

Reading Your Counterpart:
Culture, Meaning, and Function of Nonverbal Behaviour in Negotiation

by

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Abstract

Literature on cross-cultural negotiation suggests that the challenges negotiators often face in intercultural interactions stem from miscommunication. While prior research examined verbal messages in this context, there is limited research on nonverbal behaviour. In my dissertation I investigate how culture influences display and function of nonverbal communication in Chinese and Canadian intracultural negotiations. I integrate and expand prior work on cross-cultural negotiation from a communication perspective, by employing theories of relational versus task orientation at work, low-high context communication, and the involvement-affect model of communication.

Across two studies, participants engaged in an intracultural dyadic negotiation simulation, which was videotaped and coded for nonverbal expression. I predicted that 1) Chinese negotiators will be more subtle and indirect in their nonverbal displays than Canadian negotiators, 2) Chinese negotiators' nonverbal displays will be reflective of their relational orientation and Canadian negotiators' nonverbal behaviours will be associated with their task orientation in negotiation, and 3) nonverbal communication will be more impactful for the outcome of Chinese than Canadian negotiators.

Study 1 explored whether the nonverbal display of Chinese negotiators reflects their relational orientation. I examined dominant nonverbal cues by male and female Canadian and Chinese negotiators, arguing that explicit and overt expression of dominance reflects lower relational concern. The findings showed cultural differences among male but not female negotiators. Results revealed that male Chinese negotiators displayed subtler and restrained dominant behaviours by occupying space at the negotiation table. In contrast, male Canadian

negotiators engaged in more overt dominant behaviours, such as relaxed postures and negative facial expressions. So, while male negotiators from both cultures displayed dominant behaviours, Chinese negotiators' nonverbal cues were more restrained, possibly reflecting a more relational stance.

Study 2 extended the previous study by examining the function of nonverbal cues in negotiation. Study 2A implemented an experimental approach. Negotiation roles were manipulated to elicit negotiators' culturally normative nonverbal cues associated with a particular approach. Male Canadian and Chinese participants engaged in a negotiation simulation with a confederate. The findings illustrated that Chinese negotiators varied their nonverbal behaviors the most as a function of relational affect. Canadian negotiators varied their nonverbal behaviors the most as a function of involvement in the negotiation task. So, the primary function of nonverbal behaviours among Chinese negotiators may be to connote the nature of the relationship. Study 2B analyzed the paralinguistic cues from Study 2A to test whether paralanguage also conveys relational versus task orientation in negotiation. Findings show that Chinese negotiators convey their intention for relationship building via calmness in voice and emotion suppression in tone. These behaviours are consistent with self-control and restraint. Canadian negotiators convey involvement in the negotiation task through faster speech rate and expressiveness in voice.

Across the two studies I examined the impact of nonverbal behaviours on economic and relational outcomes. The results illustrate that in general Chinese negotiators' nonverbal behaviours were more predictive of negotiation outcomes than Canadian negotiators' nonverbal behaviours. Moreover, nonverbal behaviours partially mediated the relationship

between culture and joint gains. The results across the two studies are discussed in terms of their theoretical implications to cross-cultural negotiation and communication as well as the practical applications in Chinese and Canadian intracultural and intercultural negotiations.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family and loved ones for their endless support and encouragement. I am forever grateful to my parents Mohammad and Elvira for their unwavering love, moral support, and confidence throughout my academic career and beyond. As medical doctors my parents not only taught me the appreciation and value for humanity but also raised me to be strong and to dream big. I am thankful for my younger sister, Zhila, for giving me the confidence and motivation to be a good role model, and for giving me strength to tackle challenges and obstacles in my graduate program. I thank my younger brother, Kayvan, for cheering me on throughout this process and for his kindness and generosity. Last but not least, I thank my best friend Sid for his endless support, encouragement and faith in me for the past four years, and for his patience and love.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The globalization of today's economy has drastically increased contacts among managers and employees of different cultures. In global negotiations, cultural differences give rise to complex and challenging processes, making it difficult for parties to reach an agreement (Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 2001). A major factor contributing to suboptimal outcomes in intercultural interactions is lower quality of communication (Liu, Chua, & Stah, 2010). To identify and explain which aspects of culture contribute to misunderstanding and lower communication quality, I investigate how culture influences nonverbal communication in an intracultural interaction. My dissertation focuses on prototypical nonverbal behaviours by Chinese and Canadian negotiators.

Importance of Nonverbal Communication in Negotiation

Many times in negotiation what isn't said can have a more profound effect on process and outcome than what is verbally communicated. Former United Nations Secretary General Dag Hammarskjold stressed the significance of nonlinguistic messages in negotiation. He stated, "The unspoken dialog between two people can never be put right by anything they say."

Negotiation, highly dependent on communication, is the process of two parties attempting to reach an agreement about differing needs or ideas on matters of mutual interest (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 1991; Gulbro & Herbig, 1996). During negotiation, parties communicate and exchange information as a series of moves, offers, and counteroffers. Negotiators engage in cooperative and competitive behaviours across stages, as if enacting a ritual dance (Hall, 1989; Adair & Brett, 2005). Communication, encompassing verbal messages and nonlinguistic cues, is a fundamental

tool in negotiation. Communication represents and conveys information and creates meanings, outcomes, identities, and relationships (Glenn & Susskind, 2010).

In negotiation, information is power (Matsumoto, Frank, & Hwang, 2013). Successful encoding and decoding of messages can increase the clarity and insight about information needed to reach an integrative agreement. In this case, both parties will be satisfied with the final outcome. Communicated messages contain both *content* and *relational* dimensions. According to some theorists, the content dimension includes verbal messages while the relational dimension encompasses nonverbal behaviours (Prager & Roberts, 2004). Relational messages define the nature of the relationship between actors. These messages provide a framework for interpreting communication, and guide decisions about subsequent behaviours in the interaction (Burgoon et al., 1984). Certainly, negotiators express themselves with nonlinguistic cues through gestures, facial expressions, and body movements. They employ these cues to disseminate needs, level of commitment, and concern for others (Faure, 1993; 1998; Hall, 1989).

Researchers who look inside the black box of negotiation examine such constructs as strategy, communication, and interpersonal dynamics (e.g., reciprocity, complementarity). A review of this research reveals an extensive body of knowledge surrounding negotiators' use of verbal communication. Yet, only a handful of studies examine nonverbal communication. Also, there is a lack of theory addressing nonverbal behaviours in negotiation. A brief review of prior literature on nonverbal communication in negotiation shows that research has focused primarily on emotional display (Elfenbein, Foo, White, Tan, & Aik, 2007; Sinaceur, Van Kleef, Neale, Adam, & Haag, 2011; Van Kleef & Cote, 2007). In addition, some researchers examined the dynamic nature of nonverbal exchange. For example motor mimicry and complementarity of

dominant and submissive behaviours (Maddux, Galinsky, Cuddy, & Polifroni, 2008; Wiltermuth, 2009). Based on this review, it becomes apparent that negotiation researchers recognize the importance of nonverbal communication, but have not developed a comprehensive, overarching theoretical framework to explain and direct research.

The study of nonverbal behaviour in negotiation is essential because nonverbal messages provide a framework for interpreting communication (e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1981). People use nonverbal cues to express messages that verbal words cannot (Ting-Toomey, 2005). Given that nonverbal behaviour is assumed to be unconscious, it is often trusted more than verbal messages. Especially when these channels of communication are in conflict (Afifi 2007; Ting-Toomey, 2005). In negotiation, nonverbal behaviours can convey information about the nature of relationships. This can influence perceptions, trust, information sharing, and negotiation outcomes (see Table 1).

Table 1

Influence of Nonverbal Communication in Negotiations

Impact of Nonverbal Cues	Authors
Nature of relationships (e.g., status and power)	Carney, Cuddy, & Yap, 2010
Perceptions	Carney, Colvin, & Hall, 2007; Choi, Gray, & Ambady, 2005; Gilbert, Pelham, & Krull, 1988
Trustworthiness	Gunia et al., 2011; Ozono, Watabe, Yoshikawa, Nakashima, Rule, Ambady, & Adams, 2010; Wiltermuth & Heath, 2009
Negotiation process and information sharing	Maddux, Galinsky, Cuddy, & Polifroni, 2008
Economic and relational outcomes in negotiation	Gottman, Coan, Carrere, & Swanson, 1998; Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2011, 2013, Semnani-Azad, 2013; Wiltermuth 2009

Because of the nature of the setting (e.g., transactional or dispute) and the professional relationships (e.g., business owners or manager-employee) negotiators maintain (Weick, 1993), I expect unique patterns in the use of nonlinguistic cues in negotiation. On the same note, the parallel process model of nonverbal communication (Patterson, 1995) posits that social context prescribes the appropriate behaviours people should employ. Thus, the negotiation context itself should activate some schemas and nonverbal scripts which are universal or etic. For instance, nonverbal expressions of dominance are more appropriate in a business boardroom (work context) compared to a retirement home (social context), regardless of cultural background (Patterson, 1995). Accordingly, in my dissertation I examine nonverbal behaviors that are prototypical in a negotiation context. I examine how nonverbal cues influence economic and subjective negotiation outcomes such as satisfaction with relationship, outcome, and process (Curhan, Elfenbein, & Xu, 2006).

Importance of Nonverbal Communication in Cross-cultural Negotiation

The parallel process model of nonverbal communication recognizes that culture shapes habitual patterns of interaction (Manusov & Patterson, 2006). Culture dictates the display rules and nonverbal behaviour people should exhibit in a social setting (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002; Matsumoto, Yoo, & Fontaine, 2009). For example, dominance displays in a Chinese boardroom will take a different form than dominance displays in a Canadian boardroom (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2011). In a cross-cultural negotiation, the role of nonverbal messages is even more pronounced as culture affects the way people communicate (Adair, 2003; Brett, 2014). Hall's (1989) theory of low-high context communication suggests that there are fundamental differences in communication preferences between East Asian and North American people. Culture not only

influences the display and function of nonverbal cues (Ekman & Friesen, 1971) but the extent to which individuals rely on nonverbal communication to decode and encode messages (Hall, 1989).

For instance, imagine an intercultural negotiation between a Chinese and Canadian businessman. The Chinese businessman greets the Canadian negotiator formally by addressing him with his last name, sits across the table with a straight back posture and limited facial expression. In North America, people who maintain formal behaviour after several face-to-face meetings tend to do so because they dislike or distrust the interaction partner (Adler, 1991). Naturally, the Canadian businessman attributes the formal behaviour of the Chinese negotiator to a lack of interest in developing a relationship, or a lack of trust. In reaction to this formal behaviour, the Canadian negotiator may reduce his display of positive facial expression, and limit information sharing and cooperative behaviour. This example illustrates the challenge of successful communication in global negotiations, which depends on the negotiator's ability to express his or her intentions through verbal and nonverbal behaviours and to decipher the concepts conveyed through nonverbal messages of others (Burgoon & Saine 1978).

In cross-cultural interactions, negotiators are more likely than in same-culture negotiations to use nonverbal cues, especially when they have difficulty finding words to communicate their meaning (Faure, 1993; 1998). Yet, culture contributes to frequent miscommunications and lower communication quality in intercultural negotiations, which often result in lower relational and economic outcomes (Liu et al., 2010). For instance the Economist Intelligence Unit surveyed around 600 executives across the globe. Nearly half of them acknowledged that miscommunications have impeded major international business deals.

Miscommunication is a common concern in cross-cultural negotiation because of language barriers, and cultural differences in style of communication (e.g., Hall, 1989), display and interpretation of behaviours (e.g., Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013; Park, Streamer, Huang, & Galinsky, 2013), normative negotiation behaviours (e.g., Adair et al., 2001) and negotiation schemas (e.g., Adair, Taylor, & Tinsley, 2009).

Cultural variation in display rules means that the display and interpretation of nonverbal communication varies by culture (Ekman & Friesen, 1981; Matsumoto, 1990). In cross-cultural negotiation literature there are ethnographic reports of negotiators' use of nonverbal behaviours such as silence or eye gaze (Adam, Shirako, & Maddux, 2010; Adler, Graham, & Gehrke, 1987). For example Japanese negotiators are comfortable with silence and use this behaviour as a persuasive tactic or as an indirect way of rejecting an offer (Adair et al., 2001). In contrast, North American negotiators tend to be uncomfortable with silence, and rarely use this as a tactic (e.g., Brett & Okumura, 1998; Graham & Andrews, 1987). Negotiators from North America and Western Europe are more likely to interpret lack of eye contact as lack of knowledge and/or deceit. In contrast, Negotiators from East Asia may interpret eye contact as signal of dominance, which may foster a distributive negotiation (Argyle & Dean, 1965; McCarthy, Lee, Itakura, & Muir, 2006).

If the Canadian negotiator in the preceding example misinterpreted the formality of the Chinese negotiator as lack of trust or dislike as opposed to liking and respect, then the Canadian negotiator may develop a negative perception of the Chinese counterpart and consequently limit priority information sharing (Gunia et al., 2011). Thus, nonverbal signals represent a potential source of valuable information only when correctly interpreted, and futile communication when

they are misunderstood (e.g., Ambady, Koo, Lee, & Rosenthal, 1996; Swaab, Galinsky, Medvec, & Diermeier, 2012). By shedding light on the display, meaning and function of nonverbal cues in negotiation and across culture, such miscommunications can be diminished and outcomes improved.

Purpose of the Present Dissertation

The purpose of the current research is to understand the display, meaning and function of nonverbal cues in negotiation across culture. I also test how negotiators' nonverbal expressions influence economic outcome and subjective evaluations. In my dissertation, I extend cross-cultural negotiation research from a communication perspective. I incorporate theories on cultural differences in relational and task orientation at work, communication styles, and meaning. I discuss differences in values and norms at work and how these impact communication and nonverbal displays. I introduce the theory of low-high context communication and its importance in understanding nonverbal behaviours in negotiation. Then, I discuss current theories on dimensions of meaning in communication and the applicability of these dimensions in negotiation.

I examine nonverbal cues of Chinese and Canadian negotiators because these cultures have very different traditions and communication norms, which influence nonverbal expressions (Ambady et al., 1996; Hall, 1989; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). I focus on nonverbal behaviours in same-culture interactions to generate a typology of emic or culture specific nonverbal scripts. Previous research in cross-cultural negotiation communication relied on frequencies of verbal messages without understanding the nonverbal signals that accompany those messages (e.g., Adair et al., 2001). I extend prior work by generating data on Chinese and Canadian negotiators'

nonverbal embodiment of different *approaches* in negotiation (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). The approaches elicit specific motives and goals associated with dimensions of communication meaning.

This research program contributes to theory in two main respects. First, this research advances negotiation theory from a communication perspective. It offers a theoretically grounded framework of nonverbal communication in negotiation, an important yet under-researched area. I directly test the meaning of nonverbal expressions by manipulating negotiators' approach and measuring their natural nonverbal embodiment of approaches. I also test the impact of these expressions on negotiators' perception and satisfaction. In doing so, I offer insight on how nonverbal behaviours influence social outcomes in negotiation.

Second, this research contributes to literature on culture and negotiation by identifying emic nonverbal expressions associated with specific meaning in an Eastern and a Western culture. Previous accounts of nonverbal communication in cross-cultural negotiation were anecdotal and researchers did not incorporate the existing nonverbal literature in their theoretical approach. This research program is the first line of studies that systematically tests cultural variation in nonverbal cues associated with various negotiation approaches. In what follows, I discuss the theoretical rationale for predictions, report the methods and results of two studies and offer practical implications for effective negotiation communication in China, Canada, and multicultural workplaces.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culture and Communication

Culture is defined as the shared characteristics of a social group with regards to values, norms, schemas, and institutions that are different from other social groups (Lytle, Brett, Barness, Tinsley, & Janssens, 1995). Culture provides a framework for communication. Communication can be described as a vehicle for action and meaning, and culture provides a manual for operating that vehicle. Communication is intentional, transactional, and symbolic, where senders and receivers code behaviour to produce messages that convey attitudes and emotions (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). Culture affects the norms and rules that guide behaviour (Gudykunst, Matsumoto, Ting-Toomey, Nishida, Kim, & Heyman, 1996). These cultural norms and rules prescribe style of communication (Hall, 1989), appropriateness of channels depending on context (Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013), and shared social meaning of verbal and nonverbal messages (Nes, Solberg, & Silkoset, 2007).

Task versus Relational Orientation at Work

A cultural factor that influences communication is the Protestant Relational Ideology (PRI). This workplace ideology, common in North America based on the Protestant beliefs and work ethic of early settlers from Europe, encourages people to maintain a polite yet impersonal work style. It promotes a cultural norm where relational concerns are less appropriate at work and in business (Sanchez-Burks, 2002; Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003). This ideology coincides with cross-cultural differences in relational styles proposed by theories of Individualism-Collectivism (I-C) (Hofstede, 1984) and Independent-Interdependent Self-Construal (Markus & Kitayama,

1991). According to these theories (see Table 2), cultures in Eastern regions such as East Asia and the Far East are more concerned with relationships and collective goals than cultures in Western regions such as North America and Western Europe.

Table 2

Cultural Theories on Relational Orientation

Theory	Proposition	Western Regions	Eastern Regions	Authors
Individualism-Collectivism (I-C)	Focus on the self as a unique entity versus embedded in group memberships	<i>Individualist Cultures:</i> * Goals and interests of the individual take precedence over group goals * Individuals undertake responsibility only for themselves and their immediate social group	<i>Collectivist Cultures:</i> * Goals and interests of the group take precedence over individual goals * Individuals assume responsibility for their in-groups (Group of individuals who are concerned with each other's welfare) and exercise loyalty and cooperative relationships.	Hofstede, 1984; Triandis, 1988
Independent-Interdependent Self-Construal	Seeing oneself as a unique, independent entity versus part of an encompassing social relationship	<i>Independent Self-Construal:</i> Construing self as an individual whose behavior is organized and made meaningful by one's internal repertoire of thoughts, feelings and actions	<i>Interdependent self-construal:</i> Construing self as part of a web of social relationships whose behavior is determined by the thoughts, feelings, and actions of others in the relationship	Markus & Kitayama, 1991
Protestant Relational Ideology (PRI)	Relational concerns are less appropriate versus normative at work and in business	<i>Task Oriented:</i> Low attention to relational cues and high focus on task	<i>Relational Oriented:</i> High attention to relational cues	Sanchez-Burks, 2002; Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003
Low-High Context Communication	Extent to which underlying meaning of message is dependent on context	<i>Low Context Culture:</i> Use of explicit and direct messages in which meanings are contained in transmitted messages	<i>High Context Culture:</i> Use of implicit and indirect messages in which meanings are embedded in the person or the sociocultural context	Hall, 1989

Prior theoretical and empirical work has shown that I-C and Independent-Interdependent construal have direct effects on communication styles across culture. People in individualist cultures tend to engage in low context communication, while people in collectivist cultures employ high context communication (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988). I-C has also been shown to have indirect effects on communication, mediated through self-construal and values (Singelis & Brown, 1995). For instance, individualistic values give rise to independent self-construal, which in turn promotes low context communication. Collectivistic values give rise to interdependent self-construal, which promotes high context communication.

PRI extends prior cross-cultural theories by providing an ideological context that explains cross-cultural differences in relational mindsets. Specifically, in a workplace setting where individuals maintain professional relationships, people from individualist cultures tend to engage in very low degrees of relational focus. In contrast, people from collectivist cultures are highly relational and focus on relational cues at work. PRI stresses that it is imperative for people to limit their attention to relational concerns at work. People should maintain a detached rapport with others because a relational focus can distract people from accomplishing the task at hand (McGrath, 1993; Sanchez-Burks, 2002). Conversely in collectivist cultures, it is not only acceptable to focus on relationships at work, but people are also encouraged to develop a heightened awareness to others' social and emotional needs (Kim, 1988; Sanchez-Burks, 2002). For instance people have been shown to function and interact through a dense network of close relationships (Bond, 1986; Tsui & Farh, 1997). And it is acceptable for managers to be aware of and to attend important personal events of their subordinates such as funerals (Hui & Luk, 1997; Kanungo, 1990).

