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**Quality of Communication Experience: Definition, Measurement,
and Implications for Intercultural Negotiations**

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ABSTRACT

In an increasingly globalized workplace, the ability to communicate effectively across cultures is critical. We propose that the quality of communication experienced by individuals plays a significant role in the outcomes of intercultural interactions, such as cross-border negotiations. In four studies, we developed and validated a multidimensional conceptualization of Quality of Communication Experience (QCE) and examined its consequences in intracultural versus intercultural business negotiation. We proposed and found three dimensions of QCE, namely *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*. Findings from intercultural and same-cultural negotiations supported the hypotheses that QCE is lower in intercultural than intracultural negotiation; and that a higher degree of QCE leads to better negotiation outcomes. Moreover, we found evidence that the beneficial effects of higher QCE on negotiation outcomes are more pronounced in intercultural than intracultural negotiation. We propose an agenda for future research and identify implications for practice.

Quality of Communication Experience: Definition, Measurement, and Implications for Intercultural Negotiations

Communicamos ergo somos. -- Gergen, 1994 pp. viii

At no time in human history has the contact between individuals from different cultures been greater. Today, managers and professionals at all levels work and interact with people from different cultural backgrounds. Employees travel around broader regions while their jobs remain headquartered in one place. Global virtual teams are created to address important strategic challenges and to enable companies to become globally competitive. Supplier and customer value chains circle the globe. As a result of this globalization process at both the societal and organizational levels, it becomes more and more important to be aware of cultural differences and be able to interact effectively with people from other cultures (e.g. Adler, 2002; Lane, DiStefano & Maznevski, 2006). Since communication is the “heart” and “central instrumental process” (Lewicki & Litterer, 1985; p. 157) in social interactions, we propose that the quality of communication experience (QCE) of those involved in international business is likely to be consequential because it affects the dynamics and outcomes of these intercultural encounters.

Intercultural negotiation represents one of the most common and critical challenges in conducting international business. The specific interaction involved in cross-cultural negotiation presents an ideal situation in which to explore the consequences of QCE due to the criticality of information sharing, the high level of uncertainty experienced by those involved, and the need for negotiators to come to a common understanding (Carroll & Payne, 1991). Gibson, Maznevski and Kirkman (2009) argue that the influence of culture on individuals’ behavior is strongest in situations that do not provide specific guidance or explicit rules on how to deal with cultural differences, as well as those that require close collaboration among people. Mixed motive and

multi-issue negotiation that involves both distributive and integrative issues is one such situation. Our paper will focus on this type of negotiation.

The objectives of this study are, first, to explore the dimensions of QCE in the context of negotiation; second, to examine how negotiators' levels of QCE in intercultural negotiations differ from those in same-culture negotiations; third, to investigate how the dimensions of QCE influence negotiation outcomes; and fourth, to examine how their effects on negotiation outcomes differ between intercultural and intracultural negotiations. To pursue these objectives, we first developed a multidimensional construct of QCE that reflects cognitive, behavioral, and affective components based on an integration of existing related literature. We then developed and validated a scale to measure QCE (Study 1 and 2) using both American and Chinese samples, and tested the consequences of QCE in two negotiation simulations (Study 3 and 4). Thus, the research presented here not only offers a comprehensive theoretical construct of QCE and a cross-culturally developed and validated instrument to measure it, but also aims to deepen our understanding of the role played by QCE in intercultural versus intracultural negotiations.

Hypothesis Development

Quality of Communication Experience in Same- versus Intercultural Settings

We conceptualize QCE as a multifaceted construct that involves cognitive, behavioral, and affective elements. Most of the research on interpersonal communication has examined the cognitive, behavioral, and affective aspects of communication separately, rather than treating communication as a multidimensional construct. For example, related to the cognitive aspect, research has examined the role of cognitive flexibility in effective communication (Martin & Anderson, 1998). On the behavioral aspect, studies investigated the role of affinity-seeking (Bell & Daly, 1984), relationship maintenance (Ayres, 1983), disengagement (Cody, 1982), openness

(Norton & Montgomery, 1982), and self-disclosure (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958) in effective interpersonal communication, as well as the nature and effectiveness of conversational skills (Spritzberg, 1988; Spitzberg & Canary, 1985; Spitzberg, Canary, & Cupach, 1994; Spritzberg & Hurt, 1987). On the affective aspect, scholars have examined emotional empathy (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972; Davis, 1983; Losoya & Eisenberg, 2001), interpersonal sensitivity (Bernieri, 2001), affect expression (Buck, 1975) and affect receiving (Buck 1976).

In the literature on *intercultural* communication, the cognitive, behavioral, and affective components of communication also have been recurring themes (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005). The main emphasis of this literature is on the antecedents and consequences of intercultural communication competence and effectiveness (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005; Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978; Koester & Olebe, 1987, 1988; Ruben, 1976). For example, related to the cognitive aspects of intercultural communication, Katriel and Philipsen (1981) and Wiseman, Hammer, and Nishida (1989) highlighted the importance of meaning transmission through language and symbols, as well as knowledge about other culture's communication patterns (e.g. Kim, 1991). Intercultural adjustment skills (Ruben, 1976, 1989) and behavioral flexibility (Kim, 1991) have been identified as behavioral antecedents or components of intercultural competence. In terms of the affective dimension, Gudykunst (1995) has emphasized the importance of managing anxiety and Kim (1991) has pointed to the role of motivational factors, such as willingness to accommodate different cultural ways, in effective intercultural communication. Recent work on cultural intelligence has also looked at the cognitive, motivational, and behavioral elements that allow people to successfully adapt to and shape the cultural aspects of their environment (e.g., Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas et al., 2008).

Although the work on intercultural competence and cultural intelligence has informed our understanding of the dynamics of and success factors in intercultural encounters, both streams of research emphasize the role of *individual* characteristics (knowledge, capabilities, attitudes, and skills) in effective intercultural communication. However, communication is a *social* process that involves at least one other party who would oblige, respond, and stimulate the messages being exchanged (Griffin, 1994). We propose that in intercultural encounters, an individual's experience of a communication episode reflects the cognitive, behavioral, and affective aspects of communication, as well as the individual's perceptions about the exchange process with the other party. Specifically, we propose that QCE is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses the *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* that communicators experience during social interaction; and that these three aspects of communication experience are particularly salient or important in intercultural encounters.

Clarity refers to the cognitive aspect of the communication experience, and we define it as the degree of comprehension of the meaning being communicated. Meaning encompasses not only factual information, but also ideas, emotions, and values that are conveyed via symbolization and demonstration (Axley, 1984; Pearce & Cronen, 1980). *Responsiveness* reflects the behavioral aspect of the communication experience, and it indicates the norm of coordination (Barry & Crant, 2000) or reciprocity (Brett, Shapiro, & Lytle, 1998; Gouldner, 1960; Putnam & Jones, 1982; Ludwig, Franco, & Malloy, 1986) that individuals experience in interpersonal interactions. Coordination and reciprocity denote both synchronization of speech patterns, as well as responding to the informational inquiries and expressing empathy with the emotions expressed by the other party. A lack of *Responsiveness* to the other party's overtures signals unfulfilled expectations and may generate conflicts in interpersonal communication

(Cialdini, 1993). *Comfort* experienced by communicators reflects the affective aspect of communication and we define it as a condition of positive affect of ease and pleasantness when interacting with each other.

As the definition suggests, QCE is an individual level construct that occurs in the domain of interpersonal interaction and is highly dependent upon the behavior and reactions of one's interaction partner. It captures the perceived quality of communication in a dyadic interaction to which both communication partners contribute. A person's QCE is affected by various factors, including aspects of the communication situation, characteristics of the communication partner, and the individual's perceived ability to communicate effectively with the partner. This implies that it is possible for one person in a dyad to have high QCE while the other does not. In fact, such asymmetries in the communication experience are particularly likely or prevalent in intercultural encounters, as explained later. The interdependence between the two parties' communication experiences means that even though QCE is conceptualized at the individual level, to assess the degree of QCE we have to consider the communication partners' mutual perceptions of, and influence on, each other's communication experiences.

Impact of Cultural Differences on QCE

Studies of intercultural communication have shown that the amount of time and energy needed for communication, as well as the likelihood of miscommunication, increase significantly as cultural differences increase (e.g., Adler, 2002; Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). Brett and Okumura (1998) found that intercultural negotiations are more likely to be plagued with problems of premature closure of the search for alternatives and inefficient information sharing, possibly because negotiators bring different culture-specific schemas to the negotiation table (Imai & Gelfand, 2007). Adler and Graham (1989) point out that communication problems are more

likely to occur in intercultural than same-cultural negotiations due to differences in language, nonverbal behaviors, cultural values, and thought patterns. Alluding to the difficulty of achieving clarity in communication in intercultural negotiations, they argue that communication problems in such negotiations may not only be caused by what is said, but also by how what is said is interpreted. Moreover, intercultural negotiators may be unable to communicate priorities and preferences in a way that the other party can understand. Adair, Okumura, and Brett (2001) measured negotiators' use of clarifying statements in same- and intercultural negotiations. They found that more clarifying statements were used in intercultural negotiations and concluded that communication is more difficult and frustrating in intercultural encounters. We hypothesize that in international negotiations, different culture-specific schemas and approaches, as well as differences in communication style, are likely to have an adverse impact on the *Clarity* dimension of QCE, at least, initially, until some level of mutual understanding has developed between communication partners and they are able to find a way to leverage their different ideas and perspectives (e.g., Von Glinow, Shapiro & Brett, 2004).

