gain and loss frame (with p-value = .000). For the manipulation check question 2a and 2b, the results of the t-test are shown below in table 4.16 and 4.17.

Table 4. 16: Manipulation check question-2 group statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Last Question: While selecting your negotiation tactics, did you consider the 25% gain/75% loss probability?	338	3,663	1,1078

Table 4. 17: One-sample t-test

Test Value = 2.5	t-test for Equality of Means		
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
While selecting your negotiation tactics, did you consider the 25% gain/75% loss probability?	19,297	337	,000

The results of the table shows that, the mean of 5-point likert scale for question-2 is 3.663. One-sample t-test is executed by using test value = 2.5. T-test for equality of means result indicates that there is a significant difference between test value and the mean of the question-2 (with p-value = .000).

By considering both results for manipulation check question-1 and question-2, it is assumed that the gain/frame manipulation was successful in changing the perception of the participants.

4.2.9.3 Hypothesis testing for direct relationships

Before having ANOVA test between SVO and EQNT, Levene's F test is conducted. As shown below in Table 4.18, the results for EQNT groups are not significant which enable to assume the variances have equal homogeneity.

Table 4. 18: Test of homogeneity of variances SVO and EQNT

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Pretending	2,694	1	336	,102
Deception	,186	1	336	,666
Lying	2,300	1	336	,130

Table 4.19 shows the t-test between the relationships SVO- proself/prosocial groups and the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. According to t-test analysis, the

two groupings have a significant impact for selecting EQNT during a negotiation, for pretending $F(1, 336) = 115,725$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.256$, for deceiving $F(1, 336) = 161,612$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.324$, for lying $F(1, 336) = 33,087$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.090$. Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between the mean is rejected, and 25,6 percent variance in pretending, 32,5 percent variance in deceiving and 9,0 percent variance in lying were accounted for by social value orientation.

Table 4. 19: Independent t-test for SVO groups and EQNT

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Partial Eta Squared
Pretending	-10,758	336	,000	-,81161	,07545	0,256
Deception	-12,713	336	,000	-1,02848	,08090	0,325
Lying	-5,752	336	,000	-,45884	,07977	0,090

A visual depiction of the means and 95 percent confidence intervals across prosocial and proself orientation category is presented in figure 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6 respectively for each ethically ambiguous tactic. It can be observed that, proself orientations have higher tendency to use EQNT than prosocial orientations.

Figure 4. 4: 95% confidence intervals for pretending

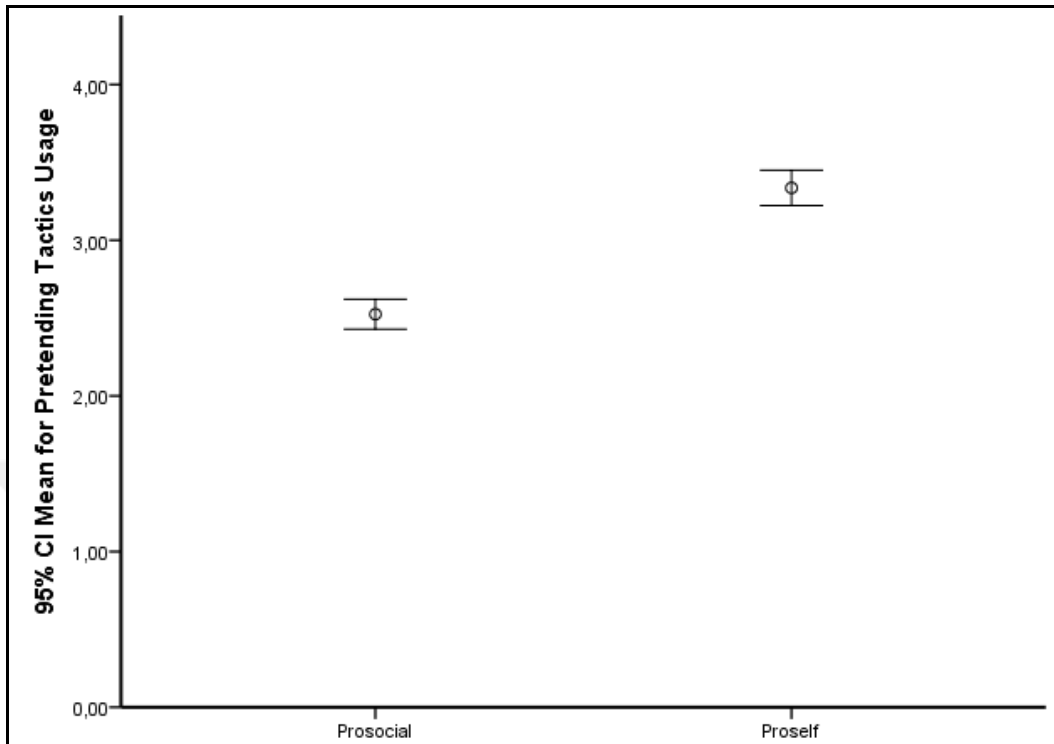


Figure 4. 5: 95% confidence intervals for deceiving

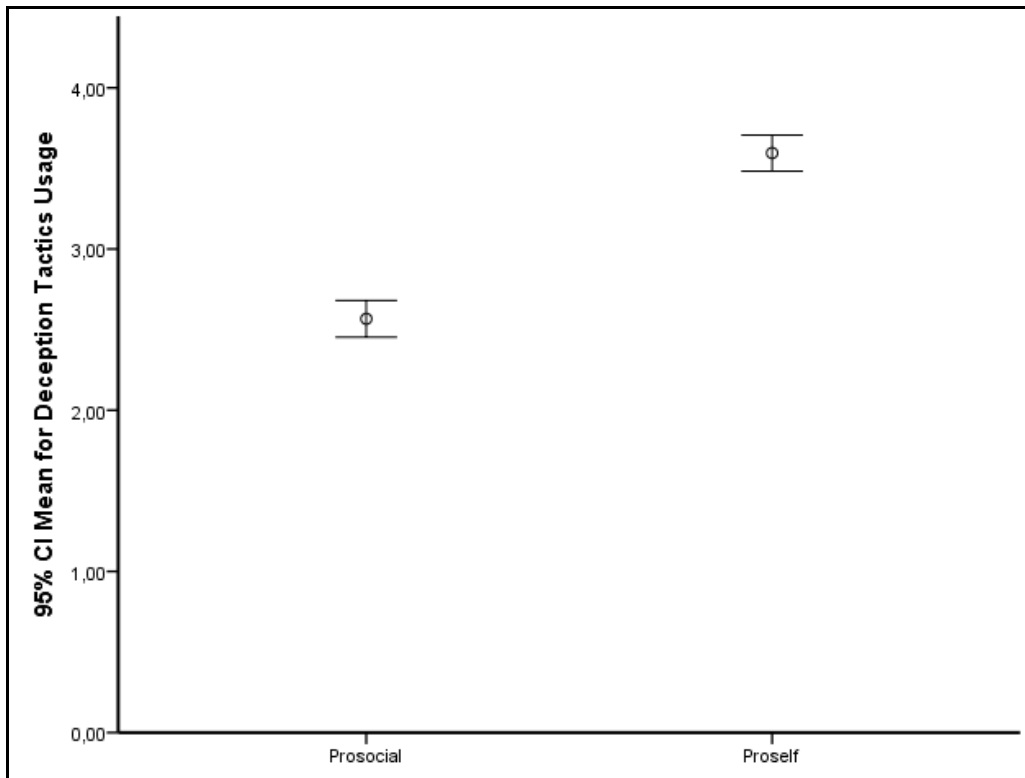
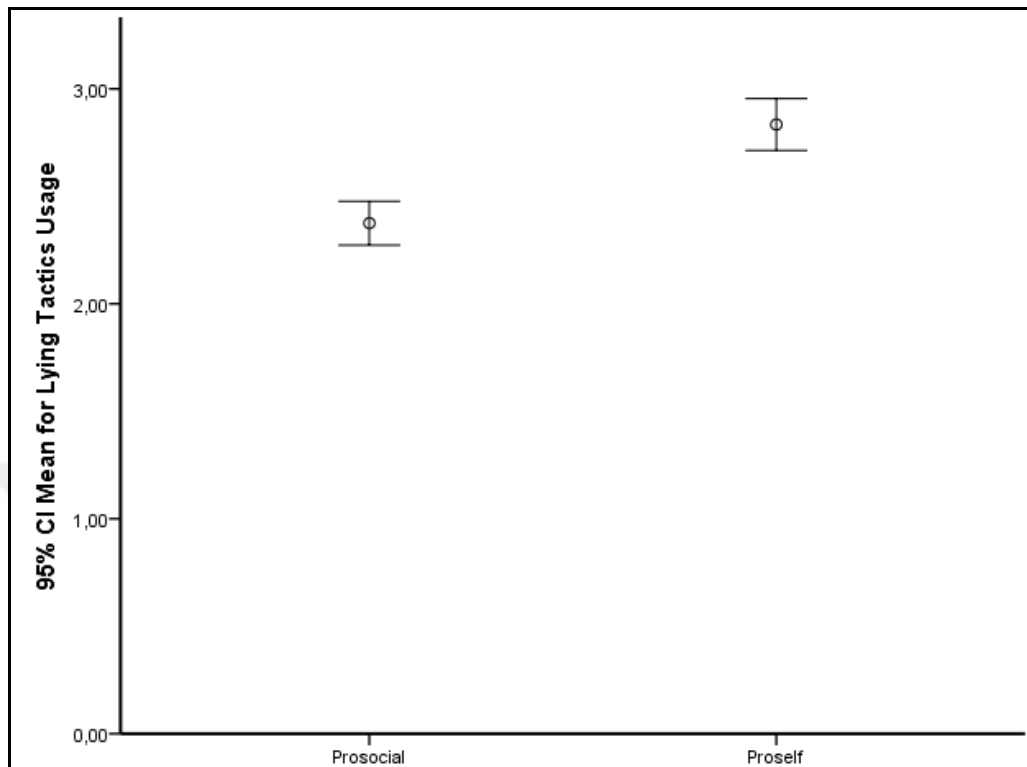


Figure 4. 6: 95% confidence intervals for lying



Based on the above results, the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics is higher for proself than prosocials individuals. Thus, hypothesis H1a, H1b, and H1c “There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics (with its dimensions-pretending, deception and lie) is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations” is supported (with p-value= .000).

4.2.9.3.1 Analysis of variance testing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT

Table 4.20 shows the one-way anova analysis between the relationships social value orientation categories and the usage of pretending tactics. According to ANOVA analysis, the social value orientation has a significant impact for selecting pretending tactics during a negotiation, $F(3, 334) = 49,964$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.309$. Thus, the null hypothesis of no difference between the mean is rejected, and 30.9 percent variance in pretending was accounted for by social value orientation.

Table 4. 20: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and pretending

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	67,242	3	22,414	49,964	,000	,310
Within Groups	149,835	334	,449			
Total	217,077	337				

4.2.9.3.1.1 Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT

In order to understand and evaluate the nature differences further, the statistically significant ANOVA was followed-up with TUKEY post-hoc test (Tukey 1984). The difference between Altruism group and Collaborative group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.009, *d* = 0.79. The difference between Altruism group and Individualistic group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 1.58. The difference between Altruism group and Competitive group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 2.28. The difference between Collaborative group and Individualistic group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.85. The difference between Collaborative group and Competitive group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 1.52. The difference between Individualistic group and Competitive group for using pretending tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.60. The results are shown in table 4.21 as below.

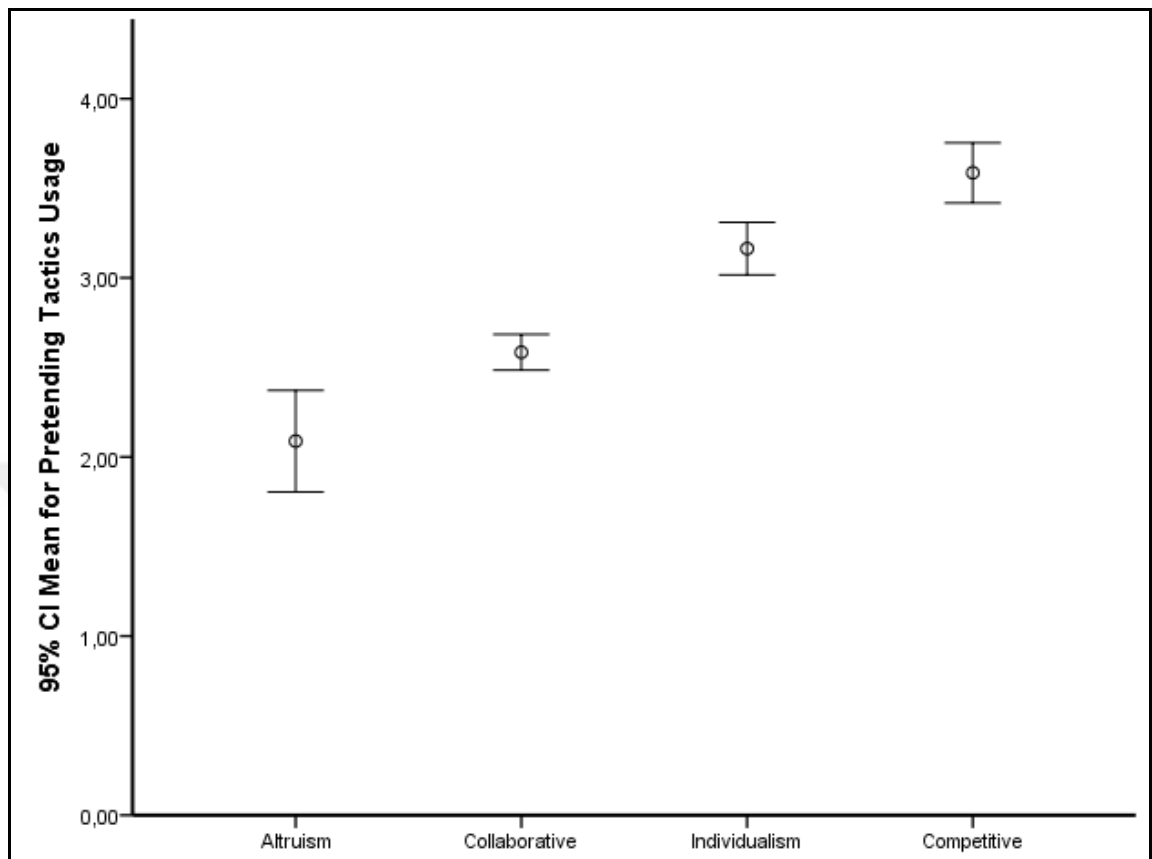
Table 4. 21: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and pretending

Dependent Variable: Pretending						
Tukey HSD						
(I) SVO Category	(J) SVO Category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Altruistic	Collaborative	-,49607*	,15587	,009	-,8985	-,0936
	Individualistic	-1,07504*	,16121	,000	-1,4913	-,6588
	Competitive	-1,49792*	,16751	,000	-1,9304	-1,0654
Collaborative	Altruistic	,49607*	,15587	,009	,0936	,8985
	Individualistic	-,57898*	,08693	,000	-,8034	-,3545
	Competitive	-1,00185*	,09812	,000	-1,2552	-,7485
Individualistic	Altruistic	1,07504*	,16121	,000	,6588	1,4913
	Collaborative	,57898*	,08693	,000	,3545	,8034
	Competitive	-,42288*	,10640	,000	-,6976	-,1482
Competitive	Altruistic	1,49792*	,16751	,000	1,0654	1,9304
	Collaborative	1,00185*	,09812	,000	,7485	1,2552
	Individualistic	,42288*	,10640	,000	,1482	,6976

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The effect sizes associated with statistically significant effects are considered large based on Cohen’s (1992) guidelines. Only, the association between Individualistic and competitive groups for the usage of pretending tactics is considered as medium (d value $0.6 < 0.8$). A visual depiction of the means and 95 percent confidence intervals across each social value orientation category is presented in figure 4.7. It can be observed that, prosself orientations have higher tendency to use pretending negotiation tactics than prosocial orientations. In addition to that, collaborative individuals use pretending tactics more than individuals with altruistic orientation and Competitive individuals use pretending tactics more than individuals with individualistic orientation.

Figure 4. 7: 95% confidence intervals for pretending



Based on the above results, SVO has direct relationship with the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. Thus, Hypothesis H1d “There is a significant relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of pretending-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation” is supported.

4.2.9.3.2 Analysis of variance testing between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT

Table 4.22 shows the one-way anova analysis between the relationships social value orientation categories and the usage of pretending tactics. According to ANOVA analysis, the social value orientation has a significant impact for selecting pretending tactics during a negotiation, $F(3, 334) = 70,720$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.388$. Thus,

the null hypothesis of no difference between the mean is rejected, and 38.8 percent variance in deceiving was accounted for by social value orientation.

Table 4. 22: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and deceiving

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	106,813	3	35,604	70,72	,000	,388
Within Groups	168,155	334	,503			
Total	274,969	337				

4.2.9.3.2.1 Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and deceiving- EQNT

In order to understand and evaluate the nature differences further, the statistically significant ANOVA was followed-up with TUKEY post-hoc test (Tukey 1984). The difference between Altruism group and Collaborative group for using deceiving tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.14. The difference between Altruism group and Individualistic group for using deceiving tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.27. The difference between Altruism group and Competitive group for using deceiving tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.30. The difference between Collaborative group and Individualistic group for using deceiving tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.12. The difference between Collaborative group and Competitive group for using deceiving tactics is statistically significant, with *p-value* =.000, *d* = 0.14. The difference between Individualistic group and Competitive group for using deceiving tactics is not statistically significant, with *p-value* =.452, *d* = 0.02. The results are shown in table 4.23 as below.

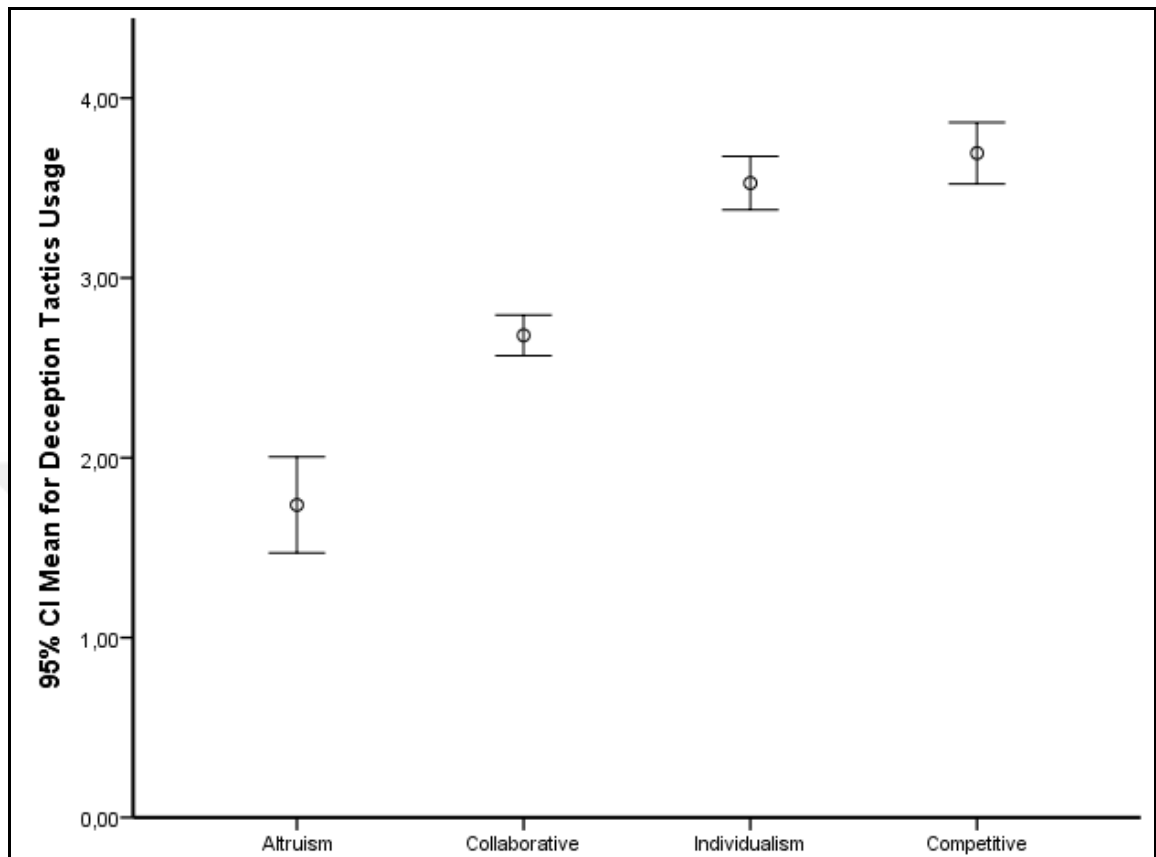
Table 4. 23: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and deceiving

Dependent Variable: Deception						
Tukey HSD						
(I) SVO Category	(J) SVO Category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Altruism	Collaborative	-,94273*	,16512	,000	-1,3691	-,5164
	Individualism	-1,78940*	,17078	,000	-2,2303	-1,3484
	Competitive	-1,95593*	,17745	,000	-2,4141	-1,4978
Collaborative	Altruism	,94273*	,16512	,000	,5164	1,3691
	Individualism	-,84666*	,09209	,000	-1,0844	-,6089
	Competitive	-1,01320*	,10395	,000	-1,2816	-,7448
Individualism	Altruism	1,78940*	,17078	,000	1,3484	2,2303
	Collaborative	,84666*	,09209	,000	,6089	1,0844
	Competitive	-,16654	,11271	,452	-,4576	,1245
Competitive	Altruism	1,95593*	,17745	,000	1,4978	2,4141
	Collaborative	1,01320*	,10395	,000	,7448	1,2816
	Individualism	,16654	,11271	,452	-,1245	,4576

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The effect sizes associated with statistically significant effects are considered small based on Cohen’s (1992) guidelines. A visual depiction of the means and 95 percent confidence intervals across each social value orientation category is presented in figure 4.8. It can be observed that, proself orientations have higher tendency to use pretending negotiation tactics than prosocial orientations. In addition to that, collaborative individuals use pretending tactics more than individuals with altruistic orientation but there is no statistically significant difference, *with p-value* =.452 between Competitive and individualistic individuals for the usage of deception tactics.

Figure 4. 8: 95% confidence intervals for deceiving



Based on the above results, Hypothesis H1e “There is a significant relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of deceiving-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation” for deception is partially supported.

4.2.9.3.3 Analysis of Variance testing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT

Table 4.24 shows the one-way anova analysis between the relationships social value orientation categories and the usage of lying tactics. According to ANOVA analysis, the social value orientation has a significant impact for selecting lying tactics during a negotiation, $F (3, 334) = 14,970$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.119$. Thus, the null

hypothesis of no difference between the mean is rejected, and 11.9 percent variance in pretending was accounted for by social value orientation.

Table 4. 24: One-way ANOVA test for SVO and lying

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Between Groups	23,501	3	7,834	14,970	,000	,119
Within Groups	174,777	334	,523			
Total	198,278	337				

4.2.9.3.3.1 Post-Hoc testing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT

In order to understand and evaluate the nature differences further, the statistically significant ANOVA was followed-up with TUKEY post-hoc test (Tukey 1984). The difference between Altruism group and Collaborative group for using lying tactics is statistically significant, *with p-value = .007, d = 0.08*. The difference between Altruism group and Individualistic group for using lying tactics is statistically significant, *with p-value = .000, d = 0.12*. The difference between Altruism group and Competitive group for using lying tactics is statistically significant, *with p-value = .000, d = 0.14*. The difference between Collaborative group and Individualistic group for using lying tactics is statistically significant, *with p-value = .001, d = 0.05*. The difference between Collaborative group and Competitive group for using lying tactics is statistically significant, *with p-value = .000, d = 0.06*. The difference between Individualistic group and Competitive group for using lying tactics is not statistically significant, *with p-value = .939, d = 0.00*. The results are shown in table 4.25 as below.

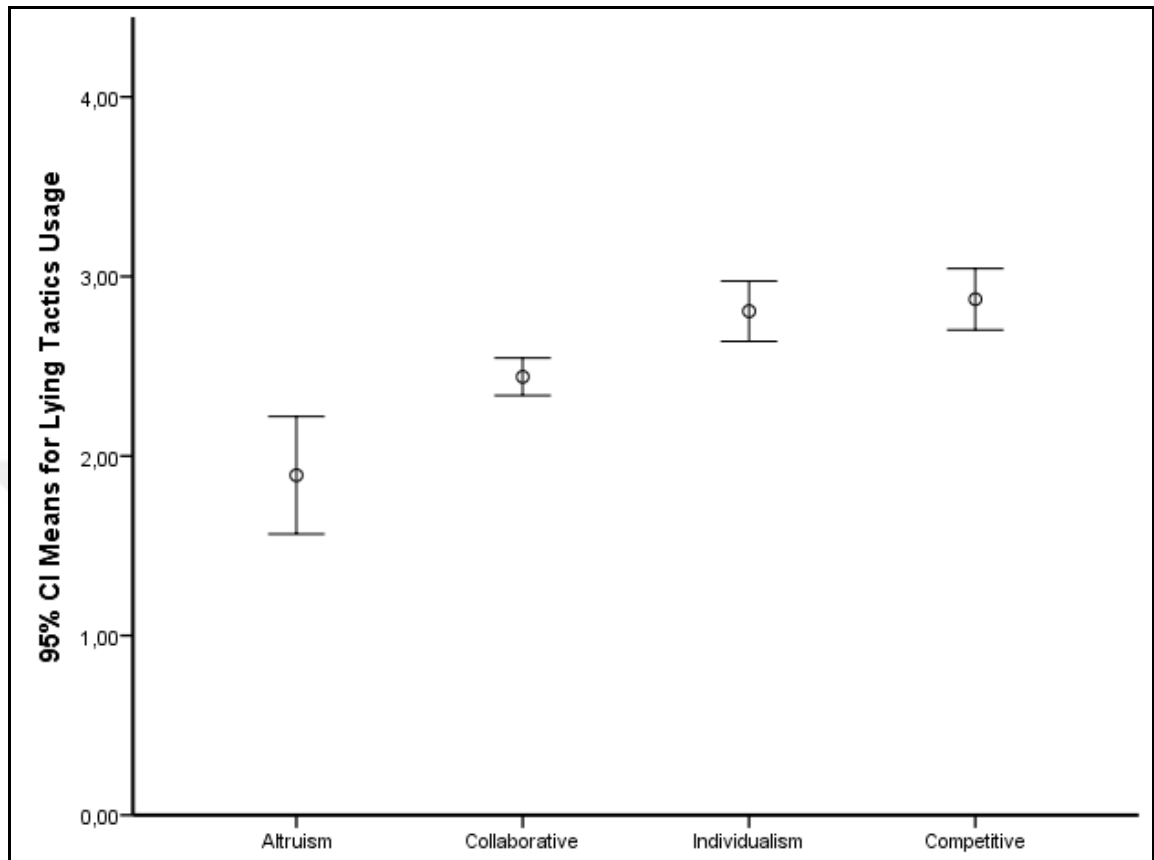
Table 4. 25: Tukey’s post-hoc test for SVO and lying

Dependent Variable: Lie						
Tukey HSD						
(I) SVO Category	(J) SVO Category	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Altruism	Collaborative	-,54832*	,16834	,007	-,9830	-,1137
	Individualism	-,91384*	,17411	,000	-1,3634	-,4643
	Competitive	-,98028*	,18091	,000	-1,4474	-,5132
Collaborative	Altruism	,54832*	,16834	,007	,1137	,9830
	Individualism	-,36552*	,09389	,001	-,6079	-,1231
	Competitive	-,43196*	,10597	,000	-,7056	-,1583
Individualism	Altruism	,91384*	,17411	,000	,4643	1,3634
	Collaborative	,36552*	,09389	,001	,1231	,6079
	Competitive	-,06643	,11491	,939	-,3631	,2303
Competitive	Altruism	,98028*	,18091	,000	,5132	1,4474
	Collaborative	,43196*	,10597	,000	,1583	,7056
	Individualism	,06643	,11491	,939	-,2303	,3631

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The effect sizes associated with statistically significant effects are considered small based on Cohen’s (1992) guidelines. A visual depiction of the means and 95 percent confidence intervals across each social value orientation category is presented in figure 4.9. It can be observed that, proself orientations have higher tendency to use lying negotiation tactics than prosocial orientations. In addition to that, collaborative individuals use lying tactics more than individuals with altruistic orientation but there is not statistically significant different between Competitive and individualistic individuals for the usage of lying tactics.

