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The Moderating Role of Gender in the Relationship between

Ethics and Negotiation Style

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Abstract

Purpose: This study explores three dimensions of how gender and ethics may affect negotiation styles and measures the relationship between gender and ethics.

Design/methodology/approach: This study applied Structural Equations Modelling that focused on the GreTai Security Market to test the effects and differences of gender on negotiation styles.

Findings: The results revealed that gender and ethics significantly affect negotiation styles, and gender significantly affects ethical behaviors.

Originality/value: Current transactions are more complex than they were ever before. Information is asymmetric, and expectations differ between the sides. Therefore, an effective negotiation becomes quite crucial to reaching a win-win result. Different countries have different cultural environments; hence numerous different negotiations styles which merit further studies. However, most prior studies in the field are focused on a single factor used to measure another variable that may not consistently capture how gender and ethics affect negotiation styles and the relationships between gender and ethics

Implications: This study helps multicultural negotiators and companies find the most competent design for improving the efficiency of negotiations in business and other endeavors. Educators and curriculum designers should consider cultural issues as an integral part of their curriculum in their future designs.

Keywords: ethics; gender; negotiation; NSP-12

JEL Code: F22, F23, F51

Effective negotiating is essential in our individual, group, and organizational lives (Farazmand and Tu, 2012; Karsaklian, 2017). Indeed, people are involved in negotiations at work, with family, or with customers (Park et al., 2019; Awosola & Aghemelo, 2020), and negotiating well is a pivotal source of value to customers (Westbrook et al., 2011). However, at the same time, the success of negotiation in business endeavors could be quite challenging (Petkeviciute & Streimikiene, 2017; Spijkman & Jong, 2020).

Negotiation involves resolving conflict or differing preferences between parties by discussion to achieve agreement (Park et al., 2019; Spijkman & Jong, 2020; Han et al., 2021; Tu et al., 2021). It makes it possible for the sides of each transaction to reach an agreement that benefits all parties involved (Karsaklian, 2017). negotiation is intended to achieve a mutually benefited agreement between the sides of the transaction in the form of a process resulting in the final transaction (Baicu, 2014; Karsaklian, 2017; Petkeviciute & Streimikiene, 2017). Each side may have its unique negotiating style, consisting of different strategies, development methods, decision-making models, spatial and temporal orientations, and even behaviors such as taking and giving bribes (Acuff, 1997; Kumar et al., 2004; Awosola & Aghemelo, 2020).

Investigating differences between girls and boys from early childhood, gender-based differences in negotiation style trace to early ages, in which girls learn to value sensitivity, whereas boys learn to prefer toughness and dominance (Rosenberg, 1989; Figueiredo & Pereira, 2021). Thus, a critical source of divergent negotiating styles, gender, in particular, may affect how each individual communicates. For instance, while men communicate directly, women tend to rely on non-verbal methods (Manea et al., 2021).

In addition to gender's predicted impact on negotiation, researchers have considered the possibility that gender may influence negotiators' ethical choices. For example, men are more prone to overlooking their ethics than women, hence their higher tendency to bluff (Lewicki and Robinson, 1998; Manea et al., 2021). However, in existing research, the participants in the GreTai Security Market in Taiwan have not yet been measured. Thus, the current paper tests the effects and differences of gender on ethics with SEM in the GreTai Security Market.

Most empirical studies are based on single factors used to measure another variable and may not consistently capture how gender and ethics affect negotiation styles and the relationships between gender and ethics. For instance, a study reported that research into negotiating behaviors that involve a single variable, such as gender, is shortsighted if other situational variables are ignored (Kolb and Coolidge, 2000). To fill the gap, this study explores three dimensions of how gender and ethics may affect negotiation styles and measures the relationship between gender and ethics. However, in existing research, the participants in the GreTai Security Market in Taiwan have not yet been studied. Thus, the current paper focuses on the GreTai Security Market to test the effects and differences of gender on

negotiation styles with SEM. In other words, this study not only complements the literature by focusing on gender side by side ethics, but it also covers a society less studied before.

Furthermore, Taiwan is a young democracy that exhibits several measures to ensure gender equality. In other words, it is a society that emphasizes the role of gender in development. Therefore, studying an eastern society with gender-sensitive active policies could prove quite fruitful in improving the literature on the role of gender in shaping negotiation styles.

