

PLACEHOLDER

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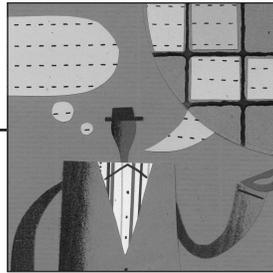
## PART FOUR

### *Cross-Cultural Negotiation in the Classroom*

*The final part of this book is aimed at teaching the concepts previously articulated.*

*This part recognizes the difficulties present in teaching both negotiation techniques as well as cross-cultural negotiation techniques. To overcome these difficulties, this part emphasizes the importance of experiential learning and urges instructors to employ a number of techniques allowing students to watch and participate in negotiation simulations followed by debriefing or discussions.*

*This part also stresses the importance of self-evaluation for instructors to ensure the students are learning the techniques presented.*





## *Teaching Opens the Toolbox for Others*

Christina N. Nardacci

### A b s t r a c t

*Encompassing many disciplines and perspectives, the alternative dispute resolution (ADR) literature is primarily directed at an audience of practitioners rather than teachers. This chapter addresses the question: How can instructors best teach cross-cultural negotiation? Successful teachers of cross-cultural negotiation will provide environments that are both challenging and supportive, promoting students' self-confidence and motivation. Assessment techniques allow instructors to better evaluate and respond to students' needs in the areas of learning, confidence, and motivation; assessment processes can also be used by students to evaluate their own performance, both in class and after negotiations in the field.*

## I. Introduction: How Is Cross-Cultural Negotiation Instruction an “Animal Unto Itself”?

*“That’s a horse of a different color!”*

— Emerald City doorman in “The Wizard of Oz”

The process for teaching cross-cultural negotiation differs from teaching almost any other subject. Instructors may vary in how they teach critical content, but when helping students apply that content to practice, instructors usually include some form of experiential learning.<sup>1</sup> Through structured classroom experimentation, students can demonstrate how well they understand class material and assess their ability to apply it in practice with confidence and dexterity.<sup>2</sup>

Students can gain from feedback provided by instructors and classmates. Education literature highlights ways to give feedback that best promote students’ success as well as strategies for enhancing students’ confidence and motivation. Adult students’ greatest learning takes place when provided proportional amounts of challenge and support in the context of experiential learning.<sup>3</sup> Assessment tools offer ways to coordinate gathering information about performance and how best to share this feedback to promote learning within and outside the cross-cultural negotiations classroom.

## II. The Problem

*“Success is relative. It is what we can make of the mess we have made of things.”*

—T.S. Eliot

Rarely is expertise “born, not made.” Expert instructors of cross-cultural negotiation strategies excel not only in explaining and conveying information but also in creating effective learning environments. These environments can be simultaneously challenging and supportive: challenging students to do their best, while supporting their perseverance through the confusion and discomfort experienced while learning new skills. Virtually all cross-cultural negotiation processes contain some degree of uncertainty. A poorly managed cross-cultural negotiations class can have potentially explosive effects if students react with defensiveness or anger. Master instructors can help students learn better how to acknowledge that discomfort and prevail in spite of it.

This effort is further complicated by the impact of students’ competitiveness, confidence, and motivation. In many American learning environments, students compete against both themselves and each other in an effort to demonstrate exemplary performance. Shy and perfectionist students may be reluctant to “try on new behaviors.” Because conflict is an inherent element of negotiation, most students will be uncomfortable with the notion of looking foolish or incompetent in front of their classmates or their instructors.

Effective learning environments usually include avenues for students to give and receive feedback, both from their instructors and each other, about their cross-cultural negotiation performance. During experiential learning, students benefit from feedback that is useful and relevant. When the students feel safe enough to acknowledge a lack of expertise, they may more readily try different, perhaps even innovative, problem-solving approaches.

