

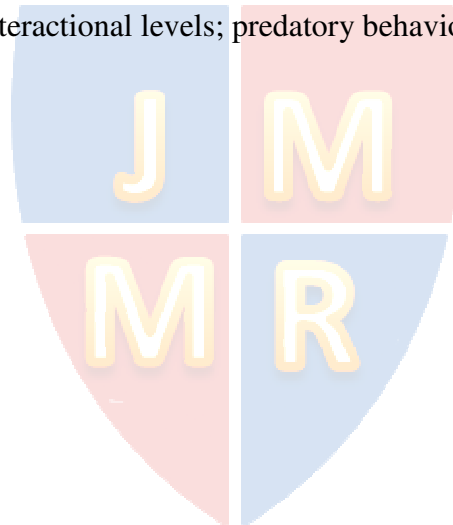
## Is a sense of win-win in seller-buyer relationships related to perceived predation?

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### ABSTRACT

In this conceptual article, the notion of interactional equilibrium (win-win) in business relationships is discussed. This construct refers to the efforts made by sellers or buyers to remain logical with themselves and to establish a fair relationship with each other. This article shows that consumers and producers' behaviors can be mapped on the same graph (an Edgeworth box) while showing their interaction *over time*. Doing so, an understanding of predatory behavior as it occurs between sellers and buyers is achieved. The paper then proceeds to show that there is a strong link between the sense of equilibrium and perceived predation.

Key words: Equilibrium; interactional levels; predatory behavior; reciprocity, MESLY model.



## INTRODUCTION

Traditional economic theory works on the basis of supply and demand curves, which are set on a number of premises that only capture limited behavioral patterns on the part of sellers and buyers. The traditional supply and demand curves apply mostly for a short period of time, for common products (so-called normal goods, not for luxury products) and for consumers who have access to full information. However, the reality of consumer and supplier behaviors is much more diverse and complex: some buyers buy impulsively, and some sellers are perceived as “predators” (Zaltman, 2004) rather than as a credible and reliable source of information.

In light of this fact, it appears that the field of sales and marketing necessitates additional theoretical efforts. Gummesson puts it as follows: “Marketing management today suffers from theory anorexia and cannot properly feed on and digest what is happening in a new economy [...] we need marketing theory, good theory, essential for scholars and practicing managers alike.” (2002, p. 588). In essence, not all constructs are, as experienced by Crosby, Evans and Cowles (1990), sufficiently defined to make research inroads. The goal of this paper is to examine the (theoretical) intricate relationship between the sense of equilibrium and perceived predation.

An emphasis is hereby given to the notion of predation, which is defined as an abuse of one market agent over the other *by surprise* and which implies a break in the equilibrium of their interaction. Indeed, one can relate to experiences such as having the feeling that the used car salesperson is out there to scrutinize the vulnerable buyer and sell him a «lemon».

This paper hereby proposes to first investigate a possible definition for the construct of equilibrium within the frame of an interaction between a (non-industrial, non B2B) seller and a buyer, whether it is purely (1) transactional (buyer and seller move quickly through the transaction; often, this kind of interaction is in the B2B context), (2) relational (they exchange formally and informally), or (3) interpersonal (they share sentiments, family experience, hobbies, etc.; here, seller and buyers are treated as individuals).

Equilibrium is a key concept in economy, and it may have its utility in sales and marketing since the field is one way of looking at and managing economic transactions. Following this, a modeling is proposed; it relies on a certain number of general hypotheses, such as one stipulating that each actor (seller or buyer) acts in good faith *while* somewhat fearing that he could be the victim of some form of abuse (ex.: the seller hides some critical defects pertaining to the product) or breach of trust. Just like demand and supply curves have helped economists and managers organize their strategic actions, it may be that the MESLY model will find ways to assist sales and marketing experts in enhancing the effectiveness of their efforts. That section will be followed by a conclusion discussing possible research avenues.

This article is perhaps one of few attempts made in sales and marketing to plot consumer and seller behaviors (including predatory behavior) on the same graph from a sales and marketing perspective (in a way reminiscent of supply-demand curves found in economy). Attempts have been made in the past to explore relationships from an ethological point of view (Eyuboglu and Buja, 2007) and to briefly discuss predation (Morgan & Hunt, 1994), yet there has not been a concerted effort to develop the concept of opportunism (Williamson, 1981) into that of predation and to connect equilibrium and predation.

## UNDERSTANDING EQUILIBRIUM IN BUSINESS DYAD

Each actor (seller or buyer) has a vested interest in entering into a fair relationship with the other, whereby each one receives as much as he gives (and no less), on the basis of some form of interdependence and a shared value system.