Negotiation Theory

Negotiation is part of the decision-making process where the result is dependent not just on the decision maker's intent but also on the intent of at least another party (Sousa & Roch, 2021). In other words, negotiation is a game with at least two sides, dependent upon the decision function of the two sides and their perception and knowledge of the opposite side. According to negotiating issues and the different attitudes of negotiators, negotiation can be divided into integrative and distributive negotiation (Elgoibar et al., 2021). Five conflict management styles were announced, including collaboration, competition, avoidance, accommodation, and compromise, based on the two dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness (Karsaklian, 2017; Wojciszke & Grodzicki, 2018; Awosola and Aghemelo, 2020). An integrative form that is generally used to achieve negotiation is a cooperative approach, often referred to as a win-win approach, and a distributive form which is commonly demonstrated by the old paradigm of negotiation, is a competitive approach, often called a win-lose approach (Awosola & Aghemelo, 2020; Elgoibar et al., 2021).

As Jung (1971) argues, individuals' perceptions come from their senses and intuitions, giving birth to how they feel and think; eventually, they form their psychic compass. On the one hand, senses reach facts objectively and neutrally with the highest possible degree of accuracy. Intuition is formed through imagination regarding the future. There are two ways: perceiving and processing functions, perceiving information from the inner or outer world into our psychic compass; perceiving functions include senses and intuition, and processing functions contain thinking and feeling (Jung, 1971). Furthermore, while thinking requires applying logical, neutral, objective, and systematic methods, feeling compares data relevance and importance with specific value systems (Casse and Deol, 1985; Tu, 2013). Finally, considering the four aspects of the negotiation styles, sensing is based on facts called Factual Style (FA), intuition on instincts called Intuitive Style (IN), thinking on analytics called Analytical Style (AN), and feeling on norms called Normative Style (NR) (Casse and Deol, 1985; Tu and Chih, 2011, Tu et al., 2021).

The dependent variables used in this study are the four negotiation styles defined by Casse and Deol (1985). Furthermore, the conceptual framework is based on Jung's (1967) psychological types (sensing VS intuition and thinking VS feeling). While Casse and Deol (1985) endeavored to distinguish between negotiating skills and styles, others have worked on assessing the context of negotiation styles

through Exploratory Factor Analysis (Tu, 2007), reliability studies (Tu, 2007; Tu, 2010; Tu & Chih, 2011; Farazmand et al., 2012), and critical ratios, reliability estimates and validation (Tu, 2014).

Gender and Negotiation Style

A variety of research has provided evidence on the possible effects of gender on negotiation. However, there are no statistically significant differences in student negotiation of results attained by gender (Craver, 2002). Gender also has no differences in the reported propensity to negotiate salary or payoffs from negotiation (Bohnet & Greig, 2007; Fiset & Robertson, 2019).

Women fear competition and seek to please, while men are more competitive, assertive, and vocal in negotiations (Kray & Gelfand, 2009; Petkeviciute & Streimikiene, 2017; Prassa & Stalikas, 2020). Finally, many researchers have mentioned that women behave more cooperatively than men when negotiating and show concern for others (Boyer et al., 2009; Fiset & Robertson, 2019; Prassa & Stalikas, 2020). Hence, several prior studies revealed that the tendency of women to avoid competition and the ability to cooperate better generate a better performance on negotiation (Petkeviciute & Streimikiene, 2017; Fiset & Robertson, 2019; Prassa & Stalikas, 2020). However, certain prior studies have shown contrasting effects. For example, tested the relationship between gender and competitive behavior and found that women were significantly more competitive than men when counterparts pursued a quid pro quo (Walters et al., 1989; Mozahem et al., 2021). Male negotiators normally adopt more cooperative negotiating behaviors when they know their partners (Westbrook et al., 2011), while female negotiation behavior is not affected by their counterparts (Koeszegi et al., 2006). In addition, women seem less cooperative with their sex than with the opposite sex, while the opposite seems true for men (Sell, 1997; Isler et al., 2020; Mozahem et al., 2021).