Figure 4. 9: 95% confidence intervals for lying



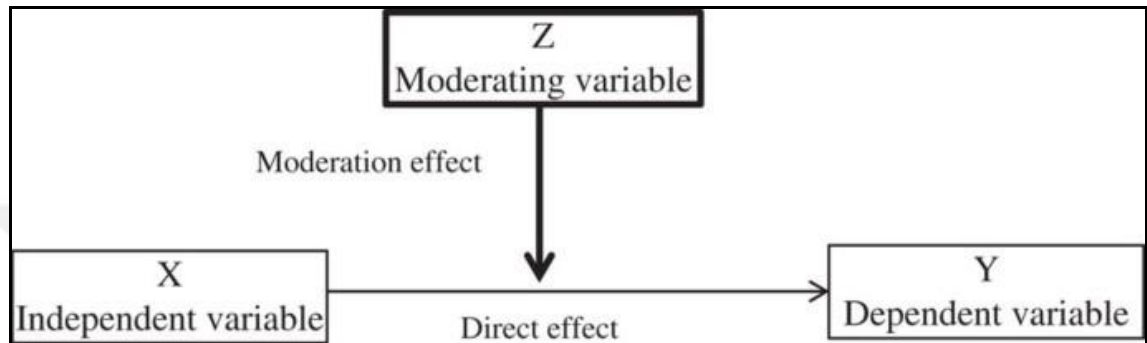
Based on the above results Hypothesis H1f “There is a significant relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of lying-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation” for lying is partially supported.

4.2.9.4 Hypothesis testing for moderating relationships

Baron and Kenny (1986) describe moderating affect as an independent variable which has the capability of affecting the relationship between the main independent and dependent variable by means of magnitude and/or direction.

Moderating effect is generally shown as in the below figure (Figure 4.10). According to this diagram, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is contingent on the existence of a moderator.

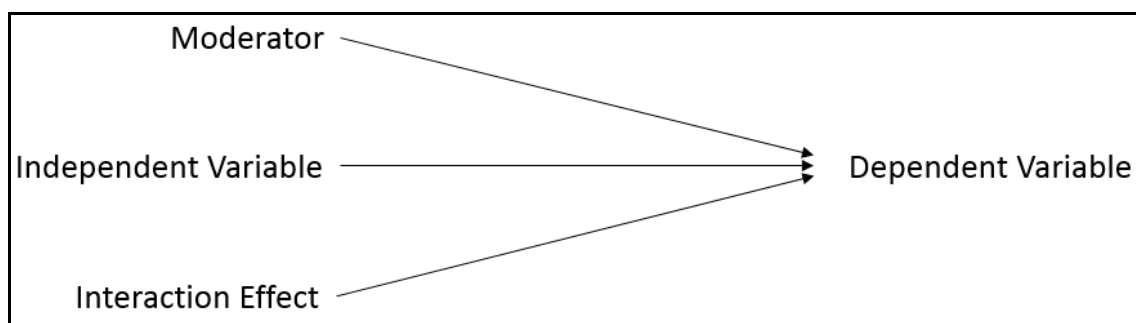
Figure 4. 10: Relationship among dependent, independent, and moderating variables



When the effect of an independent variable (X) on a dependent variable (Y) varies across levels of a moderating variable (Z) is also called interaction and/or interaction effect besides then moderation (Andersson et al. 2014).

The relations between variables in moderating model is described by Baron and Kenny (1986) as shown in figure 4.11. As it is seen there are might be a relationship between independent, moderating and interaction variable (moderating affect) on dependent variable while as stated by Baron and Kenny (1986) since moderating affect does not establish a bridge in between independent and dependent variable, it is not assumed that existing significant relationship between independent and moderator variables.

Figure 4. 11: Relationship among dependent, independent and moderating variables



As a summary, a variable can be confirmed as a moderator if: (1) There is a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable; (2) There is a no significant relationship between the independent and moderator variable; (3) The interaction affect is significantly related with the dependent variable.

The significant and non-significant relationships between independent and dependent variables are shown in previous sections. Following tables 4.26 and 4.27 shows the significance level between moderator variables anxiety and framing and independent variable social value orientation. Since the both moderator and independent variable is a categorical variable, chi-square test is conducted.

Table 4. 26: Chi-square test for anxiety and SVO

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,018 ^a	3	,259
Likelihood Ratio	3,929	3	,269
Linear-by-Linear Association	,262	1	,609
N of Valid Cases	338		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,34.

Table 4. 27: Chi-square test for gain/loss framing and SVO

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,381 ^a	3	,146
Likelihood Ratio	5,510	3	,138
Linear-by-Linear Association	,009	1	,925
N of Valid Cases	338		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,38.

The first result of chi-square test suggests that the p-value is higher than the standard alpha value, so the null hypothesis is accepted that asserts the two variables are independent of each other the variables. In other words, anxiety and SVO are not associated with each other, *with p-value = .259, df = 3*. The second result of chi-square test again suggests that the p-value is higher than the standard alpha value, so the null hypothesis is accepted that asserts the two variables are independent of each other the variables. In other words, gain/loss framing and SVO are not associated with each other, *with p-value = .146, df = 3*. In order to have a proper moderating affect findings are in line that is suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).

4.2.9.4.1 Moderating effect of anxiety between prosocials/proself orientation and EQNT

Table 4.28 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of pretending-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the prosocial/proself orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting pretending-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 108,473$, *with p-value = .000, $\eta^2 = 0.245$* and $F = 43,209$, *with p-value = .000, $\eta^2 = 0.115$* , respectively. The moderating affect of the anxiety for pretending-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is not found as statistically significant, $F = 2,620$, *with p-value = .106, $\eta^2 = 0.008$* .

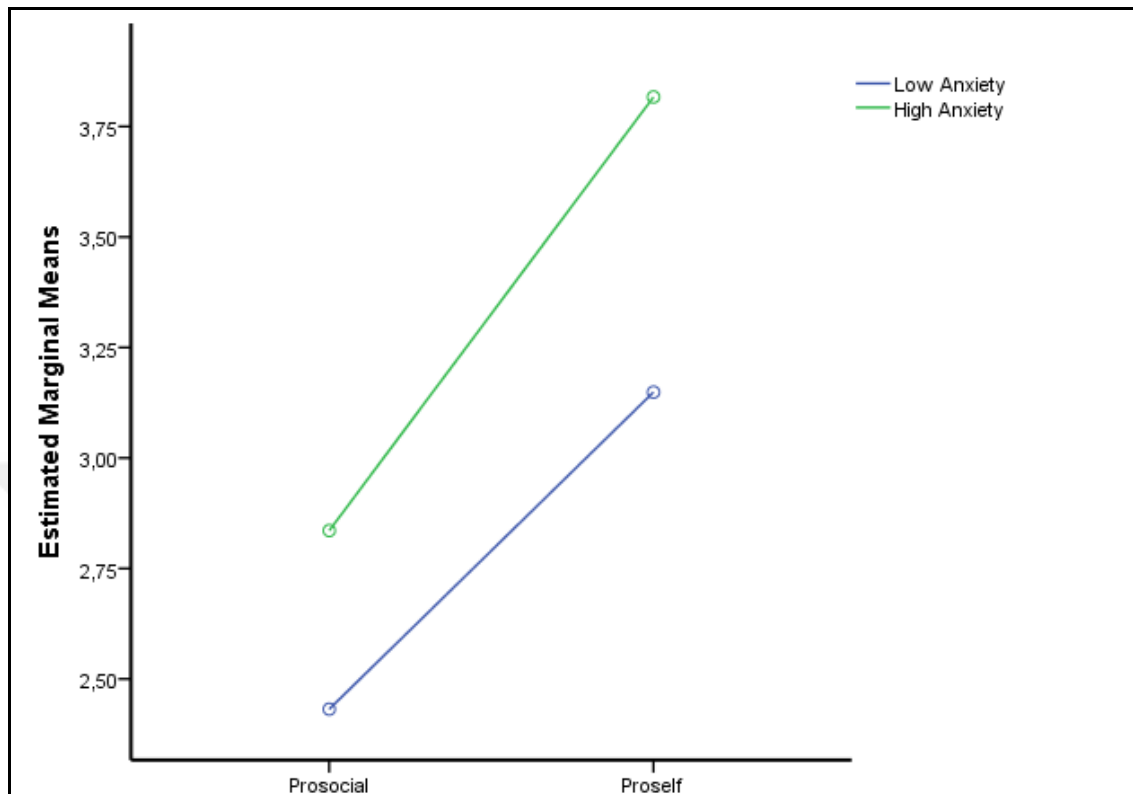
Table 4. 28: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and pretending-EQNT

Dependent Variable: Pretending						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	75,401 ^a	3	25,134	59,252	,000	,347
Intercept	2387,666	1	2387,666	5628,885	,000	,944
Prosocial / Proself	46,012	1	46,012	108,473	,000	,245
Anxiety	18,329	1	18,329	43,209	,000	,115
Interaction	1,111	1	1,111	2,620	,106	,008
Error	141,676	334	,424			
Total	3095,898	338				
Corrected Total	217,077	337				

a. R Squared = ,347 (Adjusted R Squared = ,341)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the pretending-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.12. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 12: Comparison of marginal means for pretending-EQNT



Although, the graph shows that for both category there is an increase with high anxiety level, the increase level for categories are not significantly changing. It can also be predicted from the parallel lines for high and low anxiety. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that there is a moderating effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientation and pretending-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H2a “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is not supported.

Table 4.29 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of deceiving-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting deceiving-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 172,490$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.341$ and $F = 24,656$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.069$, respectively. The moderating affect of the

anxiety for deceiving-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 12,693$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.037$.

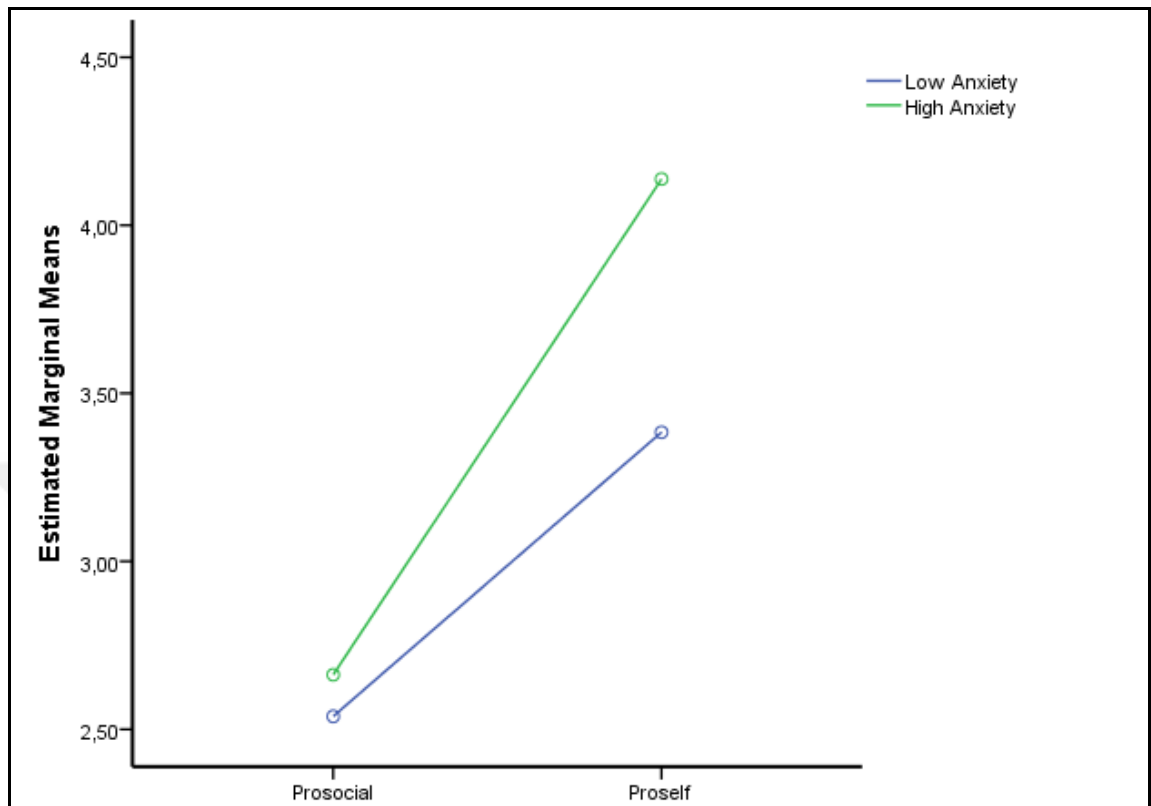
Table 4. 29: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and deceiving-EQNT

Dependent Variable: Deception						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	108,568 ^a	3	36,189	72,639	,000	,395
Intercept	2582,674	1	2582,674	5183,947	,000	,939
Prosocial / Proself	85,936	1	85,936	172,490	,000	,341
Anxiety	12,284	1	12,284	24,656	,000	,069
Interaction	6,324	1	6,324	12,693	,000	,037
Error	166,401	334	,498			
Total	3452,444	338				
Corrected Total	274,969	337				

a. R Squared = ,395 (Adjusted R Squared = ,389)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the deceiving-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.13. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 13: Comparison of marginal means for deceiving-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.13, the difference of high and low anxiety individuals with respect to their willingness to use deceiving-EQNT, is different for different proself and prosocial orientation groups. Therefore, it can be said that there is a moderating effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientation and deceiving-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H2b “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is supported.

Table 4.30 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of lying-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting lying-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 48,374$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.127$ and $F = 77,209$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.188$, respectively. The moderating affect of the anxiety for lying-EQNT

as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 12,989$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.037$.

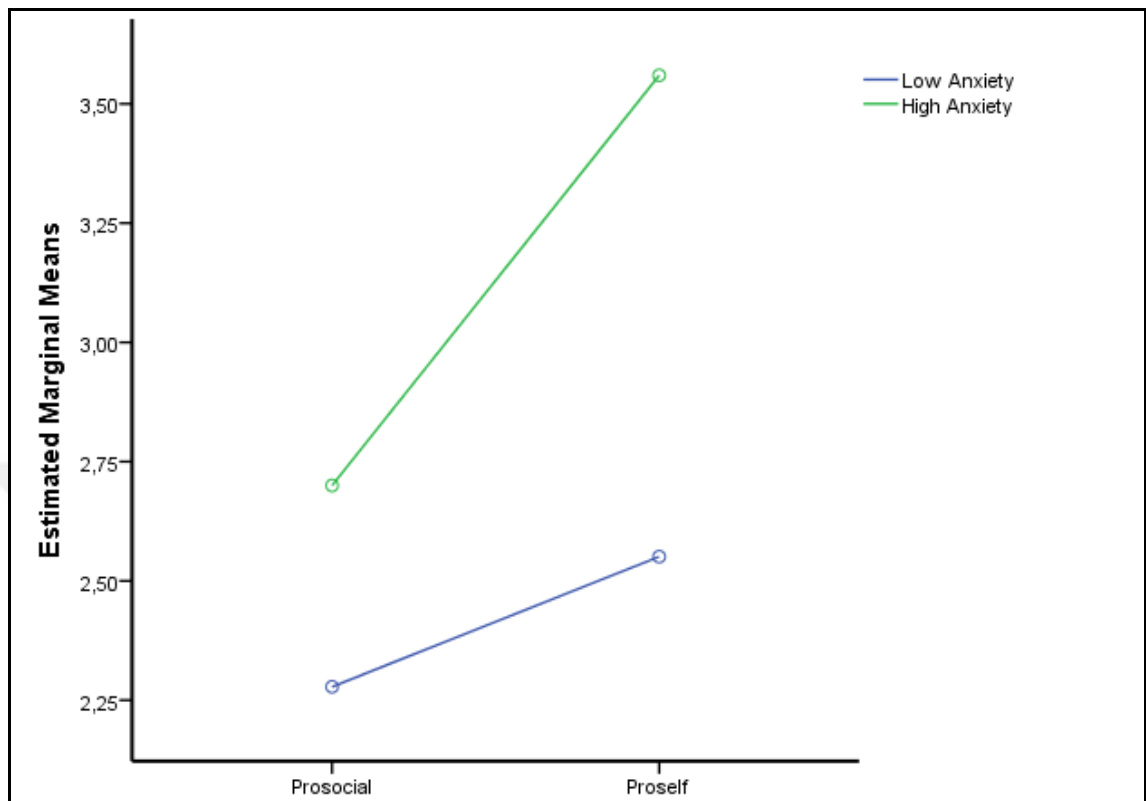
Table 4. 30: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientations and lying-EQNT

Dependent Variable: Lie						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	56,953 ^a	3	18,984	44,866	,000	,287
Intercept	1961,781	1	1961,781	4636,351	,000	,933
Prosocial / Proself	20,468	1	20,468	48,374	,000	,127
Anxiety	32,670	1	32,670	77,209	,000	,188
Interaction	5,496	1	5,496	12,989	,000	,037
Error	141,326	334	,423			
Total	2479,000	338				
Corrected Total	198,278	337				

a. R Squared = ,287 (Adjusted R Squared = ,281)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the Lying-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.14. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 14: Comparison of marginal means for lying-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.14, the difference of high and low anxiety individuals with respect to their willingness to use lying-EQNT, is different for different proself and prosocial orientation groups. Therefore, it can be said that there is a moderating effect of anxiety between proself/prosocial orientation and lying-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H2c “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is supported.

4.2.9.4.2 Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and pretending-EQNT

Table 4.31 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting pretending-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 48,536$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.306$ and $F = 38,365$, with $p\text{-value}$

= .000, $\eta^2 = 0.104$, respectively. The moderating affect of the anxiety for lying-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is not found as statistically significant, $F = ,941$, with p -value = .421, $\eta^2 = 0.008$.

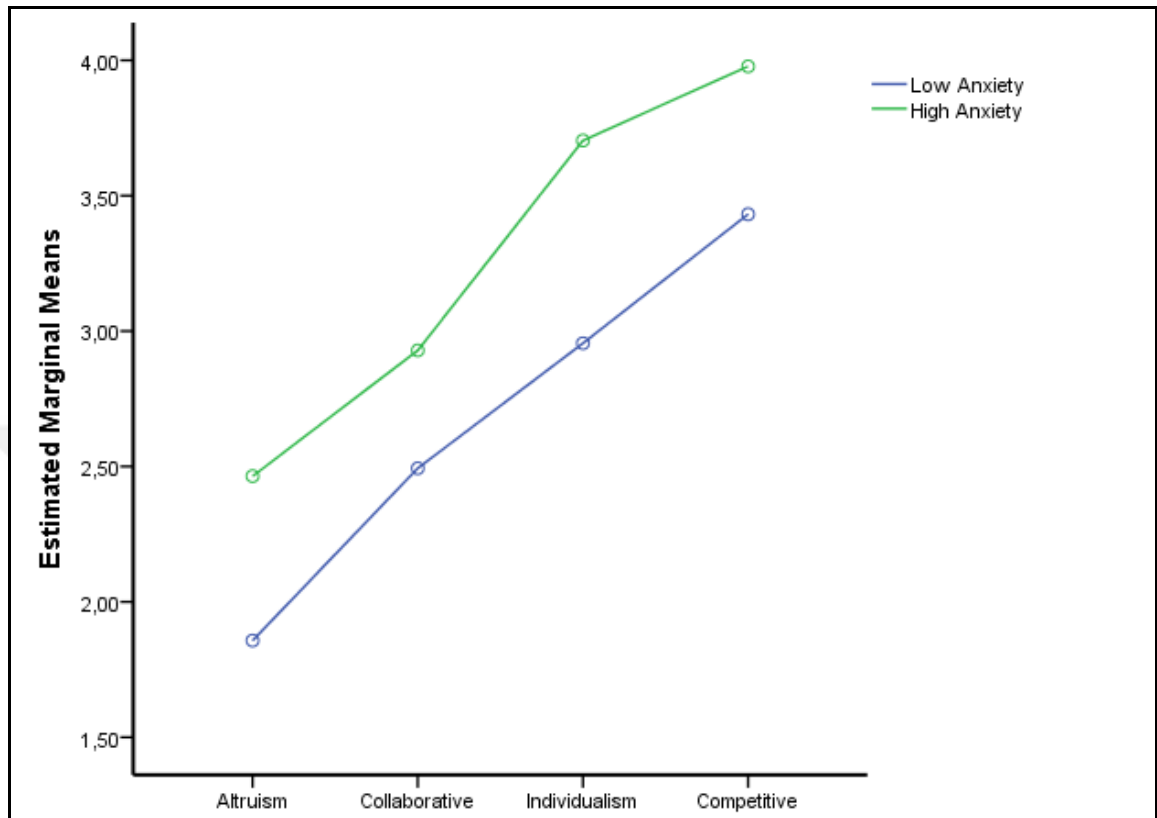
Table 4. 31: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT

Dependent Variable: Pretending						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	88,834 ^a	7	12,691	32,656	,000	,409
Intercept	1548,168	1	1548,168	3983,785	,000	,924
SVO	56,586	3	18,862	48,536	,000	,306
Anxiety	14,909	1	14,909	38,365	,000	,104
SVO * Anxiety	1,097	3	,366	,941	,421	,008
Error	128,244	330	,389			
Total	3095,898	338				
Corrected Total	217,077	337				

a. R Squared = ,409 (Adjusted R Squared = ,397)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the pretending-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.15. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 15: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for pretending-EQNT



Although, the graph shows that for each category there is an increase with high anxiety level, the increase level for categories is not significantly changing. It can also be predicted from the parallel lines for high and low anxiety.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H2b “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is not supported.

4.2.9.4.3 Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and deceiving-EQNT

Table 4.32 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting deceiving-EQNT during a negotiation,

$F = 77,998$, with p -value = .000, $\eta^2 = 0.415$ and $F = 35,711$, with p -value = .000, $\eta^2 = 0.098$, respectively. The moderating affect of the anxiety for lying-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 5,245$, with p -value = .002, $\eta^2 = 0.046$.

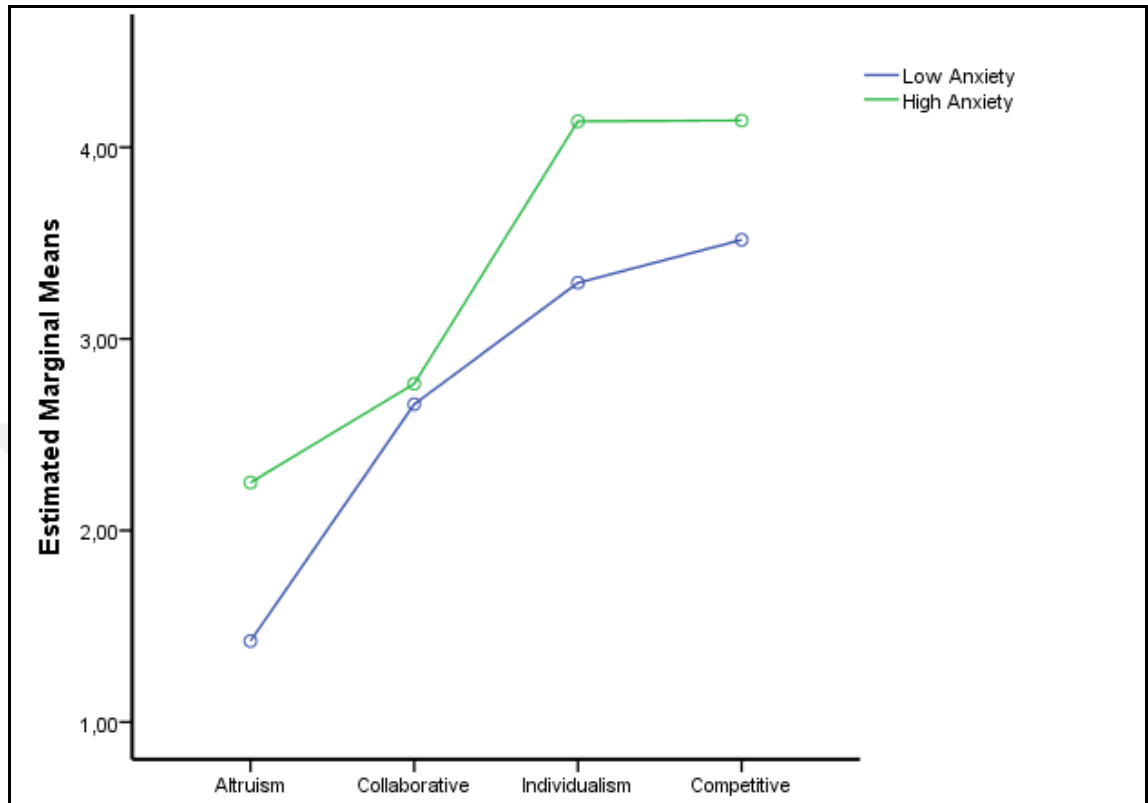
Table 4. 32: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT

Dependent Variable: Deception						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	129,619 ^a	7	18,517	42,041	,000	,471
Intercept	1596,942	1	1596,942	3625,667	,000	,917
SVO	103,064	3	34,355	77,998	,000	,415
Anxiety	15,729	1	15,729	35,711	,000	,098
SVO * Anxiety	6,931	3	2,310	5,245	,002	,046
Error	145,350	330	,440			
Total	3452,444	338				
Corrected Total	274,969	337				

a. R Squared = ,471 (Adjusted R Squared = ,460)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the deceiving-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.16. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category. Although, the graph shows that for each category there is an increase with high anxiety level, the increase level for different categories are different from each other.