Few researches seem to treat equilibrium within this context of a sales dyads. In psychology, one will refer to the theory of equilibrium or cognitive consistence, and in marketing, to cognitive dissonance (Petrot, 1993) or social exchange theory (Emerson, 1976). According to the theory of equilibrium, each actor tries to reach a certain level of stability in the relationship despite constant adjustments inherent to the relationship: “Correction is anticipated because people seek stable and accurate evaluations of products and other objects” (Bakamitsos, 2006, p. 404).

Reciprocity and equity could be considered the most obvious elements that provide a sense of equilibrium between two actors – a seller and a buyer. This is discussed next.

### Reciprocity

A seller or a buyer wanting to close the sale have no other choice but to cooperate, hopefully to the best of his capacity, but within a level that is acceptable to each actor. Acts of reciprocity underscore a sense of cooperation. In their study amongst 80 dyads from various industrial sectors, Ellram and Hendrick (1995, p. 49) identify five factors that are positively related to the desire to cooperate, as follows: (1) mutual loyalty; (2) a desire to help the other; (3) risk sharing; (4) negotiation as opposed to mediation; and finally (5) continuous improvement. It can be said that whereas trust implies expectations of reciprocity, cooperation materializes these expectations.

Henrich *et al.* mention, in 2005, that hundreds of empirical studies in at least ten countries confirm the norm of reciprocity. Palmatier, Jarvis, Bechkoff, and Kardes (2009) add that people feel a psychological pressure to reciprocate and that acts of reciprocity are responsible for the construction of trust in a dyad. When people don't feel positive reciprocity, however, they tend to opt for negative reciprocity (tit-for-tat games), which make them very sensitive to external factors (Molander 1985). Thus, equilibrium seems to be intimately linked to the sense of reciprocity.

### Equity

Acts of reciprocity do not guaranty a harmonious relationship. A sense of equity may be necessary. Atuahene-Gima and Li argue in 2002 that actors have expectations towards each other, including that of acting in an equitable manner. Bolton and Ockenfels' study (2005) using the ultimatum game shows that participants aim for “an equal division offer” (p. 965).

Sellers and buyers aim for an equitable treatment, but some conditions may actually turn what should be a positive relational experience into a negative one. According to Wangenheim and Bayón (2007), three conditions are necessary in order to label a situation as unfair: (1) unfavourable conditions; (2) lack of responsibilities; and (3) the violation of a moral principle.

These authors suggest that a natural link exists between a lack of equity and the idea that “harmful action” (p. 37) can take place. They add (p.37): “Given that the most likely reaction to inequity is to decrease inputs/investments into a relation [...]” Thus, buyers and sellers may

withdraw from a relationship where they feel mistreated, preventing the completion of the transaction.

In summary, sellers and buyers expect some levels of reciprocity and equity on the part of the exchange partner, but internal or external conditions may turn an otherwise positive experience into a negative one. At that point, the other is potentially perceived as a predator and oneself as a prey.

## **A POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN A SELLER AND A BUYER**

The search for equilibrium within the relationship allows each actor to participate to his best advantage. Lengnick-Hall and Wolff (1999) conclude that, within an organizational setting (B2B), a sense of equilibrium allows the parties to evolve. According to Bakamitsos (2006), the search for some form of equilibrium is an attempt to maintain one's own integrity despite what could be seen at times as misunderstandings in the seller's interpretation of the customer's needs. According to Lichtlé and Plichon (2008), an individual is first and foremost congruent with himself.

Thus, it appears that a positive exchange atmosphere is created when sellers and buyers are congruent with themselves and show reciprocity and an equitable treatment of the other. A sense of equilibrium (win-win) forms whereby each side of the dyad feels equal, a situation that in turn allows the parties to grow and hopefully realize a mutually-beneficial transaction.

A positive sense of equilibrium forms when the two actors – a seller and a buyer, (1) cannot change their respective position without damaging that of the other actor (that is, a position exempt of opportunism – see Dwyer and Walker 1981; Petty, Unnava and Strathman 1991; Gundlach, Achrol and Mentzer 1995; Joshi and Arnold 1997; Williamson and Masten 1999; Heide and Wathne 2006), thus leading to a trusting atmosphere; and (2) when each actor is happy with what he has gained, believing it is to his advantage, thus leading to more cooperation.

To summarize, it seems appropriate to examine the construct of equilibrium in trying to better understand the relationship dynamic between a seller and a buyer. However, a sense of predation may interfere with the harmonious construction of trust between these two market agents.