The causal relation between gender and negotiation affects academia (since it is a multifaceted subject to study) and can improve gender equality in the world (Boyer et al., 2009). Many authors have indicated differences in psychology, behavior, personality, and perception of males and females and consequently in their negotiation approaches, tactics, and strategies (Stuhlmacher et al., 2007; Kray and Gelfand, 2009; Prassa & Stalikas, 2020; Isler et al., 2020; Mozahem et al., 2021). However, much empirical research into the differences between negotiation behaviors of men and women is less conclusive. Based on this speculation, we present our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: negotiation styles are significantly different between men and women in Taiwan

Gender and Ethics

The correlation between gender and negotiation ethics has also been the focus of many studies. As in the case of competition and cooperation, though, the findings are mixed. For instance, according to some studies, men act more independently than women (Prassa & Stalikas, 2020; Mozahem et al., 2021). Furthermore, as Boyer et al. (2009) and Barron (2003) argued, men, give weight to ends and

personal preferences, women put more emphasis on their relationships and personal ties.

Outside of a negotiation context, women may approach moral reasoning from a fundamentally different perspective than men (Prassa & Stalikas, 2020; Mozahem et al., 2021). Indeed, depending on the situation and context, males and females address moral problems from different points of view (Mujtaba, 2010).

Other streams of research indicate that, in many cultures, women are held to a higher moral standard than their male counterparts (Sidani, 2005, Liu et al., 2019). Since childhood, women are taught to follow the family teachings and cultural values, but the same expectation is not put on men, not to the same extent (Kumar et al., 2004; Anderson et al., 2021). As a result, men's mistakes are more likely to be overlooked than those of women (Choe & Lau, 2010). That may be because women are expected to observe stricter moral principles and customs (Sidani et al., 2009). In other words, traditions, cultural practices, and early socialization dictate that women behave more ethically than men (Jamali et al., 2005; Dannals et al., 2021).

Many researchers also found gender to be an interesting subject of study in the field of ethics (O'Fallon and Butterfield, 2005; Seebeck & Vetter, 2020; Prassa and Stalikas, 2020). A considerable number of studies argue that women behave more ethically than men (Miesing & Preble, 1985; Harris, 1990; Seebeck & Vetter, 2020; Prassa & Stalikas, 2020). This claim has been examined concerning religion (Miesing & Preble, 1985), among college students (Harris, 1990; Seebeck & Vetter, 2020), and in the context of business conduct (Prassa & Stalikas, 2020).

By contrast, some other studies found no significant differences between men and women salespeople (Ergeneli & Arikan, 2002; Kumar et al., 2004; Tsalikis & Lassar, 2009). Furthermore, A meta-analysis of 47 studies argued that in 49% of the studies, there were significant differences between women and men in ethical behaviors. On the other hand, in 34%, no significance was observed, and in 17%, the results were mixed (Borkowski & Ugras, 1998). Thus, the literature showed mixed support concerning ethical behaviors among males and females. Therefore, based on the bulk of the evidence, hypothesis 2 is supposed as follows:

Hypothesis 2: ethical behavior is significantly different between men and women in Taiwan.

Ethics and Negotiation Style

Ethical ideology is related to ethical judgments (Steenhaut & Van, 2006), subjective norms, and moral certainty (Alsaad, 2021). It is used to determine how an individual makes decisions. Ethical ideology and its influence on ethical decision-making are also found in the Ethical Position Theory (EPT) (Arsenault & Oehlers, 2012). Ethical behavior refers to the standards of conduct such as honesty, fairness, responsibility and trust, and adopting an unethical approach to business negotiation can have

serious consequences (Trevino & Nelson, 2011).

In general, research has suggested that ethical behavior and negotiation strategies are related (Liu et al., 2019). There is, however, some argument on the contrary (Dellech, 2012). Moreover, the old paradigm of negotiation perceived that unethical behavior is sometimes seen as an appropriate or necessary correlate of an effective negotiation strategy (Cramton & Dees, 1993; Fowler & Musgrave, 2020). In other studies, business is considered independent of moral concerns (Carr, 1968; Fowler & Musgrave, 2020). Thus, while people may want to employ ethical principles in negotiations, they are quick to abandon those intentions if they think ethicality will require them to sacrifice some benefits. Additionally, it has been reported that ethics could decrease if the parties are from different states or societies (Volkema & Fleury, 2002).