Figure 4. 16: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for deceiving-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.16, the difference of high and low anxiety individuals with respect to their willingness to use deceiving-EQNT, is different for different social value orientation groups. The difference in between collaborative orientation with altruism, individualism and competitive orientations are significantly moderated by anxiety while the difference in between individualism and competitive orientation is nearly parallel therefore it can be said that there is no moderation affect with anxiety.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H2e “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is partially supported.

4.2.9.4.4 Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and lying-EQNT

Table 4.33 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and anxiety has a significant impact for selecting lying-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 48,536$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.306$ and $F = 38,365$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.104$, respectively. The moderating affect of the anxiety for lying-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is not found as statistically significant, $F = ,941$, with $p\text{-value} = .421$, $\eta^2 = 0.008$.

Table 4. 33: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of anxiety between social value orientation and Lying-EQNT

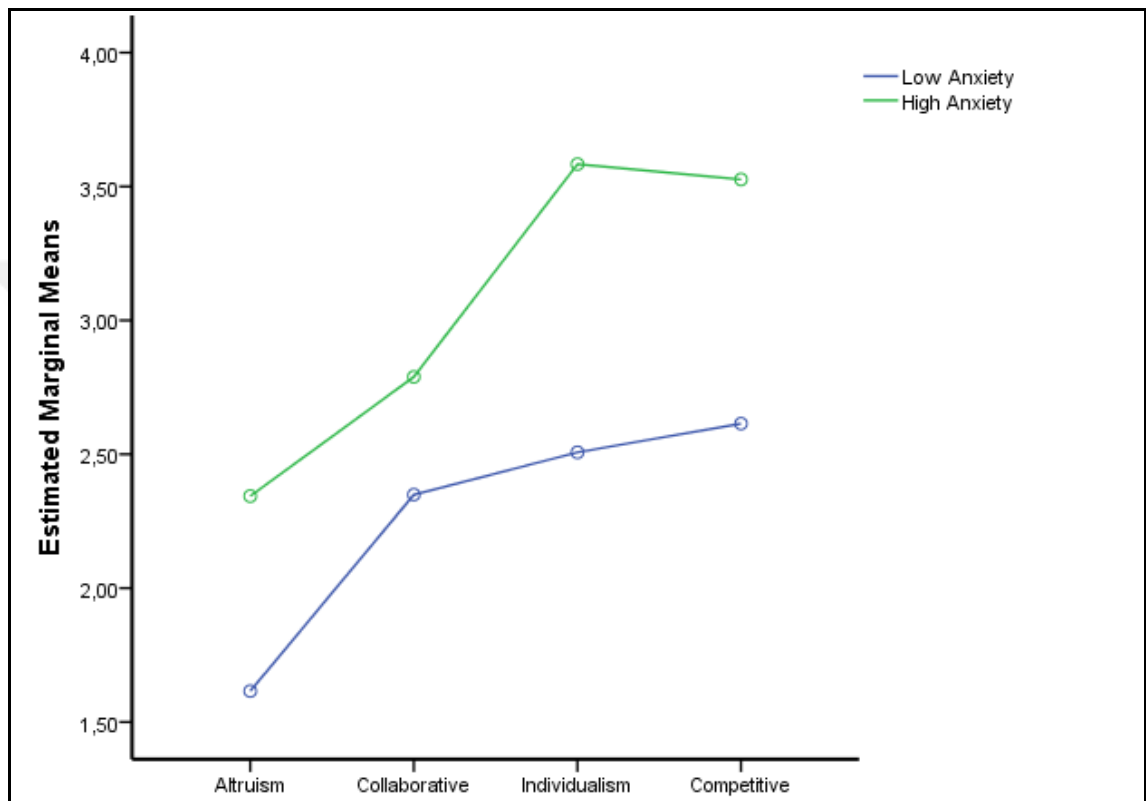
Dependent Variable: Lie						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	64,907 ^a	7	9,272	22,943	,000	,327
Intercept	1242,174	1	1242,174	3073,518	,000	,903
SVO	27,268	3	9,089	22,490	,000	,170
Anxiety	27,200	1	27,200	67,302	,000	,169
SVO * Anxiety	4,860	3	1,620	4,008	,008	,035
Error	133,371	330	,404			
Total	2479,000	338				
Corrected Total	198,278	337				

a. R Squared = ,327 (Adjusted R Squared = ,313)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the lying-EQNT usage change based on anxiety level of an individual is presented in figure 4.17. The

moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on anxiety for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 17: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for lying-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.17, the difference of high and low anxiety individuals with respect to their willingness to use deceiving-EQNT, is different for different social value orientation groups.

The difference in between collaborative orientation with individualist and competitive orientations are significantly moderated by anxiety while the difference in between individualism and competitive orientation is nearly parallel therefore it can be said that there is no moderation affect with anxiety. In addition, anxiety weakens the relation for the difference between altruism and collaborative orientation for deception therefore this relation is also not considered as expected moderation.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H2d “Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual’s social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation” is partially supported.

4.2.9.4.5 Moderating effect of gain/loss framing between prosocials/proself orientation and EQNT

Table 4.34 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of pretending-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the prosocial/proself orientation and gain/loss framing has a significant impact for selecting pretending-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 138,685$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.293$ and $F = 85,418$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.204$, respectively. The moderating affect of the gain/loss framing for pretending-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 11,863$, with $p\text{-value} = .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.034$.

Table 4. 34: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and pretending-EQNT

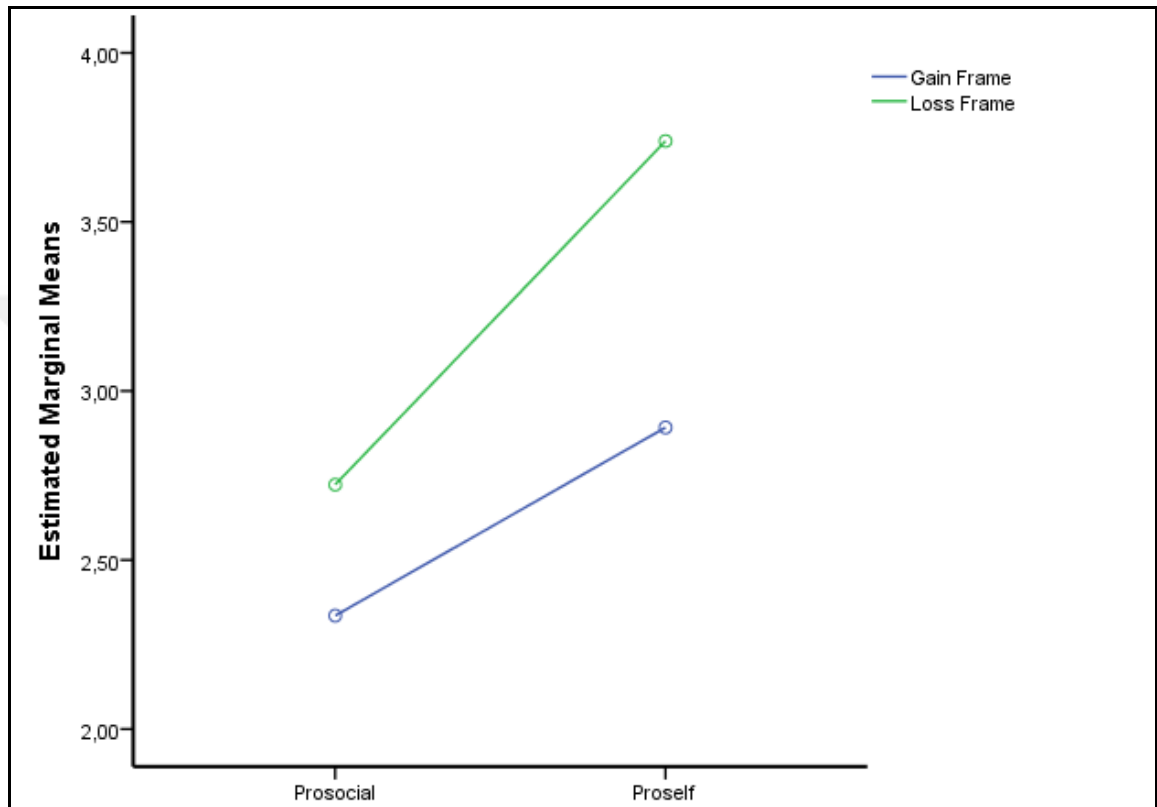
Dependent Variable: Pretending						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta
Corrected Model	91,492 ^a	3	30,497	81,110	,000	,421
Intercept	2879,716	1	2879,716	7658,761	,000	,958
Prosocial / Proself	52,146	1	52,146	138,685	,000	,293
Gain/Loss Framing	32,117	1	32,117	85,418	,000	,204
Interaction	4,460	1	4,460	11,863	,001	,034
Error	125,585	334	,376			
Total	3095,898	338				
Corrected Total	217,077	337				

a. R Squared = ,421 (Adjusted R Squared = ,416)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the pretending-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in

figure 4.18. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss framing for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 18: Comparison of Marginal Means for Pretending-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.18, the difference of gain and loss framing of situation with respect to individual’s willingness to use pretending-EQNT, is different for different proself and prosocial orientation groups. Therefore, it can be said that there is a moderating effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientation and pretending-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H3a “Gain/Loss framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.” is supported.

Table 4.35 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of deceiving-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and gain/loss framing have both a significant impact for

selecting deceiving-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 181,131$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.352$ and $F = 50,616$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.132$, respectively. The moderating affect of the gain/loss framing for deceiving-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 10,752$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.031$.

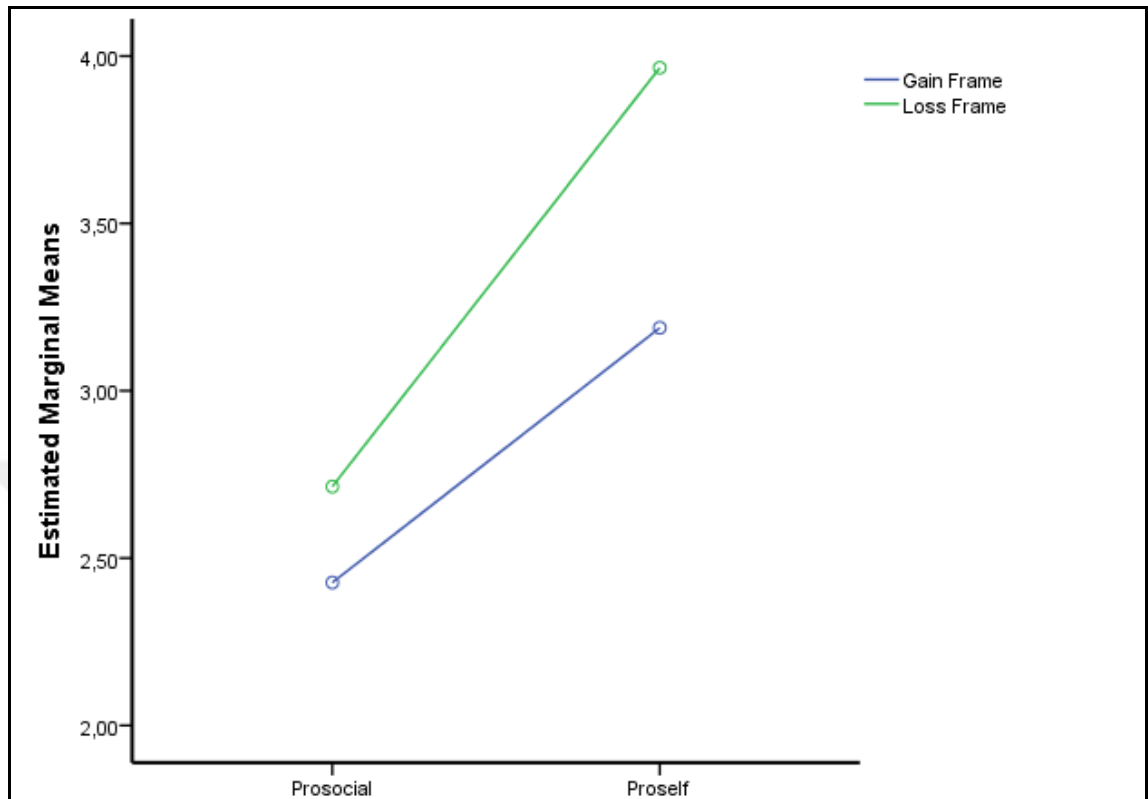
Table 4. 35: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and deceiving-EQNT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	117,578 ^a	3	39,193	83,170	,000	,428
Intercept	3185,279	1	3185,279	6759,482	,000	,953
Prosocial / Proself	85,354	1	85,354	181,131	,000	,352
Gain/Loss Framing	23,852	1	23,852	50,616	,000	,132
Interaction	5,067	1	5,067	10,752	,001	,031
Error	157,391	334	,471			
Total	3452,444	338				
Corrected Total	274,969	337				

a. R Squared = ,428 (Adjusted R Squared = ,422)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the deceiving-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in figure 4.19. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss framing for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 19: Comparison of marginal means for deceiving-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.19, the difference of gain and loss framing of situation with respect to individual's willingness to use deceiving-EQNT, is different for different proself and prosocial orientation groups. Therefore, it can be said that there is a moderating effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientation and deceiving-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H3b "Gain/Loss framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation." is supported.

Table 4.36 shows the univariate analysis between the prosocials/proself orientation groupings and the usage of lying-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, prosocials/proself orientation and gain/loss framing have both a significant impact for selecting lying-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 35,603$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.096$ and $F = 62,275$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.157$, respectively. The moderating affect of

the gain/loss framing for lying-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 6,243$, with $p\text{-value} = .013$, $\eta^2 = 0.018$.

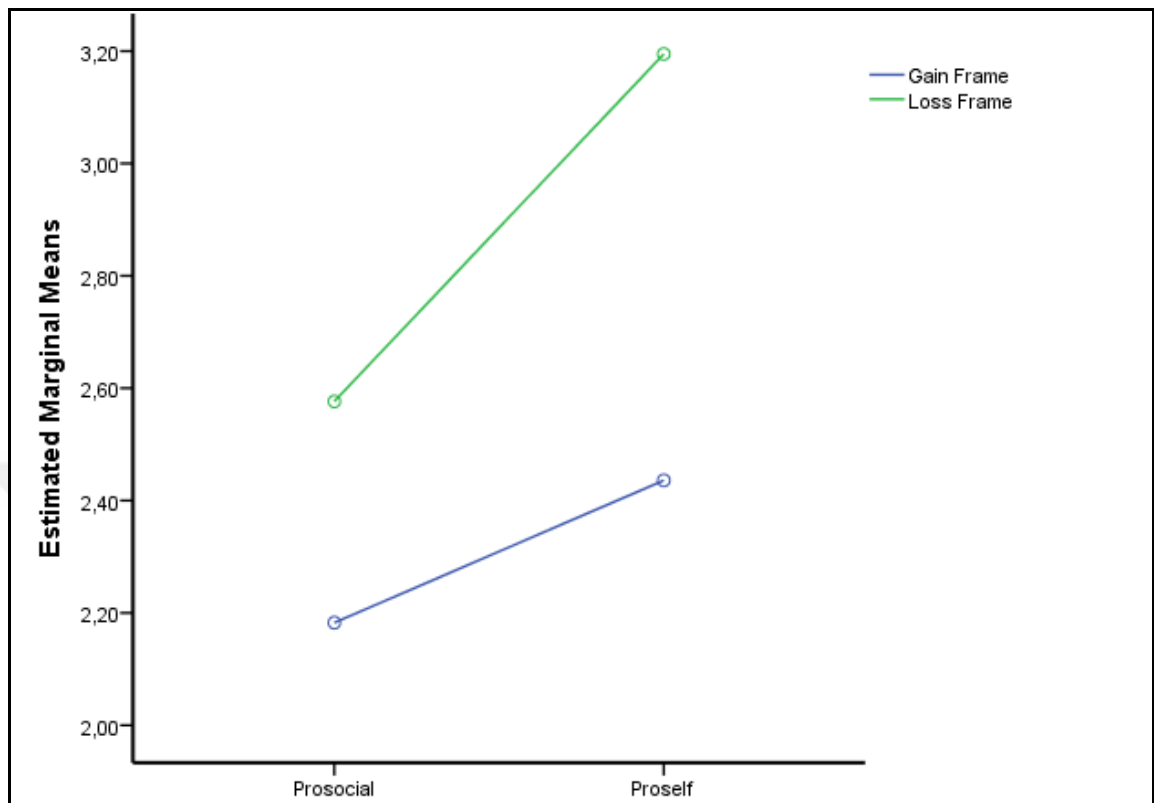
Table 4. 36: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientations and lying-EQNT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	48,075 ^a	3	16,025	35,634	,000	,242
Intercept	2274,992	1	2274,992	5058,800	,000	,938
Prosocial / Proself	16,011	1	16,011	35,603	,000	,096
Gain/Loss Framing	28,006	1	28,006	62,275	,000	,157
Interaction	2,807	1	2,807	6,243	,013	,018
Error	150,203	334	,450			
Total	2479,000	338				
Corrected Total	198,278	337				

a. R Squared = ,242 (Adjusted R Squared = ,236)

A visual depiction of the means across prosocial/proself orientation category for the lying-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in figure 4.20. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss framing for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 20: Comparison of marginal means for lying-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.20, the difference of gain and loss framing of a situation with respect to individual's willingness to use lying-EQNT, is different for different proself and prosocial orientation groups. Therefore, it can be said that there is a moderating effect of gain/loss framing between proself/prosocial orientation and lying-EQNT. Thus, hypothesis H3c "Gain/Loss framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation." is supported.

4.2.9.4.6 Moderating effect of gain/loss framing between SVO and pretending-EQNT

Table 4.37 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and gain/loss framing have both a significant impact for selecting pretending-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 60,892$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.356$ and

$F = 56,163$, with p -value = .000, $\eta^2 = 0.145$, respectively. The moderating affect of the gain/loss framing for pretending-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 3,041$, with p -value = .029, $\eta^2 = 0.027$.

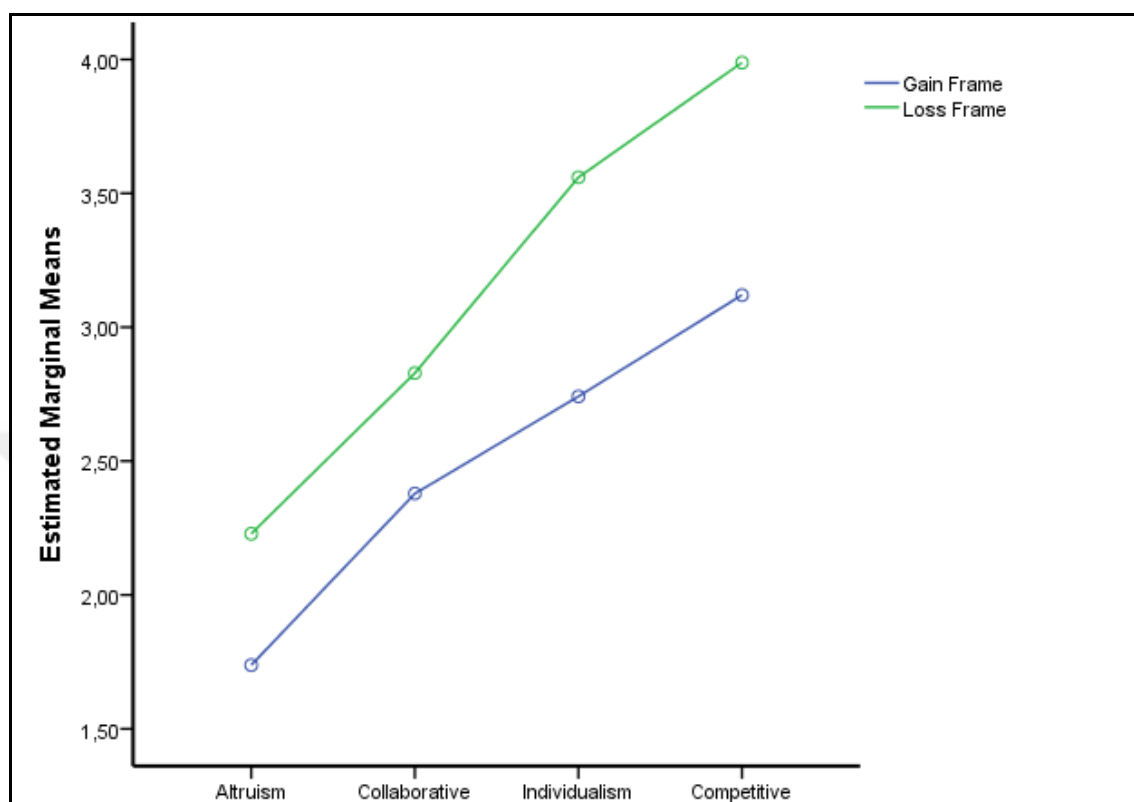
Table 4. 37: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and pretending-EQNT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	104,743 ^a	7	14,963	43,957	,000	,483
Intercept	1412,855	1	1412,855	4150,474	,000	,926
SVO	62,185	3	20,728	60,892	,000	,356
Gain/Loss Framing	19,118	1	19,118	56,163	,000	,145
Interaction	3,106	3	1,035	3,041	,029	,027
Error	112,335	330	,340			
Total	3095,898	338				
Corrected Total	217,077	337				

a. R Squared = ,483 (Adjusted R Squared = ,472)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the pretending-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in figure 4.21. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss frame for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 21: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for pretending-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.21, the difference of gain and loss framing of a situation with respect to individual's willingness to use pretending-EQNT, is different for different social value orientation groups. The difference in between collaborative orientation with individualist and competitive orientations are significantly moderated by gain/loss framing while the difference in between individualism and competitive orientation is nearly parallel therefore it can be said that there is no moderation affect with gain/loss framing. The same situation exists between altruism and collaborative orientation therefore no moderation affect considered.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H3d "Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation" is partially supported.

4.2.9.4.7 Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and deceiving-EQNT

Table 4.38 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and gain/loss framing have both a significant impact for selecting deceiving-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 60,892$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.356$ and $F = 56,163$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.145$, respectively. The moderating affect of the gain/loss framing for deceiving-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 3,041$, with $p\text{-value} = .029$, $\eta^2 = 0.027$.

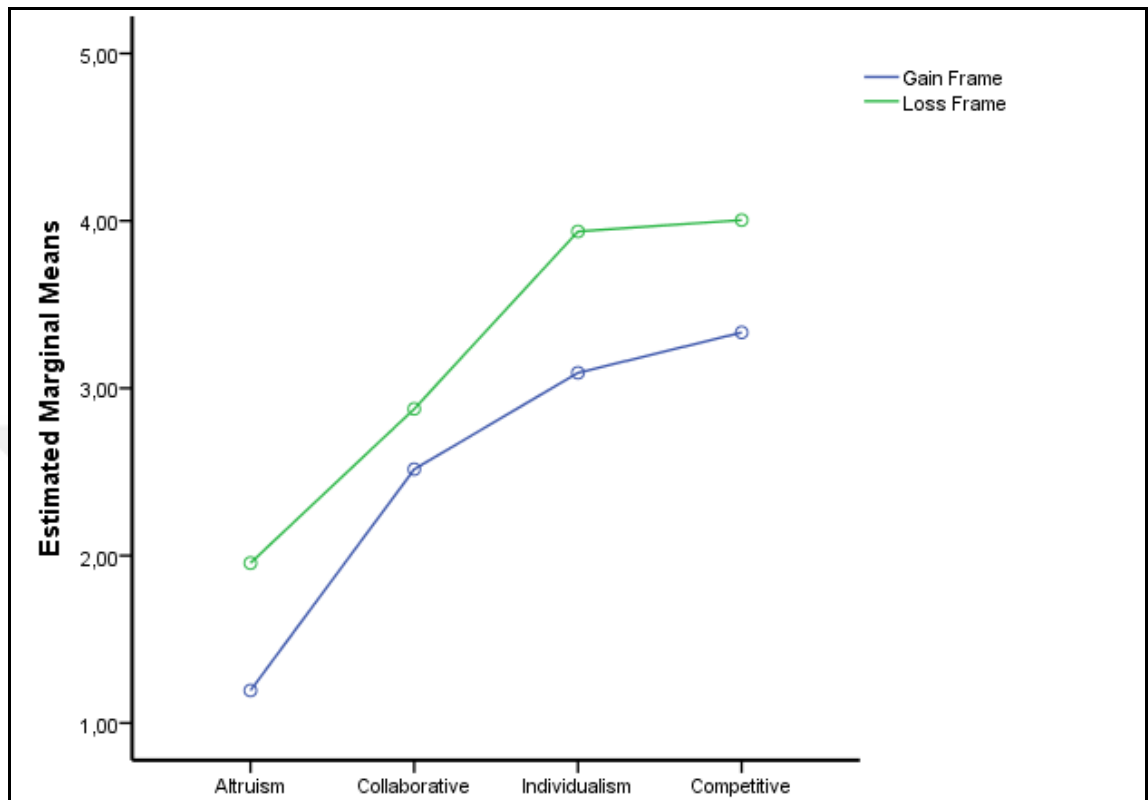
Table 4. 38: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and deceiving-EQNT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	139,004 ^a	7	19,858	48,197	,000	,506
Intercept	1453,894	1	1453,894	3528,741	,000	,914
SVO	102,591	3	34,197	83,000	,000	,430
Gain/Loss Framing	19,264	1	19,264	46,755	,000	,124
Interaction	3,808	3	1,269	3,081	,028	,027
Error	135,965	330	,412			
Total	3452,444	338				
Corrected Total	274,969	337				

a. R Squared = ,506 (Adjusted R Squared = ,495)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the deceiving-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in figure 4.22. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss frame for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 22: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for deceiving-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.22, the difference of gain and loss framing of a situation with respect to individual's willingness to use deceiving-EQNT, is different for different social value orientation groups. The difference in between collaborative orientation with individualist and competitive orientations are significantly moderated by gain/loss framing while the difference in between individualism and competitive orientation is nearly parallel therefore it can be said that there is no moderation affect with gain/loss framing. Although there is a significant difference between altruism and Collaborative, the change of difference is decreasing with loss frame.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H3e "Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation" is partially supported.