### **Predator**

As mentioned, a failure on the part of the other side of the dyad in terms of reciprocity or equity may lead one to believe that the other party is more interested in his own interests, perhaps to one's own disadvantage. This uncertainty can be expressed through numerous concerns: Does the salesperson act honestly? Is he legitimate? Does the buyer have the money to pay for what he aspires to? Am I wasting my time trying to fulfil his needs suspecting he is going to go see a competitor? According to Achrol and Stern (1988) the environment dynamic influences the level of uncertainty felt by the actors and this uncertainty may negatively taint the exchange atmosphere.

Semi-directed interviews conducted in the field with buyers and sellers (Mesly, 2010, 2011) have tended to show that some buyers feel vulnerable and perceive salespeople as having "bad" intentions, and that some sellers feel their potential buyers are "fake", being interested only in collecting information to then go buy the product at a competitor's location. This sense of

vulnerability from both sides of the transaction has been noted in particular by Svensson (2004, p. 679) and is exemplified by some of the verbatim collected in the field. See Table 1 – Verbatim of the sense of vulnerability (Appendix).

Sellers and buyers interact in a continuous fashion, thus attempting to create a dynamic equilibrium that can be doomed at any point in time (as discussed by Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987, p. 12), time is of the essence in relationships). This equilibrium can be defined as the search for reciprocity, equity and logic with oneself. As such, it implies deep emotions and profound values hence the importance to find a model that translates it as accurately as possible. Such attempts to modelize behaviors have been done in the past, for example in classical economics, but under restrictive conditions (for example, it assumes that consumers have full information).

A modeling graphically representing the relationship between a seller and a buyer in terms of “interactional equilibrium” is thereafter provided, taking into consideration the possibility that the other (seller or buyer) may act as a predator – someone who wants to gain an advantage over the other, by surprise, thus inflicting us an undesirable cost.

### **TOWARDS A MODEL OF INTERACTIONAL EQUILIBRIUM (THE MESLY MODEL)**

Since the notion of interactional equilibrium does not exist as an established construct in sales and marketing, it appeared logical to modelize it. In classical economic theory, demand and supply curves are used to portray the average sellers and buyers participating in an exchange of normal goods, during a relatively short period of time when conditions remain stable; a model that puts together the seller-buyer interaction follows. This model is named the MESLY model, after the name of the author who originally introduced it.

When a seller and a buyer meet, they each adopt a certain “position”: they make themselves available to each other and they show a certain level of openness. The seller shows his “position” by displaying interest towards the customer, inquiring about his needs and in doing so, he learns more about the customer and becomes less suspicious about his real interest in buying from him. On the other hand, the buyer adapts to the seller’s style, accepts to be guided and opens up by divulging his needs, and perhaps even his fears towards making the wrong purchase decision. Each actor must make some choices: the seller could decide the buyer is not worth his time and speed up the exchange while the buyer may decide to go see another seller.

However, each actor knows that by disclosing the sacrifices he’s done and the gains he has secured, he makes himself vulnerable. He measures the amount of risk inherent to any transaction: is he being duped? He must take his decision based on his vulnerability and perceived risk.

As can be seen, trust is not necessarily granted on either side of the dyad. To the contrary, marketing literature shows that trust between sellers and buyers is built over time (Ganesan 1994; Ellram and Hendrick 1995; Doney and Cannon 1997), yet trust is at the heart of their relationship (Atuahene-Gima and Li 2002) and differs whether it is the company or the sales person that is being evaluated (Wood, Johnston and Bellenger, 2008). As the actors negotiate, time starts to come short, and each one (seller and buyer) wants to close the deal in order to move to something else, without being abused or tricked into something that would be detrimental (for example, a car salesperson discovers the buyers’ credit is poor so he can’t afford to buy the car for which he negotiated for hours).

## Predatory curve

An attempt to modelize this atmosphere of perceived predation is shown in Figure 1: Predatory curve (Appendix). The predatory curve evolves along two axes: one that displays how the buyer can feel more or less vulnerable (his internal state; axis X) and one whereby he perceived a risk while negotiating over time with the seller (the external influence; axis Y).

Put simply, as time goes on, the buyer discloses more and more of himself. He thus becomes more vulnerable because the seller knows more and more about him, and he would even be able to identify his weaknesses. The reason the buyer opens up is that he thinks that there is less risk coming from the environment, namely from the seller. So as perceived risk diminishes, the buyer opens up and becomes more vulnerable over time. Vulnerability is put over time on the X axis because vulnerability is the only element the buyer can control: he cannot control the risk coming from the outside, but he can decide how vulnerable he feels, and can decide to leave the relationship if he feels he is becoming too vulnerable. One can look at this situation another way: it may be that as the buyer opens up, he simultaneously choses to consider the environment less menacing, that is, less risky (which in fact it may not be).