Hypothesis 3: The effect of ethical behavior on negotiation styles is significantly different between men and women in Taiwan.

Study

In order to assess the causal relationship between gender, ethics and negotiation styles, this study conducts a quantitative, exploratory and explanatory analysis. The aforementioned theoretical propositions inform the development of the research model, as depicted in Figure 1.

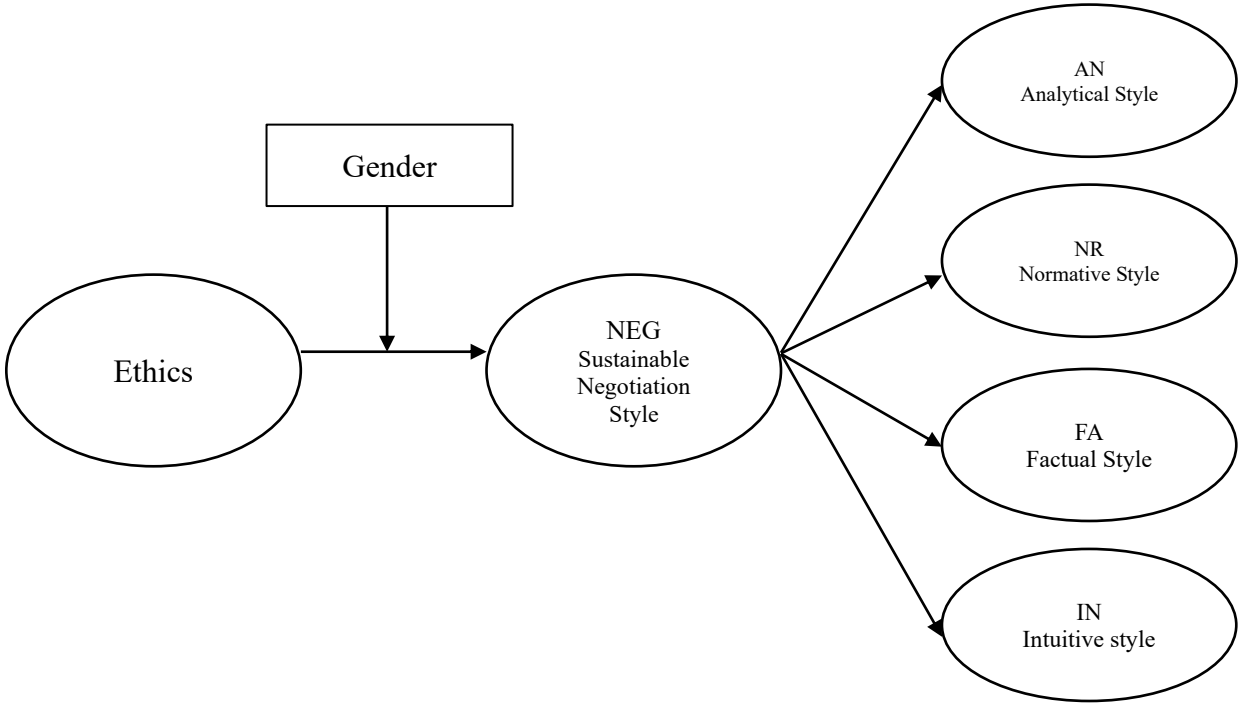


Figure 1. The Study's Conceptual Framework

Questionnaire

This study applies a three-part questionnaire to assess gender, ethics and negotiation styles as follows.

Gender. One question asked participants to report their gender. Though it came at the end of the survey, a participant's gender precedes any study variables conceptually. In addition, this question was embedded in a variety of other demographic questions (e.g., age, education).

Ethics. Three items from the Lewicki scale were designed to examine negotiation ethics. In the questionnaire part, the scale is from 1 to 5 (1 = not at all appropriate, 5 = very appropriate). When researchers keyed the data to SPSS, the scale is reversed from 5 to 1, 4 to 2, 3 to 3, 2 to 4, and 5 to 1. It means that high ethics will have high scores. A sample item is: *'Promise that good things will happen to your opponent if he/she gives you what you want, even if you know that you cannot (or will not) deliver these things when the other cooperation is obtained.'* They were combined into an ethics scale as described in the following.