4.2.9.4.8 Moderating effect of anxiety between SVO and lying-EQNT

Table 4.39 shows the univariate analysis between the social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT. According to univariate analysis, the social value orientation and gain/loss framing have both a significant impact for selecting lying-EQNT during a negotiation, $F = 19,503$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.151$ and $F = 49,914$, with $p\text{-value} = .000$, $\eta^2 = 0.131$, respectively. The moderating affect of the gain/loss framing for lying-EQNT as shown by interaction effect is also found as statistically significant, $F = 3,246$, with $p\text{-value} = .022$, $\eta^2 = 0.029$.

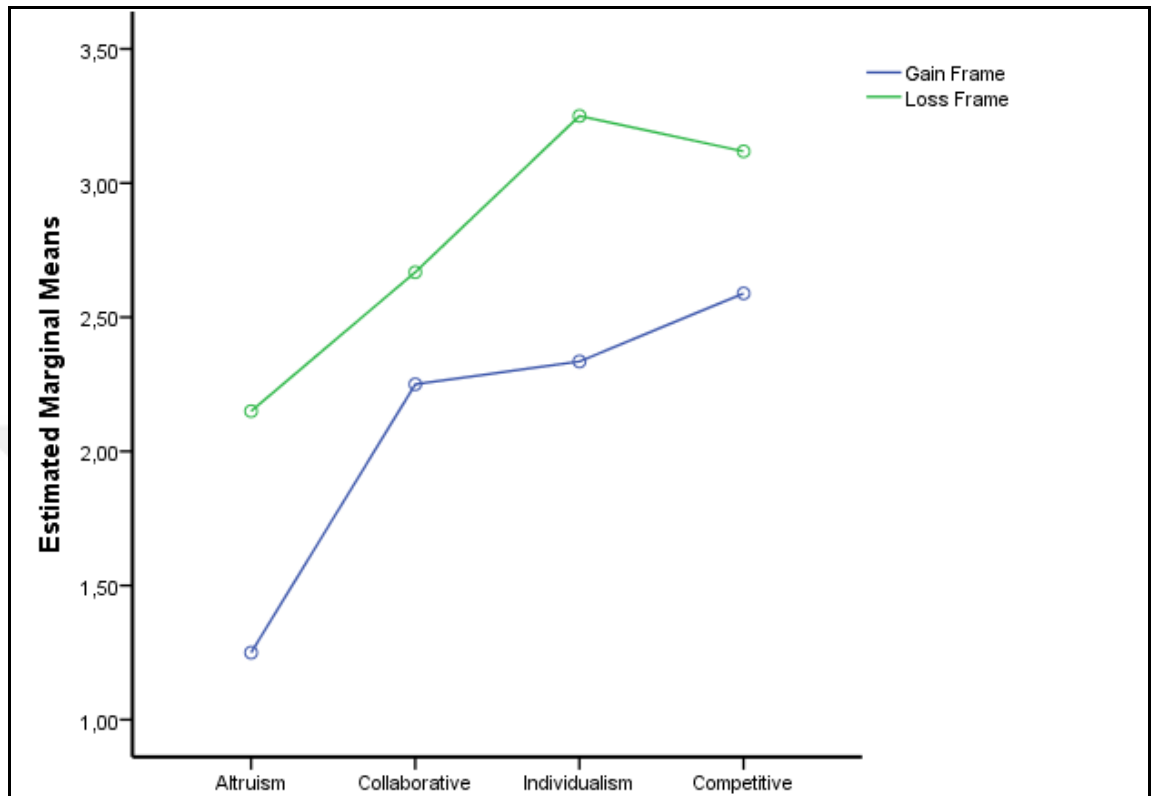
Table 4. 39: Anova-univariate test for the moderation effect of gain/loss framing between social value orientation and lying-EQNT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	58,549 ^a	7	8,364	19,754	,000	,295
Intercept	1065,272	1	1065,272	2515,867	,000	,884
SVO	24,774	3	8,258	19,503	,000	,151
Gain/Loss Framing	21,135	1	21,135	49,914	,000	,131
Interaction	4,123	3	1,374	3,246	,022	,029
Error	139,729	330	,423			
Total	2479,000	338				
Corrected Total	198,278	337				

a. R Squared = ,295 (Adjusted R Squared = ,280)

A visual depiction of the means across social value orientation for the lying-EQNT usage change based on gain/loss framing of a situation is presented in figure 4.23. The moderating effect represented visually by the difference of means change based on gain/loss frame for each sub-category.

Figure 4. 23: Comparison of marginal means between SVO categories for lying-EQNT



As seen in figure 4.23, the difference of gain and loss framing of a situation with respect to individual's willingness to use lying-EQNT, is different for different social value orientation groups. The difference in between collaborative orientation with individualist and altruism orientations are significantly moderated by gain/loss framing while the difference in between collaborative and competitive orientation is nearly same therefore it can be said that there is no moderation affect with gain/loss framing. The same situation exists between altruism and individualism orientations.

Based on the above results, hypothesis H3f "Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation" is partially supported.

All the results of hypotheses testing are summarized in the below list Table 4.40. In total, 9 of 18 hypotheses are supported, 7 of 18 hypothesis are partly supported. The findings are discussed in the next section in details.

Table 4. 40: Results of hypothesis testing

H1a	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that pretending-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.	Supported
H1b	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that deceiving-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.	Supported
H1c	There is a significant difference between proself and prosocials orientation such a way that lying-EQNT is higher for proself orientations compared to prosocial orientations.	Supported
H1d	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of pretending-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.	Supported
H1e	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of deceiving-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.	Partially Supported
H1f	There is a significant relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT usage; such that the tendency of lying-EQNT usage is increasing for each category respectively altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive orientation.	Partially Supported
H2a	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.	Not Supported
H2b	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.	Supported
H2c	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety	Supported

	level strengthens this relation.	
H2d	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.	Not Supported
H2e	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.	Partially Supported
H2f	Anxiety level of an individual moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that high anxiety level strengthens this relation.	Partially Supported
H3a	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Supported
H3b	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Supported
H3c	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between proself and prosocials orientation for the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Supported
H3d	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of pretending-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Partially Supported
H3e	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of deceiving-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Partially Supported
H3f	Gain/Loss Framing of a situation moderates the relation between individual's social value orientation and the usage of lying-EQNT; such that loss framing of a situation strengthens this relation.	Partially Supported

In this chapter, statistical outputs of the survey results and findings are presented. Next chapter is the final section of the study, where findings of the study are discussed. Theoretical contributions, practical implications, opportunities for future research and limitations of this study are also presented.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this ultimate chapter, integrated discussions of the major findings about the researched hypotheses and answers to the research questions are presented. Contributions to the literature, research limitations, practical implications and avenues for future research are also discussed in this chapter.

5.1 DISCUSSION

Changing environment and development of moral responsibilities for organizations, shapes today's business environment. This dynamic environment provides variety of agreement such as mergers and acquisitions and also brings competition. All these agreements and decisions are affected by the factors of individual characteristics, emotions, perceptions and social motives.

In order to gain advantage in such dynamic market, to negotiate is not avoidable during business deals. Individual decisions by considering their company strategies depends on various factors. When the morality of these strategies considered, these can be seen as a problematic issue since the consideration of a situation or a strategy as an ethical or not can vary from person to person. In business environment, individuals with different social motives and moral perspectives have to work together in same projects or negotiate during a business agreement. These differences creates different paths, strategies and at the end different outcomes from a negotiation as an agreement or disagreements. Based on the motive, strategy choice may differ. Their emotions, such as anxiety level of an individual, and interpretation of the situation also contributes to determine which strategy they adopt. Therefore, decision making during a negotiation might lead to a different results due to seeing a situation from a different perspectives, morality of a selected strategy, social motives and anxiety level of an individual. Thus, determining the social value orientation of individuals which have an influence on selecting ethically questionable negotiation tactics was the main question of this study.

Comparison of the decision making for different social motives under the effect of anxiety as a personal factor and gain/loss framing as a situation factor was another question for the research.

As mentioned in the literature review, there are various factors affecting decision making behavior as an individual and situational. In this study, it is aimed to find out the impact of social value orientation organizational climate with altruism, collaborative, individualism, and competitive on selection of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. Besides, direct effect of anxiety and the gain/loss framing of the situation on EQNT and their moderator effects on the relation between social value orientation and EQNT are tried to be figured out. These variables were selected since they were seen to stimulate both individual and situational factors during a negotiation environment that can create a benefit for an individual by increasing the awareness of predefined situation, perception of the morality for selected strategies, and realization of how self anxiety level influences the person's decision making during a business deal.

Social value orientation (SVO) has been one of the key predictor in decision making; where it leads to different approaches and decisions during a conflict situation (Van Lange et al. 2013; De Dreu and Boles 1998). In addition, social responsibility of an individual and the helping behavior to others also related with the social value orientation (Van Lange et al. 2007; De Cremer and Van Lange 2001). Thus, SVO is determinant to be the independent variable which have been assumed to affect the selection of ethically questionable tactics during a negotiation.

Number of variables that affect the decision making during a business negotiation may be different, since those parameters are usually individual and situational factor. Framing of a situation creates a different perspectives for the same situation which also influences employee's risk taking behavior and decision making process (Fagley and Miller 1997; Wang 1996; Marteau 1989). Therefore, gain/loss framing is considered as one of the moderating variable in this study. Anxiety level of an individual presents us the individual factor as an emotional trait, which effects individuals both physically and

emotionally. In this study, emotional side of a trait anxiety is considered that leads to biases, perception of a situation, and stress level that are affecting the selection of EQNT process (Richards et al. 2002).

There are 18 hypotheses in this study, where 6 of them are questioning the direct relationships between dependent and independent variables. From these 6 hypotheses 4 of them are confirmed and 2 of them are partially confirmed, and for all of them findings are created. There are 12 hypothesis who are questioning the moderation effect. From these 12, 5 of them are confirmed, 5 of them are partially confirmed and 2 of the are rejected. Total sixteen hypotheses are either partially or fully confirmed in this study.

In the next section, integrated discussions of the major findings related to social value orientation and ethically questionable negotiation tactics and results of the developed hypotheses are presented consistently with previous studies.

5.1.1 The Relationship of Prosocial/Proself Groups on EQNT

In this section, integrated discussions of the major findings related to prosocials/proself orientation, EQNT and results of the developed hypotheses are presented consistently with previous studies.

Social value orientation categories are group mainly in two as prosocials and proself orientations. As stated in the literature review, prosocial orientations in this study are altruism and collaborative, proself orientations are considered as individualism and competitive (Van Lange et al. 1997). One of the main differences of proself and prosocials orientations is that the approach style during a negotiation or an agreement. Prosocials are tend to believe equality, therefore they aim for more mutual gains, while proself orientation try to maximize own gain or the difference. During a business activities, social motive of an individual modifies the strategy selection (Van Kleef and

Van Lange 2008) that might lead to use misrepresentation, deception and lie during a negotiation process (Erkus and Banai 2010).

Relying on recent studies about social motives (Steinel 2015; Okeke and Godlonton 2014; Gaspar and Schweitzer 2013; Steinel and De Dreu 2004), it is expected that prosocial and proself orientations are differentiate on using ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

In the present study, social value orientation is examined as a main construct with its four categories (altruism, collaborative, individualism, competitive) and two-sub groups as prosocials and proself. With adequate convergent and discriminant validity scores, the difference between proself and prosocials groups are handled as one construct.

Based on the interdependence theory and relying on recent studies in the literature about social value orientation and ethically questionable negotiation tactics, it is expected that proself oriented individuals tendency to use EQNT is higher than prosocials orientated individuals.

According to the literature, self interest of an individual sometimes lead to using tempting opportunities during a negotiation such as misrepresentation, bluffing, falsification named as white lies, deception and even lying named as selfish black lies (Erat and Gneezy 2012). During a negotiation, individuals evaluate the acceptable level of morality for possible ethically ambiguous actions differently by considering the acceptable level and degree of an action, if they would like to have win-win situation to create a long lasting relationship or focus on their own target to accomplish a goal. The degree of such ambiguous tactics are evaluated starting from white lies such as pretending, to selfish black lies such as lying (Erkus and Banai 2010). Therefore, it is considered to morally accept pretending tactics, when compared to use direct lies. The social motives during a negotiation process affect the decision making making process that either modifies the tolerances or ignore the moral sensitivity to use ambiguous strategies (Kronzon and Darley 1999).

Consistent with the previous studies, the results of this research demonstrate that the hypothesized effect of proself and prosocial orientations on the usage of ethically questionable tactics are supported for each level of ambiguous tactics as pretending, deceiving and lying. This study shows a significant effect that shows proself orientated individuals have more tendency to use pretending, deceiving and lying tactics than prosocial oriented individuals. It can be concluded that, during a negotiation process proselfs are considering such ethically ambiguous tactics more than prosocials.

5.1.2 The Relationship of Altruism and Collaborative Value Orientation on EQNT

Altruism and collaborative orientations are two types of prosocial-social value orientation. Altruism can be described as an internal motivation for the helping behaviour without expecting any benefits for themselves in return (Macaulay and Berkowitz 1970). Even though in societies, number of individuals with altruistic motivation assumed much less than collaborative, individualistic and competitive orientations, the tendency of caring others welfare more than self cannot be neglected during a business deals (Sawyer 1966). Collaborative or co-operation motivation on the other hand tries to find a way to maximize both self and other's welfare with the assumption of mutual gain would be higher than individual gains.

During a business negotiations, although employees are expected to protect company rights, it does not mean that the only way for achievement is taking an unethical decisions. Both altruistic and collaborative individuals are sensitive to consider social norms and honesty during a business deal that has a critical important role in long term business relations (Balliet et al. 2009). In addition to that, in case there is a business dilemma where individuals have to prefer morality over welfare, both orientations would prefer morality (Liebrand et al. 1986).

The preference of morality does not totally eliminates the usage of questionable negotiation tactics especially for collaborative individuals (Steinel 2015). The chance of this kind of tendency based on the main difference between two orientations as intrinsic

motivation of the welfare expectation during a business deal. Due to this motivation, in case cooperative individual cannot able to find a way to achieve an outcome for a mutual benefit, the chance to use ethically ambiguous tactics can increase with the motivation of reaching for an agreement. Another possibility for cooperators to use ambiguous tactics, is a reward or incentive from their company based on the collective value of a negotiated outcome in order to establish long term relationship (Steinel 2015). Based on the principle of seeking welfare of others (English 1958), this tendency is not expected from altruistic individuals.

Therefore, our hypothesis claims that altruistic when compared to collaborative individuals have very little motivation or no tendency to use such ethically questionable negotiation tactics during a business deal even in a situation where incurring some personal cost for taking this action (Krebs 1982; Wispe 1978).

In the present study the difference between altruistic and collaborative orientation for the usage of ethically questionable tactics during a business negotiation is examined. Consistent with the previous studies, the results of this research demonstrate that the hypothesized effect of altruistic and collaborative orientations on the usage of ethically questionable tactics are supported for each level of ambiguous tactics as pretending, deceiving and lying. This study shows a significant effect that shows collaborative orientated individuals have more tendency to use pretending, deceiving and lying tactics than altruistic oriented individuals.

5.1.3 The Relationship of Individualism and Competitive Value Orientation on EQNT

Individualism and competitive orientations are two types of proself-social value orientation. Individualism can be described as individual rationality where collaboration make no sense. Main motivation is to yield greater outcome for oneself. Therefore, during a business deal, first priority is to maximize own outcome by less or not considering any value creation by collaboration. The main aim for individualists is looking for the best way to serve their own targets irrespective of others' choices and

situation. Therefore, it can be regarded as an egocentric motivation (Van Lange and Kuhlman 1994). On the other hand, competitors are willing to beat their counter parts to satisfy themselves. The most rational strategies can be classified by considering the advantage generation over the third party during a business deal. Therefore, for competitors relative advantage is the motivation (McClintock and Liebrand 1988).

During a business negotiation, both individualist and competitive oriented individual asks for a higher demands and expect the similar way of approaching competitive strategies from other party. They grade negotiation strategies in terms of power (De Dreu and Van Lange 1995; Liebrand et al. 1986). Although for both orientations have the tendency of using competitive strategies, in case it is observed that the cooperation is the best way to serve self-interest, individualists may also adopt these strategies while competitive oriented individuals not (De Dreu and Van Lange 1995). This difference also occurs while evaluating the rationality, morality and power of the decision during a negotiation. Individualists believe that the rational decisions can be defined as ones which create more self benefit. Therefore, the judgement of morality for a decision should also needs to be decided on the basis of the individual gain that means the more outcome for self makes the decision more powerful, rational and moral (Joireman et al. 2003). On the other hand, for competitors decision which brings relative gain is more rational than increasing only own profit. They consider the nature of negotiation is about wining and losing so the morality of a decision should be made based on this idea (Reitz et al. 1998). Therefore, usage of basic tactics which we assume here as the lowest grade ethically questionable tactics, is a standart way of deal making during a negotiation (Adler 2007). As a result in most cases they consider ethically questionable negotiation tactics as “Sweet little lies” as described by Olekans et al. (2014).

Therefore, our hypothesis claims that competitiveness when compared to individualistics have higher motivation to use such ethically questionable negotiation tactics during a business deal with the aim of maximizing the relative gain.

In the present study the difference between individualistic and competitive orientation for the usage of ethically questionable tactics during a business negotiation is examined. Partly consistent with the previous studies, the results of this research demonstrate that the difference between individualism and competition for the usage of ethically questionable tactics is only supported for the pretending-EQNT which is accepted as the lowest grade when compared to deception and lie. This study does not show significant difference for two orientation for the usage of deception and lie. Higher grade tactics might decrease the degree of different orientations. Hence, while pretending differs for competitors and individualists, considering strategies such as deception and lie is not affected. Higher grade ethically questionable tactics should be researched in more detail by considering social orientations in future studies.

5.1.4 Moderator Effect of Trait Anxiety Between the Relationship of SVO Categories on EQNT

Anxiety plays a important role in emotional state of the individuals by leading physical, emotional and economic problems (Fricchione 2004). Trait anxiety is described as a constant experience with the feelings of feel upset, uncomfortable, and tense. Consequences can be either physical and/or emotional. Physical effects are directly related with daily work-related topics. Employees with high anxiety with physical problems may have occupational accidents, absenteeism and presenteeism (Swanson et al. 2011). Emotional consequences include change of perceptions, having worried thoughts, sadness and stress which might results personal insecurities (Lopez and Rice 2006; Cole 2001).

Individuals with high anxiety expected to lose their focus on important works in business. In addition, employees with high level of anxiety tend to view their work environment and negotiation situations in a more negative manner (Hartley and Phelps 2012). High anxiety can trigger negative feelings and anger which creates a bias during a business deal (Koizumi et al. 2011). During a negotiation, high anxiety increases negative emotions which triggers competition (Olekalns and Smith 2009), and increases self-interest (Grecucci et al. 2013) while low anxiety facilitates a more positive outlook

on life and increased collaboration that carries over to views of their work environments. This positivity brings a motivation to the individual to search for more mutual benefit during a business deal (Järvenoja and Järvelä 2013).

The moral evaluation of a situation or a decision during a business deal generally neglected due to the insecurities and focus shift on more self centered behaviors (Lopez and Rice 2006; Cole 2001). The self-centered approach affecting the ability to understand the potential consequences of a decision with respect to business relations (Catherine and Elizabeth 2012). Therefore, employee might become less caring about the moral standards and guidelines published by the companies (Shalvi et al. 2012). This ignorance creates ethical sinkholes (Bazerman and Tenbrunsel 2012) for the business environment.

Individuals with different social value orientations, with high anxiety, tend to ignore or prioritize self interest when faced a moral dilemma. Therefore, it is suggested that, anxiety level of employees moderates the impact of social value orientation on the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. People who have lower anxiety are more willing to apply moral principles during a business negotiation situation while high anxiety lowers the prioritizing moral guidance while making a decision.

Relying on recent studies in the literature about anxiety, it is expected that the level of anxiety moderates the relationship between social value orientation and the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

In this study, social value orientation is analyzed as core construct that consists of four dimensions defined in previous chapters. With adequate convergent and discriminant validity scores, anxiety is handled as one construct. Partially consistent findings appeared in terms of moderator interaction of Anxiety. The findings of this research indicate that the hypothesized moderator effect of anxiety between prosocials and proself orientation groups and their usage of deception and lie tactics is supported. The lowest rank of ethically questionable tactics pretending usage remained unchanged

therefore this moderation affect is not significant and suggested hypothesis is not supported. Similarly, moderator effect of anxiety between social value categories and pretending-EQNT usage is not supported as well.

The higher rank-EQNT, deception and lie is further researched for SVO categories. The results demonstrate that the moderation effect of anxiety for the difference between altruism and collaboration orientations is supported for the usage of lie and deception tactics. In addition, there is a significant moderation affect of anxiety for the difference between collaborative and proself orientations for the usage of lie and deceptive tactics. On the other hand, moderator effect of anxiety, for the difference between individualism and competitive orientations is not supported.

5.1.5 Moderator Effect of Gain/Loss Framing Between the Relationship of SVO Categories on EQNT

Perception is an important factor for nearly every business case. Some of the effects are research about on decision making, changing customer behavior and hiring an employee. (De Dreu and Mc Cusker 1997). This research is concerned with the framing affect of a situation which has a power to change the perception of the individuals. Framing affect is based on the prospect theory, which deals with the risk preferences of the individuals (Carnevale 2008)

While the negotiation outcomes influenced by the social value orientation (Pruitt and Lewis 1975), the perception of a situation is also an important factor for the individual behavior and outcome of a negotiation (Olekans et al. 1996). During a business negotiation, the decisions are evaluated based on the framing and evaluation of a situation (Kahneman and Tversky 1979). Gain/Loss framing defines the risk perception and attitudes of individuals towards the framed situation. This behavior change mainly happens in the risk behavior and self-serving bias (Kern and Chugh 2009), where loss framing changes cognitive process of an individual by accepting more riskier conditions, become more competitive and make fewer concessions during a negotiation (De Dreu and Mc Cusker 1997). Business deals such as mergers and acquisitions

include different tactics, even the most basic ones such as gain/loss framing. Insider information behavior is changing with the perception of a situation as gain and loss framed (Kern and Chugh 2009).

Therefore, it is estimated that same situations with different frames create a perception which changes the behavior of usage of ethically questionable tactics. Individuals with different social value orientations, when faced with loss framed situation, tend to set higher aspirations, and make risky choices which prevents their consideration of moral choices. Therefore, it is suggested that, gain/loss framing of the situation moderates the impact of social value orientation on the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. Employees who face gain framed situation are more willing to apply moral principles during a business negotiation situation when compared to loss framed situations.

Relying on recent studies in the literature about anxiety, it is expected that the gain/loss framing of a situation moderates the relationship between social value orientation and the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

In this study, social value orientation is analyzed as core construct that consists of four dimensions defined in previous chapters. With adequate convergent and discriminant validity scores, gain/loss framing is handled as one construct. Consistent findings appeared in terms of moderator interaction of Gain/Loss Framing. The findings of this research indicate that the hypothesized moderator effect of gain/loss framing between prosocials and proself orientation groups and their usage of pretending, deception and lie tactics is supported.

The ranks for EQNT is further researched for SVO categories. The results demonstrate that the moderation effect of gain/loss framing exists for the difference between altruism and proself orientations is supported for all ranks. In addition, there is a significant moderation effect of gain/loss framing for the difference between collaborative and proself orientations. On the other hand, moderator effect of gain/loss framing, for the

difference between individualism and competitive orientations for pretending is not supported. While, for individualism and competitive there is a significant difference is found for higher rank-EQNT, the strength of this relation is not increased by the moderation of gain/loss framing. Similarly, for individualism and competitive, although there is a significant difference is found for higher rank-EQNT, the strength of this relation is not increased by the moderation of gain/loss framing.

5.2 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Ethics have a long past but with the globalization changes occurred in last decades there is an increased business collaboration within a complex environment that leads ethical decision making unpredictable and complex process that creates a room for the new research topics (Peleckis 2016).

The research results may have many implications establishing that social value orientation with four categories has a considerable association with the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. These results can also help to extend business ethics literature as it gives new insights by considering social motives, anxiety and framing impact of a situation during a business negotiation. It will contribute to the literature by examining the effects of social value orientation categories as altruism, collaboration, individualism and competitive on employee's decision of ethically negotiation tactics ranked as pretending, deceiving and lying during a negotiation situation, moderated by anxiety of an employee as an individual factor and gain/loss framing as a situational factor.

The tie of individual social motives with their decision in ethically ambiguous tactics is helpful for the efficient strategical approach during business negotiations. This approach further improved with the anxiety level of a person and framing of a situation which contributes the understanding of a personal and situational factors during ethical decision making in business negotiation.

At the beginning, the different usage for all 3 ranks of ethically questionable tactics (pretending, deceiving and lying) is observed for proself and prosocial groups. As expected, proself motivated individuals used more ambiguous tactics than prosocial individuals for a given scenario. This analysis is repeated for four social value orientation categories (altruism, collaborative, individualism and competitive) to understand if there is a difference in between. According to the analysis, social motive changes the behavior of pretending, deceiving and lying usage during a negotiation. This difference is not observed between competitive and individualism for high ranked EQNT, deceiving and lying.

It is clear that increased level of anxiety has a direct effect by negative emotion fostering, bias creation, and decreased collaboration. The study displays the serious role of employees' anxiety affecting usage of ethically questionable tactics directly. Besides, the study demonstrates that anxiety level moderates the relationship between Social value orientation and the usage of ethically questionable tactics during negotiations. This relation is significant for the higher ranks of EQNT such as deceiving and lying. This signifies the importance of awareness for person's anxiety level in executing efficient negotiations by also considering ethical norms. Since anxiety plays an important role for the individual emotions, it can contribute to further research and business environment in organizational behaviour studies.