Assessment techniques promote instructors’ effectiveness and efficiency. Assessment data help instructors evaluate students’ competencies and are equally useful in such applications as formulating lesson plans, designing new structured experiences for the classroom, and determining which instructional methods were most effective. This chapter describes assessment techniques that instructors can use to evaluate their students’ learning and their own teaching effectiveness.

Post-negotiation assessment is a vital yet oft-neglected part of the negotiation curriculum. Successful negotiators include intentional assessment as part of their negotiation preparation process (see Chapters 1 and 2) and after agreement has been reached or impasse has been acknowledged (see Chapter 15). Sometimes a negotiation initially appears to have been successful, yet over the passage of time, the tables can turn.

### III. Experiential Learning

“By three methods we may learn wisdom: first, by reflection, which is noblest; second, by imitation, which is easiest; and third by experience, which is the bitterest.”

—Confucius

#### A. Promoting Students’ Learning Generally

Scholarship in the field of education offers a wealth of suggestions about how best to promote adult students’ learning. Learning can be understood as a two-pronged process: 1) acquisition of *knowledge* about critical content, and 2) application of that knowledge through *practice*. Effective practitioners possess knowledge and practice skills, and they are capable of synthesizing new data with past knowledge and experience.<sup>4</sup>

Based upon his education research, Professor David A. Kolb claims that for learning to be successful, students must possess four categories of abilities or skills. These include *concrete experience* (learners can invest freely and fully in new experiences); *reflective observation* (learners have adequate space and time to reflect on their experience from different perspectives); *abstract conceptualization* (learners create and refine what they are learning, take ownership for their ideas and integrate these new ideas into theories that are logically sound); and *active experimentation* (learners use their understanding to make decisions, solve problems, and test their ideas in new situations—thus glean information that lays the groundwork for additional concrete experiences, thereby completing the cycle).<sup>5</sup> Through curriculum structure and course design, instructors seeking to promote successful learning outcomes will include components that acknowledge and enhance each of these skill categories.

#### B. Promoting Learning in the Context of Conflict Resolution Training

In addition to using Kolb’s recommendations, the advice of communication studies scholar Beatrice Schultz can be helpful for instructors. Schultz examined the effectiveness of conflict resolution training programs and concluded that potentially effective training programs must contain five elements of emphasis.<sup>6</sup> First, conflict resolution is a process with discernible stages. Second, valuable personal skills for conflict resolution practitioners include particular communicative and interpersonal skills. Third, to understand the perspective of different parties in a conflict, a person must consider the parties’ individual styles of thinking and choices about how to manage conflict. Fourth, the learning process can be aided by using models that help explain the methods and challenges involved in problem solving. Finally, strategies for agreement include a number of elements: “developing options for settlement, examining issues, goals, and priorities, and managing the process of negotiation through all its stages.”<sup>7</sup>

#### C. Promoting Effectiveness of Cross-Cultural Training

While Kolb explains how instructors can promote students’ learning generally and Schultz offers recommendations in the context of conflict resolution training, scholars Sandra M. Fowler and Judith M. Blohm have given the following advice specific to cross-cultural training. “[I]f the goal [of a cross-cultural training program] is intercultural effectiveness, performance in multi-cultural settings, sensitivity, and establishing cross-cultural relationships, ...[f]ace-to-face training or coaching is required.”<sup>8</sup> In an exhaustive review of methods used for intercultural training, Fowler and Blohm recommend that highly skilled trainers take into account a variety of factors when deciding how to design and facilitate a training program, including training outcomes, whether the information assembled is about or across cultures or both, students’ learning styles, considerations of adaptability and accessibility for the needs of students with disabilities, and whether training tools are better used in group- or individual-based instruction.<sup>9</sup>

Instructors of cross-cultural negotiation interested in how they might best attend to the cultural aspects of their curricula will benefit in particular from suggestions by Janet M. Bennett and Milton Bennett.<sup>10</sup> These categories include descriptions of how cultural conflict is interpreted and ways in which each model responds to that conflict. Each category of training and development has its uses, Bennett and Bennett caution, “when appropriately sequenced to the readiness level of the participants and the organization.”<sup>11</sup> In an educational environment, assessment instruments offer instructors a way of evaluating

the degrees of their students' cross-cultural competencies and readiness to learn new ways of addressing cross-cultural conflict.