Negotiation Style. Twelve items (three for each dimension) were used to assess the Casse-Deol negotiating styles by NSP-12 (Tu, 2014). The 5-point Likert-typed scale is from 1 = never to 5 = always. They were combined into four negotiation style scales as described below. A sample item is: *'I am very methodical when presenting my position in an argument.'*

Participants

This study surveyed marketing managers from listed companies (638 companies) and emerging markets (281 companies) of the GreTai Security Market in Taiwan. The questionnaire was distributed online. Both the invitation and the survey were written in traditional Chinese characters. A common approach to estimate sample size was a minimum to a maximum range of 100 to over 1,000. For EFA and CFA, a ratio of 10:1 that means at least 10 cases for each indicator is recommended (Ali, 1999; Mundfrom et al., 2005).

Data analysis

The data gathered through the survey was then assessed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) via the application of SPSS 14.0 and AMOS 18.0. The model is based on the Maximum Likelihood method. It assumes the data to be normally distributed and then maximizes the likelihood function to estimate the parameters closest to the population's values. Afterward, using several criteria, the goodness of fit and inclusion of the items were extracted.

In order to test for significant differences between group-specified features in the sample, the study conducts a Multiple Group Analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, to measure equivalence between different aspects of the data, the study conducts a six-stage procedure for employing SEM (Hair et al., 2010) and multiple CFAs.

Results

The Taiwanese society is somewhat evenly distributed between men (49.92%) and women (50.08%). Therefore, based on Cochran's formula, a minimum of 384 subjects would give a sample with a 95 percent degree of confidence. Through a random sampling process over one month, 1,838 e-mails of invitation were sent out. The response rate was 19.4% (356 participants responded). However, 26 of the returned questionnaires were incomplete or invalid, leaving a final sample of 330. In the study, the returning rate is not high. For instance, Holbrook et al. (2007) examined the results of 81 national surveys with returning rates varying from 5 to 54 percent. They argue that lower returning rates paralleled lower demographic representativeness within the range examined. However, the difference was not much (Holbrook et al., 2007). The other researchers also reported that surveys with lower returning rates (near 20%) had more accurate measurements than higher returning rates (near 60 or 70%) (Visser et al., 1996).

Among the 330 respondents, 178 (53.9%) were men, and 152 (46.1%) were women. In addition, there were 86 respondents (26.1%) under 30 years old, 154 (46.7%) were between 30 and 45, and 90 (27.3%) were older than 45. Finally, 90 (27.3%) respondents had a high school diploma or lower qualification, 138 (41.8%) had a Bachelor's degree, and 102 (30.9%) had a graduate degree (Table 1).

Table 1.

Demographic characteristics

Profile	Classification	n	%
Gender	Men	178	53.9
	Women	152	46.1
	Total	330	100
Age	Under 30	86	26.1
	30-45	154	46.7
	Above 45	90	27.3
	Total	330	100
Education Background	High school degree or below	90	27.3
	Bachelor's degree	138	41.8
	Graduate degree	102	30.9
	Total	330	100

This study measures the validity of the constructs via the application of convergent and discriminant validity. The former will test if the scale items converge on a single construct during measurement (Steenkamp & Van, 1991). It requires conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) which requires factor loading of more than 0.5, composite reliability of more than 0.6 and average extracted variance of more than 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010).

In the CFA and structural model, all the factor loading estimates were higher than 0.75; all the

composite reliability (CR) values ranged between 0.83 to 0.94; all the measurable items reached significance levels (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988); and all the extracted average values of variance laid between 0.61 and 0.84. These results support the measurement model convergent validity, as shown in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2.

Factor loadings, instrument validity, and instrument reliability measures

Variables	Items	EFA loadings	CFA loadings	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Ethics	Ethics1	.88	.84	2.90	.65	.88
	Ethics2	.88	.87	2.88	.69	
	Ethics3	.89	.82	2.93	.69	
AN	AN1	.91	.89	3.62	.73	.92
	AN2	.88	.86	3.61	.68	
	AN3	.91	.81	3.63	.73	
NR	NR1	.84	.80	4.10	.81	.83
	NR2	.86	.75	4.05	.80	
	NR3	.86	.80	4.05	.81	
FA	FA1	.91	.87	3.65	.79	.92
	FA2	.93	.91	3.65	.79	
	FA3	.91	.90	3.66	.80	
IN	IN1	.94	.93	3.42	.69	.94
	IN2	.91	.91	3.42	.71	
	IN3	.93	.91	3.38	.66	

Items details for each construct:

Ethics1. I promise that good things will happen to my counterpart if he/she gives me what I want, even if I know that I cannot (or will not) deliver them; Ethics2. I get the other party to falsely think that I like him/her personally.