Perception of a situation is clearly related with individual's cognitive process which results in different decisions. The study displays the serious role of gain/loss framing of a situation that changes the perspective and cognitive process resulting different tendency for the usage of ethically questionable tactics. Besides, the study demonstrates that framing affect moderates the relationship between Social value orientation and the usage of ethically questionable tactics during negotiations. This relation is significant for every rank of EQNT such as pretending, deceiving and lying. This signifies the importance of awareness about the situation in order to generate efficient strategies and prevent neglecting ethical norms by looking at different perspectives. Since gain/loss framing plays an important role for the individual's risk-taking behavior, it can

contribute to further research and business environment in organizational behaviour studies.

It is suggested that this study could provide several opportunities for future research. Since negative and significant is not observed for higher rank EQNT's between individualism and competitiveness, more researches can be conducted to study the relationship between these variables. Although, the moderating effect of anxiety between social value orientation and EQNT is found for the higher ranks, for lowest rank pretending-EQNT there is no moderation is identified. Further research could examine how anxiety affects for lowest rank EQNT which might be even acceptable as an ethical for a group of individuals. Similarly, from situational perspective, gain/loss framing is significantly moderated for SVO and EQNT while this significance between individualism and competitiveness is not found. Therefore, further studies could provide a light from different perspectives. Furthermore, this study could be explored in other cultural and geographical contexts of the world in order to see the different effects of the relationship. Finally, future studies may use different variables or additional variables to discover both individual and situational affects to understand the relationship of social motives and the usage of ethically questionable tactics.

5.3 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This research shows the importance of social motives for the ethical decision making during a business negotiation environment. For a business deals, companies are assigning a spokesperson who is authorized to execute such negotiations. In order to meet the business expectations and company moral codes and principles, these assignments can be done based on social value orientation to have required outcomes and individual motivation for organizations. By considering the market competitiveness and the importance of a moral guideline, the selection can be made by assigning an employee with competitive or collaborative orientation. In case there is not much expectation from a business deal and it will not hurt the business even with some losses, prosocial oriented individuals can be good idea to maintain the expected moral standarts

and business relations. If the negotiation will occur in more competitive market where there is no trust or expectation about a mutual outcome, the choice between individualism and competitive orientation could be wise to have the expected outcome.

From proself orientation group perspective, winning is more important to gain profit as an outcome of a negotiation either caring about self targets – individualism or compete others to maximize the difference – competitive orientation. Since the survival in the market is essential for the organizations, during some business deals tough decisions needs to be made. In many cases, without a proper competition and observing own benefit, it is hard to consider negotiation as a success. Considering the ethical guidelines which employee needs to handle such business deals has a great importance for the organization's welfare. Even, by many competitors, some ethically questionable strategies are considered and used as a while lies, such as pretending, until what extend the usage is beneficial for the organization is a critical question. In addition, based on these strategic decisions of the business, caring or ignoring counterpart losses needs to be considered carefully. Even though, in market the competition seems an ordinary focus for a business, it might jeopardize the business success by losing long term relationship, trust and profit.

From prosocial orientation group perspective, collaboration is more important to gain profit as an outcome of a negotiation either caring about mutual benefits – collaboration or accepting to have some losses to maximize the other's gain – altruism orientation. Collaboration is an important factor to create a solid partnering, common goals, and long-term agreements. The dependent organizations create a strategic deal to survive in their market. These collaboration negotiations need to be handled carefully, without unethical moves which might damage trust, even sometimes agreeing to make a step back to agree having some losses for the long-term welfare.

Moderating affect of anxiety between social motives and ethically questionable negotiation tactics can give new ideas to managers who are supervising their employees. In order to get higher performance and assigning right people for the right job depends on

these characteristics and this is even becoming more important when it comes to negotiation assignment for a business deal. The behavior difference between employees based on this emotional trait, is found directly related with the consideration of ethical decision-making during negotiation process.

Similarly, framing of a situation with gains or losses creates a different perspectives and observation by the employee which is directly related with the business strategy. Business targets for a negotiation outcome defines the approach style in negotiation. In case the ultimate win is expected, for a loss framed situations, the research provides an observation of an increased usage of ethically questionable tactics to reach the desired target. Vice versa, with the same target, in case gain framed, individuals do not feel the necessity to use such tactics. Therefore, how employees interpret the situation moderates the relation between SVO and the decision of ethically questionable tactics usage.

The results of this research can help to extend business ethics literature, as it gives new insights about the antecedents (both individual and situational level) of the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics for the employees during a negotiation who are working in Turkish energy sector. In most researches, some categories of SVO and some categories of unethical tactics was examined from one perspective. Firstly, this study establishes an association between most common social motive categories and their differences with the ranked ethically questionable negotiation tactics by including situational (experimental) and individual factors. Gain/Loss Framing is for the first time being experimentally tested by giving the same scenario from different perspectives in Turkish energy sector. The research suggests that the organizations should become aware how to assign a spokesperson and improve ethical considerations during a negotiation that is contributing a business success both in company level and ethical sustainability level among the employees. This research provides guidelines useful for managers as it increases the awereness of affecting individual and situational factors for the usage of ethically questionable tactics. Organization can train their managers/leaders to increase their awereness about how social motivations with perceptions affects the

risk taking and decision behavior while maintaining business ethical norms and standards.

To summarize, this study recommends us importance of social value orientation for all organizations and demonstrates that individual and situational factors such as anxiety level and gain/loss framing can have impacts on the usage of ethically questionable negotiation tactics. The antecedents examined in this study provide useful framework for investigating employees' motives (SVO) as well as individual emotions (Anxiety) with situational perspectives (framing) as important tools to understand the cognitive process for a decision making during a business negotiation of Turkish energy sector.

It is strongly advised to organizations to take into account all variables of this study for their management strategies to understand their employees social motives better and use this information to integrate their business strategies with their ethical norms and standards. Including social value orientation, anxiety and gain/loss framing, all variables have played important role on decision making process for the ethically questionable negotiation tactics.

5.4 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study is conducted in Turkey with a target population of 338 people who are managers and employees of energy sector three electrical distribution companies, three electrical energy generation companies, three renewable energy companies working in various sectors such as oil&gas, hydro power, wind power, solar power, mining&glass.

Time to collect data is restricted to 5 months and the surveys were applied in the private organizations. All respondents in this study are from energy field in Turkey, therefore if similar studies are carried out in other countries within different sectors, different results can be obtained.

The challenging part of collecting data was intranet system of some countries were not allowing external survey tools like google drive to be opened on their system and it was required to open it their own computer to collect soft data's which caused a delay. In addition, to overcome this situation some of the data were collected with hard copies and the others were collected mostly via personal emails and private social accounts of managers and employees via whatsapp, linkedin, and facebook messenger applications. Other application and survey methods can also be used in future research.

On the other hand factors of individual and situational concepts this paper offers the possibility for several future studies. While this research contributes significantly to future studies, it also presents some limitations that may affect interpretations and generalizations of its findings. This study was applied in the energy sector in Turkey within a single society. Further research must cover other sectors and/or a comparative cross national research with more data collection. The hypotheses must also be extended to test other variables which might influence change resistance.

Despite the above limitations, the measures taken to control bias and errors helped to ensure the empirical validity of the results of this study. These included the introduction of a model which explains social value orientation, case study, how decision making is affected by anxiety and social motives.

The complex interplay among change, culture and leadership should be further explored about the consideration of ethically ambiguous decision making considering other situational and individual concepts in future studies. Finally, future studies could consider further organizational factors at macro-level and cross cultural studies can be compared too.

REFERENCES

Books

- Allen, M. J., & Yen, W. M. (1979). *Introduction to measurement theory*. Brooks/Cole.
- Allport, G. W. (1958). *The nature of prejudice*. Doubleday.
- Axelrod, R. (1984). *The Evolution of Cooperation*. Basic Books. 241 pp.
- Babcock, L., Gelfand, M., Small, D., & Stayn, H. (2006). Gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiations. In *Social psychology and economics* (pp. 239–259). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bandura, A. (1971). *Social Learning Theory*. General Learning Press.
- Barlow, D. H. (2004). *Anxiety and its disorders: The nature and treatment of anxiety and panic*. Guilford press.
- Bazerman, M. H. (1998). *Judgment in managerial decision making*. Wiley.
- Bazerman, M. H., Curhan, J. R., & Moore, D. A. (2000). The death and rebirth of the social psychology of negotiation. In *In Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp. 196-228). Blackwell.
- Bazerman, M. H., & Neale, M. A. (1992). *Negotiating rationally*. Free Press.
- Bazerman, M. H., & Tenbrunsel, A. E. (2012). *Blind spots: Why we fail to do what's right and what to do about it*. Princeton University Press.
- Beauchamp, B., Tom, L., & Norma, E. (1979). *Ethical Theory and Business*. NJ: Prentice-hall.
- Beauchamp, T. L. (2001). *Philosophical ethics: An introduction to moral philosophy*. McGraw Hill.
- Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1964). *The managerial grid*. Gulf Publishing.
- Blake, R. R., Shepard, H. A., & Mouton, J. S. (1968). *Managing intergroup conflict in industry*. Gulf Publishing Company.
- Blasi, A. (1984). Self-understanding and moral development from childhood to adolescence. In *Morality, Moral behavior and moral development* (pp. 128-139). John Wiley.

- Boatright, J. R. (1998). *Ethics and the Conduct of Business*. Prentice Hall.
- Burton, J. W. (1969). *Conflict & communication : the use of controlled communication in international relations*. The Free Press.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Routledge.
- Camac, C. (1992). Information preferences in a two-person social dilemma. In *Social Dilemmas: Theoretical Issues and Research Findings* (pp. 147-161). Pergamon.
- Capra, F., & Steindl-Rast, D. (1991). *Belonging to the Universe: Explorations on the Frontiers of Science and Spirituality*. Harper Collins.
- Christie, R., & Geis, F. L. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism*. New York: Academic Press.
- Cohen, R. (1993). An advocate's view. In *Culture and negotiation: The resolution of water disputes* (pp. 22-37). Sage.
- Damon, W. (1984). Self-understanding and moral development from childhood to adolescence. In *Morality, moral behavior, and moral development* (pp. 109-127). Wiley.
- Donaldson, T. (1982). *Corporations and morality*. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
- Druckman, D. (1977). *Negotiations: Social-psychological perspectives*. SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Duncan, L. R., & Raiffa, H. (1957). *Games and decisions*. Wiley Press
- Duska, R., & Whelan, M. (1975). *Moral Development: A Guide to Piaget and Kohlberg*. Paulist Press.
- Edwards, T., & Rees, C. (2006). *International human resource management: Globalization, national systems and multinational companies*. Pearson Education.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Spinard, T. L. (2006). *Handbook of child psychology: Prosocial development*. Wiley.
- English, H. B. (1958). *Comprehensive Dictionary Of Psychological And Psychoanalytical Terms: A Guide To Usage*. David McKay.
- Evan, W., & Freeman, R. E. (1993). A stakeholder theory of the modern corporation:

- kantian capitalism. In *Ethical theory and business*. Prentice Hall.
- Ferris, G. R., Blass, F. R., Douglas, C., Kolodinsky, R. W., & Treadway, D. C. (2005). Personal reputation in organizations. In *Organizational behavior: The state of the science*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Fisher, C., & Lovell, A. (2009). *Business ethics and values: Individual, corporate and international perspectives*. Pearson education.
- Fisher, R., Ury, W., & Patton, B. (1991). *Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement without Giving In*. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Fiske, S. T., Gilbert, D. T., & Lindzey, G. L. (2010). *Handbook of Social Psychology, Volume 1. Vol. 1. John Wiley & Sons, 2010*. Wiley.
- Frankena, W. (1963). *Ethics*. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Freeman, E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, R. E., & Gilbert, D. R. (1988). *Corporate strategy and the search for ethics*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Freud, S. (1914). *On Narcissism*.
- Glas, G. (1996). Concepts of anxiety: a historical reflection on anxiety and related disorders. In *Advances in the Neurobiology of Anxiety Disorders* (pp. 3-21). JOHN WILEY & SONS.
- Grafström, M., & Pallas, J. (2007). The Negotiation of Business News. In *Mediating Business: The Expansion of Business Journalism in the Nordic Countries*. Copenhagen Business Press.
- Greenhalgh, L., & Chapman, D. I. (1995). *Joint decision making: the inseparability of relationships and negotiation*.
- Grover, S. L. (1997). Lying in organizations: theory, research, and future directions. In *Antisocial behavior in organizations* (pp. 68-84). Sage.
- Grzelak, J. L. (1982). Preferences and cognitive processes in interdependence situations: A theoretical analysis of cooperation. In *Cooperation and helping behavior* (pp. 95-122). Academic Press.
- Gürbüz, S., & Şahin, F. (2015). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Araştırma Yöntemleri Felsefe-Yöntem-Analiz*. . Seçkin Yayınevi.

- Hair, J. F., Black, B., Babin, B., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. Pearson Prantice Hall. .
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*. Pearson New International Edition.
- Harnish, V. (2013). *The Greatest Business Decisions of All Time: How Apple, Ford, IBM, Zappos, and others Made Radical Choices that Changed the Course of Business*. Time Home Entertainment.
- Hastie, R., & Dawes, R. M. (2009). *Rational choice in an uncertain world: The psychology of judgment and decision making*. Sage Publications.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1984). Empathy, its limitations, and its role in a comprehensive moral theory. In *Morality, Moral behavior and moral development* (pp. 283-302). John Wiley.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Sage.
- Hofstede, G. H. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Sage Publications.
- Homans, G. C. (1950). *The human group*. Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Hunt, S. D. (1991). *Modern Marketing Theory: Critical Issues in the Philosophy of marketing science*. South-Western Publishing Company.
- Jean, P., & Inhelder, B. (1973). *Memory and Intelligence*. Basic Books.
- Jeffrey, Z. R., & Bert, R. B. (1975). *The Social Psychology of Bargaining and Negotiation*. Academic Press.
- Johnson, M. R. (2005). *Aristotle on Teleology*. Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1982). *Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases*. Cambridge University Press.
- Kelley, H. H., & Thibaut, J. W. (1978). *Interpersonal Relations: A Theory of Interdependence*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Kim, J.-O., & Mueller, C. W. (1978). *Factor analysis: Statistical methods and practical issues*. No. 14. sage, 1978. Sage.
- Lakein, A., & Leake, P. (1973). *How to get control of your time and your life*. New American Library.

- Lax, D. A., & Sebenius, J. K. (1986). *The manager as negotiator*. Free Press.
- Lewicki, R. J. (1983). Lying and deception: a behavioral model with applications to negotiations. In *Negotiating in Organizations*, (pp. 86-90).
- Lewicki, R. J., Barry, B., Saunders, D. M., & Minton, J. W. (2003). *Negotiation*. McGraw Hill.
- Lewicki, R. J., Litterer, J. A., Minton, J. W., & Saunders, D. W. (1999). *Negotiation*. IL: Irwin.
- Lewicki, R. J., Litterer, J. A., Saunders, D. M., & Minton, J. W. (1993). *Negotiation readings exercises and cases*. IL: Irwin.
- Lewin, K. (1936). *Principles of Topological Psychology*. McGraw-Hill.
- Luce, R. D., & Raiffa, H. (1957). *Games and decisions: Introduction and critical survey*. Wiley.
- Macaulay, J., & Berkowitz, L. (1970). *Altruism and Helping Behavior: Social Psychological Studies of Some Antecedents and Consequences*. Academic Press.
- Mayer, B. (2010). *The dynamics of conflict resolution: A practitioner's guide*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Michener, H. A., DeLamater, J. D., & Schwartz, S. H. (1990). *Social psychology*. . Harcourt, Brace, Jovonovich.
- Milton, F. (1962). *Capitalism and freedom*. University of Chicago press.
- Norman, W. (2013). *Business Ethics*. In *International Encyclopedia of Ethics*, H. LaFollette (Ed.). Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Öner, N., & Le Compte, A. (1983). *Durumluk Sürekli Kaygı Envanteri El Kitabı*. Bogazici University.
- Osgood, C. E., Suci, G. J., & Tannenbaum, P. H. (1957). *The measurement of meaning*. University of Illinois press.
- Overton, W. E., & Gallagher, J. M. (1977). *KNOWLEDGE AND DEVELOPMENT*. PLENUM PRESS.
- Parrott, W. G. (2001). *Emotions in social psychology: Essential readings*. Psychology Press.
- Piaget, J. (1952). *The origins of intelligence in children*. International Universities Press.

- Pruitt, D. (1991). Strategic Choice in Negotiation. In *Negotiation Theory and Practice* (pp. 27-46). The Program on Negotiation at Harvard Law School.
- Pruitt, D. G. (1981). *Negotiation Behaviour*. Academic Press.
- Pruitt, D. G., & Carnevale, P. J. (1993). *Negotiation in social conflict*. Cole Publishing Co.
- Raiffa, H. (1982). *The art and science of negotiation*. Harvard University Press.
- Rest, J. R. (1986). *Moral Development: Advances in Research And Theory*. Praeger.
- Rubin, J. Z., & Brown, B. R. (1975). *The Social Psychology of Bargaining and Negotiation*. Academic Press.
- Salkovskis, P. M. (1996). The cognitive approach to anxiety: Threat beliefs, safety seeking behavior, and the special case of health, anxiety and obsessions. In *Frontiers of Cognitive Therapy* (pp. 48–74). The Guilford Press.
- Satir, V. (1967). *Conjoint family therapy: A guide to theory and technique*. CA: Science and Behavior Books.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research methods for business students*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Schendel, D. E., & Hofer, C. W. (1979). *Strategic Management: A New View of Business Policy and Planning* Little Brown.
- Schwartz, T. (1992). Anthropology and psychology; An unrequited relationship. In *New directions in psychological anthropology*. Cambridge University Press.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2013). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Şencan, H. (2015). *Sosyal davranışsal ölçümlerde güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik*. Seçkin Yayıncılık.
- Sorabji, R. (2014). Moral conscience through the ages: fifth century BCE to the present. In (pp. 265). University of Chicago Press.
- Søreide, T. (2006). *Business corruption, uncertainty and risk aversion*. . Chr. Michelsen Institute.
- Taylor, P. W. (1975). *Principles of ethics: An introduction*. Dickenson Pub. Co.
- Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. Wiley.
- Thomas, K. W. (1976). Conflict and conflict management. In *Handbook of Industrial*

- and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 889-935). Rand-McNally.
- Thompson, L. L. (1998). *The Mind and Heart of the Negotiator*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Timmermans, A., & Breeman, G. (2012). Morality Politics in Western Europe. In *Morality Issues in the Netherlands: Coalition Politics under Pressure* (pp. 35-61). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism and collectivism*. Westview.
- Tukey, J. W. (1984). *The collected works of John W. Tukey. Vol. 1*. Taylor & Francis.
- Ury, W. L., Brett, J., & Goldberg, S. (1993). *Getting disputes resolved*. Cambridge.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., De Cremer, D., Van Dijk, E., & Van Vugt, M. (2007). Self-interest and beyond: Basic principles of social interaction. In *Social Psychology: Handbook of Principles* (pp. 540-561). Guilford.
- Von Neumann, J., & Morgenstern, O. (1944). *Theory of games and economic behavior*. Princeton University Press.
- Walton, R. E. (1969). *Interpersonal peacemaking: Confrontations and third-party consultation*. Addison-Wesley.
- Walton, R. E., & McKersie, R. B. (1965). *Behavioral Theory of Labor Negotiation: An Analysis of a Social Interaction System*. McGraw-Hill.
- William, M. E., & R.Edward, F. (1988). *A stakeholder theory of the modern corporation: Kantian Capitalism*. Prentice Hall.
- Wispe, L. (1978). *Altruism, sympathy, and helping*. Academic Press.
- Young, G. (2011). *Development and causality: Neo-Piagetian perspectives*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business Research Methods*. Thompson South-Western.

Periodicals

- Aaker, D. A., Stayman, D. M., & Hagerty, M. R. (1986). Warmth in advertising: Measurement, impact, and sequence effects. *Journal of consumer research* 12.4, 365-381.
- Adler, R. S. (2007). Negotiating with liars. *MIT Sloan Management Review* 48.4, 69-74.
- Adler, R. S., Rosen, B., & Silverstein, E. M. (1998). Emotions in Negotiation: How to Manage Fear and Anger. *Negotiation journal*, 161-179.
- Akaah, I. P., & Riordan, E. A. (1989). Judgments of marketing professionals about ethical issues in marketing research: A replication and extension. *Journal of marketing research*, 112-120.
- Al-Khatib, J., Rawwas, M. Y. A., Swaidan, Z., & Rexeisen, R. J. (2005). The ethical challenges of global business-to-business negotiations: an empirical investigation of developing countries marketing managers. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, Vol. 13 No. 4*, 46-60.
- Allen, J. L., Rapee, R. M., & Sandberg, S. (2008). Severe life events and chronic adversities as antecedents to anxiety in children: A matched control study. *Journal of abnormal child psychology* 36.7, 1047-1056.
- Allhoff, F. (2003). Business Bluffing Reconsidered. *Journal of Business Ethics* , Vol. 45, No. 4, 283-289.
- Allmon, D. E., Chen, H. C. K., Pritchett, T. K., & Forrest, P. (1997). A multicultural examination of business ethics perceptions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 183-188.
- Allred, K. G., Mallozzi, J. S., Matsui, F., & Raia, C. P. (1997). The influence of anger and compassion on negotiation performance. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 70.3, 175-187.
- Amanatullah, E. T., & Michael, W. M. (2008). Negotiators Who Give Too Much: Unmitigated Communion, Relational Anxieties, and Economic Costs in Distributive and Integrative Bargaining. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 723-738.

- Andersson, U., Cazorra, A. C., & Nielsen, B. B. (2014). Explaining interaction effects within and across levels of analysis. *Research Methods in International Business*, 1063–1071.
- Annas, J. (1998). Virtue and eudaimonism. *Social Philosophy and Policy* 15.1, 37-55.
- Anton, R. J. (1990). Drawing the line: an exploratory test of ethical behavior in negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 1 No. 3, 265-280.
- Aquino, K. (1998). The effects of ethical climate and the availability of alternatives on the use of deception during negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 9, No. 3.
- Aquino, K., & Becker, T. E. (2005). Lying in negotiations: how individual and situational factors influence the use of neutralization strategies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 26, 661–679.
- Armstrong, R. W. (1996). The relationship between culture and perception of ethical problems in international marketing. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1199-1208.
- Aronson, B. (2002). The Enron Collapse and Auditor Independence: Why The SEC Should Go Further In Regulating Accounting Firms. *Find Law*.
- Axelrod, S., & May, J. G. (1968). Effect of increased reward on the two-person non-zero-sum game. *Psychological Reports*, 675-678.
- Babcock, L., & Loewenstein, G. (1997). Explaining bargaining impasse: The role of self-serving biases. *Journal of Economic perspectives* 11.1, 109-126.
- Baker, W. E. (1984). The social structure of a national securities market. *American journal of sociology* 89.4, 775-811.
- Baker, W. E. (1990). Market networks and corporate behavior. *American journal of sociology* 96.3, 589-625.
- Balliet, D., Parks, C., & Joireman, J. (2009). Social Value Orientation and Cooperation in Social Dilemmas: A Meta-Analysis. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations* Vol 12(4), 533-547.
- Banai, M., Stefanidis, A., Shetach, A., & Ozbek, F. M. (2014). Attitudes Toward Ethically Questionable Negotiation Tactics: A Two-Country Study. *Journal Business Ethics*, 669-685.

- Banas, J. T., & Mclean Parks, J. (2002). Lambs Among Lions? The Impact of Ethical Ideology on Negotiation Behaviors and Outcomes. *International Negotiation*, 235-260.
- Barlett, C. P., & Anderson, C. A. (2012). Examining media effects: The general aggression and general learning models. *The international encyclopedia of media studies*, 1-20.
- Barnett, J. H., & Karson, M. J. (1989). Managers, values, and executive decisions: An exploration of the role of gender, career stage, organizational level, function, and the importance of ethics, relationships and results in managerial decision-making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 747-771.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 51.6, 1173-1182.
- Barry, B. (1999). The tactical use of emotion in negotiation. *Research on Negotiation in Organizations*, 7, 93-121.
- Barry, B., & Friedman, R. A. (1998). Bargainer Characteristics in Distributive and Integrative Negotiation. *American Psychological Association: Interpersonal Relations and Group Processes*.
- Bass, K., Barnett, T., & Brown, G. (1998). The Moral Philosophy of Sales Managers and its Influence on Ethical Decision Making. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 18, 1-17.
- Bass, K., Barnett, T., & Brown, G. (1999). Individual difference variables, ethical judgments, and ethical behavioral intentions. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 183-205.
- Batra, R., & Ray, M. L. (1986). Affective responses mediating acceptance of advertising. *Journal of consumer research* 13.2, 234-249.
- Baumeister, R. E., Bratslavsky, E., Muraven, M., & Tice, D. M. (1998). Ego Depletion: Is the Active Self a Limited Resource? *Journal of personality and social psychology* 74.5, 1252-1265.

- Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological review* 103.1, 5-33.
- Bazerman, M. H., & Carroll, J. S. (1987). Negotiator Cognition. *Research in Organizational Behavior Volume 9*, 247–288.
- Bazerman, M. H., & Neale, M. A. (1982). Improving Negotiation Effectiveness under Final Offer Arbitration. *Academy of Management*, 287-291.
- Beams, J. D., Brown, R. M., & Killough, L. N. (2003). An experiment testing the determinants of non-compliance with insider trading laws. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 309-323.
- Beehr, T. A., & McGrath, J. E. (1992). Social support, occupational stress and anxiety. *Anxiety, stress, and coping* 5.1, 7-19.
- Beersma, B., & Dreu, C. K. W. D. (2002). Integrative and Distributive Negotiation in Small Groups: Effects of Task Structure, Decision Rule, and Social Motive. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 87, No. 2*, 227–252.
- Beggan, J. K., Messick, D. M., & Allison, S. T. (1988). Social Values and Egocentric Bias: Two Tests of the Might Over Morality Hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 55, No. 4*, 606-611.
- Belak, J., & Rozman, M. P. (2012). Business ethics from Aristotle, Kant and Mill's perspective. *Kybernetes Vol. 41 No. 10*, 1607-1624.
- Bell, D. E. (1982). Regret in decision making under uncertainty. *Operations research* 30.5, 961-981.
- Beltramini, R. F., Peterson, R. A., & Kozmetsky, G. (1984). Concerns of college students regarding business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 195-200.
- Bem, D. J., & Lord, C. G. (1979). Template matching: A proposal for probing the ecological validity of experimental settings in social psychology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 37.6, 833.
- Benson, G. C. S. (1989). Codes of Ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics* 8, 305-319.
- Bersoff, D. M. (1999). Why good people sometimes do bad things: motivated reasoning and unethical behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28–39.