#### D. Promoting Effectiveness in Teaching Negotiation

Simulations are a helpful tool for teaching negotiation. While many contributors to legal negotiation literature write about the value of incorporating simulations in negotiation instruction, perhaps scholars Lawrence E. Susskind and Jason Corburn explain it best: simulations “offer the learner a *safe setting* in which errors are not costly and experimentation is encouraged.”<sup>12</sup> Students participating in negotiation class simulations are assigned to play specific roles, wherein they must address either real-life or purely fictitious situations. A critical component of using simulations involves debriefing of the simulations' results. Here participants are encouraged to reflect on their own experiences during the simulation and to compare these with the outcomes of other groups working with the same simulation facts. During the debriefing, instructors need to help students compare and contrast factors that led to different outcomes in each simulation so that students can learn from different factors and how these contributed to varying results.

By participating in simulations, students can “unlearn” past “theories-in-use.”<sup>13</sup> Thus students can identify new ways to solve problems that differ from their preconceived notions about how to approach conflict. Indeed, students who participate in negotiation classes that combine simulations followed by well-managed debriefing sessions and are “linked with subsequent simulations in an overall experiential teaching program” can learn enormously from negotiation training.<sup>14</sup>

A number of elements enhance the benefits of post-simulation debriefing. It may be tempting to jump into a discussion immediately. However, instructors can better cultivate the effectiveness of a debriefing by first highlighting the purpose of an exercise, as Douglas Stone cautions.<sup>15</sup> To frame the discussion, instructors can start by asking open-ended questions about what observers and participants thought were positive aspects of each negotiator's performance in the negotiation simulation.<sup>16</sup> After this dialogue, instructors can proceed when appropriate by using follow-up questions that are more focused, highlighting important aspects of the exercise, and encouraging students to “unpack” different ideas and concepts that emerge.

Other strategies that Jerry W. Gilley recommends to help instructors encourage effective debriefings include: highlighting the kinds of decisions made, influences on the group, and whether they impacted the outcomes; constraints the participants felt during the simulation; what the participants learned from the simulation; aspects of interaction occurring between participants during the simulation, whether or not the simulation accomplished its stated purpose; changes that could “be incorporated into future simulations”; discussion about whether the simulation might resemble a real situation; dialogue about the kinds of uncertainty experienced by participants; and participants' reports to each other about their personal reactions “during the context of the simulation.”<sup>17</sup>

### IV. Assessment

*“Follow effective action with quiet reflection.  
From the quiet reflection will come even more effective action.”*

—Peter F. Drucker

Education practitioners have long used assessment methods to measure students' achievement and competencies. More recently, assessment methods have been developed to link these evaluations with instructors' proficiencies. By fostering an intentional link between teaching and grading, for example, instructors glean many opportunities for refining praxis and promoting students' learning, as education assessment specialists Barbara E. Walvoord and Virginia Johnson Anderson have documented.<sup>18</sup> When a nexus is fostered between course objectives and students' grades, instructors can learn a great deal about their students' learning. Grades can also be used to assess curricular effectiveness.

Approaching teaching and learning from the perspective of “outcomes-based planning” is one significant current trend in educational assessment literature, comments Vaneeta-Marie D’Andrea.<sup>19</sup> When instructors clearly articulate teaching and learning objectives for each lesson, they help illustrate what they expect their students to learn. This clarity can help bolster students’ confidence because the students know exactly what is expected of them during the instructional process.