Ethics3. I intentionally misrepresent information to my counterpart to strengthen my negotiating arguments or position.

AN1. I am very methodical when presenting my position in an argument; AN2. I present ideas and solutions confidently.

AN3. When negotiating, I remain calm and confident.

NR1. In dealing with people, I try to be aware of their needs and feelings; NR2. I offer solutions to problems based on give and take; NR3. I acknowledge the contributions of others for their ideas and participation.

FA1. I prefer relying on fact-based approaches rather than inspiration; FA2. I support my statements with factual evidence; FA3. I quickly realize what needs immediate attention.

IN1. I like the challenge of working on something new; IN2. I often work in spurts – a period of inspiration alternating with slow periods; IN3. I usually figure out unspoken messages without being told.

Table 3.

Test of composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity

	CR	AVE	MSV	IS	NS	ET	FS	AS
IS	.94	.84	.07	.92				
NS	.83	.61	.07	.26	.78			
ET	.88	.71	.14	.15	.23	.84		
FS	.92	.78	.07	-.26	-.15	-.13	.89	
AS	.92	.78	.14	-.26	-.04	-.38	.27	.89

Note: CR > .7; AVE > .5; MSV < AVE; $\sqrt{\text{AVE}} > \text{Max } r$, $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ is **bold face** diagonal

The absence of number 1 within the estimated confidence interval (Bagozzi & Philips, 1982) will support discriminant validity. In the present research, a model was constructed for each of the 10 paired correlations of the latent variables. Then, the correlation was set between the two constructs to 1, and a 95 percent confidence interval was applied to apply a bootstrap. As a result, all values of paired correlations of the latent variables were from $-.49$ to $.42$; the number 1 is not included with the upper and lower limits of the confidence interval, which indicates discriminant validity among the theoretical constructs.

Table 4 depicts the results of the study's model, while the SEM model is depicted in Figure 2. The overall model fit χ^2 was 588.67 with a 285 degree of freedom. The p -value associated with this result was 0.000, meaning a 95 percent degree of significance; thus, the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic does not indicate that the observed covariance matrix matches the estimated covariance matrix within the sampling variance. According to previous studies, a number of indices are available to evaluate the model fits (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Bentler, 1990; Bentler, 1992; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1992), but no single index or standard is generally agreed upon; hence, multiple criteria should be used to evaluate the overall fit of the theoretical model (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair et al., 2010).