The predatory curve has a particular characteristic: the surface is equal in each point under the curve. In Figure 1, surface “A” is equal to surface “B”, on the basis that the actor represented in action by the predatory curve wants to remain equal to himself over time. This means that the actor (for example, the buyer) is trying to maintain his position, how he feels and his decision at every point in time “*t*”. The holistic identity of the actor is never compromised under the predatory curve: he is always equal to himself even though his levels of feelings and decisions vary. At the beginning, the actor is trying to feel the other actor, and then moves towards making a decision; he becomes more calculative and measures the pros and cons of the relationship as time goes on. All in all, though, the actor tends to remain logical with himself and to be stable (Lewicki, McAllister and Bies 1998).

## Buyers meet sellers

The success of a business interpersonal dyad can be measured by the level of optimization, which only occurs when there is equilibrium between the actors’ position and his decision processes. It is therefore possible to represent this interactional dynamics within the dyad using each actor’s predatory curve positioned inside an Edgeworth box, as shown in Figure 2 –Edgeworth box.

In Figure 2, the predatory curve located towards the left side of the Edgeworth box is that of the buyer, and the one towards the upper right side of the box is that of the seller. An Edgeworth box thus is read from two view points: the bottom left and the upper right, with one being the mirror of the other. For example, the seller’s position is read starting from the top right corner moving left over time.

This modeling can be developed further in order to express the three levels of interaction possible within the dyad known in marketing literature, as shown from Table 2 shows the differences between these three levels of interaction (Appendix).

In the transactional setting ( $k=1$ ), the majority of the interaction is taking place “at a distance”. Generally speaking (in a non-industrial context), there is little negotiation over price or products and interaction is at its minimum. In other words, the buyer’s predatory curve stays most of the time far apart from the seller’s predatory curve. The buyer can move from left to right over time along his predatory curve as he is looking for ways to adapt to the seller’s offer.

Similarly, the seller can move from right to left over time (the mirror image in the Edgeworth box) along his own predatory curve as he tries to accommodate the buyer. At some point in time, they meet: their respective predatory curves have become closer, signifying that they complete the transaction. Yet, the majority of the time spent by each actor has been at a distance.

Vulnerability is low because the actors are little exposed; in fact, if the buyer is not happy at a first glance with the dealership where he's ventured to look for a car, he'll promptly leave and look somewhere else.

In the relational exchange ( $k=2$ ), buyer and seller are closer to each other. More time is spent on negotiation; actors are more flexible ("elastic") and ready to make a few compromises to complete the business exchange.

At the interpersonal level ( $k=3$ ), the buyer's predatory curve is almost touching the seller's predatory curve. Each actor is "exposed" to the other, hence a higher level of vulnerability, yet the actors get along and they tend to trust each other. Products are likely to be more differentiated, perhaps tailor-made, and some intense and repetitious negotiation may take place or has already taken place (ex.: the purchase of a house).

However, the seller, as an example, can potentially go beyond his call of duty and penetrate the buyer's territory. The seller is being aggressive, making no compromise, trying to force the sale. Predatory behavior is recognized when equilibrium is broken down in such a way that one market agent penetrates the privileged territory of the other market agent. Thus, a crucial link between the sense of equilibrium and perceived predation has been identified. Figure 3 exemplifies this state of affairs, a state of predatory behaviour (Appendix).

In this particular case, there is no longer good harmony between the actors. The seller is being overly inquisitive, creating unease on the part of the buyer, putting too much pressure to conclude the sale, asking too many personal questions, and perhaps showing little level of salesmanship.

The above modeling permits to define predatory behavior as a series of planned actions aimed at imposing a cost to the other side of the dyad by surprise. In a non-contractual transactional dyad, the buyer can easily walk away without any strings attached and will not likely be caught by surprise, or else the interaction is governed by contracts aimed at discouraging any acts of opportunism (Williamson 1975). However, an investor who has learned to trust the financial broker may be under shock to learn that the latter is in fact a crook and has used his investments for his own benefits, through a series of carefully-planned actions spread over years. He has been caught by surprise and his vulnerability is fully exposed whereas he had come to think there was no risk in the relationship with the broker. There are numerous examples in real life of sellers acting in a predatory manner over the buyers (their preys): Enron's leaders and Bernard Madoff being two of them.