- Beu, D. S., Buckley, M. R., & Harvey, M. G. (2003). Ethical decision-making: a multidimensional construct. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 88-107.
- Bienvenu, O. J., Brown, C., S., Jack F., Liang, K.-Y., Costa, P. T., Eaton, William W., & Nestadt, G. (2001). Normal personality traits and comorbidity among phobic, panic and major depressive disorders. *Psychiatry research* 102.1, 73-85.
- Biziou-van-Pol, L., Haenen, J., Novaro, A., Liberman, A. O., & Capraro, V. (2015). Does telling white lies signal pro-social preferences? *Judgment and Decision Making* 10, 538-548.
- Blasi, A. (1980). Bridging Moral Cognition and Moral Action: A Critical Review of the Literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 88, No. 1
- Bohm, P., & Hans, L. (1992). A note on the robustness of a classical framing result. *Journal of Economic Psychology* 13.2, 355-361.
- Bok, D. C. (1976). Can ethics be taught? *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning* 8.9, 26-30.
- Bonnet, M. H. (1989). The effect of sleep fragmentation on sleep and performance in younger and older subjects. *Neurobiology of aging*, 10, 21-25.
- Bornstein, G., Crum, L., Wittenbraker, J., Harring, K., Insko, C. A., & Thibaut, J. (1983). On the measurement of social orientations in the minimal group paradigm. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 13.4, 321-350.
- Bottom, W. P., & Studt, A. (1993). Framing effects and the distributive aspect of integrative bargaining. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 56.3, 459-474.
- Bouayed, J., Rammal, H., & Soulimani, R. (2009). Oxidative stress and anxiety: relationship and cellular pathways. *Oxidative medicine and cellular longevity* 2:2, 63-67.
- Brantley, P. J., Mehan Jr, D. J., Ames, S. C., & Jones, G. N. (1999). Minor stressors and generalized anxiety disorder among low-income patients attending primary care clinics. *The Journal of nervous and mental disease* 187, 435-440.
- Brewer, N., Mitchell, P., & Weber, N. (2002). Gender role, organizational status, and conflict management styles. *International journal of conflict management* 13.1, 78-94.

- Brooks, A. W., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2011). Can Nervous Nelly negotiate? How anxiety causes negotiators to make low first offers, exit early, and earn less profit. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 115.1, 43-54.
- Brown, E. S., Fulton, M. K., Wilkeson, A., & Petty, F. (2000). The psychiatric sequelae of civilian trauma. *Comprehensive Psychiatry* 41, 19-23.
- Brown, T. A., Sautter, J. A., Littvay, L., Sautter, A. C., & Bearnes, B. (2010). Ethics and Personality: Empathy and Narcissism as Moderators of Ethical Decision Making in Business Students. *Journal of Education for Business* 85.4, 203-208.
- Brown, T. G., Ouimet, M. C., Eldeb, M., Tremblay, J., Vingilis, E., Nadeau, L., Pruessner, J., & Bechara, A. (2017). The effect of age on the personality and cognitive characteristics of three distinct risky driving offender groups. *Personality and individual differences*, 48-56.
- Browning, J., & Zabriskie, N. B. (1983). How ethical are industrial buyers? *Industrial Marketing Management* 12.4, 219-224.
- Bryson, J. M. (1988). Strategic planning for public and non-profit organization. *Long range planning* 21.1, 73-81.
- Budescu, D. V., & Weiss, W. (1987). Reflection of transitive and intransitive preferences: A test of prospect theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 39.2, 184-202.
- Burton, B. K., & Dunn, C. P. (1996). Collaborative Control and the Commons: Safeguarding Employee Rights. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 6, No. 3, 277-288.
- Bush, R. A. B. (1989). Efficiency and protection, or empowerment and recognition: The mediator's role and ethical standards in mediation. *Florida Law Review* 41, 253.
- Butler, J. K. (1999). Trust Expectations, Information Sharing, Climate of Trust, and Negotiation Effectiveness and Efficiency. *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 24 No. 2, 217-238.
- Buurman, M., Delfgaauw, J., Dur, R., & Bossche, S. V. d. (2012). Public sector employees: Risk averse and altruistic? *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization* 83.3, 279-291.

- Cai, D., & Fink, E. (2002). Conflict style differences between individualists and collectivists. *Communication Monographs* 69.1, 67-87.
- Cai, D. A., Wilson, S. R., & Drake, L. E. (2000). Culture in the context of intercultural negotiation: Individualism-collectivism and paths to integrative agreements. *Human Communication Research* 26.4, 591-617.
- Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. W. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological bulletin* 56.2, 81-105.
- Campbell, W. K., Goodie, A. S., & Foster, J. D. (2004). Narcissism, Confidence, and Risk Attitude. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 17, 1-15.
- Cappelen, A. W., Sørensen, E. Ø., & Tungodden, B. (2013). When do we lie? *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization* 93, 258-265.
- Carnevale, P. J. (2008). Positive affect and decision frame in negotiation. *Group Decision and Negotiation* 17.1, 51-63.
- Carnevale, P. J., & Isen, A. M. (1986). The influence of positive affect and visual access on the discovery of integrative solutions in bilateral negotiation. *ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR AND HUMAN DECISION PROCESSES* 37, 1-13.
- Carnevale, P. J., & Pruitt, D. G. (1991). Negotiation and Mediation. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* No.43, 531-582.
- Catherine, A. H., & Elizabeth, A. P. (2012). Anxiety and Decision-Making. *Society of Biological Psychiatry*, 113-118.
- Caviola, L., & Faber, N. S. (2014). How stress influences our morality. *In-Mind Magazine* 23.
- Chang, L., Cheng, M., & Trotman, K. T. (2008). The effect of framing and negotiation partner's objective on judgments about negotiated transfer prices. *Accounting, Organizations and Society* 33, 704-717.
- Cherry, J., & Fraedrich, J. (2002). Perceived risk, moral philosophy and marketing ethics: mediating influences on sales managers' ethical decision-making. *Journal of business Research*, 951-962.

- Chertkoff, J. M., & Baird, S. L. (1971). Applicability of the big lie technique and the last clear chance doctrine to bargaining. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 20.3, 298.
- Chirumbolo, A., Leone, L., & Desimoni, M. (2016). The interpersonal roots of politics: Social value orientation, socio-political attitudes and prejudice. *Personality and Individual Differences* 91, 144-153.
- Chonko, L. B., & Hunt, S. D. (1985). Ethics and Marketing Management: An Empirical Examination. *Journal of business Research*, 339-359.
- Clark, M. S., Mills, J. R., & Corcoran, D. M. (1989). Keeping track of needs and inputs of friends and strangers. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 15(4), , 533-542.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological bulletin* 112.1, 155-159.
- Cohen, J. R., Pant, L. W., & Sharp, D. J. (2001). An examination of differences in ethical decision-making between Canadian business students and accounting professionals. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 319-336.
- Cohen, T. R. (2010). Moral Emotions & Unethical Bargaining: The Differential Effects of Empathy and Perspective Taking in Deterring Deceitful Negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 569-579.
- Cole, B. C., & Smith, D. L. (1996). Perceptions of Business Ethics: Students vs. Business People. *Journal of Business Ethics* 15, 889-896.
- Cole, T. (2001). Lying to the one you love: The use of deception in romantic relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships* 18.1, 107-129.
- Conway, J. M., & Huffcutt, A. I. (2003). A review and evaluation of exploratory factor analysis practices in organizational research. *Organizational research methods* 6.2, 147-168.
- Cramton, P. C., & Dees, J. G. (1993). Promoting honesty in negotiation: An exercise in practical ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 3 No. 4, 359-394.
- Craver, C. B., & Barnes, D. W. (1999). Gender, Risk Taking, and Negotiation Performance. *Michigan Journal of Gender and Law* Vol.5, 299-352.
- Cressey, D. R., & Moore, C. A. (1983). Managerial values and corporate codes of ethics. *CALIFORNIA MANAGEMENT REVIEW* Vol 25, No. 4, 53-77.

- Crosby, L. A., Evans, K. R., & Cowles, D. (1990). Relationship Quality in Services Selling: An Interpersonal Influence Perspective. *Journal of Marketing, Vol. 54*, 68-81.
- Cuervo-Cazurra, A., & Dau, L. A. (2009). Promarket reforms and firm profitability in developing countries. *Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 52(6)*, 1348-1368.
- Curtis, M. B., Conover, T. L., & Chui, L. C. (2012). A Cross-Cultural Study of the Influence of Country of Origin, Justice, Power Distance, and Gender on Ethical Decision Making. *JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACCOUNTING RESEARCH Vol. 11, No. 1* 5-34.
- Cyriac, K., & Dharmaraj, R. (1994). Machiavellianism in Indian management. *Journal of Business Ethics, 13*, 281-286.
- Davis, M. A., Johnson, N. B., & Ohmer, D. G. (1998). Issue-contingent effects on ethical decision making: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics, 17*, 373-389.
- De Cremer, D., & Van Lange, P. A. (2001). Why prosocials exhibit greater cooperation than proselves: The roles of social responsibility and reciprocity. *European Journal of personality 15*, S5-S18.
- De Dreu, C. K., & Boles, T. L. (1998). Share and share alike or winner take all?: The influence of social value orientation upon choice and recall of negotiation heuristics. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes 76.3*, 253-276.
- De Dreu, C. K., Nijstad, B. A., & Knippenberg, D. v. (2008). Motivated information processing in group judgment and decision making. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 12*, 22-49.
- De Dreu, C. K., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2004). The influence of power on the information search, impression formation, and demands in negotiation. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY, 40*, 303-319.
- De Dreu, C. K., Weingart, L. R., & Kwon, S. (2000). Influence of social motives on integrative negotiation: a meta-analytic review and test of two theories. *Journal of personality and social psychology 78.5*, 889-905.

- De Dreu, C. K. W. (1995). Coercive Power and Concession Making in Bilateral Negotiation. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 39, No. 4, 646-670.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Mc Cusker, C. (1997). Gain-Loss Frames and Cooperation in Two-Person Social Dilemmas: A Transformational Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1093 - 1106.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., & Van Lange, P. A. M. (1995). The impact of social value orientations on negotiator cognition and behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(11), 1178-1188.
- De George, R. T. (1999). Business ethics and the information age. *Business and Society Review*, 261-278.
- Deaux, K., & Elizabeth, F. (1977). Attributing causes for one's own performance: The effects of sex, norms, and outcome. *Journal of Research in Personality* 11, 59–72.
- Deborah, A. S., Gelfand, M., Babcock, L., & Gettman, H. (2007). Who Goes to the Bargaining Table? The Influence of Gender and Framing Who Goes to the Bargaining Table? The Influence of Gender and Framing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* Vol. 93, No. 4., 600 – 613.
- Delaney, J. T., & Sockell, D. (1992). Do Company Ethics Training Programs Make A Difference? An Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics* 11, 719-727.
- Deshpande, S. P., & Joseph, J. (2009). Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Ethical Climate, and Behavior of Peers on Ethical Behavior of Nurses. *Journal of Business Ethics* 85, 403-410.
- Deutsch, M. (1949). A theory of cooperation and competition. *Human Relations*, 129-152.
- Deutsch, M. (1960). The Effect of Motivational Orientation upon Trust and Suspicion. *Human Relations*, Vol 13, Issue 12, pp. 123 - 139.
- Dhar, R., & Nowlis, S. M. (1999). The effect of time pressure on consumer choice deferral. *Journal of Consumer Research* 25.4, 369-384.
- Diekmann, K. A., Samuels, S. M., Ross, L., & Bazerman, M. H. (1997). Self-interest and fairness in problems of resource allocation: allocators versus recipients. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 72.5, 1061.

- Do, K. T., Moreira, J. F. G., & Telzer, E. H. (2017). But is helping you worth the risk? Defining prosocial risk taking in adolescence. *Developmental cognitive neuroscience* 25, 260-271.
- Donaldson, T., & Dunfee, T. W. (1994). Toward a Unified Conception of Business Ethics: Integrative Social Contracts Theory. *Academy of management Review*, 252-284.
- Donia, M. B., Johns, G., & Raja, U. (2016). Good soldier or good actor? Supervisor accuracy in distinguishing between selfless and self-serving OCB motives. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 23-32.
- Droge, C., Calantone, R., & Harmancioglu, N. (2008). New product success: is it really controllable by managers in highly turbulent environments? *Journal of Product Innovation Management* 25.3, 272-286.
- Drucker, P. F. (1984). The New Meaning of Corporate Social Responsibility. *CALIFORNIA MANAGEMENT REVIEW Vol. XXVI, No. 2*.
- Druckman, D. (1967). Dogmatism, prenegotiation experience, and simulated group representation as determinants of dyadic behavior in a bargaining situation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 279-290.
- Dubinsky, A. J., & Gwin, J. M. (1981). Business Ethics: Buyers and Sellers. *Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management*, 17, 9-16.
- Duchon, D., Dunegan, K. J., & Barton, S. L. (1989). Framing the problem and making decisions: The facts are not enough. *IEEE transactions on engineering management* 36.1, 25-27.
- Dunegan, K. J. (1993). Framing, cognitive modes, and image theory: Toward an understanding of a glass half full. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 78.3, 491.
- Dur, A., & Mateo, G. (2008). Bargaining Power and Negotiation Tactics: Negotiations on the UE's Financial Perspective, 2007-2013. *UCD Dublin European Institute Working Paper*, 08-02.
- Edgington, E. S. (1964). A tabulation of inferential statistics used in psychology journals. *American Psychologist* 19.3, 202b.
- Edgington, E. S. (1974). A new tabulation of statistical procedures used in APA journals. *American Psychologist* 29.1 (1974), 25.

- Ekin, S., & Tezölmez, S. H. (1999). Business ethics in Turkey: An empirical investigation with special emphasis on gender. *Journal of Business Ethics* 18, 17-34.
- Elahee, M., & Brooks, C. M. (2004). Trust and negotiation tactics: perceptions about business-to-business negotiations in Mexico. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 397-404.
- Elahee, M. N., Kirby, S. L., & Nasif, E. (2002). National culture, trust, and perceptions about ethical behavior in intra-and cross-cultural negotiations: An analysis of NAFTA countries. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, Vol. 44, 799-818.
- Elfenbein, H. A., Curhan, J. R., Eisenkraft, N., Shirako, A., & Baccaro, L. (2008). Are some negotiators better than others? Individual differences in bargaining outcomes. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 1463-1475.
- Elliot, A. J., Chirkov, V. I., Kim, Y., & Sheldon, K. M. (2001). A cross-cultural analysis of avoidance (relative to approach) personal goals. *Psychological Science* 12.6, 505-510.
- Elm, D. R., & Nichols, M. L. (1993). An investigation of the moral reasoning of managers. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 817-833.
- Engel, K. S., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of psychological research online* 8.2 (2003): 23-74., 23-74.
- Eraker, S. A., & Sox, H. C. (1981). Assessment of patients' preferences for therapeutic outcomes. *Medical decision making* 1.1, 29-39.
- Erat, S., & Gneezy, U. (2012). White lies. *Management Science*, 723-733.
- Erkus, A., & Banai, M. (2010). Attitudes towards questionable negotiation tactics in Turkey. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 239 - 263.
- Ertac, S., & Gurdal, M. Y. (2010). Deciding to Decide: Gender, Leadership and Risk-Taking in Groups. *TÜSİAD-Koç University Economic Research Forum working paper series*, No. 1028.

- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics* 5.1, 1-4.
- Etzioni, A. (1989). Money, power and fame.
- Evans, A. M., & Beest, I. v. (2017). Gain-loss framing effects in dilemmas of trust and reciprocity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 73, 151-163.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1963). "Biological basis of personality." *Nature*, 1031-1034.
- Eysenck, M. W., Derakshan, N., Santos, R., & Calvo, M. G. (2007). Anxiety and cognitive performance: attentional control theory. *Emotion* 7.2, 336.
- Fagley, N. S., & Miller, P. M. (1997). Framing effects and arenas of choice: Your money or your life? *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 71.3, 355-373.
- Farrell, B. J., Cobbin, D. M., & Farrell, H. M. (2001). Codes of Ethics: Their evolution, development and other controversies. *Journal of Management Development*, 152-163.
- Ferrell, O. C., & Gresham, L. G. (1985). A contingency framework for understanding ethical decision making in marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 87-96.
- Ferrell, O. C., & Skinner, S. J. (1988). Ethical behavior and bureaucratic structure in marketing research organizations. *Journal of marketing research*, 103-109.
- Fishburn, P. C., & Kochenberger, G. A. (1979). Two-piece von Neumann-Morgenstern utility functions. *Decision Sciences* 10.4, 503-518.
- Fisher, R. J. (1983). Third Party Consultation as a Method of Intergroup Conflict Resolution: A Review of Studies. *The Journal of Conflict Resolution*, Vol. 27, No. 2, 301-334.
- Fisher, R. J., & Keashly, L. (1991). The Potential Complementarity of Mediation and Consultation within a Contingency Model of Third Party Intervention. *Journal of Peace Research*, Vol. 28, No. 1, Special Issue on International Mediation, 29-42.
- Fitzpatrick, M. A., & Winke, J. (1979). You always hurt the one you love: Strategies and tactics in interpersonal conflict. *Communication Quarterly* 27.1, 3-11.

- Flynn, F. J., & Wiltermuth, S. S. (2010). False consensus, brokerage, and ethical decision making in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal* 53.5, 1074-1089.
- Forehand, G. A., & Haller, G. V. (1964). Environmental variation in studies of organizational behavior. *Psychological bulletin* 62.6, 361.
- Forgas, J. P. (1998). On feeling good and getting your way: mood effects on negotiator cognition and bargaining strategies. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 74.3, 565.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research* 18.1, 39-50.
- Forsyth, D. R. (1980). A Taxonomy of Ethical Ideologies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 175-184.
- Fradelos, E., & Komini, A. (2015). The use of essential oils as a complementary treatment for anxiety. *American Journal of Nursing* 4.2, 1-5.
- Fraedrich, J., Thorne, D. M., & Ferrell, O. C. (1994). Assessing the application of cognitive moral development theory to business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics* 13, 829-838.
- French, J. R., Raven, B., & Cartwright, D. (1959). The bases of social power. *Classics of organization theory*, 311-320.
- French, P. A. (1979). The corporation as a moral person. *American Philosophical Quarterly*, 207-215.
- Furnham, A., Richards, S. C., & Paulhus, D. L. (2013). The Dark Triad of Personality: A 10 Year Review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass* 199–216.
- Gaspar, J. P., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2013). The emotion deception model: A review of deception in negotiation and the role of emotion in deception. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 160-179.
- Gerald, M., & Schmitt, D. R. (1972). Cooperation in a three-person Prisoner's Dilemma. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 376.

- Giluk, T. L., & Postlethwaite, B. E. (2015). Big Five personality and academic dishonesty: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Individual Differences* 72, 59-67.
- Gini, A. (1997). Moral Leadership and Business Ethics. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 64-81.
- Gino, F., & Margolis, J. D. (2011). Bringing ethics into focus: How regulatory focus and risk preferences influence (un) ethical behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 145-156.
- Glass, R. S., & Wood, W. A. (1996). Situational determinants of software piracy: An equity theory perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1189-1198.
- Gneezy, U. (2005). Deception: The role of consequences. *American Economic Review*, 95, 384-394.
- Goelzner, H., Stefanidis, A., & Banai, M. (2019). Ethically questionable negotiation tactics in the Austrian workplace. *European Business Review*, Vol. 31 No. 1, 115-138.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the big-five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26-42.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An Alternative "Description of Personality": The Big-Five Factor Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1216-1229.
- Goode, E. (1996). The Ethics of Deception in Social Research: A Case Study. *Qualitative Sociology*.
- Graham, J. L., Mintu, A. T., & Rodgers, W. (1994). Explorations of negotiation behaviors in ten cultures using a model developed in the United States. *Management Science*, Vol. 40, No. 1, 72-95.
- Grecucci, A., Giorgetta, C., Brambilla, P., Zuanon, S., Perini, L., Balestrieri, M., Bonini, N., & Sanfey, A. (2013). Anxious ultimatums: how anxiety disorders affect socioeconomic behaviour. *Cognition & emotion* 27.2, 230-244.
- Greenberg, P. E., Sisitsky, T., Kessler, R. C., Finkelstein, S. N., Berndt, E. R., Davidson, J. R., Ballenger, J. C., & Fyer, A. J. (1999). The economic burden of anxiety disorders in the 1990s. *The Journal of clinical psychiatry*, 60, 427-435.

- Greenhalgh, L., & Chapman, D. I. (1998). Negotiator relationships: Construct measurement, and demonstration of their impact on the process and outcomes of negotiation. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 7(6), 465-489.
- Gregory Fricchione, M. D. (2004). Generalized Anxiety Disorder. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 675-682.
- Griesinger, D. W., & Livingston, J. W. (1973). Toward a model of interpersonal motivation in experimental games. *Behavioral science* 18.3, 173-188.
- Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation of sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological bulletin* 103.2, 265-275.
- Guinote, A. (2007). Behaviour variability and the Situated Focus Theory of Power. *European review of social psychology* 18.1, 256-295.
- Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: a social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological review* 108.4, 814-834.
- Halpern, J. J. (1992). THE EFFECT OF FRIENDSHIP ON BARGAINING: EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES OF PERSONAL BUSINESS TRANSACTIONS. *Academy of Management Proceedings. Vol. 1992. No. 1. Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management, 1992.*
- Halpern, J. J. (1996). The effect of friendship on decisions: Field studies of real estate transactions. *Human Relations* 49.12, 1519-1547.
- Halpern, J. J. (1997a). Elements of a script for friendship in transactions. *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 41.6, 835-868.
- Halpern, J. J. (1997b). The transaction index: A method for standardizing comparisons of transaction characteristics across different contexts. *Group Decision and Negotiation* 6.6, 557-572.
- Hare, R. D., & Neumann, C. S. (2008). Psychopathy as a Clinical and Empirical Construct. *Annual Review of Clinical*, 217-241.
- Hartley, C. A., & Phelps, E. A. (2012). Anxiety and Decision-Making. *Society of Biological Psychiatry*, 113–118.
- Hartman, E. M. (2001). Moral philosophy, political philosophy, and organizational ethics: A response to Phillips and Margolis. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 673-685.

- Hasnas, J. (1998). THE NORMATIVE THEORIES OF BUSINESS ETHICS: A GUIDE FOR THE PERPLEXED. *Business Ethics Quarterly*.
- Hauser, D. J., Ellsworth, P. C., & Gonzalez, R. (2018). Are manipulation checks necessary? *Frontiers in psychology* 9, 998.
- Heck, D. W., Thielmann, I., Moshagen, M., & Hilbig, B. E. (2018). Who lies? A large-scale reanalysis linking basic personality traits to unethical decision making. *Judgment and Decision Making, Vol. 13, No. 4*, 356-371.
- Hegarty, W. H., & Sims, H. P. (1978). Some Determinants of Unethical Decision Behavior: An Experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 63, No. 4*, 451-457.
- Heider, F. (1958). The psychology of interpersonal relations. *The Journal of Marketing*, 322.
- Heine, S. J., & Lehman, D. R. (1997). The cultural construction of self-enhancement: An examination of group-serving biases. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 72.6, 1268.
- Henthorne, T. L., Robin, D. P., & Reidenbach, R. E. (1992). Identifying the Gaps in Ethical Perceptions Between Managers and Salespersons: A Multidimensional Approach. *Journal of Business Ethics* 11, 849-856.
- Hershfeld, H. E., Cohen, T. R., & Thompson, L. (2012). Short horizons and tempting situations: Lack of continuity to our future selves leads to unethical decision making and behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 117.2, 298-310.
- Hettema, J. M., Neale, M. C., Myers, J. M., Prescott, C. A., & Kendler, K. S. (2006). A population-based twin study of the relationship between neuroticism and internalizing disorders. *American journal of Psychiatry* 163.5, 857-864.
- Highhouse, S., & Yüce, P. (1996). Perspectives, perceptions, and risk-taking behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 65.2, 159-167.
- Hite, R. E., Bellizzi, J. A., & Fraser, C. (1988). A content analysis of ethical policy statements regarding marketing activities. *Journal of Business Ethics* 7, 771-776.

- Hodson, G., Hogg, S. M., & MacInnis, C. C. (2009). The role of “dark personalities” (narcissism, Machiavellianism, psychopathy) Big Five personality factors, and ideology in explaining prejudice. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 686–690.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). The Cultural Relativity of Organizational Practices and Theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 75-89.
- Holmes, J. G. (2002). Interpersonal expectations as the building blocks of social cognition: An interdependence theory perspective. *Personal Relationships* 9.1, 1-26.
- Homer, P. M., & Yoon, S.-G. (1992). Message framing and the interrelationships among ad-based feelings, affect, and cognition. *Journal of Advertising* 21.1, 19-33.
- Hong, E., & Karstensson, L. (2002). Antecedents of state test anxiety. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 27.2, 348-367.
- Horner, R. H., & Spaulding, S. A. Psychology of Classroom Learning: An Encyclopedia.
- Hosmer, L. T. (1995). Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics. *Academy of management Review*, 379-403.
- Hunt, S. D., & Chonko, L. B. (1984). Marketing and Machiavellianism. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 48, 30-42.
- Hunt, S. D., & Vitell, S. (1986). A general theory of marketing ethics. *Journal of macro marketing*, 5-16.
- Isen, A. M., Nygren, T. E., & Ashby, F. G. (1988). Influence of positive affect on the subjective utility of gains and losses: it is just not worth the risk. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology* 55.5, 249-274.
- Järvenoja, H., & Järvelä, S. (2013). Regulating emotions together for motivated collaboration. *Affective learning together. Social and emotional dimensions of collaborative learning*, 162-182.
- John, O. P., & Robins, R. W. (1994). Determinants of interjudge agreement on personality traits: The Big Five domains observability, evaluativeness, and the unique perspective of the self. *Journal of Personality*, 521–551.
- John, V. N., & Morgenstern, O. (1947). Theories of games and economic behavior.