According to similarity-attraction theory, people are attracted to working with and cooperating with those they find similar in terms of attitudes, values and beliefs (Byrne, 1971). Similarity provides positive reinforcement for one's own attitudes and beliefs, therefore individuals are more likely to respond and offer feedback to similar others, whereas dissimilarity creates distance and can hinder communication and mutual understanding (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). In intercultural situations, this may affect the *Responsiveness* dimension of QCE. Moreover, in intercultural negotiations, negotiating dyads are likely to hold different and often incompatible negotiation scripts due to differences in the meanings attached to specific behaviors, leading to difficulties in synchronization and communication (Adair & Brett, 2005; Tinsley,

Curhan & Kwak 1999). In fact, Tinsley, Curhan and Kwak (1999) liken the process of intercultural negotiation to a dance in which one person does a waltz and the other a tango. Such incompatible scripts in intercultural negotiations can be expected to hinder reciprocity and coordination, making responsiveness less likely. We hypothesize that the increasing communication frustrations make cross-cultural communicators less willing to coordinate with each other, thereby reducing both sides' *Responsiveness* to each other's inquiries and overtures.

Gudykunst's (1995) anxiety/uncertainty management (AUM) theory holds that cultural diversity causes anxiety in intercultural encounters and that anxiety and uncertainty directly influence the communication experience. Anxiety entails feeling uneasy or apprehensive about what might happen (Stephan & Stephan, 1985), while uncertainty is the inability to predict or explain others' feelings, attitudes, and behavior (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Gudykunst (1995) argues that when anxiety is high, people fall back on simplistic information processing such as using stereotypes; and when uncertainty is high, people are not confident enough to predict or explain other's feelings, attitudes, and behavior. Thus, high levels of anxiety and uncertainty are more likely to result in misinterpretation, misunderstanding, and communication failure. Supporting this, Lee, Yang and Graham (2006) note that there are bound to be extra sources of tension in intercultural negotiations, including decreased trust, lack of interpersonal attractiveness, and reduced willingness to cooperate, especially when the negotiators are from very different cultures. Based on the greater amount of uncertainty and anxiety experienced in intercultural compared to same-cultural encounters, we hypothesize that communicators will experience less *Comfort* in intercultural negotiations. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 1: QCE is lower in intercultural than in same-culture negotiations in terms of Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort.

To further illustrate the effects of cultural differences on QCE and to explore potential asymmetries in the communication experience, we compare the American and Chinese cultures. We selected American and Chinese nationals to maximize the differences in culture for the intercultural negotiation, one representing a western cultural perspective and the other representing an Asian cultural perspective. The work of Hall and Hall (1987) and the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), among others, demonstrated that China and the U.S. differ on a number of cultural dimensions relevant to communication. There is a large body of evidence which suggests that Chinese (and people in most East Asian countries in general) are “high-context” (Hall, 1959) in terms of linguistic code and communication style. They are motivated by the need to “save face” and tend to prefer expressing feelings of conflict in indirect ways, that is, by using words that are less direct, less explicit, and less sender oriented (e.g., Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988; Trubinsky, Ting-Toomey & Lin, 1991; Von Glinow et al., 2004). They prefer to use words that are more ambiguous so as to “avoid leaving an assertive impression” (Okabe, 1983). Cross-cultural researchers attribute Asians’ preference for an indirect style of communication to the importance Asians place on harmony and face (e.g., Brett, 2001). Americans, by contrast, are “low-context” – they are more direct, explicit, and blunt in their communication style.

We propose that in dyadic communication, differences in communication style will result in lower *Clarity* perceptions for US Americans because they are likely to perceive the Chinese partner’s communication style as indirect, opaque and difficult to understand. This may be true even in cases in which the Chinese negotiation partner is fluent or nearly fluent in the English language (Hellweg, Samovar & Skow, 1991). The indirect style of communication may lead to frustration and some degree of discomfort on the part of the American partner, but is unlikely to

be perceived as threatening, aggressive or offensive. We thus expect Americans to experience a moderate level of discomfort in dyadic communication with Chinese. Conversely, from the perspective of the Chinese partner, the very direct and explicit communication style used by the American partner will help him/her to have higher Clarity perceptions. But at the same time, this bluntness or directness may cause the Chinese partner to feel uncomfortable because it is likely to be perceived as aggressive or overly assertive (Von Glinow et al., 2004). In terms of the *Responsiveness* dimension of QCE, although incompatible scripts between the American and Chinese partners are likely to hinder their responsiveness to each other, we hypothesize that both the American and the Chinese partners would be similarly motivated to be attentive and respond to each other's overtures, but for different reasons. From the perspective of the American partner, responsiveness is a prerequisite for achieving better understanding in a situation characterized by low clarity, whereas for the Chinese partner being responsive is a means of reducing discomfort. Therefore, we propose that American and Chinese will experience similar degrees of responsiveness, but for different reasons – to improve clarity for the American partner and to reduce discomfort for the Chinese partner. These arguments suggest the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: In dyadic negotiations between Chinese and US-Americans, cultural differences in communication style will lead to asymmetries in QCE. Specifically, we expect Chinese to have higher Clarity and lower Comfort than Americans (who will have higher Comfort and lower Clarity than Chinese). We expect no differences in QCE in terms of Responsiveness.

Quality of Communication Experience and Negotiation Outcomes

We propose that the degree of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* that a negotiator experiences will have significant effects on the negotiation outcomes, in terms of both economic

gains and satisfaction about the negotiation. Although the impact of QCE on negotiation processes and outcomes has seldom been researched, studies have found that a higher degree of *Clarity* achieved through information sharing leads to better economic outcomes (Adair, Brett, Lempereur, Okumura, Shikhirev, Tinsley & Lytle, 2004; Pruitt, 1981). Adair et al.'s (2001) study shows that in addition to having the capacity to adapt to the other party's behavioral patterns and schemas, negotiators need to have an effective means of information sharing, for example through clarifying ambiguities with the other party or being responsive to the other party's questions in order to generate higher joint gains. When there is more clarity in the communication, negotiators would have a more accurate understanding of the other side's position, interests, preferences, priorities, resources and capabilities. This would help negotiators to see a bigger range of options, and increase their probability of finding common ground with the other party and coming up with an integrative solution that increases their economic gains. Moreover, Weingart and colleagues (Weingart, Thompson, Bazerman & Carroll, 1990; Weingart, Bennett & Brett, 1993) show that extensive information exchange can lead to positive relational negotiation outcomes as it generates trust and cooperation, which positively influence their satisfaction with the negotiation.

In negotiations where at least one negotiator shares information, there are different ways in which the negotiation can play out. But in each case, when a negotiator enjoys a higher level of clarity, he/she would be able to increase his/her individual economic gain and satisfaction with the negotiation. For example, when Negotiator A discloses sensitive information such as his/her preferences and priorities to signal cooperation and the willingness to develop trust, and Negotiator B is able to comprehend accurately what is being conveyed - both the information and the goodwill, there are two possible scenarios that can ensue. We will use them to illustrate

how the degree of clarity experienced by negotiators influences their economic gains and satisfaction. The first scenario is that Negotiator B recognizes the goodwill gesture and divulges his/her preferences and priorities as well so that they can use the information exchanged to come up with a more integrative solution together. This approach would expand the pie and each negotiator would be able to enjoy more individual gain. Here, it can be expected that with the cooperation and the trust developed, the two negotiators would be satisfied with how the negotiation went. Alternatively, Negotiator B could take a competitive strategy, not share information with Negotiator A about his/her interests and priorities, etc., leverage on the clarity he/she enjoys and use the information to maximize his/her individual economic gain. In this case, it is likely that Negotiator B would be satisfied with the negotiation process as he/she was able to outdo Negotiator A. On the other hand, if for some reason, Negotiator B is unable to adequately decipher what Negotiator A is trying to say, he/she would not be able to see that it is a goodwill move. Negotiator B would also not be able to take advantage of the information to maximize his/her individual economic gain nor use it to come up with an integrative solution that not only maximizes joint gains, but also increases his/her individual gain. Thus, we predict that higher degrees of *Clarity* for Negotiator B will lead to better economic outcomes, as well as higher satisfaction in negotiations.

Research has shown that when negotiators are responsive to each other, for example by exchanging integrative behaviors like trade-offs and communicating concerns for each other (Weingart, et al., 1990; Weingart et al., 1993), or when they have a higher summed perspective taking ability, i.e., the ability to look at problems from another's perspective (Kemp & Smith, 1994), they are more likely to achieve better economic outcomes and be more satisfied with the negotiation. More coordination and reciprocity means that more relevant information is being

exchanged at the appropriate time, making the negotiation process more efficient and effective. For instance, at the beginning of the negotiations, negotiators may ‘test the waters’ first by sharing a little sensitive information to see if the other party is cooperative or competitive. If there is reciprocity, then the likelihood of additional information sharing and rounds of reciprocity is higher. Negotiators would then be able to discover more issues with integrative potential, resulting in better deals and more gains for the individual negotiators. Also, the trust built by the cooperation between the two negotiators would enhance their satisfaction with the negotiation. Therefore, we hypothesize that *Responsiveness* will be positively related to economic gains and satisfaction for negotiators.

Adair et al. (2004) note that the comfort level experienced during negotiation also influences economic gains. They explain that negotiators can feel frustrated and confrontational when bargaining over power, which in turn will increase the tendency of premature closure and lower gains. Negative affect experienced during negotiation has been shown to have an adverse impact on satisfaction. For example, anger reduces trust (Adler, Rosen & Silverstein, 1998), breeds distrust (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui & Raia, 1997), and reduces satisfaction with negotiation agreements (Allred, et al., 1997; Barry, Fulmer & Van Kleef, 2004; Graham, 1990). Moreover, negotiators have to be motivated to search for agreements that are highly acceptable to both parties (Adair, et al., 2001). An unpleasant atmosphere surrounding the negotiation is likely to reduce this motivation. Hence, we expect that a higher degree of *Comfort* will lead to better economic outcomes and higher satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3a: In both same- and intercultural negotiations, all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort*) are positively related to economic gains and satisfaction at the individual level.