Prior empirical research provides convincing evidence of cross-cultural differences in relational orientation at work. Sanchez-Burks (2002) found that in a work context, people in cultures with roots in PRI are less attuned to relational cues compared to individuals in cultures that do not share PRI roots. People in PRI cultures are less likely to recognize emotional vocal tone associated with indirect communication and to mimic nonverbal behaviour. Sanchez-Burks and colleagues (2003) also show East-West cultural differences in attention to relational cues at work. Across four studies these researchers found that compared to Chinese and Korean individuals, U.S. Americans showed more difficulty interpreting indirect messages, and report less employment of indirect behaviours in work versus non-work contexts. These researchers also found indirectness in communication as a function of context, i.e., work versus non-work, even when controlling for values of individualism-collectivism. Moreover, Sanchez-Burks and colleagues (2003) were able to replicate these effects among biculturals primed with Western versus Eastern norms and values.

Taken on the whole, in a work context, individualists are less attuned to relational cues compared to collectivists. In the communication literature, relational cues and intentions, which define the nature of relationships, are conveyed via nonverbal channels (Burgoon et al., 1984; Prager & Roberts, 2004). Additionally, past research that examined relationship building in interpersonal relationships claims that nonverbal behaviour is the primary vehicle of intimacy and relationship development (e.g., Prager & Roberts, 2004). Because I investigate nonverbal communication in a business negotiation transaction, and because this interaction is representative of a workplace setting, I predict that compared to Chinese negotiators, Canadians will be less concerned with relational nonverbal cues, and will be less likely to use these

behaviours for relationship development. Instead, Canadian negotiators will use nonverbal behaviors to convey their engagement in the negotiation task.

Culture and Communication Style

Cultural norms and values provide an implicit theory for how members should behave, communicate, and interpret messages in different situations (Keesing, 1974). Culture prescribes the style of communication. It influences people's dependence on contextual cues to interpret messages (Adair, Buchan, & Chen, 2009). Hall's (1989) theory of low-high context communication provides a framework for cultural differences in communication behaviour (Table 2). This theory suggests that cultures vary in their communication by the amount of information contained in an explicit message versus implicit contextual cues. Hall (1989) differentiates regions on the globe based on the communication norms that predominate in the representative cultures (Gudykunst, Yoon, & Nishida, 1987).

As discussed in the previous section, people from Western regions tend to have individualistic values with an independent self-construal. They are less concerned with relationships at work or gaining approval of others during social interactions (Cohen & Hoshino-Browne, 2005). Accordingly, individualist cultures endorse a low context communication style where communication is explicit and free from strict restraints of social obligation (Hall, 1989). The mass of information is vested in the explicit code with low reliance on context (Adair et al., 2009).

On the other hand, people from Eastern regions tend to have collectivistic values with an interdependent self-construal. They focus on relational goals and promote socio-emotional awareness at work because of greater formality and the importance of power dynamics (Sanchez-

Burks, Lee, Choi, Nisbett, Zhao, & Koo, 2003). These individuals consider the perspective of others, and monitor and control behavioural responses because of the tight norms that stress social harmony (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006). Thus, people engage in high context communication. Here, communication is indirect and dependent on contextual information. Context can include role, status, and power of the communicator, the surrounding environment, and space (Hall, 1989). So, very little is coded in the explicit part of the message.

Canada is a low context culture. The meaning of communicated messages is evident from the verbal content. People are more likely to weigh the verbal elements than the context that surrounds the words (Hall, 1989). Because members of these cultures communicate directly, listeners have the tendency to avoid looking for indirect meanings in message (Hall, 1989; Holtgraves, 1997). In contrast, China is a high context culture and verbal messages can be ambiguous. Chinese individuals are highly dependent on context when conveying and interpreting meaning in messages (Adair et al., 2009). To capture the full meaning of a message, listeners tend to search for indirect meanings (Hall, 1989; Holtgraves, 1997).

Hall's theory has been applied to explain intercultural communication in negotiation (Adair et al., 2001; Chua & Gudykunst, 1987). For instance when examining verbal communication among low and high context negotiators, Adair (2003) found that negotiators reciprocate verbal communication patterns that are culturally normative to them. Using the same sample, Adair and Brett (2005) also found that low and high context negotiators show different communication sequences, with high context communicators being more indirect and flexible. Also, when comparing communication patterns among U.S. American and Japanese negotiators, Adair and colleagues (2001) found support for Hall's theory such that low context U.S. American

negotiators state interests and preferences in a direct and explicit manner. Conversely, high context Japanese negotiators often use offers to express preferences in an indirect manner. So, negotiation researchers have shed light on cultural differences in verbal communication. Yet, there is limited work on nonverbal behaviours that accompany verbal messages. In my dissertation, I employ Hall's theory to study nonverbal communication patterns in Chinese and Canadian negotiators.

Culture and Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is the expression and perception of nonlinguistic messages that occur with or without the use of words (Afifi, 2007). Nonverbal communication is a socially shared coding system. It subsumes a wide range of behaviours such as facial displays (e.g., eye contact and gaze behaviour), gesture, body movement, posture and body orientation, touch, spacing and territorial behaviour, and vocal and paralinguistic behaviour (Afifi, 2007). Nonverbal cues are essential for a person to encode the full meaning of a message.

Although people can interpret different nonverbal cues within their own social or cultural setting, the meaning and use of nonverbal gestures varies between cultures (Afifi, 2007; Matsumoto & Hwang, 2013). For example there are cultural differences in the interpretation of behaviours such as smiling and laughing in Japan and the United States (Morrison, Conaway, & Borden, 1994). The interpretation of gaze is dependent on culture, where the frequency and duration of eye contact can produce different meanings (Ellsworth and Ludwig, 1972). Long duration of eye contact may be interpreted as being disrespectful in Eastern cultures, while that same interpretation is associated with shorter duration of eye contact in Western cultures

(McCarthy et al., 2006). So, cultures not only influence when and how people use nonverbal behaviours, but also the interpretation of these behaviours.

Culture influences the display of nonverbal behaviours through shared display rules. Display rules are norms that vary by culture and prescribe the management and modification of emotionally expressive behaviour in different contexts (Ekman & Friesen, 1971). Display rules can: a) promote emotion suppression through masking of true feelings or deamplifying expressions or b) advocate emotion expression by expressing true feelings or amplifying expressions depending on the situation (Matsumoto et al., 2009). Cultural variation in display rules means that the display and interpretation of nonverbal cues vary by culture (Ekman & Friesen, 1981; Matsumoto, 1990).

The cultural theories in Table 2 help explain differences in nonverbal display rules. People in Western regions tend to be individualists, have an independent self-construal, and engage in low context communication. These individuals are more egoistic and concerned with self-expression than the subtleties of maintaining harmony in social relationships (Cohen & Hoshino-Browne, 2005). So, they are forthright and direct in their communication, and are emotionally and behaviorally expressive. Subsequently, North Americans tend to engage in expressive nonverbal behaviours because of the “loose” social norms imposed on them (Cohen & Hoshino-Browne, 2005).

People in Eastern regions tend to be collectivists, have an interdependent self-construal, and engage in high context communication. These people are highly concerned with developing and maintaining relationships, and focus on the interpersonal climate and maintaining harmony in the workplace. They develop relationships and gain approval by being cautious of the nonverbal

behaviours and emotions they display (e.g., Ambady et al., 1996). Because of the high context communication style, people rely on a broad array of social cues beyond verbal speech (Hall, 1989; Holtgraves, 1997). People tend to monitor and control behavioural responses (Gelfand et al., 2006), are reserved in their nonverbal expressions, use fewer facial expressions and gestures, avoid eye contact, and display more rigid and closed postures (Matsumoto et al., 2008). They also tend to mask negative emotions with positive emotions (Matsumoto & Kudoh, 1993). For example Friesen (1972) found that when U.S. and Japanese participants viewed a stressful film, Japanese participants were less likely to express negative emotions. Instead they masked these emotions with smiles.

Given the cultural differences in low-high context communication and nonverbal display rules I expect Canadian negotiators to express themselves directly and be more overt in their nonverbal displays. In contrast, I predict Chinese negotiators will express themselves indirectly, engage in emotion suppression, and exhibit restrained nonverbal behaviours.

Dimensions of Communication Meaning

Communication literature has identified factors or dimensions associated with the meaning behind communicated messages. Osgood's semantic differential model is commonly used to categorize meanings of communicated messages. Three major factors of meaning have been proposed, derived from factor analyses examining how random concepts in a language are categorized (Apple & Hecht, 1982; Osgood & Suci, 1955). These include the *activity* factor ranging from "active" to "passive", the *evaluative* factor ranging from "good" to "bad", and the *potency* factor ranging from "strong" to "weak" (Osgood & Suci, 1955).

Semantic differentials show the connection between language structures and cognitive

processes. These dimensions of connotative meanings are universal across cultures (e.g., Daly, Lancee, & Polivy, 1983; Tanaka & Osgood, 1965; Triandis & Osgood, 1958). Osgood's model has been applied in the context of interpersonal and medical (e.g., patient-therapist) communications, but not in the negotiation context (Hall, Coats, & LeBeau, 2005; Hall, Andrzejewski, & Yopchick, 2009). Because of the nature of the setting (e.g., transactional or dispute) and the professional relationships (e.g., business owners or manager-employee) that negotiators maintain, I expect to observe unique patterns in the use of nonlinguistic behaviour in negotiation.

Research has confirmed that these semantic differentials are universal (e.g., Tanaka & Osgood, 1965; Triandis & Osgood, 1958). People belonging to similar cultural groups tend to have shared meanings attached to nonverbal cues (Ekman & Friesen, 1971). Nonverbal behaviours such as posture, facial, and vocal cues, and hand-movements convey these dimensions of meaning (Keltner, Ekman, Gonzaga, & Beer, 2003). While the dimensions of meanings are universal, the nonverbal behaviors associated with these dimensions can vary across culture (Kudoh & Matsumoto, 1985). Accordingly, to categorize semantic meaning of nonlinguistic behaviour in negotiation, I assess three dimensions of negotiation approach (*activity, evaluation, and potency*), based on Osgood's three-factor communication meaning. I define *negotiation approach* as the negotiator's attitude, motivation, and goal (Berger, Kern, & Thompson, 2003).

Activity Dimension. In negotiation, the activity dimension of meaning corresponds to behaviours conveying a negotiator's level of involvement or engagement (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). Level of engagement captures the extent to which a negotiator is concerned with the outcome of the negotiation. This can influence quality of communication and goals during the

negotiation process (De Dreu, Koole, & Steinel, 2000; Galinsky & Mussweiler, 2002). In my dissertation I consider nonverbal cues conveying *passive engagement*, defined by disinterest and un-involvement, and *active engagement*, defined by interest and involvement in the negotiation.

Evaluation Dimension. Psychosocial theories have incorporated the interaction between affect, cognition, and social exchange to understand how emotions drive interactions, and contribute to sense making about social relations (e.g., Lazarus, 1991). I propose that in negotiation, the evaluation dimension of meaning captures negotiators' relational affect or the extent to which a negotiator has positive or negative perception of the counterpart (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). Negotiators' positive or negative affective stance foreshadows communication quality. It influences which information negotiators reveal and which information they attend to (e.g., Barry, Fulmer, & Van Kleef, 2004). I examine nonverbal cues associated with a *positive* negotiation approach, defined by feelings of liking and positive affect, and a *negative* negotiation approach, defined by feelings of dislike and negative affect toward the opposing party.

Potency Dimension. Negotiation involves posturing and competing for power. Impression management pertaining to status and power occurs naturally. For example parties may be motivated to convey the impression of a "tough negotiator" (Baron, 1990; Gelfand & Realo, 1999). Accordingly, through posturing and impression management negotiators can increase resources and economic gain. This can lead to power asymmetry, which is the power difference between parties (Giebels et al., 2000). So, in negotiation conveying information about one's power and status is expected. The power balance in negotiation also influences information exchange and communication (Magee, Galinsky, & Gruenfeld, 2007; Wiltermuth, 2009). Thus, I

investigate a third factor based on Osgood's Potency dimension, which captures a negotiator's level of power and status. I examine nonverbal cues associated with *dominant stance*, defined by a negotiator's high power and status, and *submissive stance*, defined by a negotiator's low power and status.

Nonverbal Styles in Negotiation Approaches

Nonverbal research in interpersonal and patient-therapist interaction has examined different behaviours that reflect Osgood's dimensions (Ridgeway, 1987). Table 3 offers a summary of nonverbal cues associated with these dimensions. *High/Low Task or Competent* nonverbal style reflects one's level of competence and involvement in a task. Similar to the activity dimension, this style signals one's level of involvement in an interaction. *Social/Asocial* nonverbal style connotes the level of friendliness and affiliation one has toward their interacting partner. This corresponds to Osgood's evaluation dimension. *Dominant/Submissive* nonverbal style reflects the level of status and dominance one is conveying in an interaction. This is congruent with the potency dimension in Osgood's framework.

Table 3

Behaviours associated with Nonverbal Styles

Nonverbal Styles	Nonverbal Behaviour	Authors
High Task or Competent	Eye contact, Forward lean, Direct postural orientation, Upright posture, Rapid speech rate, Calm restrained hand gestures	Carli et al., 1993; Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993; Ellyson, Dovidio, & Corson, 1981; Lee & Ofshe, 1981; Ridgeway, 1987;
Low Task or Incompetent	Low eye contact, Low vocal activity, Decreased proximity, Indirect body orientation, Slumped posture	Carli et al., 1993; Ellyson, Dovidio, & Corson, 1981; Lee & Ofshe, 1981
Social	Eye contact, Forward lean, Direct postural orientation, Relaxed posture, Smiling face, Nonintrusive gestures	Carli et al., 1993; Burgoon & Newton, 1991; Hall, 1989; Mehrabian, 2007;
Asocial	Low eye contact, Frown, Indirect body orientation	Carli et al., 1993; Burgoon & Newton, 1991; Hall, 1989
Dominant	Eye contact, Frown, Postural expansion, Tense posture, Backward body lean, Angry facial expression	Carli et al., 1993; Ellyson & Dovidio, 1985; Huang, Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Guillory, 2010; Ridgeway, 1987; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003
Submissive	Low eye contact, Low vocal activity, Posture constriction, Slumped posture, Frequent pauses, Verbal stumbles and hesitations	Keating, 1985; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003

Prior research that categorized nonverbal cues with Osgood's factors has suffered from imprecision (Burgoon et al., 1984). As is evident in Table 3, there are significant overlaps of behaviours across nonverbal style categories. For instance, individuals communicating high task involvement exhibit similar nonverbal behaviours as those conveying high status or dominance. In both categories people engage in high levels of eye contact and direct body orientation (Ridgeway, 1987).

There are several reasons for such overlaps. First, Osgood's dimensions were never intended to be mutually exclusive. In social interactions, verbal and nonverbal messages may

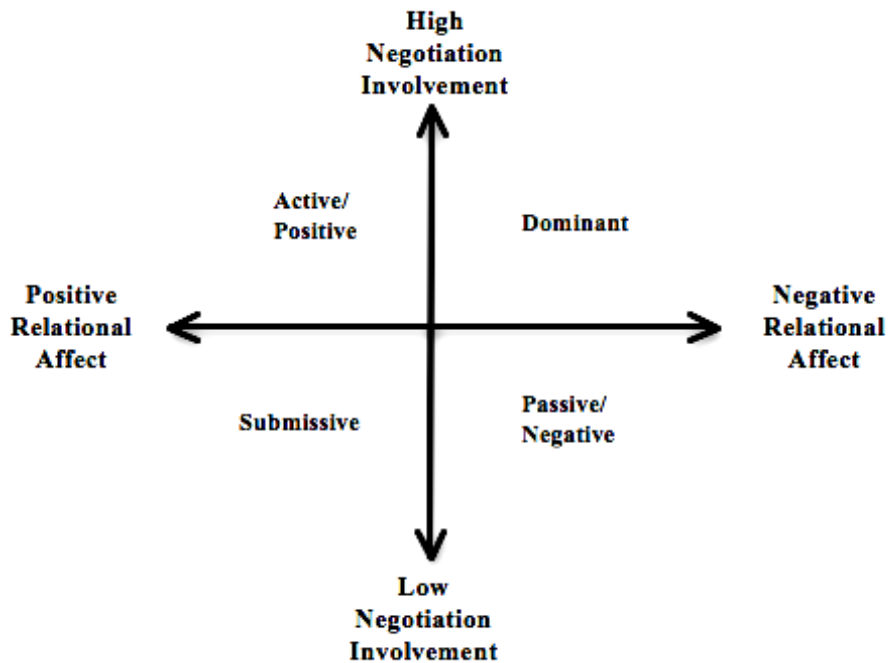
simultaneously convey that we are involved, happy, and powerful. So, a smile may indicate all three forms of meaning. Second, nonverbal cues rarely occur in isolation. When we feel positive affect towards our interlocutor, we may smile, lean forward, and use hands to gesture more than when we feel negatively towards our partner. So, rather than look for a specific meaning attached to a specific nonverbal behaviour, I adopt the Involvement-Affect Model of Relational Messages (Prager, 2000). Using this model I make predictions about nonverbal behaviours associated with a negotiator's approach, which I define according to level of involvement and relational affect.

Involvement-Affective Model of Relational Messages

According to Prager's (2000) theorizing, nonverbal messages reflect two fundamental characteristics of a relationship: *involvement* and *affect* (see Figure 1). Combinations of these produce various messages (Anderson, Guerrero, & Jones, 2006). The involvement dimension captures the degree to which a person is engaged and involved in a conversation, while the affect dimension reflects the extent to which a person experiences positive versus negative affect toward their counterpart. Nonverbal behaviours exhibited in conditions of high involvement are characterized as *affiliative-intimate* when accompanied with positive affect, and *dominant-aggressive* when accompanied by negative affect. In contrast, nonverbal cues in conditions of low involvement combined with positive affect suggest *social politeness*, and *avoidance-withdraw* when accompanied by negative affect.

Figure 1

Negotiation Involvement-Relational Affect Dimensions



Based on the preceding claims, I predict that passive, negative, and submissive negotiation approaches (lower half of figure) will encompass nonverbal cues associated with un-involvement. Active, positive, and dominant approaches (upper half of figure) will include nonverbal behaviours communicating involvement. On the other hand, active, positive, and submissive approaches (left portion of figure) will include nonverbal behaviours associated with positive affect. Passive, negative, and dominant approaches (right portion of figure) will include nonlinguistic cues communicating negative affect.

Hence, active and positive approaches both show a high level of involvement and positive affect, with a positive approach having a higher level of positive affect. Passive and

negative approaches illustrate a low level of involvement and negative affect, with a negative approach having a higher level of negative affect. A dominant approach encompasses high involvement and negative affect, while a submissive approach includes low involvement and positive affect.

From the involvement-affect model and semantic differentials, I propose four negotiation approaches that convey a negotiator's attitudes, motivation, and goals (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). These approaches are *passive* versus *active negotiation involvement*, the extent to which negotiators are involved or un-involved in the negotiation task, and *negative* versus *positive relational affect*, which reflect the extent to which negotiators feel positive or negative affect towards their counterpart (see Figure 1). In my dissertation, I examine the nonverbal behaviors that Chinese and Canadian negotiators exhibit when conveying these approaches.

Nonverbal Behaviour and Negotiation Outcome

Aside from examining the display and function of nonverbal behavior in Chinese and Canadian negotiations, I also explore the effects of nonverbal cues on economic and relational outcomes. Negotiation is a social process that involves two or more individuals engaging in interdependent decision-making to resolve issues or conflicts of interests and goals (Bazerman, Curhan, Moore, & Valley, 2000). Negotiation researchers often test the causal direction of various factors, most commonly goals, strategies, and behaviours on economic and relational or subjective outcomes (Thompson & Hastie, 1990; Weingart, Thompson, Bazerman, & Carroll, 1990).

Economic outcomes reflect the distribution of resources and the monetary outcome of a negotiator. Individual gains reflect the total economic value obtained by a single negotiator. Joint

gains are the sum of the negotiators' outcomes or the total value of agreement to both parties. In negotiation research, joint gains are the primary and classic criterion for evaluating the efficiency of economic outcomes (Luce & Raiffa, 1957). Joint gains are valuable for more than economic reasons. They can increase negotiators' satisfaction and willingness to implement the agreement (Curhan et al., 2006).