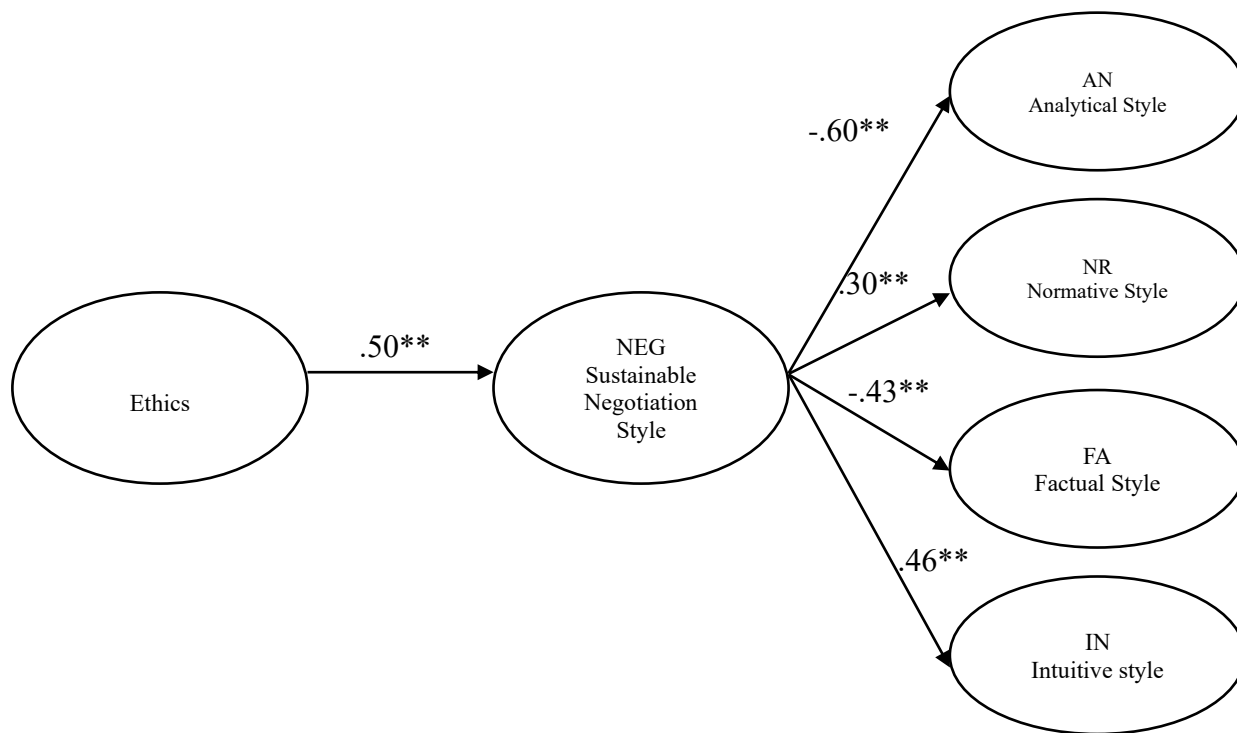
The value of RMSEA, an absolute fit index, was 0.04. This value is smaller than the critical value of 0.08; therefore, RMSEA supports the model fit. Moreover, the value of GFI (0.90) was higher than the critical value. RMR also had a value of 0.05. Moreover, the χ^2/df was 2.07. A number smaller than 3.0 is considered to be an acceptable value.

The CFI had a value of 0.96, which exceeds the CFI critical value for this complexity and sample size. The other incremental fit indices (NFI = 0.92, RFI = 0.91, and TLI = 0.95) also exceeded the suggested critical values. Therefore, all of the incremental fit indices presented an acceptable fit. The parsimony index of AGFI had a value of 0.87, and the PNFI was 0.83. Both indices were considered to represent a good model fit, given the acceptable critical values. The overall structural fit results of these analyses showed that the model provides a good fit.

Table 4.

Values for Assessing Goodness of Fit

Indices	Criteria	SEM	CFA
χ^2/df	<3	2.07	1.59
P-value	<.05	.000	.001
Absolute fit measures			
RMSEA	$\leq .08$.04	.04
GFI	>.80	.90	.95
RMR	<.05	.05	.02
Incremental fit measures			
CFI	>.90	.96	.99
NFI	>.90	.92	.96
RFI	>.90	.91	.95
TLI	>.9	.95	.98
Parsimony fit measurement			
AGFI	>.80	.87	.93
PNFI	>.50	.83	.73



Note(s): *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; NS = Not Significant

Figure 2. Structural model

Hypothesis 1. The path coefficient between gender and negotiation style is presented in Table 5. All the path coefficients of men's negotiation style were supported with ($p = .000$), while the path coefficients of women's negotiation style were not supported. So, there is a significant difference between Taiwanese men and women in sustainable negotiation style.

Table 5.

The path coefficient of gender-related to negotiation style

	Men	Women	Default Model
IN ^{1,a} ← NEG	.55***	.13(NS)	.46**
AN ^{2,b} ← NEG	-.60***	-.02(NS)	-.60**
FA ^{1,c} ← NEG	-.39***	-.01(NS)	-.43**
NR ^{2,d} ← NEG	.49***	.03(NS)	.30**

Notes: ¹ Perceiving functions; ² Processing functions;

^a Intuitive Style; ^b Analytical Style; ^c Factual Style; ^d Normative Style

Hypothesis 2. Based on the one-way ANOVA results presented in Table 6, it is revealed that there was a significant difference in mean between Taiwanese males and females in their ethical behavior ($F_{(1,329)} = 6.09$; and $p = .014$).