Instructors seeking to evaluate the effectiveness of a teaching simulation can include the following criteria in their assessment instruments: active involvement, realism, clarity, feasibility, repeatability, and reliability.<sup>20</sup> All participants become more motivated when their active involvement is expected and evaluated. Students must attempt to represent real portrayals of their involvement in the simulations so that their evaluators can assess the students’ competencies, skills, and knowledge used during the simulation, as well as the truths, ideas, and skills they draw upon during their participation. Clarity refers to whether students are making decisions because they have a clear understanding of the relevant consequences and causes, or instead appear to be using a “best guess” approach.<sup>21</sup> Feasibility represents a cost/benefit assessment: how have students utilized materials, space, and time, in terms of the objectives and facts associated with the simulation? Repeatability and reliability refer to the effective design of the simulation. Both are important to ensure consistent accuracy and attainment of desired learning outcomes.<sup>22</sup>

Assessment also has applications for students when they engage in future “real-life” negotiations. By recording strategies that seem to have backfired and those apparently contributing to a successful outcome, negotiators can create records that both benefit themselves (when preparing for future negotiations) and others (such as successors to the same negotiation, as well as others responsible for helping implement aspects of a negotiated agreement). For example, when preparing for a future negotiation, some seasoned negotiators review their notes from past negotiations to identify potential pitfalls as well as techniques and strategies that might be useful. A negotiator’s post-negotiation recording can serve as an official document of the negotiation, if needed.<sup>23</sup>

The introspection that accompanies a formal recording process can help one get closure from a particularly demanding or frustrating negotiation experience. It is easy to lose sight of the approaches that worked well in a negotiation, especially if the end result conceded more than was desired or the students arrived at impasse. With some creativity, instructors can simultaneously apply and model the use of assessment techniques for their students, both in terms of how students’ performance is critiqued in simulated cross-cultural negotiations as well as how student learning and instructor efficacy are evaluated.

## V. Using Assessment and Feedback to Promote Students’ Confidence

*“The greatest barrier to success is the fear of failure.”*

—Sven-Göran Eriksson

*“Negative feedback is better than none. I would rather have a man hate me than overlook me. As long as he hates me I make a difference.”*

— Hugh Prather

One characteristic of more successful people is their capacity to effectively use feedback, including their efforts to keep track of their actions, and literally give themselves instructions about how to use this information to promote their achievement. Scholar Maryellen Weimer notes that students *can* receive critical feedback from assessment activities, especially if it is presented in a one-on-one, verbal context. If the feedback is presented in a public forum, however, students may feel vulnerable. Thus, it is important for instructors to use good communication skills, and focus their feedback on the students’ work and performance, not on the students themselves. If fellow students are included in the dialogue and are also learning from the feedback process, this can help each student to consider an instructor’s feedback with the appropriate perspective.<sup>24</sup>

Students’ self-confidence also can benefit from using feedback if it is provided effectively. Students need to receive feedback in a way in which they can judge themselves positively and establish confidence in

their ability to succeed.<sup>25</sup> People who experience little to no success over an extended period of time can develop a tendency of learned helplessness, in which they lose self-confidence; on the other hand, students who are given opportunities to succeed, even in small ways within a classroom simulation, are likely to build self-confidence because of their successes. When students feel confused, anxious, or uncertain when trying on new behaviors in a cross-cultural negotiation simulation, instructors can assist students by clearly explaining the simulation's objective, highlighting students' successes during debriefing, framing the debriefing conversation in a way that removes fear from the conversation (i.e., using matter-of-fact language that readily acknowledges individuals' discomfort and varying skill levels), and offering opportunities for different participants to provide affirmation for each other, recognizing things that each participant did well during the course of the negotiation.

In addition, students can build self-confidence by being provided with good models for practice. Experienced negotiators can participate in a classroom simulation "fishbowl," to be observed by the students, with debriefing to follow. In this situation, students can learn as much from the debriefing—during which they can ask questions about why an expert negotiator made particular decisions—as from watching the simulation itself. Students can also watch commercially produced movies and other academic resources available for negotiation courses.