As we explained earlier, a person's QCE is highly dependent upon the behavior and reactions of one's social interaction partner. If, as hypothesized, individuals with higher levels of QCE will experience better negotiation outcomes, it follows that dyads where both partners have higher QCE will have higher joint gains and better subjective outcomes collectively, while dyads with asymmetrical QCEs (where one partner has high QCE and the other has low QCE) or dyads with symmetrically low QCEs will have lower joint gains and worse combined subjective outcomes. The communication experience of asymmetrical or symmetrically low QCE dyads is characterized by uneven clarity over messages exchanged or communication ambiguities on both sides, one-sided coordination of exchanges and responses or low reciprocity on both sides, and unbalanced feelings of comfort or similar discomfort about the interaction on both sides. Negotiating dyads with such communication experiences are likely to end up with less integrative and less satisfying solutions than symmetrically high QCE dyads. This suggests that in dyadic negotiations, the aggregated *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* within the dyad may be predictive of the negotiation partners' joint gains and aggregated satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: In both intra- and intercultural negotiations, dyads with symmetrically higher levels of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* achieve higher joint economic gains and aggregated satisfaction than dyads with symmetrically lower levels or asymmetrical levels of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*.

The Moderating Effects of Cultural Conditions

So far, we have argued that intercultural communicators are likely to have lower levels of QCE compared to same-cultural pairs, and that QCE will influence negotiation outcomes. Taking this further, we suggest that the influence of QCE on negotiation outcomes is greater in intercultural situations. Compared to same-cultural negotiations, intercultural negotiations create

more uncertainty and greater potential for misunderstanding and conflict due to differences in norms, language, and thinking patterns. Since intercultural negotiators usually do not share a common set of communication norms, social referents, negotiation scripts, and institutional environment (Adler & Graham, 1989; Tinsley, Curhan & Kwak, 1999), they rely much more on the information that is articulated and exchanged during negotiation to better understand the other party's priorities and the issues at hand. Compared to same-cultural situations where the social context can provide clues to decipher unclear messages and enhance clarity, intercultural exchanges offer less reliable sources for communicators to clarify ideas and messages being exchanged. Further, the likelihood of inaccurate interpretation in intercultural communication exacerbates the difficulty of getting clarity. In such a situation, a higher degree of clarity can help communicators diffuse uncertainty and reduce the likelihood of misunderstanding. In same-cultural negotiations, communicators have a higher base level of mutual understanding and are better able to infer related information from sources other than the negotiation itself. We therefore expect the degree of *Clarity* experienced during the negotiation to have a stronger and more positive impact on negotiation outcomes in intercultural negotiations compared to same-cultural ones.

Adair (2003) shows that the impact of reciprocal information sharing on joint gain is greater in intercultural than same-cultural negotiation. As we have made the case earlier, in same-cultural negotiation, similarity in cultural scripts creates more interpersonal attraction and a state of ease for interacting parties to be responsive to each other (Byrne, 1971; Tinsley, Curhan & Kwak, 1999). In intercultural negotiations, differences in norms, scripts and behaviors create ambiguity about the appropriateness of one's response to the other party. For example, while East Asians have no problems with silence and view it as a window of opportunity to think,

strategize and consider subsequent moves, most Westerners are extremely uncomfortable with silence and feel the need to fill it, such as by making concessions because they think the other party must be annoyed or unhappy (Hall, 1959; Graham, 1985). Different interpretations of the same situation and the need to test each other's interpretation slow down *Responsiveness* in intercultural situations. However, a certain amount of *Responsiveness* can bring considerable liberation from this uncertainty. Because responsiveness is unexpected and difficult in intercultural negotiations, when it does occur, it is likely to have a bigger impact than in same-culture negotiations when responsiveness is more natural and easy to achieve. Due to this contrast effect (Cialdini, 1993; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1991), we expect the impact of *Responsiveness* to be stronger in intercultural than same-cultural situations.

The positive effect of *Comfort* on negotiation outcomes is also likely to be amplified in intercultural negotiation. Adair (2003) argues that negotiators have certain expectations that provoke anxiety, but when the communication experience is positive, there is a huge relief. Thus, the impact of positive communication experience is likely to be greater in intercultural than in same-cultural negotiation. Besides having general benefits on negotiation outcomes (e.g., Kumar, 1997), positive affect can also help to reduce or eliminate negotiation impediments that are only found in intercultural negotiation. For example, when negotiators feel comfortable interacting with each other and there is less pressure for epistemic closure, they are also less likely to hold onto cultural stereotypes associated with the other party, especially negative ones that lead to sub-optimal negotiation outcomes (Chiu, Morris, Hong, & Menon, 2000; Fu, Morris, Lee, et al., 2007). If negotiators experience a high level of *Comfort*, they are less likely to misinterpret certain cues, such as East Asians' reason for becoming silent during negotiation, thereby

avoiding potentially negative consequences such as making unnecessary concessions (Hall, 1959; Graham, 1985).

Collectively, these arguments suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*) and economic gains and satisfaction will be more pronounced in intercultural negotiation than in same-cultural negotiation.

Overview of Present Studies

As Schwab (1980) noted, establishing a measure's construct validity (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991) is neither a one-time task nor a single approach procedure. Using academicians and practitioners as expert judges and four independent samples from the U.S. and China, we conducted four studies to develop and validate a comprehensive measure of QCE and to test our hypotheses concerning level and consequences of QCE in same-cultural versus intercultural business negotiations.

In Study 1, we developed a three-dimensional scale of QCE that can be used in both Western and Eastern cultures. In Study 2, we reaffirmed the three-dimensional factor structure of QCE and established discriminant validity among the three dimensions using the scale developed in Study 1. In Study 3, we replicated the findings of Study 1 and 2 and tested our hypotheses regarding the level and consequences of QCE in both same- and intercultural business negotiation simulations. Although our main interest is in intercultural business negotiation, we included same-cultural business negotiation in Study 3 to provide a basis for comparison. We conducted Study 4 to replicate Study 3 using a different negotiation scenario and a different sampling profile to test the robustness of the findings of Study 3. For each of these four studies, we used independent samples of Americans and Chinese nationals. As explained above, we

selected Americans and Chinese nationals to maximize the differences in culture and communication style for the intercultural negotiation.

Study 1: Scale Development

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a comprehensive measure of the Quality of Communication Experience construct. First, we compiled an initial pool of items based on the literature for the concept development, and used relevant sections of previously established scales in Rubin, Palmgreen, and Sypher (2004). We then conducted judge analysis to select items from the initial pool, and performed factor analysis and item analysis to identify subsets of items that yield a valid and reliable scale. Following scale development guidelines provided by DeVellis (1991) and Hinkin (1998), we generated a pool of 32 items based on existing literature. Since we were developing a scale that could be used in both America and China, the items were first generated in English, translated into Chinese, back translated between Chinese and English, discussed with regard to semantic discrepancies, and revised until total agreement in meaning equivalency was reached (Brislin, 1970, 1981). Seven academic and practitioner experts reviewed the items for face validity and made suggestions to improve clarity. These seven judges were first asked to assess whether the items fit two, three or four categories. All of the judges identified three categories. They were then presented with all the initial items, our definition and explanation of the proposed three dimensions of QCE. Finally, the judges were asked to classify the 32 items into one of the three dimension categories, or a category labeled “This item does not fit any of the three categories.” The judges also commented on the content of the items. At the end of the judge analysis, we selected items with 60% or higher correct category classification (Kinicki & Latack, 1990), deleted redundant, ambiguous, and double-barreled items (De Vellis, 1991), and retained 23 items.

Next, we collected survey data from 30 volunteers in the U.S. and 32 in China who participated in an executive training workshop at their respective locations. All 62 participants had international work experience and were working in multinational organizations (an international trade group in the U.S. and an international travel agency in China). 40% of them were female. Their average work experience was 12.2 years, and their average age was 37.6. Among the Americans, 12 were female, the average age was 38.3 and 15.3 years of work experience. Among the Chinese, 13 were female, the average age was 36.94 and 9.29 years of work experience. We asked the participants to recall a recent encounter with a foreign colleague at work before completing a questionnaire containing the 23 items retained from the judge analysis with a seven-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

To investigate the factor structure among the items, we conducted both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation in AMOS (Byrne, 2001). We used comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI), and root mean square residual (SRMR) (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1989; Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1998). Among the 23 items, 15 met the criteria of significance ($p < .05$) and substantial standardized loadings (above .35), with 5 items in each of the Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort dimensions. Table 1 shows the standardized factor loadings for the 15 items and Cronbach's alphas for the three subscales. These 15 items constitute the QCE scale used in our subsequent studies.

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Study 2: Discriminant Validity

The objectives of Study 2 were three-fold: (1) to confirm the three-dimensional factor structure of QCE found in Study 1, (2) to establish discriminant validity among the three dimensions, and (3) to examine possibilities for common method bias.

Sample and Procedure

We collected data from 282 participants in the U.S. and 312 participants in China. All participants were part-time MBA students in large metropolitan areas in their respective countries (38% female; average age = 32.29 years; average work experience = 8.37 years). The Americans were comprised of 107 females, with an average age of 33.05 years, and 9.33 years of work experience. The Chinese sample had 119 females, averaging 31.60 years of age, and 7.50 years of work experience. They were told that participation in the study was voluntary and would not affect their course grades. Questionnaires were distributed to the participants and completed ones were returned via their professors. The questionnaire asked the participants to recall a recent communication encounter with a foreigner at work, and then answer the 15 items in the QCE scale developed in Study 1. From the returned questionnaires, we retained those encounters that lasted at least three exchanges and involved some sort of joint problem solving, such as inquiries and answers related to a specific task at work, and eliminated those encounters that only involved a single exchange such as asking for directions or prices, or encounters that were not with a foreigner. This resulted in a total of 540 usable questionnaires (252 from the U.S. and 288 from China). Chronbach's alphas were .78 for Clarity, .79 for Responsiveness, and .73 for Comfort.