Subjective or psychologically valued outcomes reflect how a negotiator feels after the negotiation interaction (Curhan et al., 2006). These social psychological outcomes reveal the attitudes and perceptions of the negotiation parties. Similarly, nonlinguistic communication is also a reflection of a person's inner feelings and the nature of relationships (Burgoon et al., 1984; Mehrabian, 2007). Not surprisingly, in interpersonal interactions, nonverbal communication is predictive of social outcomes such as marital satisfaction and likelihood of divorce (Gottman et al., 1998).

Nonverbal behaviours have been shown to predict negotiation outcomes. Nonverbal behaviours can influence relationship development and trust which can subsequently impact information sharing, the main precursor to an integrative or optimal negotiation outcome (Maddux et al., 2008). As a result, I expect nonverbal expressions to influence both economic and relational outcomes in negotiations. However, because high context cultures place more emphasis on indirect, nonverbal communication than low context cultures (Hall, 1989), I expect the effect of nonverbal expressions on negotiation outcomes will depend on a negotiator's culture.

As previously mentioned, China is a high context culture. Chinese individuals are dependent on context when conveying and interpreting meaning in communicated messages (Adair et al., 2009; Buchan, Adair, & Chen, 2010). In contrast, Canada is a low context culture.

The meaning of communicated messages is evident from the verbal content, independent of the context (Hall, 1989). Even though low context individuals display overt nonverbal behaviours, more weight is given to the verbal content. So, it is plausible that nonverbal expressions in high context cultures will be more impactful and meaningful than in low context cultures. Thus, I predict that while Chinese negotiators may be more subtle and indirect in their nonverbal expressions, the impact of these behaviours on outcomes will be more pronounced among Chinese than Canadian negotiators.

Nonverbal Predictions in Cross-Cultural Negotiation

Table 4 summarizes the hypotheses I test in my research program. Based on cultural differences in the level of dependence on contextual cues, I predict that Chinese negotiators will suppress emotion, and will exhibit restrained and subtle nonverbal behaviours. In contrast, Canadian negotiators will exhibit overt nonverbal cues. Given the cultural differences in relational versus task-focused orientation at work (Sanchez-Burks, 2002), I predict cultural differences in nonverbal displays moderated by negotiation approach, i.e., level of involvement in the negotiation task and the relational affect toward a counterpart (Prager, 2000; Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013).

Nonverbal expression can convey active and passive involvement. North Americans are more likely than East Asians to express (Ambady et al., 1996) and attend to task-related nonverbal cues at work (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003). Thus, I expect nonverbal behaviours to be more prevalent for Canadian than Chinese negotiators when they embody a task-focused negotiation approach (i.e., active or passive task involvement) rather than a relational-focused negotiation approach. East Asians are more likely than North Americans to express (Ambady et

al., 1996) and attend to relational cues at work (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003). Thus, I predict nonverbal behaviours to be more prevalent for Chinese than Canadian negotiators when they embody a relational negotiation approach (i.e., positive or negative) than a task-focused negotiation approach.

Finally, given that Canada is a low context culture and China is a high context culture, I expect that the nonverbal expressions of Chinese negotiators will have a stronger impact on their outcome, compared to the nonverbal expressions of Canadian negotiators.

Table 4

General Predictions and Hypotheses

Predictions	Theory
Canadian negotiators will engage in overt nonverbal expressions	Low-High Context Communication
Chinese negotiators will engage in subtle and restrained nonverbal expressions	Low-High Context Communication
Canadian negotiators will vary nonverbal behaviours as a function of negotiation involvement, than relational affect	PRI and Task orientation at work
Chinese negotiators will vary nonverbal behaviours as a function of relational affect, than negotiation involvement	PRI and Relational orientation at work
Nonverbal displays of Chinese negotiators will have a stronger impact on their outcomes than the nonverbal displays of Canadian negotiators	Low-High Context Communication

CHAPTER 3

TWO STUDIES EXAMINING NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

IN CANADIAN AND CHINESE NEGOTIATIONS

Study 1: Display of Dominant Behaviours

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine two important points: 1) whether Chinese negotiators' nonverbal expressions reflect their relational, high context orientation, and 2) whether the subtle and indirect displays of nonverbal behaviours of Chinese negotiators will be more impactful in predicting their negotiation outcomes than for Canadian negotiators. As discussed in the previous chapter, cultural differences in values and norms are manifested in the style of communication (Hall, 1989), nonverbal display rules (Matsumoto, 1990), and conflict management styles (Tjosvold & Sun, 2002). In Eastern regions people tend to be relational oriented at work and engage in high context communication, while people in Western regions tend to be task oriented at work and engage in low context communication.

In this study I examine how Chinese negotiators express dominance nonverbally, and how such expressions are different from Canadian negotiators. Drawing from existing literature on culture, gender, communication, and display rules I predicted both culture and gender variation in negotiators' display of three nonverbal behaviours typically associated with dominance: relaxed posture, use of space, and facial display of negative emotion. Because the relational orientation of East Asians motivates them to employ indirect communication style with restricted facial expression and body movement (Ekman & Freisen, 1971), I expected Chinese negotiators to express dominance in a subtle and indirect manner. This subtle display of dominance can convey power without disrupting the relational harmony. Because North

Americans are more task oriented, less concerned with social relationships, and express themselves in a direct manner, I expected Canadian negotiators to convey dominance through overt nonverbal cues.

Nonverbal Display of Dominance in Negotiation

Dominance is an action tendency that stems from emotion and involves asserting power over one's counterpart (Davitz, 2013; Ulijn et al., 2005). A dominant action tendency is associated with competitive negotiation approach. This is characterized by high concern for the self and a low concern for one's partner (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Feelings of power and negative emotion may also prompt negotiators to display dominance (Butt & Choi, 2010; Ulijn et al., 2005). In the realm of nonverbal communication, behaviours that signify dominance include a relaxed posture, for example sitting back in one's chair, use of space, for example spreading one's work out all over the table, and the expression of negative emotion such as anger (Mehrabian, 2007; Remland, 2009).

Models of conflict management and negotiation styles typically include a cooperative/competitive dichotomy (Lax & Sebenius, 1986). These models distinguish five strategic approaches of accommodating, avoiding, competing, compromising, and integrating (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). In the "competing style" (high self-concern and low other-concern), a negotiator is assertive, dominant, and uncooperative (Kirkbride, Tang, & Westwood, 1991). This style is typically measured by such verbal strategies and behaviours as demands, threats, and aggression (De Dreu et al., 2000; Pruitt, 1991). However, negotiation researchers have yet to examine nonverbal behaviours that display dominance or a competitive stance.

In addition to competitive goals, interpersonal processes and emotion may elicit dominant displays by negotiators. Negotiators are likely to reciprocate distributive tactics and negative emotion (Brett et al., 1998; Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2004). So, negotiators who face a competitive partner or experience negative affect may consciously or subconsciously reciprocate or mirror their partner's displays of dominance (Thompson, Nadler, & Kim, 1999). Models of emotion in negotiation also note that negative affect resulting from goal conflict or unmet expectations may elicit dominant action tendencies in negotiators (Barry & Oliver, 1996; Butt, Choi, & Jaeger, 2005). Dominance is generally associated with being forceful, assertive, and expressive (Burgoon & Dunbar, 2000; Manusov, 2014), the nonverbal display of which includes the use of space, relaxed posture, and emotion expressiveness, especially negative emotions (Mehrabian, 2007; Remland, 2009).

Nonverbal Behaviours Conveying Dominance

Space. According to Remland (2009), powerful and dominant individuals tend to have more access to space and larger territories. Previous studies illustrate that when people expand themselves by occupying space, they are perceived as dominant, and postural expansion is more likely to occur amongst high status individuals (Aries, Gold, & Weigel, 1983; Mehrabian, 2007; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). Space is thus associated with a visible indication of status and power. Occupying space through body expansion can be achieved by moving one's limbs (arms and legs) away from oneself (Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). Hence, dominance may be expressed by occupying more physical space, by sitting in open body positions, and by using expansive gestures (Manusov & Patterson, 2006).

Relaxed Posture. Interestingly, another indicator of dominance is the ability to be relaxed and poised (Manusov & Patterson, 2006). Dominant personality dispositions have been shown to correlate with relaxed behaviour, and dominant communicators tend to exhibit a relaxed, yet confident guise (Manusov, 2014; Mehrabian, 2007). In general, high status is associated with a relaxed, easy-going demeanour because a person who feels powerful is confident and more able to be relaxed in social interactions (Manusov & Patterson, 2006; Remland, 2009). Nonverbal cues associated with the confident side of dominance include relaxed and expansive postures (Manusov & Patterson, 2006; Mehrabian, 2007; Remland, 2009). According to Mehrabian (1972), superiors are more likely to lean back in the chair, use an open-arms position, stretch out, and place their arms and legs in relaxed positions (Remland, 2009).

Negative Emotion. A third nonverbal indicator of dominance is the expression of emotion, particularly negative emotion such as anger. Individuals with power and status have a tendency to disregard display rules and so, they may be more visibly expressive than those of lower status (Remland, 2009). They may exhibit dominance by yelling, frowning, staring angrily, not joining in laughter, and engaging in other emotional expressiveness (Remland, 2009). A person expressing anger is thought to be dominant, competent, smart, and persuasive (Gallois, 1993). Tiedens (2001) likewise reported that the expression of anger led to status conferral and maintenance of status.¹ This prior research suggests that the display of negative emotion on one's face is a nonverbal cue often associated with dominance.

¹ I recognize that a negotiator's nonverbal display of dominance may have multiple antecedents, including self-emotions, partner emotions, partner behaviours and strategic intent (Barry & Oliver, 1996; Butt et al., 2005; Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006); as well as consequences, including reciprocal dominance, yielding, and a conflict spiral (Brett et al., 1998; Butt et al., 2005; Van Kleef et al., 2004). However, as the current study examines culture and gender as predictors of negotiators' nonverbal displays of dominance, I reserve a look at the role of emotion in predicting nonverbal displays for future studies.

As noted previously, all negotiations inherently include some element of competition. Even negotiators with cooperative motives and a concern for the other party typically still want to get a good deal for themselves (Lax & Sebenius, 1991). Thus, I expect all negotiators to display some form of dominance by occupying space, using expansive gestures, engaging in relaxed postures, and displaying negative emotions. Yet, I argue that the level and form of dominant nonverbals vary depending on a negotiator's culture and gender.

Culture and the Display of Dominant Behaviours in Negotiation

There are two reasons why I expect cultural differences in the display of dominant behaviours. First, compared to North Americans, East Asians tend to have a cooperative relational orientation when dealing with in-groups (Morris, Williams, Leung, Larrick, Mendoza, Bhatnagar, & Hu, 1998). Second, North Americans are more likely to vary their posture and display emotion compared to East Asians, who restrain their posture, and mask the display of negative emotion (Kudoh & Matsumoto, 1985; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001). While this study will compare samples of Canadian and Chinese negotiators, my literature review will cover research addressing North American and East Asian cultures more generally.

Culture and Competitive Behaviour in Negotiation

In a conflict setting, East Asians tend to be more cooperative with in-groups compared to North Americans (Wade-Benzoni, Okumura, Brett, Moore, Tenbrunsel, & Bazerman, 2002). These cultural differences in conflict management styles have been explained by Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimension of I-C (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). In individualist cultures (e.g., Canada), autonomy, independence, and self-assertion is promoted, while in collectivist cultures (e.g., China), interdependence, social obligation, and relationship harmony is promoted (Butler,

Lee, & Gross, 2007). According to Triandis (1972), compared to collectivists, individualists tend to give preference to their individual goals over group goals. Thus, cooperative behaviour tends to be stronger amongst collectivists when interacting with an in-group, than individualists. In fact, several studies illustrate that compared to U.S. Americans; Japanese tend to be more cooperative and are likely to adopt an equal allocation distribution strategy when interacting with ingroup members (Wade-Benzoni et al., 2002).²

Given that for ingroup interactions individualists are more self-interested and less cooperative than collectivists, they may employ more dominating conflict strategies (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). In a study by Ohbuchi and colleagues (1999), U.S. American students preferred direct confrontation to avoidance in a conflict situation. Moreover, dominating styles are positively associated with independence, while avoiding, and compromising styles are positively linked with interdependence (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). So, I expect that compared to East Asians, North American negotiators will be more competitive in intracultural negotiations, thus, engage in more dominant behaviours.

Culture and Dominant Nonverbal Behaviour in Negotiation

I also expect cultural differences in negotiators' display of dominant behaviours because people's body postures and gestures are influenced by their culture (Kleinsmith, De Silva, & Berthouze, 2006; Matsumoto & Kudoh, 1987). Compared to North Americans, Japanese individuals tend to use more restrained gestures in emotional situations. In communicating

² Please note that in some contexts (e.g., buyer-seller bargaining), Chinese negotiators have a more competitive bargaining style than North Americans since counterparts are viewed as an out-group (Lee, 2000). This bargaining style is however not applicable in this study since our negotiation simulation did not involve a buyer and seller. Instead, participants were asked to negotiate about different issues pertaining to opening a catering business.

interpersonal positiveness (affiliation and liking), Kudoh and Matsumoto (1985) found that compared to Americans who leaned forward, Japanese participants displayed more restrained postures by straightening their backs. Bond and Shiraishi (1974) also reported that compared to Westerners, the Japanese display far fewer gestures and use more simple postures. Accordingly, I expect North American negotiators to take up more physical space and display more relaxed postures than East Asian negotiators, who will exhibit more rigid and reserved postures.

Culture also affects the extent to which people display facial expressions. Western European cultural values, such as independence and self-assertion, promote open emotion expression (Butler et al., 2007). East Asian cultural values, such as interdependence and relationship harmony, promote emotion suppression, the active reduction of emotion expressive behaviour during emotional arousal (Gross & Levenson, 1993, 1997). Previous studies illustrate that collectivists attenuate negative emotions and mask those emotions with smiles (Gross & John, 1998; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001). In a study examining emotional expression in four cultures, Matsumoto and colleagues (1998) found that U.S. Americans scored significantly lower on controlling their expressions than Koreans and Japanese.³ Provided that East Asians are more reserved and mask their negative emotions, I expect that compared to North Americans, East Asians will display fewer negative emotions.

Hypothesis 1: Canadian negotiators will engage in more dominant nonverbal behaviours than Chinese negotiators. Canadians will use more physical space (H1a), exhibit more

³ Please note that these studies do not focus on the feelings that elicit emotional expression, but rather on cultural variation in display rules that encourage or inhibit the expression of emotion in general. An examination of the feelings that elicit emotional expression in various cultural contexts is beyond the scope of the current study.

relaxed postures (H1b), and express more negative emotion (H1c) than Chinese negotiators.

Gender Differences in Dominant Nonverbal Behaviours

Aside from the display of nonverbal cues varying across cultures, nonverbal behaviours also vary across genders (Frances, 1979). Gender refers to the psychological and behavioural characteristics cultures have developed based on sex differences (Matsumoto & Juang, 2012). Gender roles refer to the degree to which a person adopts the gender specific behaviours ascribed by his or her culture (Matsumoto & Juang, 2012). Based on gender role stereotypes, men are viewed as dominant, aggressive, and extroverted, whereas females are viewed as nurturing, adaptive, and agreeable (Eagly & Crowley, 1986).

The masculinity-femininity domain of cultural variability proposed by Hofstede (1984) captures the extent to which a culture promotes gender roles and fosters differences between males and females. In masculine cultures gender roles are distinct; men should be concerned with ego enhancement by being tough and assertive, while women should strive for ego-effacing by being tender and modest (Hofstede, 1984). In feminine cultures gender roles overlap; both men and women are encouraged to be modest and oriented toward quality of life (Hofstede, 1984). Hence, compared to masculine cultures, feminine cultures promote flexible sex-role behaviours.

Some East Asian countries like Japan, China, and Philippines score higher on the masculinity dimension compared to Canada and some Western countries (Hofstede, 1984; Matsumoto & Juang, 2012). In these East Asian countries, females are encouraged to be passive, carry out domestic duties, raise children, and be “good” daughters-in-law. Men are raised to be

aloof, unemotional, and authoritative (Sue, 1998). In contrast, Western countries such as the Netherlands, Germany, and Finland, have less differentiation between males and females on various psychological characteristics, and gender differences within the country are relatively small (Williams & Best, 1990). Given that China has a masculinity index of 66 and Canada has a masculinity index of 52 (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), I expect to observe higher gender role differences amongst the Chinese than Canadians.

In summary, because dominant behaviour is more characteristic of males than females, and gender role distinctions should be more prevalent in China than Canada, I predict that male negotiators will display more dominant nonverbal behaviour than females, and this gender difference will be larger for Chinese negotiators than Canadian negotiators.

Hypothesis 2: Male negotiators will display more dominant nonverbal behaviours than female negotiators (H2a) and this difference will be greater for Chinese negotiators than for Canadian negotiators (H2b).

Dominant Nonverbal Behaviours and Negotiation Outcome

As previously mentioned, negotiators employing a competing style tend to be more dominant and assertive. These negotiators tend to be highly concerned with their own outcome in a conflict, and are motivated to win or defeat their opponent (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974; Walters, Stuhlmacher, & Meyer, 1998). Negotiators with this style typically make large demands and use distributive tactics (Walters et al., 1998). These negotiators may assume that their opponent has opposite interests and preferences, blinding them to common interests and potential value creation opportunities (De Drué et al., 2000; Pinkley, Griffith, & Northcraft, 1995). This in effect

may result in fewer integrative agreements and lower joint gains (Carnevale, Pruitt, & Seilheimer, 1981).

Because individualists tend to engage in direct confrontation of conflict, and employ more dominating conflict tactics than collectivists (Ohbuchi et al., 1999; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003), I expect North American negotiators to display more dominant behaviours, which will consequently lower their joint gains. Also, given that dominance tends to be associated with males rather than females, and that the promotion of sex-role stereotypes is higher in China than Canada, I expect males to display more dominant behaviours than females, which will explain their lower joint gains. In other words, I predict that dominant nonverbal behaviour will mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and joint gains such that more dominant nonverbal behaviours will lead to lower joint gains.

When power is unbalanced, negotiators with more power tend to gain more profits, make fewer concessions, and be more satisfied with the negotiation process and outcomes (Dwyer & Walker 1981; Ganesan, 1993; McAlister, Bazerman, & Fader 1986; Neslin & Greenhalgh 1983). So, dominance is positively related to individual outcome (Bottger, 1984; Butt et al., 2005; Littlepage, Schmidt, Whisler, & Frost, 1995). Van Kleef and colleagues illustrate one possible mechanism for the higher individual gain. In a computer-mediated negotiation task, they found that participants were more likely to engage in cooperative behaviour and concede when faced with an angry opponent (opponent exhibiting dominance) (Van Kleef, et al., 2004). Thus, dominant behaviours should mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and individual gain, where higher displays of dominant nonverbal cues should lead to higher individual gain.

Hypothesis 3: Dominant nonverbal behaviours will mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and negotiation outcome. The relationship with joint gains will be inversely related, such that the higher the dominant behaviour, the lower the joint gains (H3a).

Dominant nonverbal behaviours will also mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and individual gain and this relationship will be positive. The higher the dominant behaviour, the higher the individual gain (H3b).

Considering the prevalence of fixed-pie bias, whereby parties assume negotiations are distributive, many negotiators believe that negotiation is mostly about competition (Bazerman & Neale, 1986). When these negotiators display dominant behaviour that matches their competitive negotiation schema, they should experience satisfaction because they are enacting a consistent negotiation script. According to previous research, people like to behave in ways that are consistent with their beliefs (Aronson, 1968; Greenwald & Ronis, 1978). When people experience inconsistency between their behaviour and cognition, they experience cognitive dissonance, in which a person feels tension and discomfort (Festinger, 1957). If negotiators believe that negotiation is competitive, they may behave more dominantly to be consistent with their cognitions. This in turn may increase their satisfaction with the negotiation process. Thus, I predict that dominant behaviour will mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and negotiator satisfaction such that dominant behaviours will lead to greater negotiator satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Dominant nonverbal behaviours will mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and negotiator satisfaction such that negotiators who display more dominant nonverbal behaviour will report more satisfaction with the negotiation process.