The ideal encounter between the seller's and the buyer's holistic behaviors are in the exact centre of the box, whereby they share the same level of trust towards each other. This point on the box is named the "dynamic predatory equilibrium" point because it captures the three fundamental aspects of the interaction: (1) a search for equilibrium (reciprocity, equity, etc); (2) dynamism (the situation evolves over time and trust may be betrayed at any time); and (3) predatory behavior (each actor has a certain number of fears towards the other, including, as an example, the fear of being abused, misinformed, misled, etc.) This is similar to the prisoner's dilemma (made famous by the movie "A beautiful mind") in that, at that point in time where the two predatory curves meet and touch, each actor cannot withdraw from the interaction without affecting the other (a situation similar to Pareto efficiency) and each actor is not willing to

compromise any more as he thinks he has maximized his gains (a situation similar to a Cournot-Nash equilibrium).

A perfect equilibrium, which is reminiscent of the supply-demand curves found in classical economics, can be portrayed as shown in Figure 4 – Perfect interactional equilibrium.

In Figure 4, the curve with a slope of “1” that starts from the seller’s point of origin is named “predatory path”. As time goes on, the seller moves from right to left along this slope. In a situation of perfect equilibrium, the seller’s predatory path perfectly meets the buyer’s predatory path. At the centre of the Edgeworth box, each actor receives the same amounts of benefits and incurs the same kind of costs, so that a balance is achieved in the interaction. The seller’s added value gained from the interaction with the buyer equals the buyer’s perceived value of the goods he has acquired. This is the meaning of a “calculated encounter”.

Predatory curves display the fact that the buyer does not perceive the seller on his emotional display alone (“is he friendly?”) or his cognition alone (“is he cooperating?”) but on both at the same time. Each actor tries to determine whether the other is emotionally and cognitively well-intentioned, within the level of the interaction ( $k=1, 2$  or  $3$ ). A similar conceptual approach has been used in other publications in other fields, such as the Hunsaker’s article (1999) in which she describes the dynamic of debts between two enterprises or Chase’s article (1980) discussing cooperative and noncooperative behaviors in animals. Thus, it appears reasonable to believe that the sales and marketing field can have its own way of looking at the interaction between a buyer and a seller differently than by using supply and demand curves.

Using the above modeling, an attempt is made to come up with a definition for the construct of interactional equilibrium, as follows:

**Definition: Interactional Equilibrium**

Interactional equilibrium is achieved within a seller-buyer dyad when each actor feels he cannot change his way of being, thinking, acting and responding during the course of the interaction, meaning that he remains equal to himself, logical with himself, and stable over time.

As the point perfect equilibrium is being transgressed, seller and buyer enter into a zone of predation, whereby one is taking advantage of the other, by surprise, for his own interest while inflicting a cost to the other party.

The advantages of such modeling may not be obvious at first for the sales professional but one must go back to classical economic theory and evaluate how the understanding of supply and demand curves has affected the way one conducts business and has done so for over a century. By better understanding how sellers and buyers interact, try to reach equilibrium in the short (transactional), medium (relational) or long-term (interactional) without falling prey to the other, the sales expert can better explain exchange behaviors, anticipate the outcome of the interaction (for example, through computer simulation) and determine the criteria for perfect interactional equilibrium. As can be seen from figure 4, perfect interactional equilibrium requires that seller and buyer meet in a comfort zone of equality and that they behave in the same value context (represented by the Edgeworth box.) The other advantage of the MESLY modeling is that it shows how a relationship can evolve over *time*. First, each actor (seller or buyer) can move along his own predatory curve while remaining equal to himself and also move closer or farther away from the point of origin. These flows are emblematic of underlying motivations, such as a motivation to buy a particular product.



## CONCLUSION

This theoretical article was an exploratory exercise: it was meant to generate ideas with the hope that this will stimulate the field of sales and marketing management by adopting a vision of the dyads that borrows heavily from economics, but that puts each actor – seller and buyer, in action as they interact at different levels of commitment, with the worst-case scenario being one actor behaving as a “predator” against the other. Through the MESLY model, it has been proposed that buyers and sellers interact in an atmosphere of mutual perceived predation, that is, each market agent is cognizant of the possibility that the other can abuse him, by surprise. Yet, in the interest of concluding the transaction, buyers and sellers try to reach an equilibrium, even if this equilibrium is very short term (transactional in nature) or implies of some self-disclosure (interpersonal relationship). Ultimately, when one market agent penetrates within the territory of the other market agent, thus breaking the equilibrium that existed between them, there is predation. In nature, predation occurs in the same way: the predator invades the territory of the prey. In human business interactions, death is not the consequence of such invasion of course, rather asymmetry of information leads to a financial or emotional loss for one market agent to the advantage of the other market agent.