Data Analysis

We used AMOS's maximum likelihood procedure (Byrne, 2001) for CFA and discriminant validity tests, and assessed the overall model fit using CFI, IFI, and SRMR. First,

we estimated a baseline three-factor measurement model with each of the 15 items representing their respective factors as determined in Study 1. Then, we compared this baseline model with alternative measurement models that specified two factors load together, and compared the two-factor models with the three-factor model. If the baseline three-factor model has better fit indices and a significant chi-square difference when compared with the two-factor models, then the three-factor model would be more appropriate in measuring the underlying dimensions of QCE.

Results

Table 2 shows the factor correlations of the overall sample. Table 3 presents the results of discriminant validity analyses. Confirming the results from Study 1, CFA shows that the three-factor baseline model (Model 1 in Table 3) satisfactorily fits the data $\chi^2(115) = 463.29, p < .01$; CFI = .95, IFI = .95; SRMR = .06. All items loaded significantly on their specified factors (all standard loadings were above .35). To evaluate whether the three factors, Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort, are distinct from one another, we examined three two-factor models (Model 2, 3, and 4 in Table 3) and one one-factor model (Model 5 in Table 3). The fit indices and χ^2 tests show that the three-factor baseline model fits the data significantly better than all the alternative models.

INSERT TABLE 2 AND TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Study 3: Consequences of Quality of Communication Experience in Negotiation

The third study concentrated on the QCE in both same-cultural and intercultural business negotiation. Specifically, we tested our hypotheses that QCE is lower in intercultural negotiation than in same-cultural negotiation (H1); that differences in culture and communication style will lead to asymmetries in QCE in intercultural negotiations (H2); and that QCE is positively

associated with negotiation outcomes at the individual level (H3a) and the dyadic level (H3b).

We also analyzed whether QCE would have a stronger impact on these negotiation outcomes in intercultural business negotiations compared to same-cultural ones (H4).

Method

Negotiation simulation. We used a two-party negotiation simulation called *Cartoon* (Brett and Okumura, 1999; Zhang, 2003). It involved the sale of syndicated rights to a children's television cartoon. Participants were assigned to either the buyer or seller role and were given confidential role information in their native languages two to three days before the negotiation. The seller is a major film production company that is prepared to negotiate a fixed 5-year, 100-episode contract. The buyer is an independent television station in a large metropolitan area. The parties were asked to address five issues in their negotiation. One issue is distributive: the price of each episode. Two integrative issues – financing terms and runs (the number of times each episode may be shown in the 5-year period) – create a logrolling opportunity. It is more important for the seller to have the payment upfront, and for the buyer to have a greater number of runs. There is one common-value issue: a second cartoon, which will be available in the future, with the potential to add value for both parties. Finally, there is an opportunity to fashion a contingent contract if the parties realize the potential to base payments on their different rating expectations.

Sample and procedure. Intercultural negotiations were conducted at a large U.S. university. 36 American and 36 Chinese graduate students or post-doctoral fellows negotiated the *Cartoon* case in intercultural pairs. The Chinese participants were recruited from an on-campus Chinese Students and Scholars Association. All Chinese participants were natives of Mainland China, and had lived in the U.S. for less than three years, there were 17 females, and their average age was

29.55. Among the Americans, there were 19 females, and their average was 30.09. The negotiation was conducted in English, but all Chinese negotiators were provided with both English and Chinese versions of the materials. Since the Chinese negotiators were graduate professional students or post-doctoral research associates in highly selective and competitive programs at a major U.S. university, their fluency and mastery of the English language were adequate for the negotiation. This situation also reflects the common practice of using English in international business and in many multinational corporations.

Same-cultural negotiations were conducted at one university in China and one university in the U.S., both located in large metropolitan areas. The 80 U.S. and 86 Chinese participants were volunteers enrolled in part-time MBA program at their respective universities. 57% of the participants were male, with an average age of 31.72 years and 8.91 years of work experience. Among the Americans, there were 29 females, with average age of 31.95 and 9.68 years of work experience. Among the Chinese, there were 42 females, with average age of 31.50 and 8.19 years of work experience. They conducted the Cartoon negotiation in their native language for extra course credit.

All participants, in both same- and intercultural negotiations, received their role materials and a pre-negotiation questionnaire approximately two to three days before the negotiation. The pre-negotiation questionnaire included questions about preparation for the negotiation and the Schwartz Value Survey. We used these questions to make sure the participants are adequately prepared for the negotiation material and we used the Schwartz Value dimensions to affirm that our participants' values are indeed consistent with their cultural profiles. We compared values held by the three cultural groups: Americans, Chinese, and Chinese in America (who participated in the intercultural negotiations) and found that there were no significant differences between the

two Chinese groups. Between American and Chinese, the Americans held significantly higher values in Self-Direction, Openness to Change, Self-Enhancement, and Self-Transcendence, and Chinese held significantly higher values in Conformity, Tradition, Power, and Conservation, indicating that our samples are representative of their respective national cultures.

On the negotiation day, participants submitted their completed pre-negotiation questionnaires before the negotiation began. They were told that they had a maximum of 60 minutes to engage in the negotiation. Most negotiations finished within 45 minutes. Participants submitted a form which recorded the deals immediately after the negotiation. Then, they completed a post-negotiation questionnaire. The first author then provided a 45-minute debriefing about the study and the negotiation simulation, and answered questions from the participants.

Independent variables. The independent variables were the three dimensions of QCE: (1) *Clarity*, (2) *Responsiveness*, and (3) *Comfort*. QCE was measured using the 15-item scale established in Study 1 and Study 2 via the post-negotiation questionnaire. Each dimension was measured with 5 items in the QCE scale. The scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). We conducted CFA and discriminant validity tests on the QCE scale using the sample in this study and the findings were consistent with those in Study 2. Cronbach's alpha for Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort were .76, .80, and .77 for the whole sample, .80, .78, and .81 for the American same-cultural sample, .79, .81, and .79 for the Chinese same-cultural sample, and .75, .73, and .76 for the intercultural sample.

Dependent variables. There were three dependent variables. The first two were: (1) *individual negotiator's economic gains*, and (2) *negotiating dyad's joint economic gains*. These were calculated using the payoff structure embedded in the negotiation case (Brett and Okumura,

1999; Zhang, 2003). To make it comparable with the joint gains in Study 4, we use a percentage of the maximum possible joint gain, which is \$5.1 million in the Cartoon case. The subjective outcome variable “satisfaction with the negotiation” was comprised of three items: (1) *satisfaction with the outcome*, (2) *satisfaction with the process*, and (3) *expectation for future relationship*. Data on these three items were collected from the post-negotiation questionnaire. We used three questions adapted from Oliver, Balakrishnan, and Barry (1994) to measure the three variables, respectively on a seven-point Likert-type response scale. The first two questions, “How satisfied are you with the negotiation outcome?”, and “How satisfied are you with the negotiation process?” were measured on a scale of 1-7 with 1 being extremely dissatisfied and 7 being extremely satisfied. The third question, “Would you be willing to negotiate with the same partner again?” was measured on a scale of 1-7 with 1 being “No, prefer another partner,” 4 being “Indifferent,” and 7 being “Yes, prefer this same partner.” Cronbach’s alpha was .72 for the whole sample, .70 for the American same-cultural sample, .75 for the Chinese same-cultural sample, and .71 for the intercultural sample.

Moderator. To test for the moderating effects of cultural-condition, we created a dummy variable representing the culture condition of the negotiation (0 = same-cultural negotiation, 1 = intercultural negotiation).

Results

The results show that all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*) were significantly lower in intercultural negotiation compared to same-cultural negotiation, supporting Hypothesis 1 (see Table 4). There were no significant differences between Chinese and U.S.-Americans in the same cultural negotiations. To test how cultural differences may lead to asymmetries in QCE, we tested mean differences among the intercultural (i.e., Chinese and

U.S.-American) negotiators. As predicted, Chinese scored significantly higher on the *Clarity* dimension than Americans ($M_{\text{Chinese}} = 4.27, SD = 1.52; M_{\text{American}} = 3.45, SD = 1.55; t(70) = 8.38, p < 0.05$), lower on the *Comfort* dimension than Americans ($M_{\text{Chinese}} = 3.21, SD = 1.33; M_{\text{American}} = 3.89, SD = 1.29; t(70) = -7.85, p < 0.05$), and there was no significant difference in *Responsiveness* ($M_{\text{Chinese}} = 3.57, SD = 1.59; M_{\text{American}} = 3.65, SD = 1.59; t(70) = -2.77, p > 0.30$), supporting Hypothesis 2.