Method

Participants

All East Asian participants were Chinese, and all North American participants were Canadian-Caucasians. Eighty-two Chinese (44 females and 38 males)⁴ and eighty-four Canadian (42 females and 42 males) undergraduate students from a Canadian University participated in a study on “Decision Making”, in exchange for 1 course participation credit or \$10. All Chinese students were born in China, Hong Kong, or Taiwan, had been in Canada for less than ten years, and identified primarily with the Chinese culture⁵. When asked with what culture they identified most (1= Chinese, 2= Canadian), Chinese participants reported strong identification with the Chinese culture ($M= 1.05$, $SD= .23$) and Canadian participants reported strong identification with the Canadian culture ($M= 1.99$, $SD= .11$).

Design

The study employed a 2 x 2 factorial design with two levels of culture (Canadian/Chinese) and two levels of gender (male/female). Participants engaged in a dyadic intracultural negotiation and were assigned a partner of their own gender.

Procedure

Participants arrived in pairs at the laboratory and were seated at a table across from each other. Participants were presented with confidential role instructions for “At Your Service,” a

⁴ Chinese participants who identified with the Canadian culture (N=5) were excluded from the data analysis.

⁵ Although there are some differences in values and practices amongst sub-regions of Greater China (e.g., People’s Republic of China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan) (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004), such as propensity to initiate negotiation (Volkema, 2011), I expect similar displays of dominant nonverbal behaviours amongst members of these regions, since prior research illustrate that East Asians (from various regions) are more likely to restrain their posture, and mask the display of negative emotion compared to North Americans (Kudoh & Matsumoto, 1985).

negotiation case involving a chef and an entrepreneur negotiating about opening a new catering business (Brett & Gelfand, 2008). Participants were given 15 minutes to prepare individually, and were informed that their goal was to maximize their own points and reach agreement on all issues (see Appendix A). Participants were randomly assigned to the role of a chef or entrepreneur and were given details of their role, position, goals and the negotiation interaction. Each participant was presented with information on four issues that they needed to negotiate. The four issues included each party's capital investment, the space they would rent, the van they would rent, and the quality equipment kitchen equipment they would lease. Within each issue, there were multiple alternatives and a corresponding point value representation of preferences.

Participants were not provided with a negotiation deadline; however dyads that spent more than 30 minutes were instructed to end the negotiation within 5 minutes. Once an agreement was reached, both parties recorded their agreement and calculated their individual and joint gains. Then, participants individually completed surveys measuring satisfaction and demographics. The negotiation sessions were videotaped without the awareness of participants because knowledge of the video cameras might have affected nonverbal behaviour displays. Upon the completion of the study, all participants were thanked, compensated, and debriefed about the purpose of the study and were informed of the video recording. Participants were then asked to read and sign a second consent form allowing researchers to examine the video recordings.

Dependent Measures

Dominant Behaviours. I tested dominant nonverbal behaviours as dependent measures. I created these measures by coding videos of the negotiation interaction. Seven independent

research assistants of East Asian and North American cultural backgrounds were trained to reliably identify all the behaviours examined in this study. Research assistants viewed videotapes randomly and practiced applying the coding scheme (see Appendix B). They were given two practice sessions at a time until an acceptable inter-rater reliability was reached. The average reliabilities for the dominant nonverbal behaviors were: use of space $r(121) = .72, p < .01$, relaxed posture $r(121) = .70, p < .01$, and negative emotion $r(121) = .86, p < .01$. Then, pairs of coders independently coded each session. The coding procedure was adapted from prior research that coded communication in negotiation (e.g., Weingart, Hyder, & Prietula, 1996). Coders recorded and rated the frequency for dominant nonverbal behaviors for each session. The average rating of the two coders was used as a measure for the dominant behaviors in each session.

Raters watched each session three times without volume. The first time they were asked to get an overall impression of the interaction. The second and third time, coders were asked to focus on one participant at a time and examine that negotiator's nonverbal cues. To measure negotiators' relaxed posture, I summed frequency counts of "leaning sideways" and "leaning back", where negotiators leaned against their chair in a relaxed manner (adapted from Aune, 2005). To measure space, coders made judgments on a 5-point rating scale (1= behaviour did not occur; 5= behaviour was displayed very often).⁶ To capture the extent to which negotiators used

⁶ Though I recognize that the meaning of nonverbal behaviour is often tied to verbal speech (Guerrero, 1996), our approach is to objectively measure the display of dominant nonverbal cues without interpreting the meaning of the behaviour. A more subjective approach, where observers make inferences about the intentions of negotiators' behaviours or negotiators themselves interpret their behaviours is discussed below under future directions (Burgoon & Dunbar, 2000; Manusov, 2014).

physical space, I averaged coders' ratings of each negotiator's "usage of space", "hands on table", and "movement of hands" (adapted from Guerrero, 2005).

For display of negative emotion, I asked coders to rate how often negotiators displayed all of the negative emotions included in the widely used PANAS scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Prior researchers have categorized negative emotions into self-induced (e.g., shame, regret) and other induced (e.g., anger, outrage) categories (Butt et al., 2005). The self-induced negative emotions on the PANAS scale are less easily associated with dominance (e.g., scared, nervous, ashamed, and sad). However, our original coding scheme did not allow us to separate out these negative emotions from the other-induced emotions that are more closely associated with dominance. Thus, I later asked coders to recall the overall display of anger, disgust, irritability, and hostility versus all other PANAS negative emotions in all the videos they coded. Overall, coders reported observing more negative emotions communicating dominance (e.g., anger, disgust, irritable, and hostile) ($M= 1.8, SD= .40$), compared to the other negative emotions (e.g., scared, nervous, ashamed, and sad), ($M= 1.5, SD= .40, t(6)= 2.29, p= .06$).

Negotiation Outcomes. The objective negotiation outcomes, individual and joint gains, were dependent measures. Individual gain was computed by adding the points a negotiator received for each issue according to the settlement contract. For joint gains, I added the individual gains for both parties in each dyad. Participants' satisfaction with negotiation was measured using the Subjective Value Inventory (SVI) questionnaire (Curhan et al., 2006). SVI taps into four components of negotiation satisfaction: feelings about the instrumental outcome, feelings about the self, feelings about the process, and feelings about the relationship. I utilized the subscale for satisfaction with negotiation process.

Results

Cultural Comparison of Dominant Nonverbal Behaviours

Hypothesis 1. I predicted that Canadian negotiators would exhibit more dominant nonverbal behaviours than Chinese negotiators. I conducted univariate general linear model analyses to examine main effects of culture on the dominant nonverbal behaviours (see Table 5) as well as culture by gender interactions. Because some of our measures were frequency counts, I controlled for time spent negotiating, because negotiators who spent longer time negotiating would have had more opportunity to display nonverbal cues.

Table 5

Mean Scores of Dominant Behaviours across Culture

Nonverbal Behaviours	Chinese		Canadian	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>
Use of Space *	3.37*	.05	3.23*	.05
Relaxed Posture	4.58	.65	5.50	.64
Negative Emotion *	1.39*	.06	1.64*	.06

† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Results indicate that the use of space was higher for the Chinese participants ($M= 3.37$, $SE= .05$) than Canadian participants ($M= 3.23$, $SE= .05$), $F(1, 161)= 4.12$, $p < .05$, a finding that was the opposite of our prediction (H1a). There were no significant cultural differences in relaxed postures $F(1, 161)= .97$, so H1b was also not supported. However, Canadian negotiators displayed more negative emotion ($M= 1.64$, $SE= .06$) than Chinese negotiators ($M=1.39$, $SE= .06$), $F(1, 161)= 9$, $p < .05$, supporting the final prediction here (H1c).

Hypothesis 2. I predicted that male negotiators of both Canadian and Chinese cultures would exhibit more dominant nonverbal behaviours than female negotiators, and this would be particularly evident for Chinese negotiators. To test this claim, I examined the main effects of gender, culture (reported in hypothesis 1), and the interaction between gender and culture. I did not find a significant main effect of gender on any of the nonverbal measures: use of space $F(1, 163) = .05$, relaxed posture $F(1, 163) = .01$, $p > .05$, or negative emotion $F(1, 163) = .82$, $p > .05$. Thus, contrary to H2a, male negotiators in general did not engage in more dominant behaviours compared to female negotiators.

Table 6

Culture by Gender Interaction

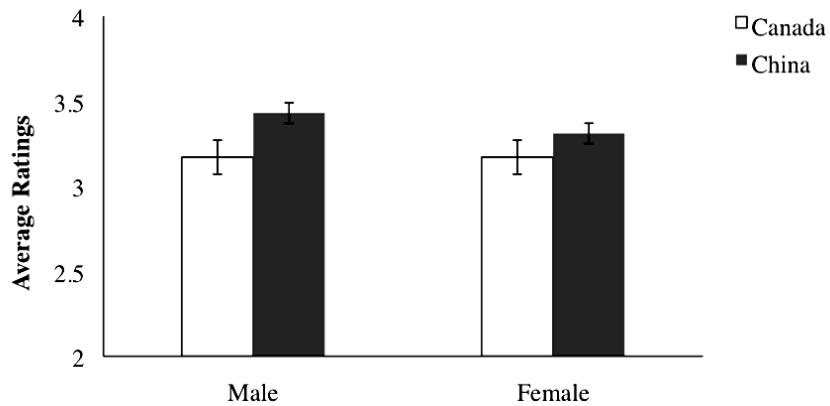
Nonverbal Behaviours	Male		Female	
	Chinese <i>M (SE)</i>	Canadian <i>M (SE)</i>	Chinese <i>M (SE)</i>	Canadian <i>M (SE)</i>
Use of Space †	3.43 (.07)	3.17 (.07)	3.31 (.07)	3.28 (.07)
Relaxed Posture *	3.54 (1.00)	6.41 (.90)	5.62 (.90)	4.59 (.92)
Negative Emotion	1.29 (.08)	1.64 (.08)	1.5 (.08)	1.63 (.08)

† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

H2b received partial support (Table 6). I did not find a significant interaction on the expression of negative emotion. Yet, I found a marginally significant Culture X Gender interaction for use of space $F(1, 161) = 2.84$, $p = .09$. Chinese males used space the most, while Canadian males used space the least (Figure 2). The use of space used by females did not vary across culture.

Figure 2

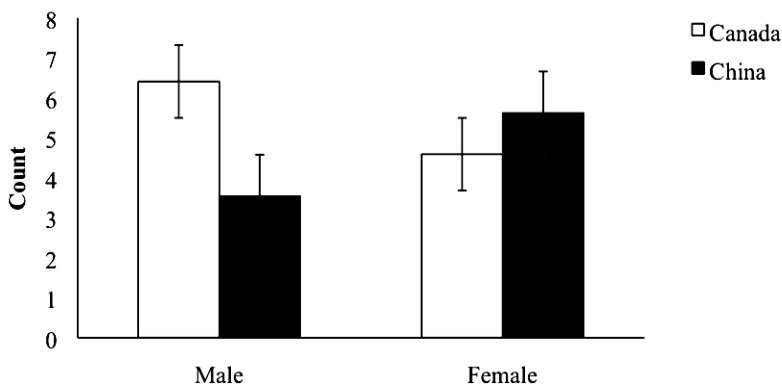
Culture by Gender Interaction for Use of Space



A significant interaction also emerged for relaxed postures $F(1, 161)= 4.79, p < .05$. Again, the extent to which female negotiators exhibited relaxed posture was not significant across culture. However, Chinese male negotiators scored the lowest on relaxed posture whereas Canadian males scored the highest on this category.

Figure 3

Culture by Gender Interaction for Relaxed Posture



The figures illustrate that Chinese men scored highest in use of space ($M= 3.43, SE= .07$), while Canadian men scored the lowest ($M= 3.17, SE= .07$). Also, where Canadian men varied

their posture the most ($M= 6.41$, $SE= .90$), Chinese men varied their posture the least ($M= 3.54$, $SE= 1.00$). The scores of Canadian and Chinese women on these dimensions was fairly similar (Can $M= 4.59$, $SE= .92$), (Chin $M= 5.62$, $SE= .90$), and it was not always less than the male negotiators.

Dominant Behaviours Predicting Negotiation Outcomes

To test whether the effects of culture and gender on joint gains and negotiation satisfaction were mediated by dominant nonverbal behaviours, I conducted a series of regressions using Hayes (2013) PROCESS macro version 2.13 for SPSS. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for each of 1000 bootstrapped samples, and the 95% confidence interval was computed by determining the indirect effects at the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles. Culture and gender was each dummy coded (0, 1) because they were categorical predictor variables. I transformed the nonverbal behaviour scores prior to conducting mediation analysis to control for the fact that some dyads spent more time negotiating than others.

For frequency count of nonverbal behaviours, I divided each individual's total count by the number of minutes the dyad negotiated, resulting in a proportion score capturing behaviours per minute (Adair et al., 2001). Negative emotion was rated on a 1-5 scale, which I also transformed using the number of minutes spent negotiating. I used this transformation because I wanted to weight negative emotion more heavily for dyads that spent less time negotiating. Research on negotiation and time shows that negotiators are likely to posture and compete early on, which is offset by later cooperative behaviours (Pruitt, 1981; Putnam & Jones, 1982). If negotiators only spent 10 minutes negotiating, rather than the maximum of 30 minutes, the

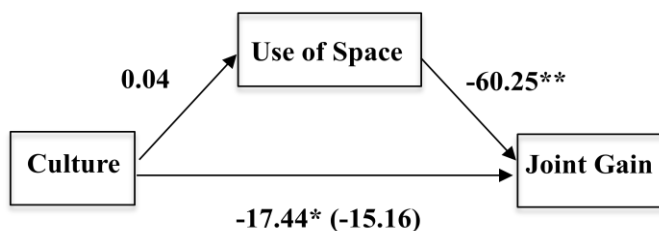
expression of negative emotion should have a stronger effect than if negotiations lasted longer and reached the cooperative stages.

Hypothesis 3. H3a predicted that dominant behaviours would mediate the relationship between culture, gender and joint gains such that the more dominant behaviour is displayed, the lower the joint gains. H3b predicted a positive relationship such that the more a negotiator employs dominant behaviours, the higher his or her negotiation outcome will be. To examine this relationship, I initially ran the PROCESS moderated mediation model 8. For H3a the dyad was the unit of analysis because I examined joint gains. For H3b the individual negotiator was the unit of analysis because I examined individual gains.

H3a. The interaction (Culture x Gender) was not significantly related to joint gains. So, for the remaining mediation analyses, I ran the PROCESS mediation model 4 and included both culture and gender as predictors. I tested whether dominant nonverbal behaviors (use of space, negative emotion and relaxed posture) helped explain the relationship between culture and joint gains. Analyses showed partial support for use of space and full support for negative emotion in predicting joint gains.

Figure 4

Causal Pathway of Culture predicting Joint Gain through Use of Space

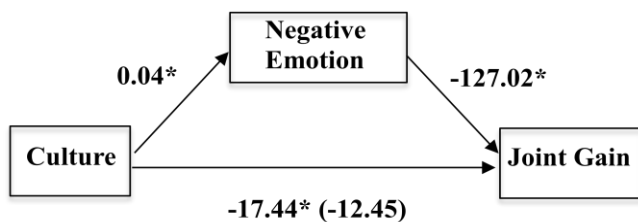


† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

As Figure 4 illustrates, the estimated regression coefficient between culture and use of space was not statistically significant. Yet, the estimated regression coefficient between use of space and joint gain was significant, as was the direct effect of culture on joint gains. Moreover, the direct effect of culture on joint gains was no longer significant with the inclusion of space in the model. This pattern illustrates that Canadians had lower joint gains than Chinese negotiators, and use of space was associated with lower joint gains. I tested the significance of this indirect effect using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was -2.27, and the 95% confidence interval ranged from -31.82, 1.48. Thus, the indirect effect was not statistically significant. Yet the pattern shows support for my prediction, such that use of space does partially explain the relationship between culture and joint gains.

Figure 5

Causal Pathway of Culture predicting Joint Gain through Negative Emotion



† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

I carried out the same mediation analysis to examine whether negative emotion explains the relationship between culture and joint gains. As Figure 5 illustrates, the estimated regression coefficient between culture and negative emotion was statistically significant. Also, the estimated regression coefficient between negative emotion and joint gain was significant, as was the direct effect of culture on joint gains. This pattern illustrates that Canadians had lower joint gains than Chinese negotiators, and negative emotion was associated with lower joint gains. I

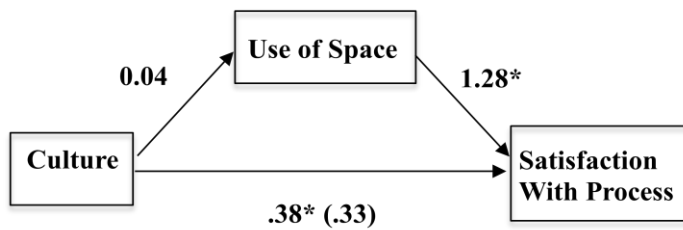
tested the significance of this indirect effect using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was -5.00, and the 95% confidence interval ranged from -16.63, -.52. Thus, the indirect effect was statistically significant, supporting my prediction.

H3b. I conducted similar analysis to test whether dominant nonverbal cues mediated the relationship between culture, gender, and individual gains. Each participant, rather than the dyad, was the unit of analysis, and I controlled for partner's negotiation outcome when examining the relationship of culture, gender, and dominant behaviours with individual gain. Overall, the Culture x Gender interaction was significantly related to individual gain. Analysis showed a negative relationship between Culture x Gender interaction, with an estimated coefficient of -23.00, and individual gain, CI [-43.74, -2.17]. Canadians had lower individual gains than Chinese negotiators, especially Canadian females. I ran a moderated mediation model using PROCESS 8 to examine nonverbal behaviours as mediators. However, none of the dominant behaviours mediated the relationship between culture x gender, and individual gain, thus H3b was not supported.

Hypothesis 4. I predicted that dominant nonverbal cues would mediate the relationship between culture, gender, and satisfaction with negotiation process. As previously mentioned, such subjective outcomes were measured using the Subjective Value Inventory (SVI). I ran the PROCESS mediation model 4 and included both culture and gender as predictors. I tested whether dominant nonverbal behaviors (use of space, negative emotion and relaxed posture) helped explain the relationship between culture and satisfaction with process. Analyses showed partial support for use of space and full support for negative emotion in predicting joint gains.

Figure 6

Causal Pathway of Culture predicting Satisfaction with Process through Use of Space

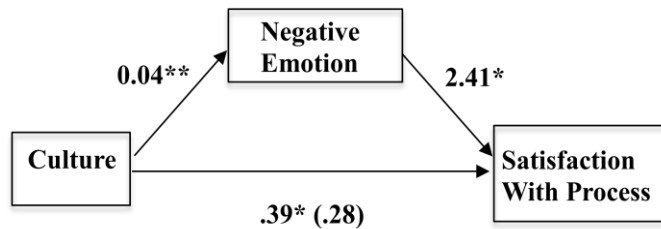


† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

As Figure 6 illustrates, the estimated regression coefficient between culture and use of space was not statistically significant. Yet, the estimated regression coefficient between use of space and satisfaction with process was significant, as was the direct effect of culture on satisfaction with process. Moreover, the direct effect of culture on satisfaction with process was no longer significant with the inclusion of space in the model. This pattern illustrates that Canadians were more satisfied with the than Chinese negotiators, and use of space was associated with higher satisfaction. I tested the significance of this indirect effect using bootstrapping procedures. The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was .06, and the 95% confidence interval ranged from -.01, .25. Thus, the indirect effect was not statistically significant. Yet the pattern shows support for my prediction, such that use of space does partially explain the relationship between culture and satisfaction with process.

Figure 7

Causal Pathway of Culture predicting Satisfaction with Process through Negative Emotion



† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

I carried out the same mediation analysis to examine whether negative emotion explains the relationship between culture and satisfaction with process. As Figure 7 illustrates, the estimated regression coefficient between culture and negative emotion was statistically significant. Also, the estimated regression coefficient between negative emotion and satisfaction with process was significant, as was the direct effect of culture on satisfaction with process. This pattern illustrates that Canadians were more satisfied with the process than Chinese negotiators, and negative emotion was associated with higher satisfaction. I tested the significance of this indirect effect using bootstrapping procedures (Hays, 2013). The bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect was .10, and the 95% confidence interval ranged from .01, .30. Thus, the indirect effect was statistically significant, supporting my prediction.