Even though the construct of interactional equilibrium (win-win) is not widely discussed in sales and marketing, it implies some common concepts that are known and treated in the literature, such as the notions of reciprocity and equity. Seller and buyer seem to need a certain form of equilibrium as they interact, just as a body relies on homeostasis to maintain its vital functions. The idea of “predatory behavior” has been introduced to convey the fact that certain market agents penetrate the vital space of the other market agent, destabilizing him, and causing him negative emotions such as grief or anger, but also real financial costs, catching him by surprise. Sellers and buyers both aspire at a fair interaction and would rather not be the “prey” of the other. For example, the buyer of a used car wishes to know the truth about the state of the brakes and expects the seller to be honest failing what there is a real risk of a potentially lethal accident. In order to secure complete and reliable information, sellers and buyers try to reciprocate, exchange crucial information, and learn to trust each other.

Four conditions to attaining perfect equilibrium are suggested, phrased as follows: (1) Does the other reciprocate? (2) Am I getting out of the interaction at least as much as I give? (3) Are we aligned, are we talking the same language? (4) Do we act according to the same values, for example the same norms of equity? By answering these four questions, one can judge whether or not the interaction is reasonably balanced. A research possibility exists to examine the brain functioning while under equilibrium conditions or the reverse, in the absence of equilibrium, with such technological tools as fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging). Of course, further modeling is required to see how the MESLY model can apply usefully in the real world.

This article will hopefully generate ideas, critics and animated discussions, whether positive or negative, as this can only be beneficial for the evolution of sales and marketing. The main advantages of the MESLY model are that it applies to all goods (luxury goods included), it recognizes incomplete access to information (hence the possibility of predation) and it can display various behaviors over a long period of time with respect to two fundamental influences: the internal sense of vulnerability and external perceived risk. As such, the salesforce could be inspired to seek a sense of win-win with their customers in order to help reducing the negative perceptions many clients have of salespeople at large.

APPENDIX

Table 1 – Verbatim of the sense of vulnerability

<b>My vulnerabilities</b>
Care about interpersonal relationships
Lack of self-confidence
Fatigue
<b>My weaknesses</b>
Sometimes all-or-nothing
Need to be accepted
Lack of time