Table 6.

ANOVA results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F value	P value
Ethics	Between Groups	2.20	1	2.20	6.09	.014*
	Within Groups	118.60	328	.36		
	Total	120.80	329			

Note(s): *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; NS = Not Significant

Hypothesis 3. The path coefficients of ethics related to negotiation were .50 for the default model, .70 for the male model, and -.03 for the female model. Further, the p -values from all models were significant ($p = .000$), as shown in Table 7.

Table 7.

The path coefficient of ethics related to negotiation for the structural model

	Male	Female	Default Model
NEG ← Ethics	.70***	-.03***	.50**

Note(s): *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; NS = Not Significant

Conclusion

This study aims to analyze the effects of gender differences on ethical behavior and negotiation styles. The results indicated that gender significantly affects negotiation styles (H1 is supported). The results are consistent with the previous studies (Stamato, 1992; Whitaker & Austin, 2001; Miller & Miller, 2002; Babcock & Laschever, 2003), and males prefer analytical and factual negotiation styles, and females prefer intuitive negotiation style which focuses on seeking cooperation for a mutual benefited agreement that is critical to achieving negotiation. Gender is a significant factor affecting ethical behaviors (H2 is supported). The results are consistent with the findings (Beltramini et al., 1984; Miesing & Preble, 1985

), and females prefer ethical behaviors to males. Ethical behavior is a significant factor affecting negotiation styles (H3 is supported). The results are similar to the group's findings (Batson & Thompson, 2001; Volkema & Fleury, 2002), and low ethics prefer analytical and factual negotiation styles, and the group of high ethics prefers intuitive and normative negotiation styles. Based on the results, males have lower ethical criteria than females, like analytical and factual negotiation styles, and females prefer ethical behaviors than males and prefer an intuitive negotiation style.

There are differences between males and females in responding to conflict and negotiations, and men and women differences in negotiation situations have seen a re-emergence (Kolb & Coolidge, 1991; Kolb & Williams, 2000; Kray et al., 2002; Babcock, 2003; Kumar et al., 2004). Males and females communicate differently because they have different motivations, perspectives, and types of interactive behavior (Westbrook et al., 2011). Social conditioning may lead men to behave unethically more than it may do so to women, especially when they feel the end justifies the means (Buckley et al., 1998), and men are more likely to take risks than women in different situations (Byrnes et al., 1999; Weber et al., 2002). Some studies argue ethics and morals to be impacted by more than biology. They could profoundly be affected by social, personal, individual and situational variables (McCabe et al., 2006).

The issue of negotiation context is critical; different negotiation styles make different tactics; and are likely to be perceived as acceptable or unethical behaviors in any situation (Robinson et al., 2000). According to O'Fallon & Butterfeld (2005), higher levels of ethical values parallel higher ethical intentions, and if top-level management wants ethical employees, it should create an ethical environment. Knowing ethical values and common moral grounds will decrease the possibility of employees conducting unethical behavior. Therefore, it is advised for educational centers to include Ethics as a requirement in their curriculum (Mujtaba et al., 2011). Business ethics education exhibits a positive impact in promoting ethical standards (Swanson & Fisher, 2008). An education of systematic ethics enhances moral recognition and reasoning. Furthermore, it equips individuals with the means to resolve complicated moral issues. It also encourages people to stand up against unethical behaviors in their organizations (May et al., 2009).

This study contributes to realizing that gender and ethics impact negotiation styles. Cross-cultural differences offer interesting thinking, and cultural differences may affect actual negotiation behavior (Weiss, 1994). For future study, cultural issues could be an interesting issue in the field of negotiation. The study of participants focuses on GreTai Security Market in Taiwan and adopts only a quantitative method. Although the SEM estimates provide a good fit for the hypothesized model, the application of alternative models could complement the findings of this study. This study is based on a society with more than 90 percent of the population of Han descent, where gender-sensitive policies are adopted and functioning democracy is in place. Therefore, a comparison can be made of the differences and similarities among the negotiation styles used in Taiwan, the United States, and the People's Republic of China. Furthermore, future studies can employ a qualitative method to add value to the current findings.

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