Discussion

In Study 1 I investigated the effect of culture and gender on intracultural negotiators' display of dominant nonverbal behaviours. I predicted cultural differences because East Asians are more reserved and less competitive than North Americans (Kudoh & Matsumoto, 1985; Morris et al., 1998). I also predicted gender differences because gender role distinctions are

stronger in China than in Canada (Hofstede, 1984; Williams & Best, 1990). I found that compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators tend to engage in subtle and indirect displays of dominance. This may be consistent with their cultural norms for relational orientation and high context communication. Specifically, Canadian negotiators tend to have a relaxed posture and display negative facial expression, while Chinese negotiators tend to use space. These suggest cultural differences in negotiators' tendencies to display dominance cues and offer important implications for research and practical advice to negotiators.

I found that the impact of nonverbal behaviours on outcomes might be stronger for Chinese than Canadian negotiators. Dominant behaviours generated a similar pattern of negotiation outcome for both cultural groups. Yet, Chinese negotiators were able to achieve this through subtle displays of dominance by taking up space. Canadians in contrast were more overt. They openly engaged in the expression of negative emotion. I found that the display of negative emotion significantly mediated the effect of culture on joint gains and satisfaction. I also found that use of space partially mediated the effect of culture on joint gains and satisfaction. So, my study illustrates cultural variation in nonverbal displays of dominance that has implications for negotiation outcome.

My findings on cultural differences in negotiators' nonverbal behaviours are consistent with prior research. Canadians displayed more relaxed posture and negative emotion than Chinese negotiators (Butler et al., 2007; Matsumoto et al., 1998). Also, similar to previous studies (Bond & Shiraishi, 1974; Matsumoto et al., 1998), Chinese negotiators had more restrained and rigid posture and fewer displays of negative emotion than Canadians. I extend prior work by replicating the effects in a negotiation context. I also show that while Chinese

negotiators engage in reserved and rigid body movement, they may convey dominance indirectly by taking up space. Taking up space is a sign of dominance (Remland, 1981). It seems reasonable that if social norms constrain Chinese male negotiators from openly expressing dominance, they may instead reveal it through spreading their things out and taking up space. Similar to Japanese negotiators seating the most senior executive at the head of the table, facing the door (Hodgson, Sano and Graham, 2008), Chinese negotiators may express dominance through the manipulation of their environment, rather than their body.

Prior studies have found that East Asian negotiators use more power tactics than North American negotiators (Adair, Brett, Lempereur, Okumura, Shikhirev, Tinsley, & Lytle, 2004). But North American negotiators tend to have high independence and individualist values that go along with a self-focus and competitive strategy (Brett & Okumura, 1998; Gelfand & Christakopoulou, 1999; Gelfand & McCusker, 2001; Gelfand & Realo, 1999). Thus, both East Asian and North American negotiators are likely to display dominance nonverbally. My study captures how negotiators from Canada and China display dominance in distinct, culturally normative ways.

These results suggest potential areas of miscommunication to be studied further in Canadian-Chinese negotiations. If cross-cultural negotiators display dominance in different ways, negotiators may misinterpret the other party's approach. For example, a Chinese negotiator may associate a Canadian counterpart's relaxed posture as disinterest, or the display of emotion as weakness. The Chinese negotiator may walk away or use a conciliatory strategy when a more effective approach may be reciprocal dominance or yielding (Butt et al., 2005; Van Kleef et al., 2004). There may be a missed opportunity to deflect and redirect dominance, a

strategy advocated by Brett and colleagues (1998), because it was not noticed or was not correctly interpreted.

These results also revealed that male negotiators exhibited the greatest cultural differences. In other words, my results support culture and gender role expectations more for male than female negotiators. One reason why I did not find the behaviours associated with traditional female gender roles (i.e. low expression of dominant behaviours) may be the context of this study. Negotiation tends to be a more male-dominated field. So women who engage in negotiation may try to exhibit masculine, dominant behaviours (Kray, Thompson, & Galinsky, 2001). Also, given that women negotiated with other women, it may have been easy for them to display dominant behaviours, as there may be fewer social risks (e.g., negative reactions in displaying dominant, masculine behaviour by a woman) than negotiating with men (Carli, 1990; Deaux & Major, 1987; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). This may not have been the case if women negotiated with men. Instead, they may have displayed more traditional female role stereotypes.

I found that space and display of negative emotion mediated the relationship between culture and joint gains, with high employment of these behaviours leading to lower the joint gains. Chinese negotiators used more space and Canadian negotiators displayed more negative emotions. So, my data suggest that negative emotion may be associated with dominance for Canadians and use of space may be associated with dominance for Chinese negotiators.⁷ This inference is based on previous literature showing negotiators employing distributive tactics tend to be more competitive and assertive (Walters et al., 1998). Thus, they are more likely to display

⁷ Of course, negative emotion as a nonverbal cue is important for both Chinese and Canadians. However, given cultural differences in display rules, Chinese negotiators are less likely to express negative emotions nonverbally (Butler et al., 2007; Matsumoto et al., 2008) due to loss of face (Graham & Lam, 2003).

dominance in negotiation. However, I did not directly measure interpretation of nonverbal cues in this study. I cannot directly link negotiators' "use of space" to feelings of dominance in China and "negative emotion" to feelings of dominance in Canada.

Negative emotion emerged as significant mediator between culture and satisfaction with the negotiation process. Use of space showed the same pattern with partial mediation. My logic behind this relationship was based on past literature indicating that people like to behave in a manner that is consistent with their cognition and beliefs (Aronson, 1968; Greenwald & Ronis, 1978). Given that most people tend to have a fixed-pie belief about negotiations, they may employ dominant behaviour that is congruous with their beliefs and assumptions. This should increase their satisfaction with negotiation process because these behaviours may match their expectations and intentions. Although we did not test this congruence mechanism directly, my results support this assumption. Specifically, the more dominant behaviour (space and negative emotion) was displayed, the more satisfied that negotiator was with the process.

Overall, these findings are largely consistent with theories of culture and communication. Cultures can communicate the same message in different ways. Low context cultures, typically in the West, engage in explicit, direct information exchange. The people are more likely to say things in words and express emotion. In contrast, high context cultures, typically in the East, engage in implicit information exchange such as storytelling and inference making. These people tend to rely on indirect communication and suppress the display of emotion (Hall, 1989; Holtgraves, 1997; Matsumoto & Juang, 2012). Given these cultural differences in verbal communication and information exchange, it may be that Chinese negotiators communicate

dominance in a subtler manner (taking up space) rather than being more explicit like the Canadians (negative emotion and relaxed posture).

I measured the frequency of nonverbal displays, but not the target's intended meaning or the partner's interpretation of the nonverbal cue. Accordingly, I do not know whether the nonverbal behaviours actually convey dominance and whether the subtle display of Chinese negotiators coincides with their relational orientation. I operationalized measures of dominant behaviours based on research conducted in the West. Because I wanted to observe negotiators as naturally as possible, I did not interrupt to ask negotiators for intent. For example, some studies illustrate that negative emotions such as anger can be beneficial if expressed in a culturally appropriate manner (Adam et al., 2010; Liu, 2009; Liu, & Wang, 2010). However, because I did not explicitly measure anger and have not manipulated anger, I cannot say for sure what the influence of this particular emotion is on negotiation process and outcome. While I can draw conclusions about the display of "dominant" nonverbal cues, I am not able to say for sure if the behaviours displayed by our Eastern negotiators signaled dominance. Thus, in study 2 I manipulated negotiation approach to elicit nonverbal behaviours associated with a particular meaning.

Study 2

The purpose of studies 2A and 2B were to replicate and extend the findings in study 1. I directly tested the meaning and function of nonverbal communication to determine whether Chinese negotiators use nonverbal cues to convey relational orientation. Study 1 illustrated that Chinese negotiators were more likely to employ subtle displays of dominance. In contrast, Canadian negotiators tend to display more overt behaviours of dominance. The main limitation

of study 1 was that the meanings behind the nonverbal behaviours were not directly measured. To rectify this and to gain a better understanding of the meaning of nonverbal cues, I conducted study 2. I employed an experimental approach and examined the meaning and function of nonverbal behaviours in negotiation. Because cultural differences in study 1 were primarily driven by male negotiators, study 2 examined nonverbal cues among male participants.

In study 2A, I wanted to develop an understanding of negotiators' nonverbal behaviours and their meanings. I primed participants' negotiation approach to elicit nonverbal cues associated with three dimensions of communication meaning. All participants negotiated with a trained confederate who was instructed to exhibit neutral nonverbal cues and to remain non-committal to the negotiation. Thus, I limited chances of mimicry and complementary behaviours. Then, I mapped the nonverbal behaviours onto the involvement-affect dimension of nonverbal communication to determine the underlying function of nonverbal behaviours in Chinese and Canadian negotiations. I wanted to test whether Chinese negotiators use nonverbal cues to convey relational orientation and whether Canadian negotiators' nonverbal behaviours connote task orientation. Study 2B used the sample from Study 2A but analyzed paralinguistic vocal cues.

Study 2A: Function of Nonverbal Behaviours

Study 2A manipulated negotiation approach. As previously discussed, negotiation approach reflects the goal and intention a negotiator conveys nonverbally (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). The approach was adapted from Osgood's semantic differentials and the involvement-affect model of relational messages (Osgood et al., 1955; Prager, 2000). The purpose of this study was to examine whether compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese

negotiators 1) express themselves in subtle and indirect ways, and 2) use nonverbal behaviours to convey their relational orientation. In addition, I wanted to examine if Chinese negotiators' nonverbal behaviours are more impactful on negotiation outcome.

As discussed in my introductory chapter, Osgood's model of semantic meaning describes six forms of meaning within three dimensions that negotiators may convey through nonverbal communication. I used this model to manipulate six negotiation approaches. Yet, Osgood's dimensions were never intended to be mutually exclusive. There are a lot of overlaps of the nonverbal cues in each dimension. It is also very challenging to tease apart the specific nonverbal cues associated with specific meaning. So, I used the involvement-affect model of nonverbal communication to make concrete predictions about expressions of activity, evaluation and potency in negotiation. This model enabled me to determine the primary function of nonverbal communication in Chinese and Canadian negotiations. More specifically, whether Chinese negotiators use nonverbal cues to convey the nature of relationship and whether Canadian negotiators use nonverbal behaviours to express involvement in the task.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, collectivist, relational and high context Chinese negotiators are more likely than individualist, task oriented Canadian negotiators to be concerned with relational harmony and face maintenance (Hofstede, 1984). Moreover, Protestant Relational Ideology (PRI) that is common in the West promotes a cultural norm where relational concerns are less appropriate at work (Sanchez-Burks, 2002; Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003). Thus, such cultures promote a task-focused orientation that does not limit or constrain expression for status or relationship preservation.

Based on the cultural dimensions associated with nonverbal display rules, and the cultural

differences in overt nonverbal expressions found in study 1, I expected a main effect of culture on two aspects of negotiators' nonverbal communication: *physical restraint* and *emotion suppression*. I conceptualized physical restraint as the display of nonverbal behaviours that constrain body movement to limit expressions that could be self-serving or powerful. I conceptualized emotion suppression as the display of nonverbal behaviours that constrain facial expression to portray a neutral or unassuming manner. I focused on these behaviours to extend study 1, which found physical restraint – lack of body movement and use of space, and emotion suppression – lack of negative facial expression by Chinese negotiators. Negotiators who maintain a neutral facial expression are unlikely to offend or upset social harmony. So, I proposed that the nonverbal expressions of Chinese negotiators would reflect physical restraint and emotion suppression. But, these nonverbal patterns would less likely occur among Canadian negotiators.

Hypothesis 1: Compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators will engage in more (H1a) physical restraint and (H1b) emotion suppression of nonverbal behaviours.

Based on cultural differences in relational versus task-focused orientation at work (Sanchez-Burkes, 2002), I predicted cultural differences in nonverbal displays moderated by negotiation approach, defined by a level of involvement and relational affect. The involvement dimension refers to whether a negotiator is actively or passively engaged in the task (Prager, 2000; Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). North Americans are more likely than East Asians to express (Ambady et al., 1996) and attend (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003) to task-related nonverbal cues at work. So, I expected that variation in nonverbal behaviours would be more prevalent for North Americans than East Asians when negotiators embody active or passive task involvement.

The relational affect dimension refers to whether a negotiator feels positive or negative affect towards the partner (Prager, 2000; Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). East Asians are more likely than North Americans to express (Ambady et al., 1996) and attend (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003) to relational cues at work. Thus, I predicted that variance in nonverbal behaviours would be more prevalent for East Asians than North Americans when negotiators embody a positive or negative approach.

Hypothesis 2: Negotiators' active versus passive involvement will lead to greater variation in nonverbal expression for Canadian than Chinese negotiators.

Hypothesis 3: Negotiators' positive versus negative relational affect will lead to greater variation in nonverbal expression for Chinese than Canadian negotiators.

Culture, Nonverbal Behaviour and Subjective Outcome

Subjective value or psychologically valued outcomes reflect how a negotiator feels after the negotiation (Curhan et al., 2006). These social psychological outcomes reveal the attitudes and perceptions of the parties. As demonstrated in study 1, nonverbal behaviours can predict subjective and relational outcomes in negotiation. Provided that high context cultures place more emphasis on indirect nonverbal communication than low context cultures (Hall, 1989), I expected that 1) nonverbal behaviors would predict subjective outcomes and 2) the effect of nonverbal expressions on subjective outcomes would depend on a negotiator's culture. The strong role of context and indirectness in Chinese culture means that Chinese negotiators should be more attuned to their own and their counterpart's nonverbal expressions. Accordingly, I predicted that nonverbal expressions in high context cultures would be more impactful and meaningful than in low context cultures.

Hypothesis 4: Culture will moderate the influence of involvement and affect nonverbal expressions on subjective evaluations, and the influence of these behaviours will be more pronounced for Chinese than Canadian negotiators.

Method

Participants

180 individuals participated in this study, 90 Caucasian-Canadian and 90 Chinese students. Participants received one course credit toward a psychology class in exchange for their participation in a study on negotiation. The average age of participants was 21.31 years ($SD=3.58$). Participants were pre-screened on their ethnic background and identification with their national culture. Chinese participants were Mandarin speaking, born in Mainland China, identified primarily with the Chinese culture, and had been in Canada for an average of 5 years ($M=5.83$, $SD=3.39$). Canadian participants were Caucasians born and raised in Canada, and identified only with the Canadian culture.

I recruited only male participants for two reasons. First, prior research shows significant gender differences in the endorsement of cultural norms, such that men typically possess more characteristics of what is most culturally valued (Kashima, Yamaguchi, Kim, Choi, Gelfand, & Yuki, 1995). Second, in study1 I found significant cultural differences in nonverbal expressions among Chinese versus Canadian male but not female negotiators. Thus, I focus on the nonverbal cues of male negotiators in this research.

Design and Procedure

This study employed a 2 (*Culture*: Canada, China) by 2 (*Involvement*: Active, Passive) by 2 (*Relational Affect*: Positive, Negative) factorial design. Male participants were paired with a

male confederate from the same-culture to complete a negotiation simulation. The negotiation sessions were videotaped without the awareness of participants. Participants were not informed because their knowledge of the video cameras might have affected their behaviour. Participants were also not informed that their opponent was a confederate, due to possible influences on their behaviour.

Upon arrival the participant and confederate were seated in separate rooms. Participants were provided with their negotiation role. The roles included the manipulation and background information on their character, experience, budget, and interests. A pay-off matrix attached to the role instructions provided participants with an overview of two negotiation issues, the options within each issue, and their preferences. Trained confederates were also presented with a confidential negotiation role and payoff matrix. Participants were given 20 minutes to read their role information and complete a guided negotiation preparation. Then participants were brought into the same room as the confederate, seated across from the confederate and asked to begin negotiating. I did not specify a time deadline, though all participants signed up for an hour-long laboratory session. Dyads that were still negotiating after 10 minutes were asked to end the negotiation. All parties reached agreement within a 15-minute period. Once an agreement was reached, both parties completed a contract form, recorded the options they agreed on, and recorded their overall score.

After the negotiation task, the participant and confederate completed a post-negotiation questionnaire. This included demographic questions about their cultural background and questions about their subjective evaluation of the negotiation. Upon the completion of the study, all participants were thanked and debriefed about the purpose of the study, probed for suspicion

or awareness of the hidden video cameras, and then informed of the video recording and the confederate. Participants were then asked to read and sign a second consent allowing the researchers to examine the negotiation videos for research purposes.

Confederates. My goal was to measure natural nonverbal expressions as a function of manipulated approach. To reduce dyadic mimicry and complementary behaviours (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003), I hired and trained confederates blind to the hypotheses to act as participants. To reduce the influence of confederate nonverbal behaviours on participants, all confederates were trained to behave in a neutral manner (Mehrabian, 2007). They were told to display neutral nonverbal cues (e.g., neutral emotion, facial expression, and posture). Confederates were instructed to remain non-committal with regards to their preferences during the negotiation. They were asked to lower their target points and increase their reservations points. Thus, confederates would not readily agree and yet would not be highly competitive. I had four male confederates, two Chinese and two Caucasian-Canadians. All confederates were average size for their gender. They were directed to act as typical undergraduate students participating in a psychology experiment. The Chinese confederates were all native Mandarin speakers.

Materials

Negotiation Simulation. I used an adapted 2-party version of the Towers Market negotiation simulation (Weingart, Bennett, & Brett, 1993). This version had two issues and embedded the manipulation of negotiation approach in the role instructions (see Appendix C). The negotiation simulation involved a baker and liquor storeowner negotiating about sharing space in the Towers Market. The parties had to reach agreement on two issues, staff (hiring and

training costs) and advertising (costs and whether to promote two stores together). Chinese and Canadian participants were randomly assigned the role of baker or liquor seller. The negotiation role and manipulation materials were translated in Mandarin for Chinese participants. I employed the translation-back-translation method where a Chinese research assistant translated the materials from English to Mandarin and another Chinese research assistant translated the materials from Mandarin back to English (Brislin, 1970). All participants negotiated in their native language.

Manipulation of Negotiation Approach. As noted in Figure 1, I manipulated negotiators' level of involvement and affect to examine subsequent nonverbal expression. To create the manipulation materials, I first identified etic forms of communication meaning based on Osgood's three dimensions of Activity (Passive vs Active), Evaluation (Positive vs Negative), and Potency (Dominant vs Submissive). In figure 1, I showed how Osgood's meaning dimensions map onto the 2 x 2 Involvement-Affect model. I assured the manipulation materials were similarly understood in China and Canada to avoid the category fallacy, the assumption that study materials are being comprehended and interpreted in an equivalent manner by all respondents, irrespective of cultural values, norms, and experiences (Triandis, 1972). Thus, in a pilot study I employed the Q-Sort procedure (Hurd & Brown, 2005) to identify etic concepts of communication meaning for the manipulation materials.

Thirty participants from Canada and China (15 from each culture) were presented with 35 adjectives and expressions generated from Osgood's meaning dimensions (e.g., Distrustful, excited, and pleasant). Participants were asked to classify the items into the 6 categories of Osgood's semantic meaning dimensions. Participants were also presented with an "undecided

category” to place adjectives they did not associate with any semantic category. Participants read a brief description of each category. For example, “the negative affect category communicates a general negative impression.”

Chi-square tests were conducted on the sorted data to determine the distribution of the adjectives and expressions across all categories. Because I was only interested in etic concepts, the expressions and adjectives understood similarly across the Canadian and Chinese samples, I rejected any item with below 60% agreement across cultures, and rejected all items that had been placed in the undecided category (Funder, Furr & Colvin, 2000). Of the remaining items, the overall agreement across all categories was 75% (for both cultures). I concluded that these adjectives and expressions held sufficiently similar social meanings across both cultures and they were included in the manipulation of negotiation approach.