Figure 1 –Predatory curve

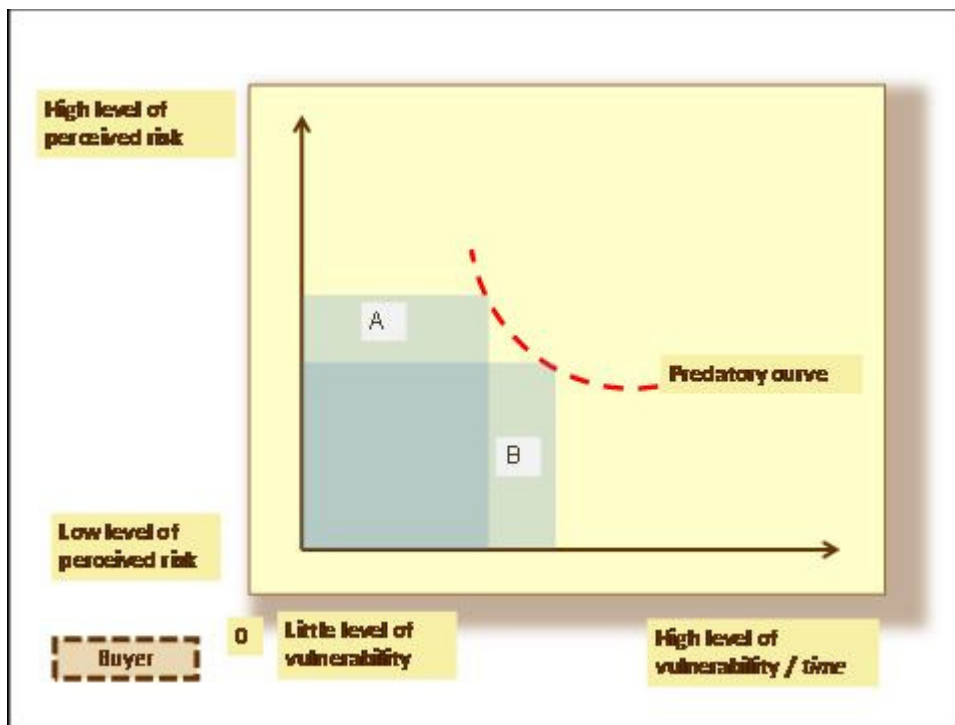


Figure 2 – Edgeworth box

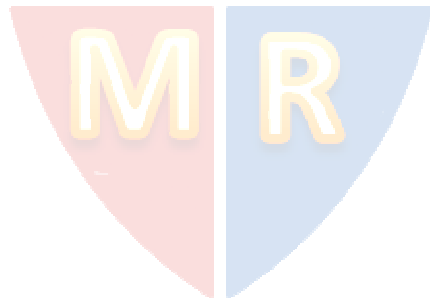
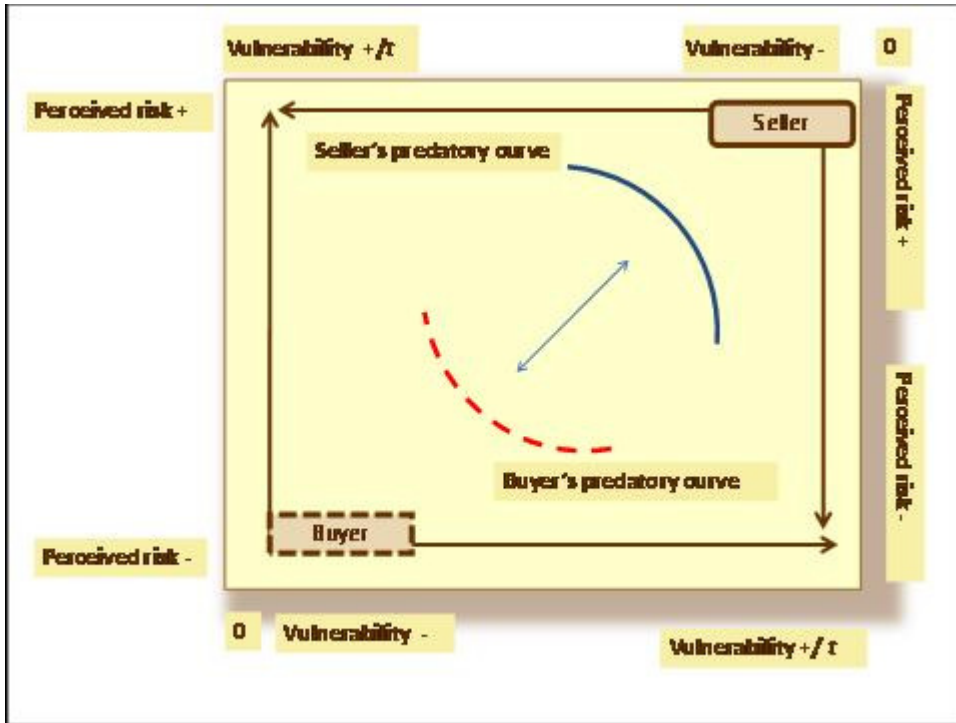


Table 2 – The three interaction levels

Interaction level ( <i>k</i> )	Representation
<p><b>Transactional level</b> (<i>k</i>=1)</p>	
<p><b>Relational level</b> (<i>k</i>=2)</p>	
<p><b>Interpersonal level</b> (<i>k</i>=3)</p>	

**Table 2 - Interactional Levels (Continued)**

<b>Characteristics of each interactional level</b>			
<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Transactional (<math>k = 1</math>)</b>	<b>Relational (<math>k = 2</math>)</b>	<b>Interpersonal (<math>k = 3</math>)</b>
Length	Short	Medium	Long
Role	Programmed Cooperation	Adaptive cooperation	Cooperation of principle (Heide and Wathne, 2006)
Dynamic	Rigid (often contractual)	Adaptive (Pels, Coviello, and Brodie, 2000, p. 15)	Flexible
Closeness	Distant	Moderate (professional life and some personal)	Personal life
Personalization (adaptation to the other's needs)	Low or inexistant	Moderate	High
Emotional investment	Low	Moderate	High
Interest	Self	Self and the other	Altruistic
Object of trust (Gurviez and Korchia, 2002)	Towards the organization	Towards the individual	Towards the person
Involvement and values	Honesty and decency (Gundlach and Murphy, 1993)	Respect and equity	Empathy and sharing
Outlook (Gurviez and Korchia, 2002)	Highly predictable	Unplanned events	Spontaneous, unplanned
Decisional process (Heide and Wathne, 2006)	Logic of calculated profit	Logic of good atmosphere and profit	Heuristic