Table 5 reports the correlations between all independent and dependent variables in this study at the individual level. It shows that all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*) are significantly associated with individual economic gain, satisfaction with the process, satisfaction with the outcome, and expectations for future relationship in both same-cultural and intercultural contexts. To examine the correlations between these variables at the dyad level, we created a dyad-level measure of each variable for each negotiating pair through an aggregation of their respective scores. To justify aggregation, we computed an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for each variable and the ICCs ranged from .67 to .79 (Shrout and Fleiss, 1979). Joint gain is an aggregation of individual gains, according to the negotiation scenario setup by design. Similar to the results at the individual level, Table 6 shows that all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*) are significantly associated with joint economic gain, satisfaction with the process, satisfaction with the outcome, and expectation for future relationships at the dyadic level in both same-cultural and intercultural negotiations. To further test H3a and H3b, we conducted regression analysis. Table 7 shows that each dimension of QCE significantly predicted the dependent variables at both the individual level and dyadic level. As our regression analyses show only the linear relationship between the aggregated level of QCE and joint gains and satisfaction, we ran additional analyses to compare

dyads with symmetrically high QCE vs. those with asymmetrical or symmetrically low QCE. We categorize symmetrically high QCE dyads as those where both the buyer and seller's scores for all three dimensions of QCE are one standard deviation above the mean, resulting in 28 or 24% of the 119 pairs in this category. Symmetrically low QCE dyads include those where both parties' scores for all three dimensions of QCE are one standard deviation below the mean, resulting in 22 or 19% of the total dyads. We categorize asymmetrical dyads as those where one party has high QCE and one party has low QCE, and found 25 dyads or 21% of the total sample. Comparing joint gains and aggregated satisfaction among the three groups, we found no significant difference between the asymmetrical or symmetrically low QCE dyads, but the symmetrically high QCE dyads have significantly higher joint gains ($M_{\text{high}} = .68, SD = .22; M_{\text{low or asymmetrical}} = .33, SD = .25; t(63) = 8.02, p < 0.05$) and aggregated satisfaction ($M_{\text{high}} = .67, SD = .32; M_{\text{low or asymmetrical}} = .39, SD = .35; t(63) = 9.11, p < 0.01$) than the other two groups. Altogether, these tests provide strong support for Hypotheses 3a and 3b.

 INSERT TABLE 4, 5, 6, AND 7 ABOUT HERE

The results also indicate that the correlations between the independent and dependent variables at both the individual and dyad levels are higher for intercultural negotiation than same-cultural ones. To examine whether these differences are significant, we conducted z-tests between all 6 pairs of correlations at the individual level and all 6 pairs of correlations at the dyadic level, and found significant differences between all 12 pairs of coefficients ($p < .05$ for all) (see Tables 5 and 6). In other words, the correlations between all three dimensions of QCE (*Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort*) and the two dependent variables (economic gains and satisfaction) were significantly stronger for intercultural negotiation than for same-cultural

negotiation at both individual and dyad levels. To further illustrate the interaction effects of cultural conditions, we created a dummy variable (0= same-cultural 1=intercultural) and conducted regression analyses at the dyadic level where the dependent variable was joint gain, and independent variables were the aggregated dyadic level *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*, the dummy variable cultural condition, and their interactions. At the individual level, similar analyses were conducted where the dependent variables were economic gain and satisfaction, and the independent variables were *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*, the dummy variable, and interactions. Tables 8 show the interaction results. Figure 1 plots joint gains as a function of cultural conditions interacting with the three dimensions of QCE (plotted at 25th percentile for low and 75th percentile for high aggregated dyadic estimates).

 INSERT TABLES 8 AND FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

The results at both the individual level and dyadic level show significant interactions between the QCE dimensions and cultural conditions in predicting economic gains and satisfaction with outcome, satisfaction with process, and expectation for future relationships, supporting Hypothesis 4. Plotted figures take a similar pattern as those in Figure 1. Therefore Hypothesis 4 is fully supported.

Putting the results of Study 3 together, we conclude that even though QCE tends to be lower in intercultural negotiation, it exerts a greater influence on negotiation outcomes in intercultural than in same-cultural negotiations. In other words, intercultural negotiators enjoy a bigger increase in joint gains when they increase *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* in their communication experience by the same amount as same-cultural negotiators. The graphs also indicate that although same-cultural negotiators enjoy higher joint gains than intercultural

negotiators when their QCE is low, intercultural negotiators are able to enjoy higher joint gains than same-cultural negotiators once their QCE exceeds a certain threshold level.

Study 4: Replication of Study 3 with Different Sample and Scenario

The objective of this study is to replicate the effects found in Study 3 using a different negotiation scenario. We also hope to resolve a potential sampling confound issue in Study 3 where the intracultural sample includes mainly managers and the intercultural sample includes mainly full-time students. We also improved our measure for the dependent variable Satisfaction by using a five-item scale that exhibited better reliability compared to the three-item measure used in Study 3.

Method

Negotiation Scenario and Sample. The samples of both same- and intercultural negotiations were comprised of full-time and part-time students. The negotiation scenario used in this study is a modified version of “The New Recruit” (Neale, 1997; Zhang, 2003). This is an eight-issue, two-party negotiation, similar to the Cartoon case in our Study 3. The modification made was re-naming the possible working locations into cities more familiar and more realistic to the participants. The case exemplifies a negotiation between a recruiter and a job candidate. Among the issues, two were purely distributive, two of common interests, and the other four had integrative potential. This case is similar to the Cartoon case in terms of the two-party, multi-issue, and integrative nature. It is different from the Cartoon case in terms of the design of negotiation setting and roles (buyer/seller on business contract vs. recruiter/candidate on job negotiation) and number of issues (five in Cartoon vs. eight in New Recruit).

The sample of this study consisted of 136 full-time and part-time MBA students (39% female; mean age = 29.65 years; average years of work experience = 5.3 years). There were 72 Americans in the U.S. same-cultural negotiation group (48 full-time; 28 part-time), and 32 American-Chinese negotiation pairs in the intercultural negotiation group (26 full-time; 28 part-time). Among the Americans, there were 38 females, with an average age of 29.26 and 5.92 years of work experience. Among the Chinese, there were 15 females, with an average age of 30.92 and 3.29 years of work experience. As in Study 3, we again compared the Schwartz values held by the cultural groups of American and Chinese and found that the Americans held significantly higher values in Self-Direction, Openness to Change, Self-Enhancement, and Self-Transcendence, and Chinese held significantly higher values in Conformity, Tradition, Power, and Conservation, indicating that our samples are representative of their respective national cultures. Although the intracultural sample's composition of only Americans and no Chinese could produce a possible confound in that the intercultural sample comprised Americans and Chinese whereas the intracultural sample did not, such a potential confounding effect is ruled out by our findings in Study 3 that American and Chinese intracultural samples do not differ significantly on any measures of QCE or its outcomes.

Procedures. As in Study 3, participants received their role information and a pre-negotiation questionnaire including questions from the Schwartz Value Survey about three days before the negotiation. On negotiation day, they turned in their completed pre-negotiation questionnaire before negotiating with their randomly assigned partner. They were instructed to take about 60 minutes to conduct the negotiation. All 68 pairs (36 American same-cultural and 32 intercultural) reached an agreement in 45-60 minutes. After the negotiation, they completed a post-negotiation questionnaire, including questions on QCE and a measure of their satisfaction.

The first author then debriefed participants about the negotiation and conducted a general discussion on job-related negotiations.

Measures. We used the Schwartz Value dimensions to validate the cultural profiles of the Chinese and American participants and found they were consistent with the self-claimed cultural identities and previous research. The three dimensions of QCE were measured using the scale established in Study 1 and Study 2. Cronbach's alphas of Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort for the American same-cultural sample were .77, .82, and .79, and for the intercultural sample, the alphas were .75, .78, and .80. The economic gains were calculated from the case setup. To make it comparable with the joint gains in Study 3, we use a percentage of the maximum possible joint gain, which is 3200 points in the New Recruit case. We used a five-item scale for satisfaction: (1) I am satisfied with my performance in this negotiation. (2) I am satisfied with the negotiation outcome. (3) I am satisfied with the negotiation process. (4) I negotiated well. (5) I enjoyed the negotiation. Cronbach's alphas for the American same-culture sample and the intercultural group are .81 and .77, respectively.

Results

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted a sampling check with a series of t-tests, comparing the full-time and part-time students' profiles with respect to the demographics (age, gender, and work experience) and all the variables examined. We did not find any significant differences between the two groups, except that the part-time students were on average 3.7 years older and had 2.3 more years of working experience than the full-time students.

Mean comparisons in Table 9 shows that Hypothesis 1, which posits that QCE is lower in intercultural than in same-cultural encounters, is supported on all three dimensions. Within the intercultural sample, Chinese negotiators reported significantly higher *Clarity* than Americans,

lower *Comfort* than Americans, and there was no significant difference between the Chinese and American negotiators in terms of *Responsiveness*, supporting Hypothesis 2.

 INSERT TABLE 9 ABOUT HERE

To test Hypothesis 3 which proposed that the three dimensions of QCE are positively related to economic gains and satisfaction with the negotiation, at the dyadic level we aggregated QCEs (ICCs = .70, .72, and .73) and satisfaction (ICC=.75). Table 10 shows the results at both the individual level and the dyadic level. Similar to Study 3, we ran additional analyses and found that compared to the symmetrically high QCE dyads (18 or 27%), those which are either asymmetrical (15 or 22%) or both low in QCE (16 or 24%), have significantly lower levels of joint gains ($M_{\text{high}} = .65, SD = .23; M_{\text{low or asymmetrical}} = .32, SD = .26; t(47) = 6.81, p < 0.05$) and satisfaction ($M_{\text{high}} = .73, SD = .28; M_{\text{low or asymmetrical}} = .35, SD = .29; t(47) = 7.27, p < 0.05$). We found no significant differences in the DVs between asymmetrical dyads and both low QCE dyads. Therefore, our empirical results show that the top 30% of dyads with symmetrically high QCE achieve better joint gains and higher satisfaction. The pattern of results was consistent with our findings from Study 3.

Next, we tested Hypothesis 4 which suggests that the effects of QCE on negotiation outcomes are more pronounced in intercultural than same-cultural situations. The results were as expected and supported this hypothesis. We conducted regression analyses similar to those in Study 3. Tables 11 shows the results. At the individual level, the dependent variables were economic gain and satisfaction, and the independent variables were Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort, dummy variable for cultural condition (0= same-cultural 1=intercultural), and the interaction between the cultural condition dummy variable and each of the other independent

variables. The results at both the individual level and dyadic level show significant interactions between the QCE dimensions and cultural conditions in predicting economic gains and satisfaction, supporting Hypothesis 4. Plotted figures take a similar pattern as those in Figure 1.