- Joireman, J. A., Kuhlman, D. M., Van Lange, P. A., Doi, T., & Shelley, G. P. (2003). Perceived rationality, morality, and power of social choice as a function of interdependence structure and social value orientation. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 33*(3), 413-437.
- Jones, D. N., & Paulhus, D. L. (2014). Introducing the Short Dark Triad (SD3): A Brief Measure of Dark Personality Traits. 28-41.
- Jones, G. E., & Kavanagh, M. J. (1996). An Experimental Examination of the Effects of Individual and Situational Factors on Unethical Behavioral Intentions in the Workplace. *Journal of Business Ethics, 15*, 511.
- Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical decision making by individuals in organizations: An issue-contingent model. *Academy of management Review, 16*, 366-395.
- Jonsson, O. P. (2011). On utilitarianism vs virtue ethics as foundations of economic choice theory. *Humanomics Vol. 27 No. 1*, 24-40.
- Jou, J., Shanteau, J., & Harris, R. J. (1996). An information processing view of framing effects: The role of causal schemas in decision making. *Memory & Cognition 24.1*, 1-15.
- Kagan, S. (1977). Social motives and behaviors of Mexican-American and Anglo-American children. *Chicano psychology, 1*, 45-86.
- Kagan, S., & Knight, G. P. (1981). Social motives among Anglo American and Mexican American children: Experimental and projective measures. *Journal of Research in Personality 15.1*, 93-106.
- Kahneman, D., Knetsch, J. L., & Thaler, R. H. (1990). Experimental tests of the endowment effect and the Coase theorem. *Journal of political Economy 98.6*, 1325-1348.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1973). On the psychology of prediction. *American Psychological Association, Inc., Vol. 80, No. 4*, 237-251.
- Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica, Vol. 47, No. 2*, 263-292.

- Kaltwasser, L., Moore, K., Weinreich, A., & Sommer, W. (2017). The influence of emotion type, social value orientation and processing focus on approach-avoidance tendencies to negative dynamic facial expressions. *Motivation and Emotion* 41.4 (2017): 532-544., 532-544.
- Kern, M. C., & Chugh, D. (2009). Bounded Ethicality - The Perils of Loss Framing. *PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCE*.
- Kersten, G. E., & Lo, G. (2003). An Integrated Negotiation Support System and Software Agents for E-Business Negotiation. *International Journal of Internet and Enterprise Management, Vol. 1, No. 3*.
- Keselman, H. J., Huberty, C. J., Lix, L. M., Olejnik, S., Cribbie, R. A., Donahue, B., Kowalchuk, R. K., Lowman, L. L., Petoskey, M. D., Keselman, J. C., & Levin, J. R. (1998). Statistical practices of educational researchers: An Analysis of Their ANOVA, MANOVA and ANCOVA Analyses. *Review of educational research* 68.3, 350-386.
- Khatri, N. (2009). CONSEQUENCES OF POWER DISTANCE ORIENTATION IN ORGANISATIONS. *Vision-The Journal of Business Perspective* 13, 1-9.
- Kidwell, J. M., Stevens, R. E., & Bethke., A. L. (1987). Differences in ethical perceptions between male and female managers: Myth or reality? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 489-493.
- Kieffer, K. M., Reese, R. J., & Thompson, B. (2001). Statistical techniques employed in AERJ and JCP articles from 1988 to 1997: A methodological review. *The Journal of Experimental Education* 69.3, 280-309.
- Kimmel, M. J., Pruitt, D. G., Magenau, J. M., Goldband, E. K., & Carnevale, P. J. D. (1980). Effects of Trust, Aspiration, and Gender on Negotiation Tactics. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* Vol. 38, No. 1, 9-22.
- Knight, G. P., Cota, M. K., & Bernal, M. E. (1993). The socialization of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic preferences among Mexican American children: The mediating role of ethnic identity. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences* 15.3, 291-309.

- Knight, G. P., & Dubro, A. F. (1984). Cooperative, Competitive, and Individualistic Social Values: An Individualized Regression and Clustering Approach. *American Psychological Association, Inc.*, 98-105.
- Knight, G. P., Dubro, A. F., & Chao, C.-c. (1985). Information processing and the development of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic social values. *Developmental Psychology*, 21, 37-45.
- Knight, G. P., & Kagan, S. (1977). Development of prosocial and competitive behaviors in Anglo-American and Mexican-American children. *Child Development*, 1385-1394.
- Knight, G. P., Kagan, S., & Buriel, R. (1981). Confounding effects of individualism in children's cooperation—Competition social motive measures. *Motivation and Emotion* 5.2, 167-178.
- Kohlberg, L. (1963). Moral development and identification. 19.
- Kohlberg, L. (1981). The philosophy of moral development. *Essays of moral development, vol. 1. Harper & Row.*
- Koizumi, A., Tanaka, A., Imai, H., Hiramatsu, S., Hiramoto, E., Sato, T., & De Gelder, B. (2011). The effects of anxiety on the interpretation of emotion in the face-voice pairs. *Experimental brain research* 213, 275-282.
- Koning, L., Dijk, E. v., Beest, I. v., & Steine, W. (2010). An instrumental account of deception and reactions to deceit in bargaining. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 57-73.
- Koning, L., Steinel, W., & Beest, I. V. (2011). Power and deception in ultimatum bargaining. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 35-42.
- Kopelman, S., Rosette, A. S., & Thompson, L. (2006). The three faces of Eve: Strategic displays of positive, negative, and neutral emotions in negotiations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 99.1, 81-101.
- Kotov, R., Watson, D., Robles, J. P., & Schmidt, N. B. (2007). Personality traits and anxiety symptoms: The multilevel trait predictor model. *Behaviour research and therapy* 45.7, 1485-1503.

- Kouchaki, M., & Desai, S. D. (2015). Anxious, Threatened, and Also Unethical: How Anxiety Makes Individuals Feel Threatened and Commit Unethical Acts. *American Psychological Association*, 360–375.
- Kracher, B., Chatterjee, A., & Lundquist, A. R. (2002). Factors related to the cognitive moral development of business students and business professionals in India and the United States: Nationality, education, sex and gender. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 255-268.
- Kramer, R. M., McClintock, C. G., & Messick, D. M. (1986). Social values and cooperative response to a simulated resource conservation crisis. *Journal of Personality* 54.3, 576-582.
- Krebs, D. (1982). Psychological approaches to altruism: An evaluation. *Ethics* 92.3, 447-458.
- Kristensen, H., & Gärling, T. (1997). The Effects of Anchor Points and Reference Points on Negotiation Processes and Outcomes. *Organizational Behavioral Human Decision Process*, 256-279.
- Kronzon, S., & Darley, J. (1999). Is this tactic ethical? Biased judgments of ethics in negotiation. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology* 21.1, 49-60.
- Kühberger, A. (1998). The influence of framing on risky decisions: A meta-analysis. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 75.1, 23-55.
- Kuhlman, D. M., Camac, C., & Cunha, D. A. (1986). Individual differences in social orientation. *Experimental social dilemmas* 3, 151-176.
- Kuhlman, D. M., & Marshello, A. (1975). Individual differences in the game motives of own, relative, and joint gain. *Journal of Research in Personality* 9.3, 240-251.
- Kuhlman, D. M., & Marshello, A. F. J. (1975). Individual Differences in Game Motivation as Moderators of Preprogrammed Strategy Effects in Prisoner's Dilemma. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 922-931.
- Kuhlman, D. M., & Wimberley, D. L. (1976). Expectations of choice behavior held by cooperators, competitors, and individualists across four classes of experimental games. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69.

- Kumar, R., & Worm, V. (2004). Institutional Dynamics and The Negotiation Process: Comparing India and China. *International Journal of Conflict Management Vol. 15, No. 3*, 304-334.
- Kurland, N. B. (1995). Ethics, Incentives, and Conflicts of Interest: A Practical Solution. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 465-475.
- Lamm, H., & Kogan, N. (1970). Risk taking in the context of intergroup negotiations. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 6, 351-363.
- Lange, P. A. M. V. (1999). The Pursuit of Joint Outcomes and Equality in Outcomes: An Integrative Model of Social Value Orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 77, No. 72, 337-349.
- Larkin, J. M. (2000). The ability of internal auditors to identify ethical dilemmas. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 401-409.
- Laughunn, D. J., Payne, J. W., & Crum, R. (1980). Managerial risk preferences for below-target returns. *Management Science*, 1238-1249.
- Lebiere, C., & Anderson, J. R. (2011). Cognitive constraints on decision making under uncertainty. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 305.
- Lechuga, J., Swain, G. R., & Weinhardt, L. S. (2011). Impact of framing on intentions to vaccinate daughters against HPV: a cross-cultural perspective. *Annals of behavioral medicine* 42.2, 221-226.
- LeDoux, J. (2012). Rethinking the emotional brain. *Neuron* 73.4, 653-676.
- Lee, W.-P. (2004). Towards agent-based decision making in the electronic marketplace: interactive recommendation and automated negotiation. *Expert Systems with Applications* 27, 665-679.
- Lei, P. W., & Wu, Q. (2007). Introduction to structural equation modeling: Issues and practical considerations. *Educational Measurement: issues and practice* 26.3, 33-43.
- Lelieveld, G. J., Van Dijk, E., Van Beest, I., Steinel, W., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2011). Disappointed in you, angry about your offer: Distinct negative emotions induce concessions via different mechanisms. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 47.3, 635-641.

- Levin, I. P., & Chapman, D. P. (1990). Risk taking, frame of reference, and characterization of victim groups in AIDS treatment decisions. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 26.5, 421-434.
- Levin, I. P., Schneider, S. L., & Gaeth, G. J. (1998). All frames are not created equal: A typology and critical analysis of framing effects. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 76.2, 149-188.
- Levine, E. E., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2015). Prosocial lies: When deception breeds trust. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 88-106.
- Levy, R. (1980). Business" big morality play. *Dun 's Review*, Vol. 116 No. 2, 5661.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Robinson, R. J. (1998). Ethical and unethical bargaining tactics: an empirical study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 665-682.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Stark, N. (1996). What Is Ethically Appropriate in Negotiations: An Empirical Examination of Bargaining Tactics. *Social Justice Research*, Vol. 9, No. 1, 69-95.
- Lewin, K. (1948). Resolving social conflicts; selected papers on group dynamics.
- Lewis, A. (1967). Problems presented by the ambiguous word "anxiety" as used in psychopathology. *Israel Annals of Psychiatry & related disciplines*, 105-121.
- Li, J., Zhu, L., Gummerum, Michaela, & Sun, Y. (2013). The development of social value orientation across different contexts. *International Journal of Psychology*, 48(4), 469-480. *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 48, No. 4, 469-480.
- Li, Y., Yao, F. K., & Ahlstrom, D. (2015). The social dilemma of bribery in emerging economies: A dynamic model of emotion, social value, and institutional uncertainty. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 311-334.
- Liebrand, W. B., Jansen, R. W., Rijken, V. M., & Suhre, C. J. (1986). Might over morality: Social values and the perception of other players in experimental games. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 22, 203-215.
- Liebrand, W. B., & McClintock, C. G. (1988). The ring measure of social values: A computerized procedure for assessing individual differences in information processing and social value orientation. *European journal of personality* 2.3, 217-230.

- Liebrand, W. B. G. (1984). The effect of social motives, communication and group size on behaviour in an N-person multi-stage mixed-motive game. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 239-264.
- Liebrand, W. B. G., & Van Run, G. J. (1985). The effects of social motives on behavior in social dilemmas in two cultures. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 86-102.
- Liebrand, W. B. G., Wilke, H. A. M., Vogel, R., & Wolters, F. J. M. (1986). Value orientation and conformity: A study using three types of social dilemma games. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 77-97.
- Lin, X., & Miller, S. J. (2003). Negotiation approaches: direct and indirect effect of national culture. *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 20 No. 3, 286-303.
- Liu, L. A., Friedman, R. A., & Chi, S.-c. (2005). 'Ren Qing' versus the 'Big Five': The Role of Culturally Sensitive Measures of Individual Difference in Distributive Negotiations. *Management and Organization Review* 1:2, 225-247.
- Loe, T. W., Linda, F., & Phylis, M. (2000). A review of empirical studies assessing ethical decision making in business. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 185-204.
- Loewenstein, G., & Issacharoff, S. (1994). Source dependence in the valuation of objects. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making* 7.3, 157-169.
- Loewenstein, G. F., Thompson, L., & Bazerman, M. H. (1989). Social utility and decision making in interpersonal context. *Journal of Personality and Social psychology* 57.3 426.
- Lopez, F. G., & Rice, K. G. (2006). Preliminary development and validation of a measure of relationship authenticity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 53.3, 362-371.
- Ma, Z. (2010). The SINS in Business Negotiations: Explore the Cross-Cultural Differences in Business Ethics Between Canada and China. *Journal of Business Ethics* 91, 123-135.
- Macrimmon, K. R., & Messick, D. M. (1976). A framework for social motives. *Behavioral Science*, 86-100.
- Malinowski, C., & Berger., K. A. (1996). Undergraduate student attitudes about hypothetical marketing dilemmas. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 525-535.

- Mannix, E. A., & Neale, M. A. (1993). Power Imbalance and the Pattern of Exchange in Dyadic Negotiation *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 2:1, 119-133.
- Marteau, T. M. (1989). Framing of information: Its influence upon decisions of doctors and patients. *British Journal of Social Psychology* 28.1, 89-94.
- Martinez, L. M., Zeelenberg, M., & Rijsman, J. B. (2011). Behavioural consequences of regret and disappointment in social bargaining games. *Cognition and Emotion* 25.2 351-359.
- Marwell, G., Ratcliff, K., & Schmitt, D. R. (1969). Minimizing differences in a maximizing difference game. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 158.
- Marwell, G., & Schmitt, D. R. (1972). Cooperation in a three-person prisoner's dilemma. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 21, No. 3, 376-383.
- Mathews, A. (1990). Why worry? The cognitive function of anxiety. *Behaviour research and therapy* 28.6, 455-468.
- Matsumoto, D., & Willingham, B. (2009). Spontaneous facial expressions of emotion of congenitally and noncongenitally blind individuals. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 96.1, 1-10.
- Maule, A. J., Hockey, G. R. J., & Bdzola, L. (2000). Effects of time-pressure on decision-making under uncertainty: changes in affective state and information processing strategy. *Acta psychologica* 104.3, 283-301.
- Mazar, N., Amir, O., & Ariely, D. (2008). The dishonesty of honest people: A theory of self-concept maintenance. *Journal of marketing research*, 633-644.
- McClintock, G., C., & Avermaet, E. V. (1982). Social values and rules of fairness: A theoretical perspective. *Cooperation and helping behavior*, 43-71.
- McClintock, C. G. (1972). Social motivation: A set of propositions. *Behavioral Science*, 438-454.
- McClintock, C. G. (1972). Social motivation—A set of propositions. *Behavioral Science*, 438-454.

- McClintock, C. G. (1974). Development of social motives in Anglo-American and Mexican-American children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 29.3, 348.
- McClintock, C. G., & Allison, S. T. (1989). Social value orientation and helping behavior 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 19.4, 353-362.
- McClintock, C. G., & Liebrand, W. B. (1988). Role of interdependence structure, individual value orientation, and another's strategy in social decision making: A transformational analysis. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 55.3, 396.
- McClintock, C. G., Messick, D. M., Kuhlman, D. M., & Campos, F. T. (1973). Motivational bases of choice in three-choice decomposed games. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 572-590.
- McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 175-219.
- McDevitt, R., Giapponi, C., & Tromley, C. (2007). A Model of Ethical Decision Making: The Integration of Process and Content. *Journal of Business Ethics* 73, 219-229.
- McDonald, G., & Pak, P. C. (1996). It's all fair in love, war, and business: Cognitive philosophies in ethical decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 973-996.
- McKinney, J. A., & Moore, C. W. (2008). International bribery: Does a written code of ethics make a difference in perceptions of business professionals. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 103-111.
- Mead, N. L., Baumeister, R. F., Gino, F., Schweitzer, M. E., & Ariely, D. (2009). Too tired to tell the truth: Self-control resource depletion and dishonesty. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 594-597.
- Messick, D., & McClintock, C. G. (1968). Motivational bases of choice in experimental games. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 1-25.
- Messick, D. M., & Sentis, K. P. (1985). Estimating social and nonsocial utility functions from ordinal data. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 15.4 389-399.

- Miller, J. G. (1993). Cultural diversity in the morality of caring: Individually oriented versus duty-based interpersonal moral codes. *Cross-cultural research* 28.1, 3-39.
- Mills, J., & Clark, M. S. (1982). Exchange and communal relationships. *Review of personality and social psychology* 3, 121-144.
- Mintu-Wimsatt, A. (2002). Personality and Negotiation Style The Moderating Effects of Cultural Context. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 727-748.
- Mislin, A. A., Campagna, R. L., & Bottom, W. P. (2011). After the deal: Talk, trust building and the implementation of negotiated agreements. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 115.1, 55-68.
- Moberg, P. J. (2001). Linking conflict strategy to the five-factor model: Theoretical and empirical foundations. *International journal of conflict management* 12.1, 47-68.
- Moore, T. W., & Casper, W. J. (2006). An examination of proxy measures of workplace spirituality: a profile models of multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 12, No. 4, 109-118.
- Moran, S., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2008). When Better is Worse: Envy and the Use of Deception in Negotiations. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 1, 3-29.
- Morgan, W. R., & Sawyer, J. (1967). Bargaining, expectations, and the preference for equality over equity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 6(2), 139.
- Morris, M. W., Larrick, R. P., & Su, S. K. (July 1999). Misperceiving Negotiation Counterparts: When Situationally Determined Bargaining Behaviors Are Attributed to Personality Traits. *J Pers Soc Psychol*, 52-67.
- Morris, M. W., Leung, K., & Sethi, S. (2004). Person perception in the heat of conflict: Perceptions of opponents' traits and conflict resolution choices in two cultures. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 127-147.
- Morris, M. W., Sim, D. L., & Giroto, V. (1998). Distinguishing sources of cooperation in the one-round prisoner's dilemma: Evidence for cooperative decisions based on the illusion of control. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 34.5, 494-512.

- Muench, G. A. (1963). A clinical psychologist's treatment of labor management conflicts: a four year study. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 92-97.
- Muncy, J. A., & Vitell, S. J. (1992). Consumer ethics: An investigation of the ethical beliefs of the final consumer. *Journal of business Research*.
- Murnighan, J. K., Babcock, L., Thompson, L., & Pillutla, M. (1999). THE INFORMATION DILEMMA IN NEGOTIATIONS: EFFECTS OF EXPERIENCE, INCENTIVES, AND INTEGRATIVE POTENTIAL. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, 313-339.
- Murphy, P., & Iacznik, G. R. (1981). Marketing Ethics: A Review with Implications for Managers, Educators and Researchers. *Review of Marketing*, 251-266.
- Murphy, R. O., & Ackermann, K. A. (2013). Social Value Orientation: Theoretical and Measurement Issues in the Study of Social Preferences. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 1-29.
- Murphy, R. O., Ackermann, K. A., & Handgraaf, M. J. (2011). Measuring Social Value Orientation. *Judgment and Decision Making*, 771-781.
- Narayanan, A. (2008). The Resilient Individual: A Personality Analysis. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology Vol. 34*, 110-118.
- Nash, J. F. (1950). The Bargaining Problem. *Econometrica*, 155-162.
- Nauta, A., De Dreu, C. K., & Der Vaart, T. V. (2002). Social value orientation, organizational goal concerns and interdepartmental problem-solving behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior* 23.2, 199-213.
- Neale, M. A., & H., B. M. (1992). Negotiating rationally: The power and impact of the negotiator's frame. *Academy of Management Perspectives* 6.3, 42-51.
- Nelissen, R. M. A., Leliveld, M. C., Van Dijk, E., & Zeelenberg, M. (2011). Fear and guilt in proposers: Using emotions to explain offers in ultimatum bargaining. *European Journal of Social Psychology* 41, 78-85.
- Newberry, K. J., Reckers, P. M., & Wyndelts, R. W. (1993). An examination of tax practitioner decisions: The role of preparer sanctions and framing effects associated with client condition. *Journal of Economic Psychology* 14.2, 439-452.

- Norton, G. R., Cox, B. J., Hewitt, P. L., & McLeod, L. (1997). Personality factors associated with generalized and non-generalized social anxiety. *Personality and Individual Differences* 22.5, 655-660.
- Nucci, L. (2002). Because It Is the Right Thing to Do. *Human Development*, 125–129.
- Nwanji, T. I., & Howell, K. E. (2007). The Stakeholder Theory in the Modern Global Business Environment. *International Journal of Applied Institutional Governance Vol. 1*.
- O'Connor, K. M., & Carnevale, P. J. (1997). A Nasty But Effective Negotiation Strategy: Misrepresentation of a Common-Value Issue. *Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 23, No. 5, 504-515.
- O'Fallon, M. J., & Butterfield, K. D. (2005). A Review of The Empirical Ethical Decision-Making Literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 375–413.
- Okeke, E. N., & Godlonton, S. (2014). Doing wrong to do right? Social preferences and dishonest behavior. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization* 106, 124-139.
- Olefir, V. (2018). Personality resources as a mediator of the relationship between antecedents of stress and pre-competitive anxiety. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport* 18.4, 2230-2234.
- Olekalns, M., Kulik, C. T., & Chew, L. (2014). Sweet little lies: Social context and the use of deception in negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics* 120.1, 13-26.
- Olekalns, M., & Smith, P. L. (1999). Social Value Orientations and Strategy Choices in Competitive Negotiations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 25 No. 6, 657-668.
- Olekalns, M., & Smith, P. L. (2009). Mutually Dependent: Power, Trust, Affect and the Use of Deception in Negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85:347–365.
- Olekans, M., Smith, P. L., & Kibby, R. (1996). Social value orientations and negotiator outcomes. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 26, 299-313.
- Ome, B. N. (2013). Personality and Gender Differences in Preference for Conflict Resolution Styles. *Gender & Behaviour*, 5512-5524.
- Oswald, A. J., Proto, E., & Sgroi, D. (2015). Happiness and Productivity. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 2015, vol. 33, no. 4, 789-822.

- Ouden, D., & Russell, G. W. (1997). Sympathy and altruism in response to disasters: A Dutch and Canadian comparison. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal* 25.3, 241-248.
- Packer, M. J. (1944). The Structure of Moral Action A Hermeneutic Study of Moral Conflict. *Phenomenology Pedagogy*.
- Paese, P. W. (1995). Effects of framing on actual time allocation decisions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 61.1, 67-76.
- Paese, P. W., Bieser, M., & Tubbs, M. E. (1993). Framing effects and choice shifts in group decision making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 56.1, 149-165.
- Paulhus, D. L., & Williams, K. M. (2002). The Dark Triad of personality: Narcissism, Machiavellianism, and Psychopathy. *Journal of Research in Personality* 556-563.
- Peleckis, K. (2016). International Business Negotiation Strategies based on Bargaining Power Assessment the case of Attracting Investments. *Journal of Business Economics and Management, Vol. 17*, 882-900.
- Pelfrey, S., & Peacock, E. (1991). Ethical codes of conduct are improving. *Business Forum*, 14-18.
- Perry, G. M., & Nixon, C. J. (2005). The Influence of Role Models on Negotiation Ethics of College Students. *Journal of Business Ethics* 62, 25-40.
- Petrinovich, L., & O'Neill, P. (1996). Influence of wording and framing effects on moral intuitions. *Ethology and Sociobiology* 17.3, 145-171.
- Phillips, A. R. (1997). Stakeholder Theory and A Principle of Fairness. *Business Ethics Quarterly, Vol. 7, No. 1*, 51-66.
- Pinkley, R. L., & Northcraft, G. B. (1994). Conflict frames of reference: Implications for dispute processes and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal* 37.1, 193-205.
- Pitesa, M., & Thau, S. (2013). Compliant sinners, obstinate saints: How power and self-focus determine the effectiveness of social influences in ethical decision making. *Academy of Management Journal* 56.3, 635-658.

- Plant, E. A., & Devine, P. G. (2003). The antecedents and implications of interracial anxiety. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 29.6, 790-801.
- Polzer, J. T., Neale, M. A., & Glenn, P. O. (1993). The effects of relationships and justification in an interdependent allocation task. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 2(2), 135-148.
- Prentice, R. A. (2000). The SEC and MDP: Implications of the self-serving bias for independent auditing. *Ohio St. LJ* 61, 1597-1670.
- Prot, S., Gentile, D. A., Anderson, C. A., Suzuki, K., Swing, E., Lim, K. M., Horiuchi, Y., Jelic, M., Krahé, B., Liuqing, W., Liao, A. K., Khoo, A., Petrescu, P. D., Sakamoto, A., & Lam, B. C. P. (2014). Long-term relations among prosocial-media use, empathy, and prosocial behavior. *Psychological science* 25.2, 358-368.
- Provis, C. (2000). Ethics, Deception and Labor Negotiation *Journal of Business Ethics*.
- PRUITT, D. G. (1967). REWARD STRUCTURE AND COOPERATION: THE DECOMPOSED PRISONER'S DILEMMA GAME. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 21-27.
- Pruitt, D. G., Carnevale, P. J. D., Forcey, B., & Slyck, M. V. (1986). Gender Effects in Negotiation: Constituent Surveillance and Contentious Behavior. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY* 22, 264-275.
- Pruitt, D. G., & Drews, J. L. (1969). The effect of time pressure, time elapsed, and the opponent's concession rate on behavior in negotiation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 5, 43-69.
- Pruitt, D. G., & Johnson, D. F. (1972). Mediation as an aid to face saving in negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 239.
- Pruitt, D. G., & Kimmel, M. J. (1977). Twenty years of experimental gaming: Critique, synthesis, and suggestions for the future. *Annual review of psychology*, 363-392.
- Pruitt, D. G., & Lewis, S. A. (1975). Development of integrative solutions in bilateral negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 31, 621-630.
- Qualls, W. J., & Puto, C. P. (1989). Organizational climate and decision framing an integrated approach to analyzing industrial buying decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research* 26.2, 179-192.