Instructors can develop a number of teaching opportunities from current events. What might an ambassador have done differently in a recent radio interview about a current international conflict to have more effectively represented his country's position about a controversial issue? How could what the ambassador said during the interview be used against him in a future negotiation? How might he have been using the interview to frame the future negotiation or to surprise his negotiation counterparts? When students have opportunity to participate in class discussions about these topics, where there may be no right answer, the dialogue offers multifaceted feedback that can inform both classroom and future practice.

## VI. Conclusion

Instructors of cross-cultural negotiations teach in an exciting and unique field. The use of negotiation simulations, which facilitate students' experiential learning, operates as a critical teaching tool. When instructors offer safe learning environments, students can acknowledge their novice negotiation status and comfortably experiment with new problem-solving approaches and behaviors. By using simulations effectively, students are likely to become more confident and capable of dealing with the inevitable confusion and uncertainty that will arise in real-life cross-cultural negotiation situations.<sup>26</sup>

By using assessment tools, instructors can determine the needs most characteristic of their students and integrate teaching and learning objectives to promote more effectively students' learning outcomes. Assessment instruments help instructors evaluate the performance of both themselves and their students. A solid cross-cultural negotiations curriculum will include post-negotiation discussions of how negotiators can assess their own performance to identify performance weaknesses and strengths. A good assessment instrument allows the assessment of a negotiation's success to evolve over time.

Students gain from feedback provided by instructors and classmates in post-simulation debriefings. Some feedback formats are particularly useful in helping students learn about how to improve in deficient areas, as well as celebrate their successes. Both effective feedback and clarity in instructional design will help promote students' success and confidence. Adult students will learn most effectively when their instructors provide both appropriate and proportional levels of challenge and support.

## Additional Resources

### **Intercultural Communication Institute**

*Web site: <http://www.intercultural.org/>*

“[A] private, nonprofit educational foundation designed to foster an awareness and appreciation of cultural difference in both the international and domestic arenas.”

- Site contains links to information about two assessment instruments:
  - 1) Intercultural Development Inventory
  - 2) Intercultural Conflict Style Inventory

### **NAFSA: Association of International Educators**

*Web site: <http://www.nafsa.org/>*

“[A] member organization promoting international education and providing professional development opportunities to the field.”

### **SIETAR: Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research**

*Web site: <http://www.sietar.org/>*

“The main purpose of SIETAR is to encourage and support the development and application of values, knowledge and skills that promote and reinforce beneficial and long-lasting intercultural and inter-ethnic relations at the individual, group, organization and community levels.”

- Site contains links to information about a number of assessment instruments, including:
  - 1) Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Communication (BASIC)
  - 2) Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI)
  - 3) The Cross-Cultural Assessor
  - 4) Cross-Cultural Sensitivity Scale (CCSS)
  - 5) Cultural Competence Self-Assessment Questionnaire (CCSAQ)
  - 6) The Cultural Orientations Indicator (COI)
  - 7) The Culture in the Workplace Questionnaire
  - 8) Foreign Assignment Success Test (FAST)
  - 9) GAP Test: Global Awareness Profile
  - 10) Global Team Process Questionnaire (GTPQ)
  - 11) Intercultural Competence Assessment (INCA) Project
  - 12) Intercultural Competency Scale
  - 13) Intercultural CONFLICT Style Inventory
  - 14) Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)
  - 15) Intercultural Orientation Resources
  - 16) Intercultural Readiness Check
  - 17) Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ICSI)
  - 18) Personal Orientation Inventory (POI)
  - 20) PCSI: Peterson Cultural Style Indicator

Endnotes

<sup>1</sup> Professor Alan Schoenfeld, a mathematics professor at the University of California-Berkeley, has written about ways in which instructors can create learning cultures that support learning. He recommends immersing students in a “socialization process” that helps them realize that in solving problems, the problem-solving *processes* and *habits* one uses are as essential as the solutions one finds, and the theories and facts one relies upon to do so. He comments,

The very first day, I tell them [that learning how to identify and apply real-time interventions is] going to be a main theme of the course. . . . [T]his is going to be a problem-solving course. You guys are going to spend a lot of time in class solving problems. We’re going to have discussions about them, not only [the problems themselves] but also about how and why you solved them and what was useful and what wasn’t. I’m going to be teaching you a lot of things, including some problem-solving strategies, but you’re going to find this is the most frustrating course that you’ve ever taken in your life, because every time you think you understand what’s going on, I’m going to change the rules of the game.