INSERT TABLE 10 AND TABLES 11 ABOUT HERE

With Study 4, we not only gathered additional support for our hypotheses (H1, H2, H3a-b, and H4) by fully replicating the results of Study 3, but also resolved the potential sample confound issue embedded in Study 3. This supports the robustness of the QCE measure in dyadic negotiations.

Discussion

The goals of this research were to explore the conceptual dimensions of Quality of Communication Experience (QCE), to develop and validate a multidimensional scale to measure QCE, and to investigate the role of QCE in intercultural negotiations. Our validation efforts supported the three factors of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort*. This factor structure is relatively robust as our research participants are from both North-America (the U.S.) and Asia (China), and our samples consist of graduate students, post-doctoral fellows, and full-time and part-time MBA students, including managers and professionals from companies operating in diverse industries. We hypothesized and found empirical support that positive communication experiences of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* are associated with positive outcomes in different negotiation settings. Our studies also revealed the nuances of the influence of the three dimensions of QCE in intercultural versus same-cultural negotiations. The findings highlight the crucial role played by QCE in negotiations by showing that all three dimensions of QCE are

positively and significantly associated with various economic and relational negotiation outcomes at both the individual and dyadic levels.

The aim of this research is to extend previous research, which alluded to the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of QCE and their impact on negotiation outcomes. However, no study has looked at QCE as a multidimensional construct. For example, studies that examined the effects of information sharing and exchange in negotiation (e.g. Adair et al., 2001; Adair, Weingart & Brett, 2007; Brett & Okumura, 1998) did not include the role of affect while studies that focused on the role of affect in negotiation (e.g. Kumar, 1997; Lee et al., 2006) neglected the influence of the other two dimensions. Our research therefore contributes to the communication and negotiation literatures by examining the nature and consequences of QCE as a multidimensional construct.

As hypothesized, all three dimensions of QCE were found to be significantly lower in intercultural than in same-culture negotiations. This is consistent with other studies that found that the cultural barriers inherent in intercultural negotiation can compromise communication efficiency (e.g., Adair et al., 2001). Imai and Gelfand (2007) point out that one of the reasons is that negotiators bring different culture-specific schemas (e.g. Brett & Okumura, 1998) and different cultural metaphors for negotiation (Gelfand & McCusker, 2002) to the negotiation table. In addition, differences in communication styles (e.g., Von Glinow et al., 2004), negotiation tactics (e.g., Imai & Gelfand, 2009) and cultural values, such as assertiveness, uncertainty avoidance or performance orientation (House et al., 2004), are common sources of irritation and miscommunication in intercultural negotiations and can affect all three dimensions of QCE.

Interestingly, our findings suggest that differences in culture and communication style may lead to asymmetries in the communication experience, i.e., it is possible for one party to

have high QCE on one or more dimensions while the other does not. We found that in the case of Sino-American negotiations, Chinese negotiators experienced greater *Clarity* than American negotiators while it was the reverse in the case of *Comfort*. In terms of *Responsiveness*, there was no significant difference between the two groups. These findings are partly consistent and partly in contrast with those of previous studies that examined high- versus low-context negotiation dyads (e.g. Adair & Brett, 2005; Adair et al. 2001; Adair et al., 2007; Brett & Okumura, 1998). For example, Adair et al. (2001), in a study of the negotiation behaviors of Japanese and U.S. managers, found that in intracultural settings, Japanese negotiators used an indirect, high-context style of communication but in an intercultural setting, they adapted to U.S. normative negotiation behaviors. Their findings imply that intercultural negotiators are able to reciprocate, which is consistent with our observation that *Responsiveness* is perceived by both parties. However, contrary to our findings, in the Adair et al. (2001) study joint gains were low despite the Japanese negotiators' attempts to adapt. A possible explanation is that *Clarity* may have been low for the U.S. negotiators and/or *Comfort* may have been low for the East Asian negotiators.

Collectively, the findings of this study suggest that cultural differences not only determine whether asymmetries in QCE will arise in an intercultural negotiation, but also the specific nature of the asymmetries. The greater *Clarity* experienced by the Chinese negotiators can be explained by the fact that Americans are low-context communicators, meaning that they prefer and practice a more direct, explicit, and precise style of communication (e.g., Hall, 1959; von Glinow et al., 2004). In intercultural negotiation, high-context communicators tend to be at an advantage as far as clarity is concerned because they have communication flexibility, i.e. they can understand low-context communication, while low-context communicators have difficulties understanding high-context communication (Adair & Brett, 2005; Adair et al., 2007). However,

our findings reveal that in negotiations between Chinese and Americans, the advantage that the former enjoy in terms of greater clarity perceptions comes at a price, as the American partner's direct style of communication may be perceived as abrasive or even offensive and can cause significant discomfort to the Chinese partner.

To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to model and show the conditions under which intercultural negotiators are able to enjoy higher individual and joint gains than same-culture negotiators. Previous research has found that joint gains are generally lower in intercultural negotiation than in same-cultural negotiation (e.g. Adair, et al., 2001; Brett & Okumura, 1998). However, this need not necessarily be the case. Our study suggests that it is possible for intercultural negotiators to achieve not only high individual and joint economic gains, but to even surpass same-culture negotiators. We found that when QCE was low, intercultural negotiators generated lower joint gains than same-cultural negotiators; however, when the QCE in a negotiation dyad exceeded a certain threshold level, intercultural negotiators were able to produce *higher* joint gains than same-cultural negotiators. A possible explanation is that when *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* are sufficiently high, intercultural negotiators are able to leverage their different perspectives and approaches and are more creative in solving problems and creating joint gains than same-cultural negotiators. This echoes the literature on diverse teams (e.g. Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Mannix & Neale, 2005; Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2009) and suggests that the QCE construct may be applicable to the diversity research field as well.

Brett and Okumura (1998) argue that the gains generated in intercultural negotiations depend on the fit of the cultures, and that determining the fit requires an analysis of cultural differences in negotiation schemes and scripts. They propose that cultural convergence, i.e.,

adaptation to the other party's cultural schemas and behavioral patterns, may be necessary if high joint gains are to be negotiated. Adair, Tinsley and Taylor (2008) demonstrate that negotiators are indeed inclined to adapt their schemas and scripts in cross-cultural settings. Our findings from both Study 3 and Study 4 suggest that dyads with high QCE may be able to adjust and match cultural schemas more effectively. QCE can thus provide an effective means to build cross-cultural convergence of schemas and behavioral patterns, allowing intercultural negotiators to achieve higher joint gains and greater satisfaction.

Limitations and Implications for Research

This study provided some new insights into the bases and consequences of QCE in intercultural negotiations. However, there are several possible limitations and avenues for future research as well. Given that QCE was measured only once at the end of the negotiation, it is not possible for our studies to firmly establish the causal direction in the relationship between QCE and negotiation outcomes. While a case can be made that our studies indicate that a positive communication experience results in higher joint gains, it seems plausible that the negotiation dyads with better negotiation outcomes may be reporting higher levels of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* out of consistency motivations, implicit theories, and other factors. It is also possible that the causal relationship between QCE and negotiation outcomes is bi-directional and dynamic over time. Longitudinal designs that use several measurement points are needed to test the causal relationships proposed in this paper and to capture the dynamics of the communication process. Researchers can also manipulate the level of QCE for one or more parties to assess the effect of variations in QCE on negotiation outcomes. For example, in a dyadic negotiation context, the *Clarity* of the communication can be manipulated by having a confederate of the researcher send ambiguous messages to the other party. Such a design would

allow researchers to trace changes in satisfaction, willingness to cooperate, and other subjective outcomes to manipulations of QCE.

Related to the previous point, the temporal dimension of the communication experience in intercultural negotiations warrants more attention. QCE is likely to change over the course of a negotiation, as the parties build trust, form emotional bonds, and identify with each other's goals (e.g., Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006). Initial encounters can be expected to set the tone for future interactions and the quality of the relationship. A first negative experience caused by a low QCE can mean the end of the relationship or may escalate into a full blown conflict as the relationship deteriorates until it is irreparably damaged. By contrast, a positive initial encounter where the individuals enjoy a high QCE can lay the foundation for the development of trust and cooperation in future interactions. This implies that QCE is a dynamic phenomenon. A more complete understanding of QCE in dyadic negotiations would come from consideration of its evolution over time, beginning at the start of the negotiation and ending when the negotiation is – successfully or unsuccessfully – completed. Future studies should conduct multi-round negotiation simulations to trace the level of QCE and its consequences over time.

By developing a multidimensional QCE scale and demonstrating its validity in both American and Chinese cultural contexts, our efforts can help cross-cultural researchers to examine how aspects of the communication experience affect negotiation outcomes in intercultural settings. Future research could be extended to diverse teams and other areas of organizational behavior. For example, DiStefano and Maznevski (2000) discussed how some members of multicultural teams often feel extremely uncomfortable and frustrated with the communication process, while others do not even realize their frustration; and how these

asymmetries in the communication experience affect the team process and outcomes. Also, the concept and measure of QCE can contribute to the emerging field of multiculturalism and its antecedents and consequences. Multiculturals are individuals who have been deeply socialized and operate fluidly within and between distinct cultural meaning systems (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005; La Fromboise, Coleman, & Gerton, 1993). In intercultural settings, these individuals, who represent an increasingly large portion of the workforce, may not only experience greater QCE compared to monocultural individuals, they may also be better able to act as cultural bridges in international negotiations, teams, or other work contexts. Individual characteristics such as cultural intelligence, tolerance of ambiguity and openness may also be associated with higher levels of QCE and the ability to manage QCE to achieve better negotiation outcomes in cross-cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003; Thomas et al., 2008). Future research may look more closely at individual antecedents that predict QCE to develop the nomological net for the construct of QCE.