I manipulated negotiation approach by embedding the etic meaning-based adjectives and expressions in negotiation role instructions. The role explained that the negotiator has a particular set of attitudes and feelings that they wish to convey in the upcoming negotiation (see Appendix D). For example, in the “active involvement” manipulation, participants were informed that they have limited options and thus are very concerned with the final outcome of the negotiation. Participants were instructed to be “*involved*,” “*engaged*,” and “*interested*” in the upcoming negotiation (Semnani-Azad & Adair, 2013). After reading through their role instructions, participants were given time to reflect on their role and record the behaviours they would exhibit to communicate their attitudes, feelings, and approach. As a manipulation check, I collected post-negotiation ratings from participants and their counterpart confederate on the degree to which participants conveyed each approach on a 7-point scale.

Measures

Dimensions of Negotiation Approach. As noted above, to ground my work in existing communication theory I created negotiation roles that reflected 3 dimensions of communication meaning. However, my primary construct of interest, negotiator approach falls along just 2 dimensions: Involvement and Affect. Based on Prager's theorizing (see Figure 1), I coded and grouped 1) active and positive communication meanings as high involvement with positive affect, 2) passive and negative communication meanings as low involvement with negative affect, 3) dominant communication meaning as high involvement with negative affect, and 4) submissive communication meaning as low involvement with positive affect. Thus, before analyzing data I coded each dyad according to the manipulation stimuli on high versus low negotiation involvement (coded 1 and 0), and on levels of positive versus negative affect (coded 1 and 0).

Coding of Nonverbal Behaviours. I trained independent coders, blind to the study hypotheses, on one behavioural category at a time to reliably identify all the nonverbal behaviours of interest (see Appendix E). The coding scheme and description of nonverbal behaviours were adapted from prior research (Manusov, 2014, Manusov & Patterson, 2006). For example, all coders were first trained on the posture category, distinguishing whether the participants were leaning back, leaning forward, or maintaining a neutral posture. After coding all sessions on posture, research assistants were trained on another behavioural category. Coders observed and recorded the nonverbal behaviours of participants with sound muted. Coders recorded their observations using the Noldus Observer, a computer-based coding system that captures both the frequency and duration of nonverbal cues (Noldus, Trienes, Hendriksen,

Jansen, & Jansen, 2000). The Noldus software uses the frequency and duration codes to compute a score indicating the percentage of time a negotiator spent exhibiting a particular nonverbal expression.

After training, all coders completed three practice sessions, and for each session, inter-rater agreement was assessed using Cohen's kappa (Cohen, 1960). The average reliability rating for the nonverbal behaviours were: Mouth movement (0.89), posture (0.81), head movement (0.72), hand movement (0.78) and facial expression (0.72). The mean kappa of all behaviours combined was 0.79, which characterizes a substantial agreement amongst coders (Landis & Koch, 1977). Then video sessions were distributed among the coders. Each coder watched a session once for overall impressions and then watched it again to record the nonverbal behaviours using the Noldus software.

The nonverbal behaviours were grouped based on the extent to which they represented physical restraint (behaviours that constrain body movement) and emotion suppression (behaviours that portray a neutral or unassuming tone). Based on prior literature, I operationalized *physical restraint* as high levels of straight back posture, head down, face side, palms down, and low levels of lean back posture and hand gestures. I operationalized *emotion suppression* as silence, forward lean, and open smile (Manusov, 2014; Matsumoto et al., 2013).

Covariate Measure. I examined variation of nonverbal behaviour controlling for the verbal words exchanged among negotiators. Prior research on cross-cultural negotiation has already shown cultural differences verbal communication, and its effect on outcome (Adair et al., 2001). In this study I wanted extend prior work and examine the nonverbal displays and the influence on outcome. To capture this effect, I included verbal speech as a covariate.

Accordingly, I only examine nonverbal cues and their impact on negotiation outcome, regardless of the length of speech and amount of words exchanged during the interaction. This was measured via the Noldus software, which captures both the frequency and duration of words spoken by a negotiator during the face-to-face interaction.

Results

Table 7 shows the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations of all the measures in this study at the individual level. Since participants negotiated with a confederate, I only focused on individual level variables of the participants.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics and Individual Level Correlations of Dependent Measures

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Silence	48.49	16.89	1.00									
2. Verbal Speech	46.06	17.00	-.95**	1.00								
3. Lean Back	11.54	23.50	.02	-.06	1.00							
4. Forward Lean	65.59	34.38	.08	-.05	-.6**	1.00						
5. Straight Back	5.30	16.19	-.14	.17*	-.11	-.29**	1.00					
6. Head Down	46.53	27.22	.11	-.15	-.19*	.22**	-.01	1.00				
7. Face Side	13.95	21.30	.18*	-.20*	.26**	-.22**	-.07	-.38**	1.00			
8. Hand Gesture	34.4	22.09	-.55**	.56**	-.11	.01	.26*	-.10	-.10	1.00		
9. Palms Down	62.52	32.81	.06	-.11	-.07	.10	-.03	.12	.07	-.07	1.00	
10. Open Smile	7.54	17.17	-.09	.12	-.01	-.05	.00	-.14	.11	-.01	.03	1.00

† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Manipulation Check

I gathered self-report data from participants as well as their opposing partner, i.e. confederate, on the extent to which they were behaving in accordance to the approach in their roles instructions. Ratings of participants and the confederates were significantly correlated, $r = .44$, $p < .01$, and not statistically different from each other, $t(180) = .97$, $p = .34$. Across all conditions, participants and confederates provided ratings that were above the scale's mid-point (above 4 on a 7-point scale), to an extent that was statistically significant (see Table 8). Thus, participants were behaving in accordance to their manipulated approach.

Table 8

Manipulation Check: Participant and Confederate Ratings Above Midpoint

Communication Meaning	Confederate Rating					Participant Rating				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Active	6.00	.87	28	7.34	<.01	5.64	.95	30	8.72	<.01
Passive	5.40	1.12	31	4.5	<.01	5.03	1.33	30	4.44	<.01
Positive	5.56	.73	31	5.69	<.01	5.23	.61	31	10.56	<.01
Negative	4.87	1.16	29	4.71	<.01	4.88	1.12	29	4.57	<.01
Dominant	5.25	1.06	30	6.61	<.01	4.9	1.04	30	4.82	<.01
Submissive	5.26	1.32	28	5.14	<.01	5.23	1.18	30	5.81	<.01

H1: Effect of Culture. As is shown in Table 9, I found partial support for H1. Compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators showed more restraint in their nonverbal behaviours. They also masked their display of emotions by being more silent, avoiding eye contact by positioning their heads downward, displaying open smile, and exhibiting forward lean posture. However, I did not find significant cultural differences for the straight back posture.

Table 9

Main Effect of Culture on Amount of Nonverbal Cues Exhibited

Physical Restraint	Canadian		Chinese		<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>				
Straight Back	.08	.14	.06	.14	1(130)	0.02	0.90	0.00
Head Down**	-.29	.12	.20	.11	1(130)	8.41	<.01	0.06
Face Side**	.32	.12	-.29	.12	1(130)	12.94	<.01	0.09
Palms Down	-.02	.13	-.06	.13	1(130)	0.07	0.80	0.00
Lean Back†	.18	.12	-.15	.12	1(130)	3.52	0.06	0.03
Hand Gesture	.05	.11	.19	.11	1(130)	0.87	0.35	0.01
Emotion Suppression	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Silence*	-.05	.04	.08	.04	1(130)	5.25	0.02	0.04
Forward Lean*	-.24	.12	.13	.12	1(130)	4.08	0.04	0.03
Open Smile*	-.17	.14	-.28	.11	1(130)	4.84	0.03	0.05

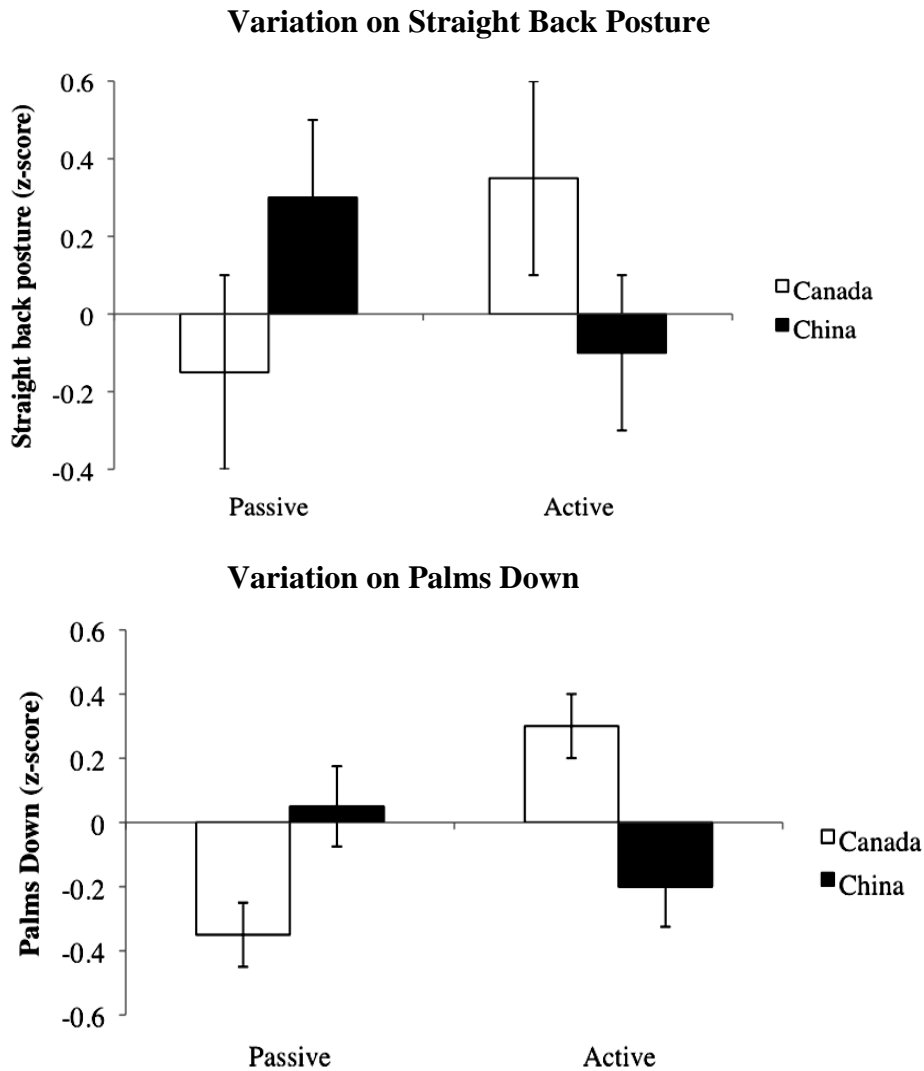
† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Note. Means are standardized z-scores

H2: Moderating Effects of Involvement. I found significant Culture x Involvement interactions for straight back posture, $F(1, 138) = 4.71$, $p = .03$, and palms down, $F(1, 138) = 5.86$, $p = .02$. In support of H2, simple effects analyses illustrated that Canadian negotiators drove the interactions (see Figure 8).

Figure 8

Culture by Negotiation Involvement Interaction on Nonverbal Expression



As is shown in Figure 8, there was a significant variation in straight back posture from passive to active involvement in the negotiation task among Canadian negotiators, $F(1, 177)=7.16, p<.01$. This pattern was not evident among Chinese negotiators, $F(1, 177)=.02, p=.88$. Also there was a larger cultural difference in straight back posture when negotiators conveyed

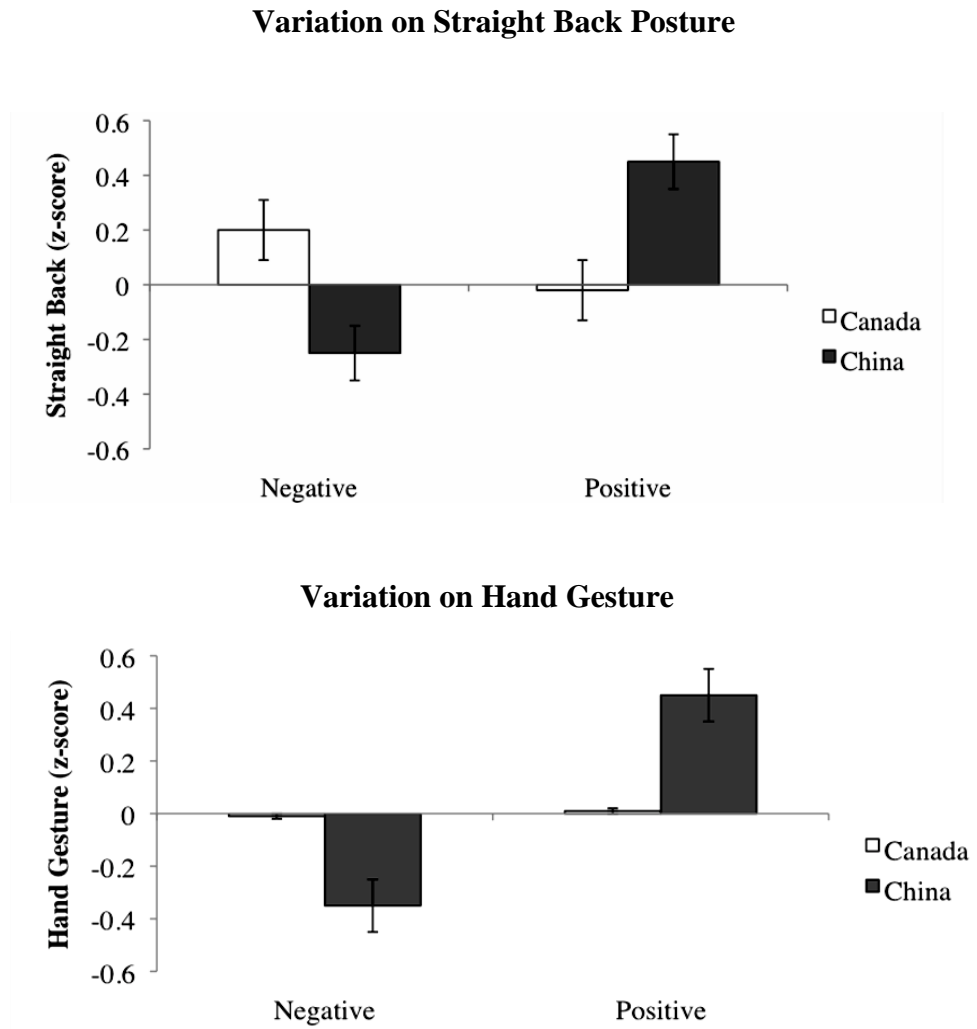
active involvement, $F(1, 177)= 2.94, p=.08$, than passive involvement, $F(1, 177)= 1.11, p=.29$. In general, Canadians varied their posture the most when actively involved in the negotiation task. They exhibited higher levels of straight back posture than Chinese negotiators.

Also shown in Figure 8, there was a significant variation in palms down from passive to active involvement in the negotiation task among Canadian negotiators, $F(1, 177)= 3.80, p=.05$. This pattern was not evident among Chinese negotiators, $F(1, 177)= .30, p=.58$. Again, there was a larger cultural difference in the display of palms down when negotiators conveyed active involvement, $F(1, 177)= 3.04, p=.08$, than passive involvement, $F(1, 177)= .14, p=.70$. In general, Canadians displayed higher levels of palms down when actively involved in the negotiation task. They exhibited more palms down than Chinese negotiators.

H3: Moderating Effects of Relational Affect. I found significant Culture x Relational Affect interactions for straight back posture, $F(1, 138)= 4.09, p= .05$, and hand gesture, $F(1, 138)= 4.78, p= .03$. In support of H3, simple effects analyses illustrated that Chinese negotiators drove Culture x Relational Affect interactions (see Figure 9).

Figure 9

Culture by Relational Affect Interactions on Nonverbal Expression



As is shown in Figure 9, there was a significant variation in straight back posture from negative to positive relational affect among Chinese negotiators, $F(1, 177)= 4.14, p=.04$. This pattern was not evident among Canadian negotiators, $F(1, 177)= .28, p=.60$. Also there was a larger cultural difference in straight back posture when negotiators conveyed positive relational affect, $F(1, 177)= 2.85, p=.09$, than negative relational affect, $F(1, 177)= .15, p=.7$. In general,

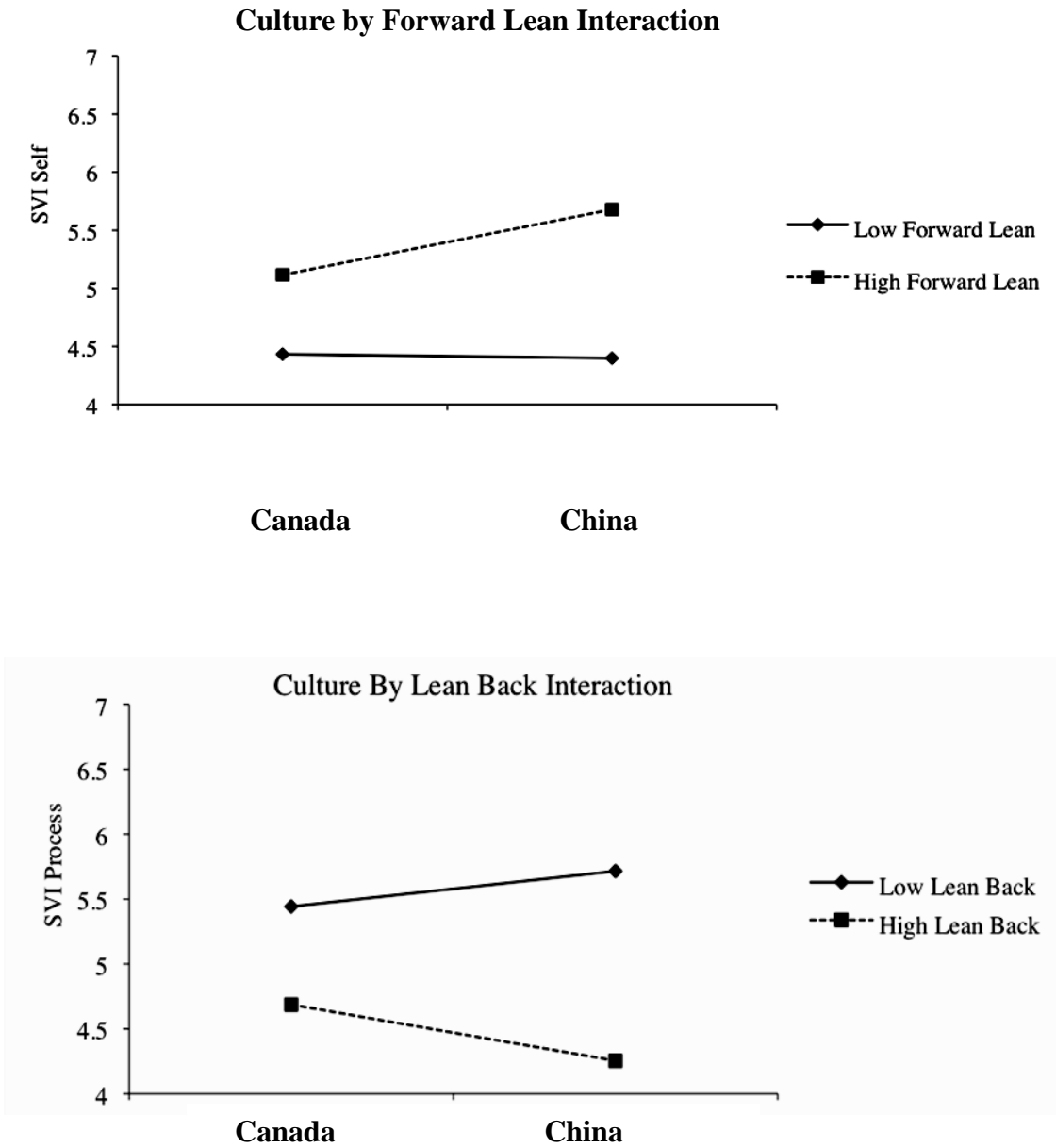
Chinese negotiators varied their posture the most when expressing positive relational affect. They exhibited higher levels of straight back posture than Canadian negotiators.