*My goal for this course is to teach you [how] to solve problems I haven’t taught you how to solve.”*

*Cognitive Apprenticeship II: Modeling Metacognition*, 1 NAT’L TEACHING & LEARNING F. 10, 11 (1991) (emphasis added).

<sup>2</sup> Fowler and Blohm comment that “[o]ne of the mistakes being made repeatedly in intercultural training is the reliance on either didactic or experiential methods, to the exclusion of the other. Effective training incorporates a blend of both.” See Sandra M. Fowler & Judith M. Blohm, *An Analysis of Methods for Intercultural Training*, in HANDBOOK OF INTERCULTURAL TRAINING 37, 39 (Dan Landis et al. eds., Sage Publications 2004) (1983).

<sup>3</sup> Teachers facilitate the most comprehensive learning when they provide students with high degrees of challenge and support. See LAURENT A. DALOZ, MENTOR: GUIDING THE JOURNEY OF ADULT LEARNERS 208 (1999).

<sup>4</sup> See, e.g., Philip W. Martin, *Key Aspects of Teaching and Learning in Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences*, in A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: ENHANCING ACADEMIC PRACTICE 301, 302-04 (Heather Fry et al. eds., 2d ed. 2003).

<sup>5</sup> See DAVID A. KOLB, EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING: EXPERIENCE AS THE SOURCE OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT 30 (1984).

<sup>6</sup> Beatrice Schultz, *Conflict Resolution Training Programs: Implications for Theory and Research*, in TEACHING NEGOTIATION: IDEAS AND INNOVATIONS 257, 264 (Michael Wheeler ed., 2000) [hereinafter TEACHING NEGOTIATION].

<sup>7</sup> *Id.*

<sup>8</sup> Fowler & Blohm, *supra* note 2, at 40. Their comprehensive bibliography references a multitude of resources for instructors doing intercultural training work. *Id.* at 80-84.

<sup>9</sup> See *id.* at 42.

<sup>10</sup> Janet M. Bennett & Milton J. Bennett, *Developing Intercultural Sensitivity: An Integrative Approach to Global and Domestic Diversity*, in HANDBOOK OF INTERCULTURAL TRAINING, *supra* note 2, at 147, 160-62.

<sup>11</sup> *Id.* at 162.

<sup>12</sup> Lawrence E. Susskind & Jason Corburn, *Using Simulations to Teach Negotiation: Pedagogical Theory and Practice*, in TEACHING NEGOTIATION, *supra* note 6, at 285, 285-86.

<sup>13</sup> See *id.* at 309.

<sup>14</sup> *Id.*

<sup>15</sup> Douglas Stone, *Thoughts on Facilitating Discussion About Negotiation*, in TEACHING NEGOTIATION, *supra* note 6, at 347, 347.

<sup>16</sup> *See id.* at 348. The phrasing of open-ended questions precludes “sound byte” answers. Instead, responders are obliged to provide lengthier, more thorough answers that include specificity and detail.

Examples of open-ended questions used to start off a debriefing conversation might include the following:

*Directed at simulation negotiators*

What do you think were some of the things that your counterpart did particularly well, and why?

Where did you *see* examples of Negotiator A applying some of the strategies and techniques described in the assigned reading material?

*Directed at simulation observers*

Given your familiarity with the simulation material provided to each negotiation simulation counterpart, what were some things that impressed you during the negotiation?

What are some things that you think Negotiator Z did that led to her successful outcome?