Figure 3 – Predatory behavior

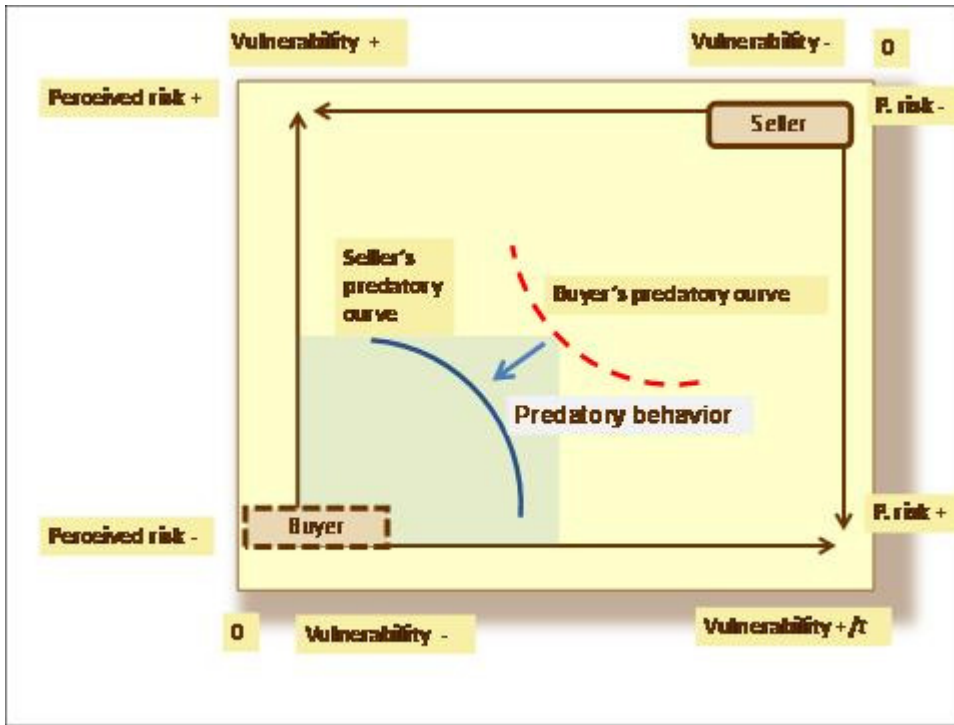
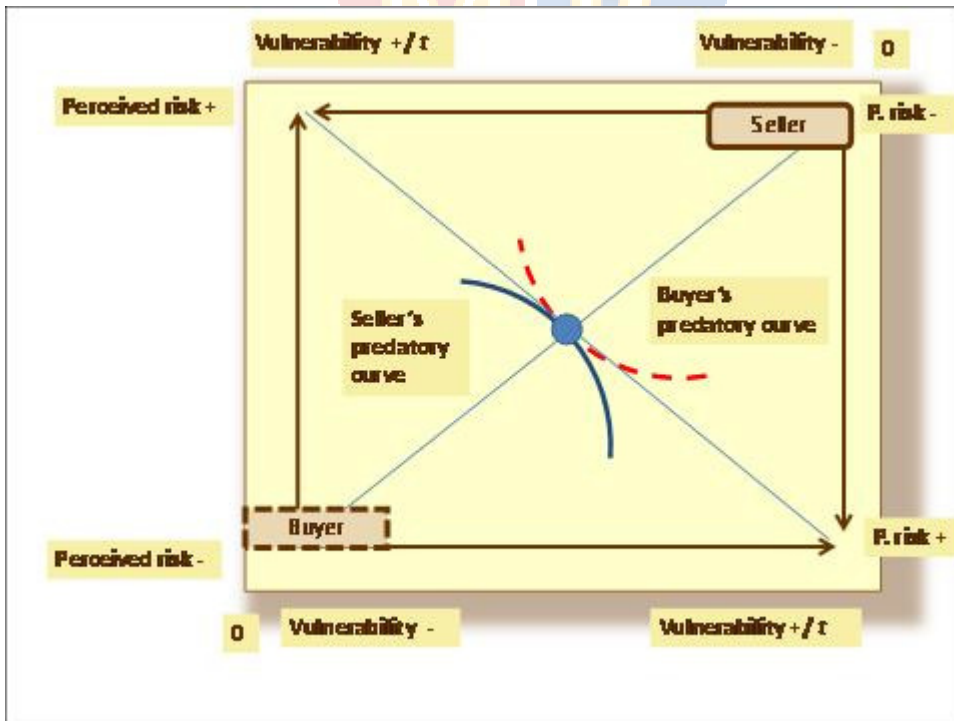


Figure 4 – Perfect interactional equilibrium



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