- Quinn, D. P., & Jones, T. M. (1995). An Agent Morality View of Business Policy. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20, No. 1, 22-42.
- Rahim, A. M. (1983). A Measure of Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict. *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 26, No. 2, 368-376.
- Rahim, A. M., Magner, N. R., & Shapiro, D. L. (2000). Do justice perceptions influence styles of handling conflict with supervisors?: What justice perceptions, precisely? *International Journal of Conflict Management* 11.1, 9-31.
- Raskin, R., & Hall, C. (1979). A Narcissistic Personality Inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 590.
- Rawls, J. (1985). Justice as Fairness: Political not Metaphysical. *Philosophy and Public Affairs*, 223-251.
- Razzaque, M. A., & Hwee, T. P. (2002). Ethics and purchasing dilemma: A Singaporean view. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 307-326.
- Redmond, M. V. (2015). Social Exchange Theory. *English Technical Reports and White Papers*, 5.
- Reinders Folmer, C. P., & Cremer, D. D. (2012). Bad for me or bad for us? Interpersonal orientations and the impact of losses on unethical behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 38.6, 760-771.
- Reitz, H. J., Wall, J. A., & Love, M. S. (1998). Ethics in Negotiation: Oil and Water or Good Lubrication? *Business Horizons*, May-June, 5-14.
- Richards, A., French, C. C., Calder, A. J., Webb, B., Fox, R., & Young, A. W. (2002). Anxiety-related bias in the classification of emotionally ambiguous facial expressions. *Emotion* 2, 273-287.
- Riddick, B., Sterling, C., Farmer, M., & Morgan, S. (1999). Self-esteem and anxiety in the educational histories of adult dyslexic students. *Dyslexia* 5.4, 227-248.
- Ritov, I. (Vol. 67, No. 1, July, 1996). Anchoring in Simulated Competitive Market Negotiation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 16-25.
- Robin, D., Giallourakis, M., David, F. R., & Moritz, T. E. (1989). A Different Look at Codes of Ethics. *Business Horizons*, Vol. 32 No. 1, 66-73.

- Robinson, R. J., Lewicki, R. J., & Donahue, E. M. (2000). Extending and testing a five factor model of ethical and unethical bargaining tactics: Introducing the SINS scale. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior* 21.6, 649-664.
- Robinson, S. L., & Kraatz, M. S. (1998). Constructing the reality of normative behavior: The use of neutralization strategies by organizational deviants.
- Roccas, S., Sagiv, L., Schwartz, S. H., & Knafo, A. (2002). The Big Five Personality Factors and Personal Values. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 28, No. 6, 789-801.
- Rogers, M. P., White, K., Warshaw, M. G., Yonkers, K. A., Rodriguez-Villa, F., Chang, G., & Keller, M. B. (1994). Prevalence of medical illness in patients with anxiety disorders. *The International Journal of Psychiatry in Medicine* 24, 83-96.
- Roozen, I., Pelsmacker, P. D., & Bostyn, F. (2001). The ethical dimensions of decision processes of employees. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 87-99.
- Rosellini, A. J., & Brown, T. A. (2011). The NEO Five-Factor Inventory: Latent structure and relationships with dimensions of anxiety and depressive disorders in a large clinical sample. *Assessment* 18.1, 27-38.
- Rosenberg, M. (1962). The association between self-esteem and anxiety. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, 135-152.
- Rossiter, J., & Thomson, R. (2004). WorldCom Scandal Lawyers Net£ 145m. *Evening Standard* 11.
- Rottenstreich, Y., & Hsee, C. K. (2001). Money, kisses, and electric shocks: On the affective psychology of risk. *Psychological science* 12.3, 185-190.
- Rubin, J. Z., & Sander, F. E. A. (1991). Culture, Negotiation, and the Eye of the Beholder. *Negotiation journal*, 249-254.
- Ruedy, N. E., Moore, C., Gino, F., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2013). The cheater's high: The unexpected affective benefits of unethical behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 531-548.

- Rusbult, C. E., & Van Lange, P. A. M. (2003). Interdependence, Interaction, and Relationships. *Annual Review Psychology* 54, 351–375.
- Russell, G. W., & Mentzel, R. K. (1990). Sympathy and altruism in response to disasters. *The Journal of social psychology* 130.3, 309-316.
- Samuelson, W. F., & Bazerman, M. H. (1984). Negotiation under the winner's curse. *Research in Experimental Economics, ed. V Smith, 3*, 105–138.
- Sawyer, J. (1966). The altruism scale: A measure of co-operative, individualistic, and competitive interpersonal orientation. *American Journal of Sociology* 71.4, 407-416.
- Schein, E. H. (1996). Culture: The Missing Concept in Organization Studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41, 229-240.
- Schell-Busey, N. M. (2009). The Deterrent Effects of Ethics Codes for Corporate Crime: A Meta-Analysis. *Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland*.
- Scher, C. D., & Stein, M. B. (2003). Developmental antecedents of anxiety sensitivity. *Journal of anxiety disorders* 17.3, 253-269.
- Schlenkerand, B. R., & Forsyth, D. R. (1977). On the Ethics of Psychological Research. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 369-396.
- Schoeninger, D. W., & Wood, W. D. (1969). Comparison of married and ad hoc mixed-sex dyads negotiating the division of a reward. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 5(4), 483-499.
- Schweitzer, M. E., Ordonez, L., & Doumna, B. (2004). Goat Setting as a Motivator of Unethical Behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 47, No. 3*, 422-432.
- Seo, M.-G., Goldfarb, B., & Barrett, L. F. (2010). Affect and the framing effect within individuals over time: Risk taking in a dynamic investment simulation. *Academy of Management Journal* 53.2, 411-431.
- Shafir, E., & Tversky, A. (1992). Thinking through uncertainty: Nonconsequential reasoning and choice. *Cognitive psychology* 24.4, 449-474.
- Shah, P. P., & Jehn, A. K. (1993). Do friends perform better than acquaintances? The interaction of friendship, conflict, and task. *Group decision and negotiation* 2.2, 149-165.

- Shahrier, S., Kotani, K., & Kakinaka, M. (2016). Social value orientation and capitalism in societies. *PLoS One* 11.10, e0165067.
- Shalvi, S., Eldar, O., & Bereby-Meyer, Y. (2012). Honesty requires time (and lack of justifications). *Psychological science* 23.10, 1264-1270.
- Shan, W., & Hamilton, W. (1991). Country--Specific advantage and international cooperation. *Strategic Management Journal* 12.6, 419-432.
- Shapeero, M., Koh, H. C., & Killough, L. N. (2003). Underreporting and premature sign-off in public accounting. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 478-489.
- Sharp, F. C. (1898). An Objective Study of Some Moral Judgements. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 198-234.
- Sheep, M. L. (2006). Nurturing the whole person: the effects of workplace spirituality in a society of organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 66, pp. , 357-375.
- Sheer, V. C., & Chen, L. (2003). Successful Sino-Western Business Negotiation: Participants' Accounts of National and Professional Cultures. *The Journal of Business Communication*, V. 40, N. 1, 50-85.
- Shiv, B., Loewenstein, G., Bechara, A., Damasio, H., & Damasio, A. R. (2005). Investment behavior and the negative side of emotion. . *Psychological science*, 16.6, 435-439.
- Shua, L. L., Mazar, N., Gino, F., Ariely, D., & Bazerman, M. H. (2012). Signing at the beginning makes ethics salient and decreases dishonest self-reports in comparison to signing at the end. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 15197-15200.
- Simintiras, & C., A. (2000). The role of tautological equivalence in cross-cultural sales negotiations. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 12 No. 4, 33-53.
- Singhapakdi, A., & Vitell, S. J. (1990). Marketing ethics: Factors influencing perceptions of ethical problems and alternatives. *Journal of Macromarketing* 10, 4-18.
- Skidmore, S. T., & Thompson, B. (2013). Bias and precision of some classical ANOVA effect sizes when assumptions are violated. *Behavior research methods* 45.2, 536-546.

- Skidmore Troncoso, S., & Thompson, B. (2010). Statistical techniques used in published articles: A historical review of reviews. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 70.5, 777-795.
- Smith, A., & Hume, E. C. (2005). Linking culture and ethics: A comparison of accountants' ethical belief systems in the individualism/collectivism and power distance contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics* 62.3, 209-220.
- Smith, P. L., & Oakley, E. F. (1997). Gender-related differences in ethical and social values of business students: Implications for management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 37-45.
- Sondak, H., & Bazerman, H. M. (1989). Matching and negotiation processes in quasi-markets. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 44.2, 261-280.
- Spielberger, C. D. (2010). State-Trait anxiety inventory. *The Corsini encyclopedia of psychology*.
- Stark, A. (1993). What's the matter with business ethics? *Harvard business review*, 38-40.
- Stefanidis, A., & Banai, M. (2014). Ethno-cultural considerations in negotiation: pretense, deception and lies in the Greek workplace. *Business Ethics: A European Review, Vol. 23, No. 2*, 197-217.
- Stefanidis, A., Banai, M., & Richter, U. H. (2013). Employee attitudes toward questionable negotiation tactics: empirical evidence from Peru. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 24, No. 4*, 826-852.
- Steinel, W. (2015). Social value orientation and deception: are proselves liars? *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 211-215.
- Steinel, W., & De Dreu, C. K. (2004). Social motives and strategic misrepresentation in social decision making. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 86.3 (2004): 419., 419-434.

- Steinel, W., Utz, S., & Koning, L. (2010). The good, the bad and the ugly thing to do when sharing information: Revealing, concealing and lying depend on social motivation, distribution and importance of information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 85-96.
- Swanson, L. M., Arnedt, J. T., Rosekind, M. R., Belenky, G., Balkin, T. J., & Drake, C. (2011). Sleep disorders and work performance: findings from the 2008 National Sleep Foundation Sleep in America poll. *Journal of sleep research* 20, 487-494.
- Tamir, M., & Ford, B. Q. (2012). When feeling bad is expected to be good: Emotion regulation and outcome expectancies in social conflicts. *Emotion* 12.4, 807.
- Tanzi, V. (1998). Corruption around the world: Causes, consequences, scope, and cures. *Staff papers* 45.4, 559-594.
- Tenbrunsel, A. E. (1998). Misrepresentation and expectations of misrepresentation in an ethical dilemma: The role of incentives and temptation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 330-339.
- Tennyson, S. (1997). Economic Institutions and individual ethics: A study of consumer attitudes toward insurance fraud *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, Vol. 32, 247-265.
- Teraoka, T. (1983). Detection of the general response tendency in the social interaction situation. *Hokkaido Behavioral Science Report, Series*, 1-45.
- Thaler, R. (1980). Toward a positive theory of consumer choice. *Journal of economic behavior & organization* 1.1, 39-60.
- Thibaut, J. (1968). The development of contractual norms in bargaining: Replication and variation. *Journal of Conflict Resolution* 12.1, 102-112.
- Thibaut, J., & Faucheux, C. (1965). The development of contractual norms in a bargaining situation under two types of stress. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 1.1, 89-102.
- Thompson, L. (1990). Negotiation behavior and outcomes: Empirical evidence and theoretical issues. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 108, No. 3., 515-553.
- Thompson, L., & DeHarpport, T. (1990). Negotiation in long-term relationships. *In Third Annual Meeting of the International Association for Conflict Management, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada.*

- Thompson, L., & Loewenstein, G. (1992). Egocentric interpretations of fairness and interpersonal conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 51.2 176-197.
- Thompson, L., Peterson, E., & Brodt, S. E. (1996). Team Negotiation: An Examination of Integrative and Distributive Bargaining. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 70., No. 1., 66-78
- Thompson, L., Valley, K. L., & Kramer, R. M. (1995). The bittersweet feeling of success: An examination of social perception in negotiation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 31.6, 467-492.
- Tilley, A. J., Wilkinson, R. T., Warren, G., P. S., Watson, B., & M., D. (1982). The Sleep and Performance of Shift Workers. *Human Factors*, 24, 629-641.
- Timilsina, R. R., Kotani, K., & Kamijo, Y. (2019). Generativity and social value orientation between rural and urban societies in a developing country. *Futures* 105, 124-132.
- Tinari, F. (1993). Competition for Forensic Economists and Their Ethical Behavior. *Journal of Forensic Economics* 6, 263-269.
- Tinsley, C. H., & Pillutla, M. M. (1998). Negotiating in the United States and Hong Kong. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 29 No. 4, 711-727.
- Topf, M. (1976). Q: In beginning research courses nursing students often display anxiety and negative reactions. How may these be circumvented or corrected? *Nursing research* 25.4, 293-295.
- Trevino, L. K. (1986). Ethical decision making in organizations: A person-situation interactionist model. *Academy of management Review*, 601-617.
- Trevino, L. K., & Weaver, G. R. (1994). Business ETHICS/BUSINESS ethics: One field or two? *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 113-128.
- Trevino, L. K., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad Apples in Bad Barrels: A Causal Analysis of Ethical Decision-Making Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol, 75, No. 4, 378-385
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological review* 96.3, 506.

- Triandis, H. C., Carnevale, P., & Gelfand, M. J. (2001). Culture and deception in business negotiations: A multilevel analysis. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 73-90.
- Trimarco, K. A. (1997). The Effects of a Graduate Learning Experience on Anxiety, Achievement, and Expectations in Research and Statistics.
- Tucker, A. W. (1983). The Mathematics of Tucker: A Sampler. *The Two-Year College Mathematics Journal*, Vol. 14, No. 3, 228-232.
- Tung, A. W., & Kwong, J. Y. (2004). Measurements and effects of social-value orientation in social dilemmas. *Contemporary psychological research on social dilemmas*, 71-98.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1981). The framing of decisions and the psychology of choice. *Science vol. 211*, 453-458.
- Upton, D. R. (2009). Implications of social value orientation and budget levels on group performance and performance variance. *Journal of management accounting research 21.1*, 293-316.
- Uskul, A. K., Sherman, D. K., & Fitzgibbon, J. (2009). The cultural congruency effect: Culture, regulatory focus, and the effectiveness of gain-vs. loss-framed health messages. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 45.3*, 535-541.
- Valley, K. L. (1993). Relationships and resources: A network exploration of allocation decisions. 3995-3995.
- Van Dijk, E., Cremer, D. D., & Handgraaf, M. J. (2004). Social value orientations and the strategic use of fairness in ultimatum bargaining. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 40*, 697-707.
- Van Kleef, G. A., De Dreu, C. K., & Manstead, A. S. (2004). The interpersonal effects of anger and happiness in negotiations. *Journal of personality and social psychology 86.1*, 57.
- Van Kleef, G. A., De Dreu, C. K. W., Pietroni, D., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2006). Power and emotion in negotiation: Power moderates the interpersonal effects of anger and happiness on concession making. *European Journal of Social Psychology 36.4*, 557-581.

- Van Kleef, G. A., & Van Lange, P. A. (2008). What other's disappointment may do to selfish people: Emotion and social value orientation in a negotiation context. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 34.8, 1084-1095.
- Van Lange, P. A. (1999). The pursuit of joint outcomes and equality in outcomes: An integrative model of social value orientation. *Journal of personality and social psychology* Vol. 77, No. 2, 337.
- Van Lange, P. A., Rusbult, C. E., Drigotas, S. M., Arriaga, X. B., Witcher, B. S., & Cox, C. L. (1997). Willingness to sacrifice in close relationships. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 72.6, 1373-1395.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., Agnew, C. R., Harinck, F., & Steemers, G. E. M. (1997). From game theory to real life: How social value orientation affects willingness to sacrifice in ongoing close relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* Vol. 73 No.6, 1330-1344.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., Joireman, J., Parks, C. D., & Van Dijk, E. (2013). The psychology of social dilemmas: A review. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 120.2, 125-141.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., & Kuhlman, D. M. (1994). Social Value Orientations and Impressions of Partner's Honesty and Intelligence: A Test of the Might Versus Morality Effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.67, No. 1, 126-141.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., Liebrand, W. B. G., & Kuhlman, M. D. (1990). Causal Attribution of Choice Behavior in Three N-Person Prisoner's Dilemmas. *JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY*, 34-48.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., Otten, W., De Bruin, E. M. N., & Joireman, J. A. (1997). Development of Prosocial, Individualistic, and Competitive Orientations: Theory and Preliminary Evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 733-746.
- Van Vugt, M., Meertens, R. M., & Van Lange, P. A. (1995). Car Versus Public Transportation? The Role of Social Value Orientations in a Real-Life Social Dilemma. *Journal of applied social psychology* 25.3, 258-278.

- Verbeke, W., Ouwerkerk, C., & Peelen, E. (1996). Exploring the contextual and individual factors on ethical decision making of salespeople. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1175-1187.
- Vidmar, N. (1971). Effects of representational roles and mediators on negotiator effectiveness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 17, No. 1, 48-58.
- Vitell, S. J., Kumar C. Rallapalli, and Anusorn Singhapakdi. (1993). Marketing norms: The influence of personal moral philosophies and organizational ethical culture. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 21, 331.
- Vitell, S. J., & Festervand, T. A. (1987). Business Ethics: Conflicts, Practices and Beliefs of Industrial Executives *Journal of Business Ethics* 6, 111-122.
- Vitell, S. J., Nwachukwu, S. L., & Barnes, H. J. (1993). The effects of culture on ethical decision-making: An application of Hofstede's typology. *Journal of business Ethics* 12.10, 753-760.
- Volkema, R. J. (1998). A comparison of perceptions of ethical negotiation behavior in Mexico and the United States. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 218-233.
- Volkema, R. J., & Fleury, M. T. L. (2002). Alternative negotiating conditions and the choice of negotiation tactics: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 381-398.
- Wall, J. A., & Blum, M. W. (1991). Negotiations. *Journal of Management*, 273-303.
- Walters, A. E., Stuhlmacher, A. F., & Meyer, L. L. (1998). Gender and negotiator competitiveness: A meta-analysis. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes* 76.1 1-29.
- Wang, M., Wang, H., Vogel, D., Kumar, K., & Chiu, D. K. W. (2009). Agent-Based Negotiation and Decision Making for Dynamic Supply Chain Formation. *Engineering Applications Of Artificial Intelligence*, Vol 22, No. 7, 1046-1055.
- Wang, X. T. (1996). Evolutionary hypotheses of risk-sensitive choice: Age differences and perspective change. *Ethology and Sociobiology* 17.1, 1-15.
- Watson, C. (1994). Gender versus Power as a Predictor of Negotiation Behavior and Outcomes. *Negotiation journal*, 117-127.

- Weaver, G. R., & Trevino, L. K. (1994). Normative and empirical business ethics: Separation, marriage of convenience, or marriage of necessity? *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 129-143.
- Weber, J. (1990). Managers' Moral Reasoning: Assessing Their Responses to Three Moral Dilemmas. *Human Relations*, Vol. 43, No. 7, 687-702.
- Weeks, W. A., Moore, C. W., McKinne, J. A., & Longenecker, J. G. (1999). The effects of gender and career stage on ethical judgment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 301-313.
- Weick, M., & Guinote, A. (2008). When subjective experiences matter: Power increases reliance on the ease of retrieval. *Journal of personality and social psychology* 94.6, 956.
- Westerman, J. W., Beekun, R. I., Stedham, Y., & Yamamura, J. (2007). Peers Versus National Culture: An Analysis of Antecedents to Ethical Decision-making. *Journal of Business Ethics* 75, 239-252.
- Wichman, H. (1970). Effects of Isolation and communication on cooperation in a two person game. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 16, No. 1, 114-120.
- Wicks, A. C., Gilbert, D. R. J., Freeman, & Edward, R. (1994). A Feminist Reinterpretation of the Stakeholder Concept. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 4, No. 4, 475-497.
- Wilt, J., Oehlberg, K., & Revelle, W. (2011). Anxiety in personality. *Personality and Individual Differences* 50, 987-993.
- Wimalasiri, J. S., Pavri, F., & Jalil, A. A. (1996). An empirical study of moral reasoning among managers in Singapore. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1331-1341.
- Wingen, S., Schroeder, D. C., Ecker, Hannes, Steinhauser, S., Altin, S., Stock, Stephanie, Lechleuthner, A., Hohn, A., & Böttiger, B. W. (2018). Self-confidence and level of knowledge after cardiopulmonary resuscitation training in 14 to 18-year-old schoolchildren: A randomised-interventional controlled study in secondary schools in Germany. *European Journal of Anaesthesiology/ EJA* 35.7, 519-526.

- Wolfe, R. J., & McGinn, K. L. (2005). Perceived Relative Power and its Influence on Negotiations. *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 14: 13–20.
- Wray, L. D., & Stone, E. R. (2005). The role of self-esteem and anxiety in decision making for self versus others in relationships. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making* 18.2, 125-144.
- Wyer, R. S. (1969). Prediction of behavior in two-person games. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 13.3, 222.
- Xu, Z. X., Wang, Y., Zhu, M., & Ma, H. K. (2019). Is risk-taking propensity associated with unethical behaviors? An experimental study. *Ethics & Behavior*, 557-571.
- Yalçın, Ö. (2016). Sosyal değer yöneliminin bileşenleri: Bir ölçek geliştirme çalışması. *Nesne-Psikoloji Dergisi* 4.08, 245-267.
- Yamagishi, T., Hashimoto, H., & Schug, J. (2008). Preferences vs. Strategies as Explanations for Culture-Specific Behavior. *Psych. Science* 19.6, 579-584.
- Yamagishi, T., Matsumoto, Y., Kiyonari, T., Takagishi, H., Li, Y., Kanai, R., & Sakagami, M. (2017). Response time in economic games reflects different types of decision conflict for prosocial and proself individuals. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 6394-6399.
- Yik, M. S. M., & Bond, M. H. (1993). Exploring the dimensions of Chinese person perception with indigenous and imported constructs: Creating a culturally balanced scale. *International Journal of Psychology*, 75–95.
- Yiu, T. W., & Lee, H. K. (2010). How do personality traits affect construction dispute negotiation? Study of big five personality model. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management* 137.3, 169-178.
- Yoon, H. J., & Ferle, C. L. (2018). Saving behavior messaging: Gain/loss framing, self/family orientations, and individual differences in collectivism. *Journal of Advertising* 47.2, 146-160.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1982). "Altruism, envy, competitiveness, and the common good." Cooperation and Helping Behavior. *Academic Press*, 417-436.
- Zarkada-Fraser, A., & Fraser, C. (2001). Moral decision making in international sales negotiations. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, Vol. 16, No. 4, 274-293.

- Zeelenberg, M., Van Dijk, W. W., Manstead, A. S. R., & Vanr de Pligt, J. (2000). On bad decisions and disconfirmed expectancies: The psychology of regret and disappointment. *Cognition & Emotion, 14*(4), 521-541.
- Zhang, H., Shi, Y., Zhou, Z. E., Hongyu, M., & Tang, H. (2018). Good people do bad things: How anxiety promotes unethical behavior through intuitive and automatic processing. *Current Psychology*.
- Zhao, J. J. (2000). The Chinese Approach to International Business Negotiation. *The Journal of Business Communication, Vol. 37, No. 3*, 209-237.
- Zhou, X., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister., R. F. (2009). The symbolic power of money: Reminders of money alter social distress and physical pain. *Psychological Science 20.6*, 700-709.

Other Publications

- Oxford English Dictionary. (1993). In. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Philosophyterms*. (2020). <https://philosophyterms.com/telos/>
- Atkins, B. (2019). *Forbes*.
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/betsyatkins/2019/02/07/business-ethics-and-integrity-it-starts-with-the-tone-at-the-top/#41b32bc57c67>
- Cambridge. (2020). *Cambridge*.
<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/de/worterbuch/englisch/lie>
- Forbes. (2002). *Complete Enron Coverage*.
<https://www.forbes.com/2002/04/12/fullenroncoverage.html#33f9bc681a8a>
- Kelley, H. H., Holmes, J. G., Kerr, N. L., Reis, H. T., Rusbult, C. E., & Van Lange, P. A. (2002). An atlas of interpersonal situations. In: Cambridge University Press.
- Kerridge, S., Halaris, C., Mentzas, G., & Kerridge, S. (2000). Virtual Tendering and Bidding in the Construction Sector. First International Conference, EC-Web, London.
- Kjær, P., & Langer, R. (2003). The negotiation of business news: a study of journalist-source interaction. 19th EGOS Conference, Copenhagen.
- Kohlberg, L. (1958). The Development of Modes of Thinking and Choices in Years 10 to 16. In *Ph. D. Dissertation*. USA: University of Chicago.
- Laczniak, G. R. (1983). Business ethics: A manager's primer. In *Business: the magazine of managerial thought and action*.
- Levin, I. P. (1987). *Associative effects of information framing on human judgments*.
- Levin, M. (1989). Ethics Courses: Useless. In *New York Times* 26.
- Liebrand, W. B. G. (1983). Interpersonal Differences in Social Dilemmas; a Game Theoretical Approach. In: Dissertation Thesis.
- Mantar, A. (2008). Anksiyete Duyarlılığı İndeks-3'ün Türkçe Formunun Geçerlilik ve Güvenilirlik Çalışması. In. İzmir: Diss. Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi.
- Meszaros, J., Johnson, E., Hershey, J., Kunreuther, H., & Pollitser, P. (1991). Framing, loss aversion, and insurance decisions. Annual Meeting of the Society for Judgment and Decision Making, San Francisco, CA.

- Mignot, E. (2020). *productcoalition*. <https://productcoalition.com/how-to-manage-stakeholders-as-a-product-manager-c0ce374ee92f>
- Morgan, B. (2018). *Forbes*. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/blakemorgan/2018/01/03/10-major-corporate-blunders-that-wouldnt-have-happened-if-companies-listened-to-their-employees/#61a32f043fa9>
- Newsweek. (1989, October 30). Hey Ma, Get Me a Lawyer. 10.
- Poppe, M. A. M. (1980). Social comparison in two-person experimental games. In: Dissertation Thesis.
- Shonk, K. (2019). *Harvard Law School*. <https://www.pon.harvard.edu/daily/business-negotiations/corporate-negotiation-pitfalls-the-case-of-facebook/>
- Silverstein, K. (2013). *Forbes*. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/kensilverstein/2013/05/14/enron-ethics-and-todays-corporate-values/#5e19b1b95ab8>
- Spielberger, C. D., Gorsuch, R., & Lushene, R. (1970). *The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) Test Manual Form X. C*.
- Spielberger, C. D., & Gorsuch, R. L. (1966). *Mediating processes in verbal conditioning*.
- Suleiman, R., Or-Chen, K., & Suleiman, R. Pro-Socials Are More Risk-Averse Than Other Social Value Orientation Types. In.
- Tamplc, P. (2013). *The origins of the stakeholder concept*. <https://tamplc.wordpress.com/2013/09/20/the-origins-of-the-stakeholder-concept/>
- Tellegen, A. (1982). Brief manual for the differential personality questionnaire. Minneapolis, MN.
- Williams, K. M., Orpen, S., Hutchinson, L. R., Walker, L. J., & Zumbo, B. D. (2006). Personality, Empathy, and Moral Development: Examining Ethical Reasoning in Relation to the Big Five and the Dark Triad. Poster presented at the 67th annual meeting of the Canadian Psychological Association, Calgary, Canada.