Examples of follow-up questions include the following:

*Directed at simulation negotiators*

At [identify time frame in negotiation simulation], you made a statement that seemed to completely ignore or contradict some of the expectations that were outlined in your negotiator fact pattern. What were some of the things that motivated you to choose this course of action? What goals were you thinking about, and what methods did you hope to employ to achieve these goals? [The instructor can then follow up with additional questions that narrow in on particular aspects of the negotiator’s replies. For example, the instructor might highlight ethical and political consequences that can evolve when a negotiator consents to unauthorized or even prohibited arrangements as part of a negotiation agreement.]

*Directed at simulation observers*

Because of the material provided to each negotiation simulation counterpart, certain conflicts during the negotiation itself were virtually unavoidable. For example, [describe phenomena] became obvious when [identify time frame in negotiation simulation]. Knowing what you now know, how might you have prepared differently for this potential conflict if you were one of the simulation negotiators? What other information would you want to gather during your preparation process—about yourself? about your counterparts? about your counterparts’ cultural backgrounds? What might you have done differently to respond to these factors if you were participating in the negotiation?

<sup>17</sup> Jerry W. Gilley, *Demonstration and Simulation*, in ADULT LEARNING METHODS: A GUIDE FOR EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION 233, 251 (Michael W. Galbraith ed., 2d ed. 1998).

<sup>18</sup> Barbara E. Walvoord & Virginia Johnson Anderson, EFFECTIVE GRADING: A TOOL FOR LEARNING AND ASSESSMENT 1-6 (1998).

<sup>19</sup> Vaneeta-Marie D’Andrea, *Organizing Teaching and Learning: Outcomes-Based Planning*, in A HANDBOOK FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION: ENHANCING ACADEMIC PRACTICE 26, 27-28 (Heather Fry et al. eds., 2d ed. 2003).

<sup>20</sup> Gilley, *supra* note 12, at 250.

<sup>21</sup> *Id.*

<sup>22</sup> *Id.* at 251.

<sup>23</sup> Many seasoned negotiators have reported reaping benefits from this reflexive exercise. For example, practitioners and faculty from disparate backgrounds ranging from education, business, and clinical psychology to social work, theology, and law have spoken with me during classes, conferences, symposia, and during informal conversations to highlight the significance of this process. The “After Action Report” (AAR) represents an analogous process used in the United States Air Force. Here, one reflects and writes critically about one’s own performance, responding to such questions as, What is it that I did? Did I accomplish in the outcome the goals that I had identified? Did I succeed? How and where can I do better? A comprehensive negotiation analysis might consider AAR data in conjunction with notations taken during a negotiation, as well as documentation compiled in the pre-planning stage (such as that identified in the OMR process: What is the desired Outcome? What Method(s) do I anticipate will be used? What Research is necessary?).

<sup>24</sup> MARYELLEN WEIMER, *IMPROVING YOUR CLASSROOM TEACHING* 110-13 (1996).

<sup>25</sup> BRUCE W. TUCKMAN ET AL., *LEARNING AND MOTIVATION STRATEGIES: YOUR GUIDE TO SUCCESS* 55 (2002).

<sup>26</sup> This echoes a tenet of the military: “You train like you fight; you fight like you train.” Similarly, those who “train like they negotiate” can “negotiate like they train.”

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## Recommended Reading

KEVIN AVRUCH, *CULTURE & CONFLICT RESOLUTION* (1998).

RAYMOND COHEN, *NEGOTIATION ACROSS CULTURES: COMMUNICATION OBSTACLES IN INTERNATIONAL DIPLOMACY* (1991).

JEANNE BRETT, *NEGOTIATING GLOBALLY: HOW TO NEGOTIATE DEALS, RESOLVE DISPUTES, AND MAKE DECISIONS ACROSS CULTURAL BOUNDARIES* (2001).

Jeanne Brett, *Culture and Negotiation*, 352 INT'L J. PSYCHOL. 97 (2000).