To better understand the limits of the generalizability of the findings, this study should be replicated and validated in other settings. Ideally, extending the research on QCE from the dyadic negotiation context to other domains, such as group negotiations, manager-subordinate relationships or diverse teams, will require scholars to adapt the scale items to fit their specific research context. Also, although we found support for the validity of the scale in both U.S. and Chinese contexts, we do not claim universality of the scale in all cultural settings. We expect the conceptual dimensions of *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* to be relevant in a wide range of situations; however, future studies may reveal that the elements, antecedents and consequences of QCE may need to be adjusted according to the specific cultural and organizational contexts.

Implications for Practice

The QCE scale and findings of our studies have practical implications for both negotiators and multinational organizations. Understanding that *Clarity*, *Responsiveness*, and *Comfort* are key dimensions of QCE can help negotiators manage the quality of their own and their negotiation partners' communication experiences to their overall benefit. The concept of QCE suggests three levers for managing the communication process in negotiations. First, negotiators need to strive for *clarity* in communication through active listening, checking for shared definition and understanding of the situation, clarifying terms and meanings, and expressing their own ideas clearly (DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000). Second, it is important for negotiators to be *responsive* to others' overtures by reciprocating and adapting to the other party's behavioral patterns, norms and expectations (Adair et al., 2001; Early & Mosakowski, 2004). Third, negotiators need to engage in actions that will help to put their negotiation partners at ease and make them feel *comfortable* and safe (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992). Thus, it is imperative for negotiators to not only attend to the content (*Clarity*) and coordinating norm of the communication (*Responsiveness*), but also to the *Comfort* level and atmosphere of the interaction.

Negotiators trying to actively manipulate the quality of their own and their negotiation partners' communication experiences need to be aware that their actions may have contradictory effects on different dimensions of QCE. For example, attempts to improve the clarity of communication by one party may be perceived as overly blunt or even rude by the other party. In cross-cultural settings, in particular, negotiators must pay attention to potential asymmetries in the communication experience. This requires negotiators to recognize and understand cultural differences in communication styles and preferences. For example, in the case of Sino-American

negotiations, knowing that a direct style of communication may be perceived as abrasive or even offensive and may cause significant discomfort to the Chinese partner can help U.S. negotiators to adjust their communication style. In this particular example, using social settings to foster personal relationships, relying on cultural guides for assistance, and leveraging on opportunities to build trust and give “face” would be effective ways to increase the Chinese partner’s level of comfort, without the American partner having to resort to a more opaque communication style (which may result in misunderstandings and arouse suspicion and mistrust on the part of the Chinese partner).

The strategies for managing QCE to achieve better negotiation outcomes are not limited to dyadic negotiations but can be employed in a wide range of organizational contexts, including teams, alliances, and mergers and acquisitions (M&A). For instance, Stahl and Sitkin (2005) argue that the tone of the negotiations (friendly or hostile), reflecting the comfort dimension of QCE, is an important factor in the success of the post-merger integration process because of its effect on the quality of the interpersonal relationships between the members of the combining organizations. Managers and professionals involved in M&A transactions may thus benefit from participation in cultural sensitization seminars and communication workshops that equip them with the skills needed to enhance their and their partner’s QCE. Recent research on the dynamics of sociocultural integration in cross-border alliances and mergers suggests that deep-level cultural learning interventions can improve collaboration and accelerate the integration process by developing better understanding of the partners’ communication style and preferences (Björkman et al., 2007; Schweiger & Goulet, 2005).

Multinational corporations, business schools and training providers alike may benefit from incorporating the concept of QCE into the design of their leadership development and training

programs. As Adair and her colleagues (2001) have observed, intercultural negotiators often lack sufficient skills to adapt successfully to the other party's behavioral patterns and expectations. Training programs and courses specifically designed for managers to learn how to identify and manage their own and their negotiation partners' QCEs would be particularly useful for training international assignees and others involved in working across cultures.

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Table 1
Study 1 – Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

<i>Item</i>	<i>Standard Factor Loading</i>		
	Whole Sample (N=62)	Chinese Sample (N=32)	U.S. Sample (N=30)
Clarity (α)	(.75)	(.70)	(.72)
1. I understood what the other side was saying.	.61	.63	.49
2. I understood what was important to the other side.	.68	.69	.53
3. We clarified the meaning if there was a confusion of the messages exchanged.	.59	.53	.61
4. I think the other side understood me clearly.	.62	.55	.63
5. The messages exchanged were easy to understand.	.53	.57	.51
Responsiveness (α)	(.76)	(.73)	(.75)
6. The other side responded to my questions and requests quickly during the interaction.	.39	.39	.39
7. The conversation ran smoothly without any uncomfortable silent moments or I did not notice any uncomfortable silent moments.	.42	.45	.41
8. I was willing to listen to the other side's perspectives.	.45	.49	.42
9. When the other side raised questions or concerns, I tried to address them immediately.	.50	.49	.53
10. One or both of us kept silent from time to time. (R)	.52	.55	.50
Comfort (α)	(.72)	(.70)	(.73)
11. I was nervous talking to the other side. (R)	.51	.53	.50
12. I felt the other side trusted me.	.46	.42	.49
13. I felt the other side was trustworthy.	.38	.41	.37
14. I felt comfortable interacting with the other side.	.39	.38	.42
15. The other side seemed comfortable talking with me.	.47	.49	.43
X^2	251.32	176.26	169.58
CFI	.91	.88	.89
IFI	.92	.89	.87
SRMR	.056	.073	.075

Note: All factor loadings were significant at the .05 level.

Table 2
Study 2 – Scale and Factor Correlations

Factor	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1. Clarity	5.32	1.51		.51*	.28*
2. Responsiveness	5.75	1.22	.56*		.27*
3. Comfort	5.19	1.99	.31*	.29*	

Notes: *p < .05. N= 540.

Raw scale correlations are presented in the upper diagonal.

Factor correlations are presented in the lower diagonal.

Table 3
Study 2 - Discriminant Validity Analyses Results

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	IFI	SRMR
1. Three-factor baseline model	463.29*	115		.95	.95	.06
2. Two-factor model: Clarity = Responsiveness	628.72*	117	165.43*	.82	.82	.11
3. Two-factor model: Clarity = Comfort	773.51*	117	310.22*	.79	.79	.15
4. Two-factor model: Responsiveness = Comfort	829.33*	117	366.04*	.76	.76	.12
5. One-factor model	1265.17*	118	801.88*	.73	.73	.19

Note: * p < .05

Table 4
Study 3 – Mean Difference of Dimensions of Quality of Communication Experience

	Mean (s.d.)				<i>t(p)</i>		
	Intracultural			Inter-cultural (<i>N</i> =72)	<i>Inter-vs. Intracultural</i>		
	U.S. (<i>N</i> =80)	China (<i>N</i> =86)	Overall (<i>N</i> =166)		Inter-vs. U.S. t(150)	Inter- vs. China t(156)	Inter-vs. intra- Overall t(236)
Clarity	5.39 (1.55)	5.26 (1.37)	5.32 (1.45)	3.86 (1.72)	5.78*	5.69*	6.73*
Responsiveness	5.57 (1.26)	5.43 (1.17)	5.49 (1.21)	3.61 (1.29)	9.47*	9.29*	10.79*
Comfort	5.12 (1.93)	5.03 (2.05)	5.07 (2.01)	3.55 (1.96)	4.97*	4.61*	5.39*

Note: * $p < .01$.

Table 5
Study 3 – Correlations at the Individual Level

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Clarity		.47**	.49**	.43**	.51**
2. Responsiveness	.51**		.50**	.35**	.47**
3. Comfort	.32**	.30**		.29**	.49**
4. Individual Economic Gain	.30**	.21*	.15*		.28**
5. Satisfaction	.42**	.37**	.38*	.25**	

Notes: ** $p < .001$; * $p < .01$. Same-cultural correlations are shown in the lower diagonal ($N=166$). Intercultural correlations are presented in the upper diagonal ($N=72$). Bold coefficients are those involved in the z-tests.

Table 6
Study 3 – Correlations at the Dyadic Level

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Clarity		.42**	.45**	.38**	.46**
2. Responsiveness	.39**		.46**	.31**	.45**
3. Comfort	.27**	.27**		.27**	.45**
4. Joint Economic Gain	.25**	.19*	.15*		.27**
5. Satisfaction	.35**	.27**	.29**	.22**	

Notes: **p<.001; *p<.01. Same-cultural correlations are shown in the lower diagonal (N=83). Intercultural correlations are presented in the upper diagonal (N=36). Bold coefficients are those involved in the z-tests.

Table 7
Study 3 - Results of Regression Analysis Testing H3a and H3b

Dependent Variable	Individual Level			Dyadic Level (N=119)	
	Buyer Gains (N=119)	Seller Gains (N=119)	Satisfaction (N=238)	Joint Gains	Aggregated Satisfaction
Independent Variable	β	β	β	β	β
Control Variable					
Role			.04		
Main Effect					
Clarity	.23**	.26**	.31***	.29**	.39***
Responsiveness	.29**	.27**	.33***	.22**	.35***
Comfort	.18**	.19**	.27***	.20**	.32***
Overall adjusted R ²	.18	.19	.21	.12	.17
Overall F	15.33	15.42	19.35	8.08	15.62

Notes: **p < .01, ***p < .001.

Role was coded as Seller = 0 and Buyer = 1.

For the regression analyses done at the dyadic level, the independent variables are aggregated values.