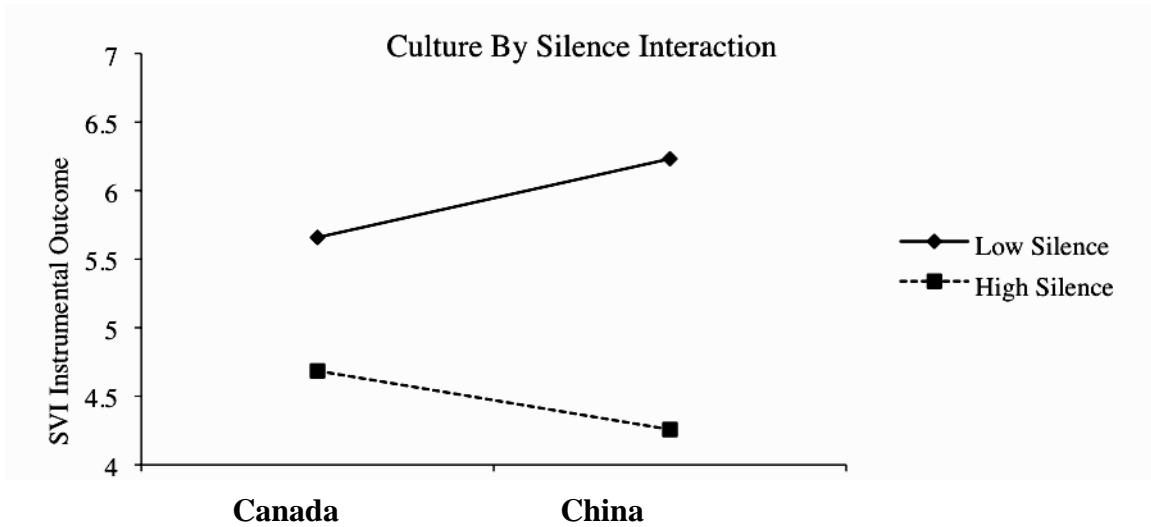
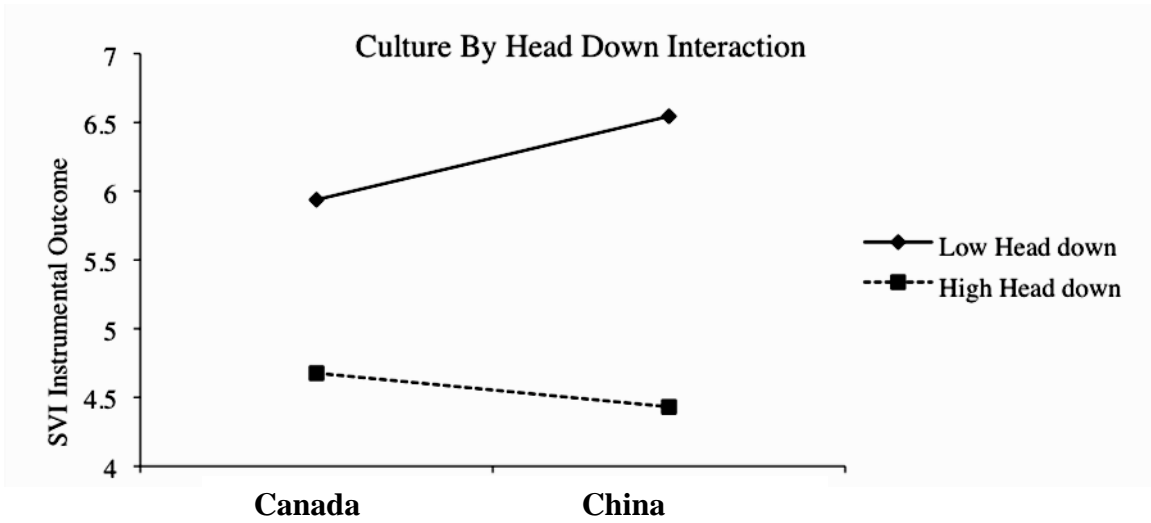
Also shown in Figure 9, there was a significant variation in hand gesture from negative to positive relational affect among Chinese negotiators, $F(1, 177)= 4.38, p=.04$. This pattern was not evident among Canadian negotiators, $F(1, 177)= .00, p=.99$. The pattern shown a larger cultural difference in hand gesture when negotiators conveyed positive relational affect, $F(1, 177)= .2.06, p=.15$, than negative relational affect, $F(1, 177)= .43, p=.51$. But these effects were not statistically significant. In general, Chinese negotiators varied their hand gesture the most when expressing positive relational affect.

H4: Subjective Outcome. In my analysis, I controlled for the level of involvement and affect from the manipulation in order to observe the effects of culture and nonverbal behaviours on subjective outcomes. In support for hypothesis 4 I found significant Nonverbal Behaviour x Culture interactions on subjective outcomes. I found a Culture x Forward Lean interaction ($\beta= .30, p= .04, \Delta R^2= .19$) on *Subjective Value Inventory (SVI) – Self*, Culture x Lean Back interaction ($\beta= -.35, p<.01, \Delta R^2= .06$) on *SVI – Process*, Culture x Head Down ($\beta= -.43, p= .043, \Delta R^2= .10$) and Culture x Silence ($\beta= -.50, p= .01, \Delta R^2= .09$) interactions on *SVI – Instrumental Outcome* (See Figure 10). I did not find any other significant interactions.

Figure 10

Culture by Nonverbal Behaviour Interactions on Subjective Value





In support of my expectations, simple effects analyses illustrated that Chinese negotiators drove the Culture x Nonverbal interactions on subjective outcomes. I observed effects of forward lean ($\beta = .21, p = .06, \Delta R^2 = .04$), lean back ($\beta = -.20, p = .07, \Delta R^2 = .04$), head down ($\beta = -.22, p = .05, \Delta R^2 = .04$), and silence ($\beta = -.41, p < .01, \Delta R^2 = .12$) on subjective outcomes among Chinese negotiators. However, forward lean ($\beta = -.10, p = .45$), lean back ($\beta = .10, p = .38$), head down ($\beta = .06, p = .64$), and silence ($\beta = -.16, p = .87$) did not predict subjective outcomes of Canadian

negotiators. Thus, nonverbal behaviours appear to influence subjective outcomes of Chinese but not Canadian negotiators.

Discussion

The purpose of study 2A was to extend study 1 by demonstrating that nonverbal behaviours convey relational orientation among Chinese and task orientation among Canadian negotiators. Study 2A incorporated an experimental approach to directly test the meaning and function of nonverbal behaviours in negotiators. The results confirmed that Chinese negotiators are subtler in their nonverbal displays (e. g. Ambady et al., 1996; Matsumoto et al., 2008). Chinese negotiators vary their nonverbal behaviours when expressing the nature of relationship. Canadian negotiators vary their nonverbal cues when conveying their involvement in the negotiation task. Moreover, the subtle nonverbal expressions of Chinese negotiators appear to be more impactful at predicting subjective negotiation outcomes than to the overt nonverbal expressions of Canadian negotiators.

My findings illustrate that nonverbal expressions predict a negotiator's subjective outcome. Also, culture moderates the influence of nonverbal expressions on subjective outcomes. More displays of forward lean and lower displays of lean back, head down, and silence were generally associated with more satisfaction with the negotiation outcome, process and performance. Yet, these effects were only significant among Chinese, but not Canadian negotiators. Accordingly, nonverbal expressions seem to be more predictive of subjective outcomes for Chinese negotiators, who are also high context communicators, than Canadian negotiators. So, it appears that nonverbal expressions may have more weight in communication amongst high context negotiators than low context negotiators. Thus far, this is the first empirical

evidence that nonverbal communication has a stronger impact in high context than low context cultures.

I found that the meaning and function of nonverbal cues vary across culture. Furthermore, negotiation approach, adapted from the involvement-affect model, moderates the influence of culture on nonverbal displays. My findings are consistent with prior literature illustrating cultural differences in the appropriateness of relational concerns at work, and differences in the endorsement of relational versus task-focused orientation (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2003). I found more variation in the nonverbal expression of Chinese negotiators when conveying level of relational affect. This same pattern was observed for Canadian negotiators when expressing level of task involvement. These findings suggest that the primary function of nonverbal behaviours among Chinese negotiators might be to convey the nature of the relationship. In contrast, the primary function of nonverbal communication among Canadian negotiators might be to express their engagement and involvement in the negotiation task.

More specifically, I found that a rigid straight back posture and subtle hand gestures is associated with the extent to which Chinese negotiators like their counterpart and are interested in developing a relationship. Thus, higher levels of such behaviours reflect the positive affect of Chinese negotiators toward their interlocutor. In contrast, lower levels of these nonverbal cues connote the negative affect of Chinese negotiators. As speculated, Chinese negotiators did not significantly vary their nonverbal expressions with changes in their level of task involvement. Instead, the nonverbal variation of Canadian negotiators communicated their involvement in negotiation, such that higher levels of involvement increase their display of straight back posture and palms down hand gesture.

While this study has several strengths, it also has some limitations. My methodology offers significant advances by 1) implementing etic or universal concepts in the manipulation, 2) using controlled experimental conditions by having participants negotiate with trained confederates of the same culture, and 3) systematically coding nonlinguistic cues using the Noldus system. Accordingly, this methodology enabled me to test the meaning and function of nonverbal behaviours through the approach manipulation. Because the focus of my study was on nonverbal expressions and their meanings, I did not examine the verbal content accompanying nonlinguistic cues. By pitting nonverbal behaviours against verbal messages, future research can discern the function and impact of such behaviours as they interact with verbal discourse in various forms (Matsumoto et al., 2013). For example, nonverbal behaviours can accent spoken messages, such as hand gestures emphasizing particular points in verbal discourse. Nonverbal cues can also contradict verbal messages. For instance when a negotiator verbally indicates, “This is an interesting idea,” while exhibiting a closed postural position and lack of eye contact, which may be conveying disinterest (Adair & Loewenstein, 2013).

In this study, I did not examine the vocal paralanguage that accompany verbal speech. Instead, I focused on the displays of facial expressions and body movements. Studies 1 and 2A illustrated that in general, Chinese negotiators are more subtle and indirect in their nonverbal communication. Also, the function and frequency of their nonverbal cues depend on the extent to which they are expressing the nature of relationship. This is in line with their relational orientation at work. Past research that examined relationship building in interactions studied both verbal discourse and nonverbal communication, most commonly vocal paralanguage. It has also been claimed that vocal cues are an important factor for relationship building (e.g., Prager &

Roberts 2004). Accordingly in study 2B, I extend the findings from study 2A by examining the vocal paralinguistic associated with verbal speech employed by Chinese and Canadian negotiators.

Study 2B: Function of Nonverbal Paralinguistic

Study 2B replicated the findings in study 2A with vocal paralinguistic, i.e. tone, frequency and rate of the verbal speech. I examined a subset of the data from study 2A. Rather than mapping the vocal cues generated from the manipulation onto the involvement-affect model, I observed the variation of vocal cues in two dimensions of Osgood's semantic differentials: Activity – associated with level of involvement, and Evaluation – associated with level of affect. If Chinese negotiators use nonverbal behaviours to convey relational orientation and Canadians use nonverbal cues to express task involvement, then the pattern of nonverbal findings in study 2A should be observed with vocal paralinguistic.

Based on prior literature in communication, cultural psychology, and negotiation, I developed and tested hypotheses predicting distinct patterns of paralinguistic for Canadian and Chinese negotiators. Similar to the findings in study 2A, I predicted moderating effects of negotiation approach on four paralinguistic components: warmth, expressiveness, calmness, and speech rate. This study contributes to cross-cultural negotiation literature by identifying vocal cues, employed in a business context that communicates the type and standing of dyadic relationship across cultures. My findings shed light on the meaning and interpretation of vocal communication in cross-cultural negotiation and offer practical implications for relationship building, trust development, and cross-cultural negotiation training and application.

Vocal Paralanguage Conveying Involvement and Affect

Prior research shows that individuals tend to perceive people as involved and engaged when they exhibit vocal animation through variation in pitch, expressiveness in tone of voice, and a loud, clear voice (Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1996). Manusov (1995) observed that when confederates displayed negative behaviours, their partners' paralanguage expressed noninvolvement through low vocal activity cues such as decreased talkativeness, less pitch variation, slower rate, and decreased volume. In contrast, when the confederates acted positively, their partners responded with increased vocal pleasantness and warmth.

On the relational affect dimension, positive affect is communicated through vocal warmth, vocal pleasantness, and relaxed laughter (Burgoon & Newton, 1991). Affection has also been shown to be associated with variation in pitch. For example, both males and females are perceived as more affectionate when they vary their tone of voice through pitch (Floyd & Ray 2003). In contrast, negative affect and dislike can be communicated with loud or sharp vocal tone, fast speaking rate, and negative affect in tone of voice (Burgoon & Newton 1991).

Based on this prior literature, I expect negotiators who feel actively involved will express involvement through an active voice, variation in pitch, attitudinal expressiveness in tone, and higher speech rate and volume. In contrast, a passively involved negotiator's paralanguage should be characterized by a passive voice, no variation in pitch, no attitudinal expressiveness in tone, and low speech rate and volume. When conveying relational affect, it is reasonable to assume that when a negotiator perceives the counterpart in a positive light, he or she is more likely to display warmth in tone of voice. In contrast, a negotiator that holds a negative perception is more likely to sound cold in tone of voice.

Culture and Vocal Paralanguage

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, culture influences the displays and social meanings attached to nonverbal cues associated with relationship status (Ekman & Friesen 1971). For example, Beier and Zautra (1972) examined how emotions of happiness, fear, sadness, and anger are expressed and recognized via vocal behaviour among American, Japanese, and Polish participants. They found that although emotions can be recognized cross-culturally, accuracy was higher for the foreign groups when the message was longer. This provided more opportunity for evaluating the vocal qualities. In addition, for each group some culturally normative emotions seemed more easily recognizable than others. Interestingly, participants had difficulties identifying positive emotions in vocal speech of foreign countries, indicating cultural differences in paralanguage communicating this emotion (Vogelaar & Silverman, 1984). I propose that similar to these prior findings, there will be cultural variation in the vocal paralanguage communicating relationship status.

As discussed in the introductory chapter, there are significant East/West differences in values, display rules and social norms. Western cultural values, such as independence and self-assertion, promote open emotion expression (Butler et al., 2007), whereas Eastern values, such as interdependence and relationship harmony, promote emotion suppression, particularly negative emotion (Gross & Levenson, 1997). Prior research confirms that compared to North Americans, East Asians are less likely to display negative emotions and instead, they masked these emotions with smiles (Anderson et al., 2006).

Due to the Eastern cultural norm of restraint and maintaining harmony, I expect that compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators will engage in more self-control in vocal

cues. Thus they will exhibit more calmness in tone of voice, less pitch variation and vocal expressiveness, lower volume and slower speech rate. As a consequence of the Western cultural norms of self-assertiveness and emotion expressiveness, I expect Canadian negotiators to express more emotion in their vocal tone compared to Chinese negotiators.

Hypothesis 1: Compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators are more likely to engage in self-control and masking of emotions in vocal cues. Thus they will exhibit more calmness in tone of voice, less warmth, expressiveness, and slower speech rate.

Similar to the findings in study 2A, I expect negotiation approach to interact with culture in influencing vocal cues. Based on the cultural differences in relational versus task orientation and high versus low context communication, I predict highest level of variation in vocal paralanguage among Canadians when they are expressing their level of involvement. I predict more variation in pitch, and higher speech rate and volume among Canadians when expressing involvement. In contrast, I expect to observe similar pattern of vocal tone among Chinese when conveying relational affect.

Hypothesis 2: Canadian negotiators' vocal paralanguage will vary the most with their level of involvement. Chinese negotiators' vocal paralanguage will vary the most with their level of relational affect.

Method

Research design

This study employed a 2 (*Culture*: Chinese, Canadian) x 4 (*Negotiation approach*: Passive, Active, Positive, Negative) factorial design. I examined vocal paralanguage using global

rating scales employed in prior research (e.g., Cocker & Burgoon 1987; Manusov, 2014). Expressiveness, Warmth, Calmness, and Speech Rate served as dependent variables.

Participants and Materials

I included participants in the Activity and Evaluation dimensions of Study 2A. The vocal paralanguage of 53 Chinese male (M age= 22, SD = 4.8) and 43 Canadian male (M age= 21, SD = 2.4) participants were included in this study. All Chinese students were Mandarin speaking, born in Mainland China and identified primarily with the Chinese culture, and had been in Canada for less than ten years (M =6.7, SD =4.5). All Canadian participants were native English speaking Caucasians, born in Canada, who identified only with the Canadian culture. The materials and procedures are explained earlier, in study 2A.

Measures

Coding paralanguage. Participants' negotiation interaction was videotaped and their vocal cues were coded for: pitch variation, expressiveness, warmth, calmness, pleasantness, voice activeness, volume, speech rate, and fluency (see Appendix F). I employed the global rating approach where coders observed each negotiation interaction in entirety. Then they rated the negotiator on each of the paralinguistic cues on a 7-point scale, capturing the intensity of each vocal cue. For example, when rating variation in pitch, coders were asked to rate based on the following continuum: *1= target's voice was monotone (no intonation or variation in pitch)*, versus *7= target's voice contained vocal variability (variation in pitch)*.

Prior to global rating, four female coders of East Asian and North American cultural backgrounds were trained to reliably identify all the vocal cues examined in this study. For all ratings, coders used the neutral confederate as a base point and evaluated participants' deviation

of vocal paralinguistic cues from that base point. Because coders were asked to focus on the vocal speech, rather than the nonverbal cues, they were asked to minimize the VLC media player (which played each video-recorded negotiation session), and only attend to the vocal cues. Prior to coding participant's vocal tone, coders were trained to be familiar with the confederate's voice to ensure they only attended to participant's paralinguistic cues. All coders were asked to complete three practice sessions, and for each session, inter-rater reliability was assessed. The correlation coefficient of the rates was .80, indicating a good inter-rater reliability (Portney & Watkins, 2008). Then, two of the four raters coded every session, rating the occurrence of paralinguistic cues, and I averaged their ratings.

Results

Paralinguistic Cues Conveying Relational Approach. Prior to analyses, I carried out an exploratory factor analysis to cluster the paralinguistic global measures into categories. The results of factor analysis confirmed four factors of warmth, expressiveness, calmness, and speech rate which were highly reliable. The *warmth factor* ($\alpha = .87$) included items capturing warmth and positive emotion expressed in paralinguistic cues. The *expressiveness factor* ($\alpha = .98$) included items associated with pitch variation, expressiveness, and voice activity. The *speech rate factor* ($\alpha = .71$) included items associated with speed of spoken discourse and level of fluency. And I had a one item measure of *calmness in tone*. The ratings of items within each factor were added to create an overall score for each vocal category.

To test my hypotheses, I carried out multivariate general linear model analyses (MANOVA). The four relational approaches and two levels of culture were the independent variables, and the four categories of vocal paralinguistic cues were the dependent measures. In

all analyses, negotiators' age and negotiation role were included as covariates. All reported results reflect negotiators' vocal paralinguage when interacting with partner, the neutral toned confederate.