CONFLICT RESOLUTION: CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES (Kevin Avruch et al. eds., 1991).

CULTURE, COMMUNICATION AND CONFLICT: READINGS IN INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS (Gary Weaver ed., Pearson Press rev. 2000) (1994).

Ileana Dominguez-Urban, *The Messenger as the Medium of Communication: The Use of Interpreters in Mediation*, 1997 J. DISP. RESOL. 1 (1997).

ELUSIVE PEACE: NEGOTIATING AN END TO CIVIL WARS (I. William Zartman ed., 1995).

ROGER FISHER & SCOTT BROWN, *GETTING TOGETHER: BUILDING RELATIONSHIPS AS WE NEGOTIATE* (1988).

ROGER FISHER & WILLIAM URY, *GETTING TO YES: NEGOTIATING AGREEMENT WITHOUT GIVING IN* (Bruce Patton ed., Houghton Mifflin 1991) (1981).

WILLIAM F. FOX, JR., *INTERNATIONAL COMMERCIAL AGREEMENTS: A PRIMER ON DRAFTING, NEGOTIATING AND RESOLVING DISPUTES* (3d ed. 1998).

CYNTHIA GALLOIS & VICTOR J. CALLAN, *COMMUNICATION AND CULTURE: A GUIDE FOR PRACTICE* (1997).

DEBORAH GOODWIN, *THE MILITARY AND NEGOTIATION: THE ROLE OF THE SOLDIER-DIPLOMAT* (2005).

THOMAS F. GURNSEY, *A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO NEGOTIATIONS* (1996).

IMAGES OF THE U.S. AROUND THE WORLD: A MULTICULTURAL PERSPECTIVE (Yahya R. Kamalipour ed., 1999).

INTERNATIONAL MEDIATION: ESSAYS IN HONOR OF JEFFREY Z. RUBIN (Jacob Bercovitch ed., 2002).

INTERNATIONAL NEGOTIATION: ANALYSIS, APPROACHES, ISSUES (Victor A. Kremenyuk ed., 2d. ed. 2002).

Roy J. Lewicki et al., *Trust and Distrust: New Relationships and Realities*, 56 ACAD. MGMT. REV. 438 (1998).

Carrie Menkel-Meadow, *Toward Another View of Legal Negotiation: The Structure of Problem Solving*, 31 UCLA L. REV. 754 (1984).

ROBERT H. MNOOKIN ET AL., *BEYOND WINNING: NEGOTIATING TO CREATE VALUE IN DEALS AND DISPUTES* (2000).

JOEL PETERS, *PATHWAYS TO PEACE, THE MULTILATERAL ARAB-ISRAELI PEACE TALKS* (1996).

POWER AND NEGOTIATION (I. William Zartman & Jeffrey Z. Rubin eds., 2000).

ALAN S. RAU ET AL., *PROCESSES OF DISPUTE RESOLUTION: THE ROLE OF LAWYERS* (3d ed., 2002).

G. RICHARD SHELL, *BARGAINING FOR ADVANTAGE: NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES FOR REASONABLE PEOPLE* (1999).

SOCIAL COGNITION: KEY READINGS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY (David L. Hamilton ed., 2005).

THE CONFLICT AND CULTURE READER (Pat K. Chew ed., 2001).

THE HANDBOOK OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION: THEORY AND PRACTICE (Morton Deutsch & Peter T. Coleman eds., 2000).

THE HANDBOOK OF NEGOTIATION AND CULTURE (Michele J. Gelfand & Jeanne M. Brett eds., 2004).

STELLA TING-TOOMEY, *COMMUNICATING ACROSS CULTURES* (1999).

TURBULENT PEACE: THE CHALLENGES OF MANAGING INTERNATIONAL CONFLICT (Chester A. Crocker et al. eds., 2001).

JONATHAN WILKENFIELD ET AL., *MEDIATING INTERNATIONAL CRISES* (2005).