Table 8
Study 3- Results Testing Interaction Effects of Cultural Conditions

	<i>Individual Level</i>						<i>Dyadic Level</i>			
	Buyer Gains		Seller Gains		Satisfaction		Joint Gains		Aggregated Satisfaction	
	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β
Clarity	.58***	.38***	.55***	.41***	.53***	.39***	.53***	.37***	.32**	.35**
Culture	.15**	.12**	.17**	.15**	.19**	.16**	.17**	.15**	.16**	.12**
Clarity X Culture		.35**		.34**		.27**		.31**		.37**
F	59.31***	14.75***	52.77***	23.18***	55.80***	21.66***	38.71***	15.72***	59.66***	23.63***
Adj. R ²	.11	.16	.11	.15	.09	.15	.11	.15	.15	.22
ΔR^2		.05**		.04**		.06**		.04**		.07**
df	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116	2, 236	3, 235	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116
Responsiveness	.52***	.32***	.52***	.35***	.49***	.28***	.42***	.35***	.32**	.30**
Culture	.19**	.15**	.19**	.16**	.20**	.13**	.18**	.13**	.17**	.19**
Responsiveness X Culture		.32**		.27**		.30**		.27**		.29**
F	50.51***	16.38***	58.22***	22.65***	56.75***	21.66***	36.29***	14.85***	57.55***	25.36***
Adj. R ²	.10	.16	.11	.16	.10	.15	.10	.16	.16	.21
ΔR^2		.06**		.05**		.05**		.06**		.05**
df	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116	2, 236	3, 235	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116
Comfort	.57***	.39**	.56***	.45***	.51***	.42***	.57***	.39**	.29**	.25**
Culture	.18**	.19**	.17**	.15**	.19**	.15**	.19**	.15**	.20**	.15**
Comfort X Culture		.36**		.37**		.28**		.33**		.27**
F	59.01***	23.98***	60.78***	23.61***	58.53***	22.09***	62.80***	23.46***	50.38***	19.97***
Adj. R ²	.10	.17	.12	.17	.11	.16	.11	.16	.10	.17
ΔR^2		.07**		.05**		.05**		.05**		.07**
df	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116	2, 236	3, 235	2, 117	3, 116	2, 117	3, 116

Notes: N= 238 at the individual level and N=119 at the dyadic level. Culture was coded as a dummy variable (0=intracultural 1=intercultural).

p<.01, *p<.001.

Table 9
Study 4 – Mean Difference of Dimensions of Quality of Communication Experience

	Mean (s.d)		<i>t</i>	Mean (s.d)		<i>t</i>
	Intracultural (N=72)	Intercultural (N=64)		American (N=32)	Chinese (N=32)	
Clarity	5.27 (1.63)	3.91 (1.59)	17.78*	3.29(1.59)	4.35(1.60)	8.53*
Responsiveness	5.51 (1.69)	3.77 (1.65)	18.09*	3.82(1.66)	3.67(1.60)	-3.03
Comfort	5.20 (1.72)	3.81 (1.75)	16.93*	9.95(1.38)	3.29(1.37)	-7.22*

Note: *p<.05.

Table 10
Study 4 - Results of Regression Analysis Testing H3a and H3b

Dependent Variable	Individual Level			Dyadic Level (N=68)	
	Candidate Gains (N=68)	Recruiter Gains (N=68)	Satisfaction (N=136)	Joint Gains	Aggregated Satisfaction
Independent Variable	β	β	β	β	β
Control Variable					
Role			.05		
Main Effect					
Clarity	.21*	.18*	.19*	.22*	.18*
Responsiveness	.23*	.21*	.21*	.23*	.19*
Comfort	.16*	.17*	.16*	.15*	.15*
Overall adjusted R ²	.11	.11	.08	.11	.09
Overall F	9.97	9.82	7.85	9.08	8.37

Notes: *p<.01. Role was coded as Recruiter = 0 and Candidate = 1.

For the regression analyses done at the dyadic level, the independent variables are aggregated values.

Table 11
Study 4- Results Testing Interaction Effects of Cultural Conditions

	<i>Individual Level</i>						<i>Dyadic Level</i>			
	Buyer Gains		Seller Gains		Satisfaction		Joint Gains		Aggregated Satisfaction	
	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β	Step1 β	Step2 β
Clarity	.28**	.25**	.26**	.24**	.37**	.39**	.32**	.37**	.22**	.24**
Culture	.15**	.12**	.13**	.16**	.16**	.18**	.17**	.12**	.15**	.12**
Clarity X Culture		.21**		.21**		.27**		.25**		.18**
F	30.91***	12.33***	31.27***	11.98***	50.26***	19.77***	35.51***	11.76***	39.83***	12.55***
Adj. R ²	.09	.12	.09	.12	.13	.18	.09	.13	.07	.10
ΔR^2		.03**		.03**		.05**		.04**		.03**
df	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65	2, 134	3, 133	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65
Responsiveness	.33**	.28**	.32**	.28**	.36**	.41**	.30**	.33**	.27**	.20**
Culture	.19**	.15**	.19**	.16**	.18**	.15**	.18**	.15**	.17**	.15**
Responsiveness X Culture		.25**		.25**		.29**		.26**		.19**
F	36.70***	15.72***	37.21***	15.76***	51.92***	23.86***	35.90***	13.45***	33.29***	11.97***
Adj. R ²	.12	.16	.12	.16	.17	.24	.11	.14	.09	.12
ΔR^2		.04**		.04**		.07**		.03**		.03**
df	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65	2, 134	3, 133	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65
Comfort	.20**	.18**	.17**	.19**	.25**	.32**	.30**	.36**	.17**	.22**
Culture	.16**	.12**	.16**	.13**	.18**	.12**	.17**	.12**	.21**	.15**
Comfort X Culture		.28**		.27**		.24**		.31**		.23**
F	39.79***	16.51***	39.05	16.27***	53.82***	20.09***	42.33***	17.62***	55.79***	26.87***
Adj. R ²	.12	.17	.12	.17	.13	.20	.14	.19	.11	.15
ΔR^2		.05**		.05**		.07**		.05**		.04**
df	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65	2, 134	3, 133	2, 66	3, 65	2, 66	3, 65

Notes: N= 136 at the individual level and N= 68 at the dyadic level. Culture was coded as a dummy variable (0=intracultural 1=intercultural).
 p<.01, *p<.001.

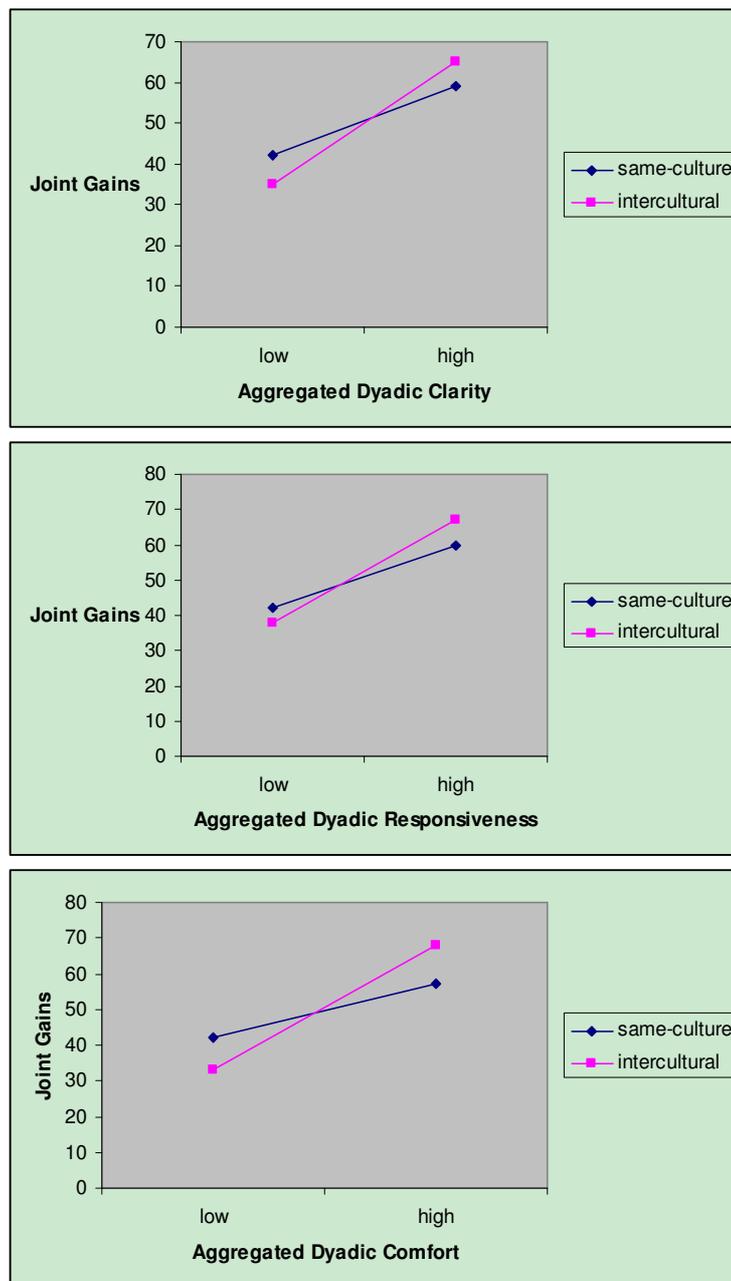


Figure 1. The interactive effect of cultural conditions and Quality of Communication Experience in Study 3.

Note. The graph is plotted at 25th percentile for “low” and 75th percentile for “high” aggregated dyadic estimates of Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort. The y axis in each graph is joint gain as a percentage of the maximum joint gain in the Cartoon negotiation, which is 5.1 million dollars.