H1: Main effect of Culture. I expected Chinese negotiators to engage in more self-control and masking of emotions in vocal cues, thus exhibiting higher levels of calmness in tone of voice, less vocal expressiveness, warmth and slower speech rate, than Canadian negotiators. Table 10 shows main effects of culture on vocal paralinguage factors. As is displayed in the table,

Table 10

Main Effect of Culture on Vocal Paralinguage

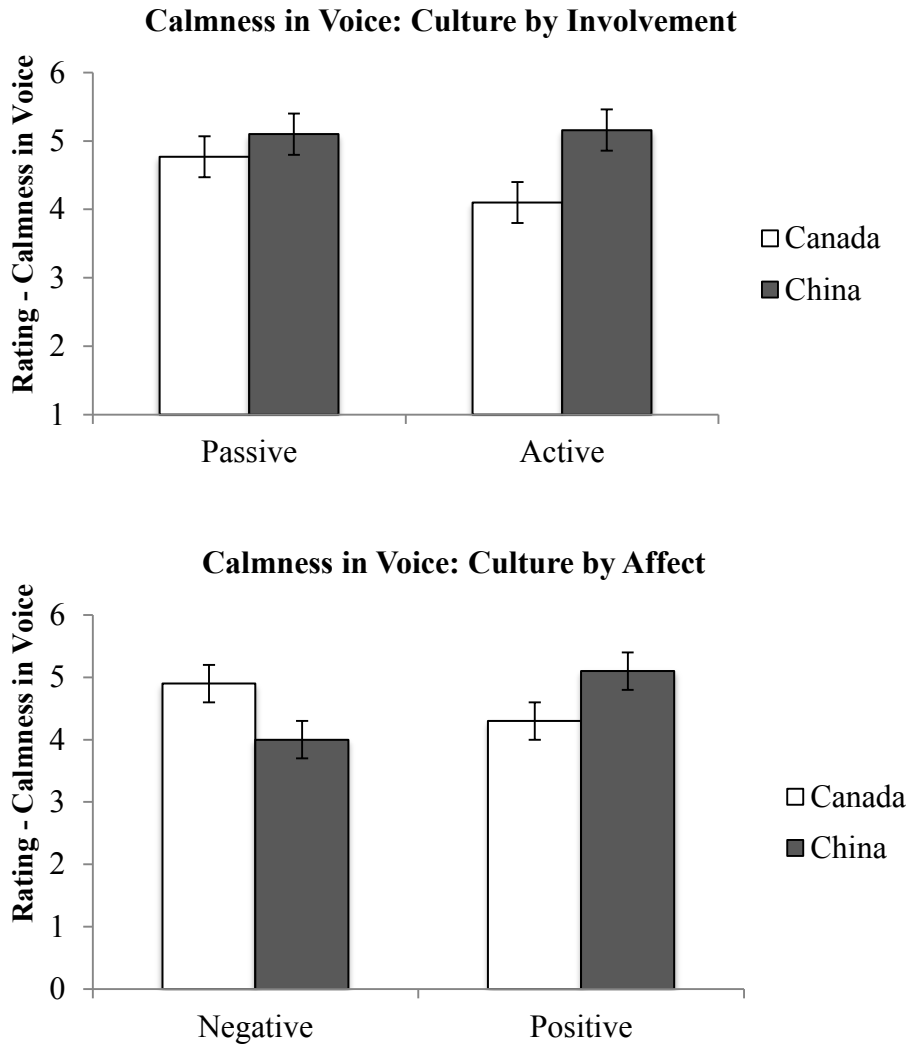
Vocal Paralinguage	Canadian		Chinese		df	F	p	η^2
	M	SE	M	SE				
Warmth	4.47	.12	4.44	.14	1(85)	0.02	.88	0.00
Expressiveness*	4.57	.18	3.94	.19	1(85)	5.43	.02	0.06
Speech Rate*	5.01	.12	4.62	.14	1(85)	4.50	.04	0.05
Calmness†	4.51	.15	4.90	.16	1(85)	2.73	.10	0.03

† $p > .05$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

H2: Culture by Negotiation Approach. I also predicted that Canadian negotiators' vocal paralinguage will vary the most on their level of involvement. And Chinese negotiators' vocal paralinguage will vary the most on their level of relational affect. In partial support of the hypothesis, results indicated a significant Culture x Negotiation approach interaction for level of calmness, $F(3, 85) = 3.59$, $p = .02$ (see Figure 11).

Figure 11

Culture by Negotiation Approach: Level of calmness



The cultural variation in calmness across task involvement supported my initial prediction. Simple effects analyses illustrated that the change in calmness based on level of involvement was primarily driven by Canadian negotiators, $F(1, 46) = 4.21, p = .05$. As is shown in Figure 11, Chinese negotiators had limited variation in vocal calmness when connoting active ($M = 5.16, SE = .31$) and passive ($M = 5.10, SE = .30$) task involvement. In contrast, Canadians

showed significant variation in vocal calmness from active ($M= 4.10$, $SE= .28$) to passive ($M= 4.77$, $SE= .30$) involvement. There was also a significant cultural difference in vocal calmness when conveying active involvement, $F(1, 46)= 3.85$, $p= .05$, with Chinese negotiators exhibiting more calmness in voice than Canadian negotiators.

The cultural variation in calmness across relational affect partially supported my initial prediction. Chinese negotiators' vocal cues varied the most when conveying relational affect than task involvement, $F(1, 46)= 6.48$, $p= .01$. This effect was driven by the negative relational approach, with Chinese negotiators exhibiting lower vocal calmness ($M=4.00$, $SE=.27$) than when connoting positive ($M=5.10$, $SE=.29$) relational approach. Contrary to what I predicted, Canadian negotiators also showed variation in vocal calmness as a function of relational approach, $F(1, 46)= 3.55$, $p= .06$. Canadians showed lower vocal calmness when expressing active ($M= 4.30$, $SE= .27$) compared to passive ($M= 4.90$, $SE= .31$) task involvement. Thus, vocal calmness appears to be an important paralinguistic cue for the Chinese to convey relational affect, and for the Canadians to express both task involvement and nature of relationship.

Discussion

The main objective of study 2B was to replicate the findings in study 1 and study 2A in the realm of vocal paralinguistics. This study investigated and found that Chinese negotiators' vocal cues varied most as a function of relational affect. While Canadian negotiators' vocal paralinguistics varied as a function of task involvement, they also showed variation in level of relational affect. This study also found that in general compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators tend to engage in emotion suppression in their vocal tones. My findings identify several vocal cues that vary across culture with distinct social meanings. Accordingly,

this study contributes knowledge to help increase effective communication and improve relational outcomes in cross-cultural negotiations.

To add to prior work on cross-cultural negotiation, I examined nonverbal paralanguage that Chinese and Canadian negotiators employ when primed to engage in negotiation approaches adapted from Osgood's semantic differentials. Although past research examined cultural variation in vocal cues and some interpretations, it has not manipulated a communicator's approach as I have, to systematically study vocal cues accompanying different motives. For example, silence in low context cultures, such as the U.S., is associated with absence of communication or communication that has gone wrong (Beamer & Varner, 2001). In contrast high context cultures tend to be more comfortable with silence, which can be associated with deep thinking, respect, rejection, and saving face (Early & Ang, 2003). My approach improves upon prior descriptive and ethnographic approaches by manipulating relational approach and using meaning constructs previously validated in the field of communication, which together allow us to infer the meaning of particular vocal cues across cultures.

My findings on cultural variation in paralanguage are consistent with the notion that North Americans are more likely to express emotions compared to East Asians (Ekman, 1993; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001). My results show that regardless of the negotiation approach, compared to Chinese negotiators, Canadians are more likely to express emotions in vocal tone and exhibit a faster speech rate. My findings are also consistent with literature indicating that in order to preserve harmony, East Asians are likely to engage in self-control and mask negative emotions (Ekman, 1993; Hall, 1989). I found restraint in emotional expression among Chinese negotiators. Compared to Canadian, Chinese negotiators were more likely to exhibit calmness,

lack of emotion and expressiveness, and have a lower speech rate. Thus, one can expect Chinese negotiators to exhibit lower levels of emotion and expressiveness than Canadian negotiators, although these main effects are qualified in some cases by the negotiator's approach. As expected, Canadian negotiators were most expressive in their vocal tone when conveying level of involvement in the negotiation task. Chinese negotiators were most expressive when conveying their relational affect, particularly negative evaluation.

My findings show how cultural variation in paralanguage can lead to faulty assumptions in cross-cultural negotiations. In this particular situation, a Canadian negotiator may misattribute the calmness and lack of emotion in the voice of the Chinese counterpart as dislike or a distributive tactic. This can lower chances of effective communication, relationship building, and realization of value creation opportunities in the negotiation. Similarly, a Chinese negotiator may interpret the vocal calmness employed by a Canadian who dislikes the counterpart, as liking and engagement. Again this increases chances of miscommunication and conflict.

Contrary to what I expected, compared to Canadian negotiators, Chinese negotiators were more likely to express negative emotions when perceiving the counterpart in a negative light. In this case, Chinese negotiators with a negative relational approach had a tendency to express anxiety and nervousness (lower level of calmness and vocal control). This was unexpected due to cultural norms for masking negative emotion. Perhaps masking of emotions may be more evident in facial expressions, as shown in prior research (Ekman, 1993; Matsumoto & Kupperbusch, 2001) than in vocal paralanguage. Chinese participants may have masked negative facial expressions, but masking vocal tones may have been difficult to control. Thus their true feelings may have 'leaked' via voice. Although I find that compared to Canadian negotiators Chinese

negotiators are less emotionally expressive in general, when holding a negative perception of partner they are significantly more likely than Canadian negotiators to express their feelings by exhibiting anxiousness in voice.

Limitations and Future Directions

In this study, I examined how Chinese and Canadian negotiators use vocal paralinguistics to communicate different approaches. The results identify culture specific vocal cues in negotiation. Yet, one limitation of my study was that my sample consisted of university students and not actual business negotiators. With a larger sample size and having business negotiators as participants, I expect my findings to be more robust and the cultural differences more pronounced. Although my sample included Chinese participants born and raised in Mainland China, who primarily associated with the Chinese culture, their exposure to the North American culture may have to some extent influenced the nonverbal scripts they displayed during the negotiation. Thus for future research, I plan to extend my sample and investigate paralinguistics and nonverbal communication amongst negotiators and mediators in Mainland China compared to those in Canada.

Moreover, in this study I examined only intracultural negotiations. I measured vocal paralinguistics exhibited by Canadian and Chinese negotiators interacting with a same-culture counterpart in their native language. While it is important to uncover cultural norms or baselines, it is also important to realize that negotiators adjust and adapt to cross-cultural situations (Adair et al., 2001, 2009). Future research is necessary to test how negotiators adapt their vocal paralinguistics when negotiating cross-culturally and/or in a foreign tongue.

Theoretical Contributions and Practical Implications

My study extends past research on verbal communication in cross-cultural negotiation by identifying vocal paralinguistic associated with level of involvement and relational affect in negotiation. In an intercultural setting, where negotiators have limited knowledge of social meanings associated with paralinguistic, I expect cultural variation in vocal cues can limit communication quality, diminish opportunities for relationship building, and consequently lower negotiation outcome, both relational and economic (Liu et al., 2010). Lower communication quality can increase uncertainty and ambiguity in intercultural negotiation, thus lowering a negotiator's satisfaction with the process. So, I advise negotiation trainers and cross-cultural negotiators to be mindful of their cultural lens when perceiving and interpreting a counterpart's vocal cues and to use active listening to test and confirm a counterpart's level of engagement and affect.

Given that communication problems in international negotiation contribute to poor outcomes (Adair et al., 2001), and that a large portion of communication is conveyed nonverbally (Lieberman & Rosenthal, 2001), understanding cultural differences in nonverbal communication helps us to develop a clearer picture of why and how communication problems arise. Also, findings from on-going research on nonverbal communication and vocal paralinguistic can be used to train negotiators when interacting with members of different cultures to enhance effective communication, foster relationships and maximize integrative outcomes.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

This dissertation tested the ways in which negotiators from China and Canada convey distinct relational attitudes and meaning nonverbally and investigated how these behaviours predicted negotiation outcomes. My findings contribute to theory and advance current understanding of negotiation and culture from a communication perspective in two important ways. First, while I replicate prior work illustrating that East Asians are subtler in their nonverbal displays (e. g. Ambady et al., 1996; Matsumoto et al., 2008), my work advances existing theories by showing that the subtle nonverbal expressions of East Asians are more impactful in predicting negotiation outcomes compared to the overt nonverbal expressions of North Americans. Second, I demonstrate that in negotiation, nonverbal behaviours are more likely to express the nature of relationship among East Asians and level of involvement in the negotiation task among North Americans.

My predictions were derived from theories of relational and task orientation at work, low-high context communication, and the involvement-affect model of nonverbal communication (Hall, 1989; Prager, 2000; Sanchez-Burks, 2002). Across my two studies I found that Chinese negotiators were subtler in their nonverbal displays. They conveyed dominance by taking up space, were less likely to vary their body movement and facial expression, and were calmer and less expressive in their paralinguistic. In contrast, Canadian negotiators expressed dominance through posture expansion and negative facial expression, they engaged in more body movement and emotion expression in face and vocal paralinguistic.

My findings are consistent with prior empirical work on cross-cultural nonverbal communication. In line with the theory of low-high context communication, Chinese negotiators, who are high context communicators, do not need to be as expressive nonverbally as Canadian negotiators. The underlying meaning of their communicated messages is heavily dependent on contextual elements such as their negotiation role, status, and the external environment. Thus they are capable of transmitting the intended meaning even with very subtle nonverbal behaviours. On the other hand, Canadian negotiators, who are low context communicators, do not rely on contextual factors as much as the Chinese negotiators. So, to decipher the meaning of a communicated message, Canadian negotiators are more likely to use words and expressive nonverbal behaviours.

I also examined the impact of nonverbal communication on negotiation outcomes. Consistent with empirical research on negotiation outcomes, I examined how nonverbal cues influence economic outcomes associated with monetary value claiming in negotiation. I also investigated subjective and relational outcomes in negotiation, which reflect a negotiator's feelings and satisfaction with negotiation process, economic outcome, and relationship development. Using the theory of low-high context communication, I predicted and found that while Chinese negotiators are less expressive nonverbally, the subtle variation in their nonlinguistic communication is more impactful in predicting their outcome compared to Canadian negotiators. The logic behind this argument stemmed from the fact that high context communicators pay more attention to context, external cues, and subtlety in behaviours. If this is true, then even limited and subtle nonverbal behaviours should have a profound effect on the negotiation outcomes. On the other hand, because interpretation of communication among low

context communicators is not highly dependent on attention to context and subtlety in behaviours, but rather the direct and explicit communication of messages through verbal speech and nonverbal cues, I did not predict such a strong impact on outcome for low context negotiators.

In study 1, Chinese negotiators were more subtle and indirect in their display of dominant behaviours. These cues were highly predictive of the economic and relational outcomes. Yet, the overt and direct expressions of dominance by Canadian negotiators were equally predictive of their economic and relational outcomes. Study 2 extended the results in study 1 by examining the direct effects of Canadian and Chinese nonverbal embodiment of relational affect and involvement dimensions of communication meaning on relational outcomes. I found that nonverbal cues are highly predictive of outcomes but their effect is dependent on the negotiator's culture. More specifically, the strength of the impact of nonlinguistic cues on outcomes is higher among Chinese negotiators compared to Canadian negotiators. Therefore, it appears that while Chinese negotiators are subtler and less expressive nonverbally than Canadians, these behaviours are highly predictive of their performance in negotiation interactions.

Theoretical Implications and Practical Applications

This research has implications for effective communication and integrative solutions in negotiation. High quality or optimal negotiation outcomes can be achieved when parties expand the amount of resources that are being negotiated, through identifying and optimizing compatible interests and engaging in mutual and beneficial trade-offs (Bazerman et al., 2000; Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993). For negotiators to arrive at higher joint profits, information sharing and integrating interests are essential (De Dreu et al., 2000), which can be achieved through

successful encoding and decoding of communicated messages. By identifying universal nonverbal expressions of relational messages in negotiation, my findings can help negotiators extract information, particularly when the verbal content is ambiguous. My findings also suggest how negotiators can attend to nonverbal cues to gain insight about the counterpart's negotiation style, motivation, and intentions, which can be used to build rapport, establish relationships, and realize value creation opportunities.

My findings have important implications for cross-cultural negotiations and intercultural workplace interactions. Research on cross-cultural negotiation suggests that Eastern versus Western negotiators have very different normative behaviours (Adair et al., 2001) communication styles (Hall, 1989), goals (Gelfand & Realo 1999), and negotiation schemas (Adair et al., 2009). Such cultural differences tend to result in lower quality of communication (Liu et al., 2010), difficulty in understanding and integrating information (Adair et al., 2001), lack of rapport, trust, and relationship development (Gunia et al., 2011), thereby lowering joint outcomes in intercultural interactions compared to intracultural contexts (Brett & Okumura, 1998). By extension, our results contribute to empirical work on cross-cultural negotiation and provide directions for practical applications as they illuminate culturally normative nonverbal expressions amongst Chinese and Canadian negotiators, which can be employed to improve communication, understanding, and integration of information in intercultural interactions.

A meta-analysis conducted by Elfenbein and colleagues (2007) illustrated greater recognition of posed facial expressions predicted better objective outcomes for negotiators. Moreover, researchers have found a culture ingroup advantage in recognizing facial expressions and emotions (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002). Training negotiators to express and recognize both

culturally normative and universal embodiment of relational messages can increase the accuracy and recognition of such nonverbal expressions, which can result in more favorable negotiation outcomes. Nonverbal communication training in negotiations is essential, yet lacking. My work can pave the way for nonlinguistic communication training as it identifies combinations of nonverbal cues that characterize a negotiation approach. Taken together, our findings can be applied in business negotiations and conflict management across Eastern, Western, and multicultural settings to facilitate communication and resolve conflicts.

Limitations and Future Directions

My dissertation offers significant advances in studying nonverbal communication in cross-cultural negotiation. I examined the display of behaviours in an intracultural setting, thus eliciting culturally prototypical behaviours in a negotiation context. I studied nonverbal using an observational and experimental approach. Accordingly, I was able to investigate nonverbal patterns and test for meaning and function of those behaviours. By implementing etic or universal concepts in my manipulation, using controlled experimental conditions by having participants negotiate with trained confederates of the same culture, and systematically coding nonlinguistic cues using the Noldus system, my research offers a tight and controlled methodology to study nonlinguistic communication in East-West negotiations.

Yet, my research has several limitations. First, because my studies examine behaviours in an intracultural setting, it is difficult to predict whether such behaviours would function in a similar manner in an intercultural or cross-cultural setting. Prior empirical work on verbal communication in cross-cultural negotiation suggests that there may be some level of adaptation in an intercultural setting. For instance, when examining negotiation behaviour of Japanese and

U.S. American individuals in cross-cultural interactions, Adair and colleagues (2001) found that intercultural negotiators, particularly Japanese individuals, adapt by employing negotiation behaviours that are more normative in the other culture and less normative in their own culture. Other negotiation researchers such as Weiss (1994) and Adler (1997) also discuss the prevalence of adaptation in an intercultural context, and advise negotiators who are most familiar with the other negotiator's culture to adapt the most. Thus, while my research provides an in-depth understanding of prototypical nonverbal displays in Chinese and Canadian intracultural negotiations, in an intercultural context, there may be some level of adaptation and spillover of culturally normative nonlinguistic communication. For future research directions, I plan to explore this by observing nonverbal behaviours in an intercultural context.

Second, while in study 2 I manipulated negotiation approach to systematically identify nonverbal cues associated with dimensions of communication meaning, I was not able to directly test the impact of these behaviours on economic outcomes. Given my current results on subjective perceptions of outcome and prior research on nonverbal behaviour in negotiation, I expect embodiment of involvement and affect approaches to influence individual and joint gains (Swaab et al., 2012; Wiltermuth, 2009). For instance, Maddux and colleagues (2008) found that nonverbal mimicry or the mirroring of behavioural cues in a dyadic interaction resulted in favorable negotiation outcomes as well as rapport. Thus, for future research I plan to examine the consequence of embodied behaviours on individual and joint economic outcomes, as well as relationship building and subjective evaluations.

Third, while in my dissertation I tested the meaning behind relational nonverbal behaviours, I have not confirmed the degree to which the interacting partner or counterpart is

able to decipher the meaning behind these nonverbal messages. According to the social meaning model of nonverbal communication, some nonverbal behaviours have shared social meaning within a particular social community, while others do not (Burgoon & Newton, 1991).

Consequently, the interpretations made by encoders, decoders, and third-party observers of the same nonverbal behaviour should be congruent, with perhaps culture acting as a moderator. For future research, I plan to test this claim by having third-party observers identify the nonverbal clusters and examine whether they associate those clusters with particular negotiation nonverbal expressions.

Fourth, because the focus of my study was on nonverbal expressions in negotiation, I did not examine the verbal content accompanying nonlinguistic cues. By pitting nonverbal behaviours against verbal messages, future research can discern the function and impact of such behaviours above and beyond the verbal discourse in negotiation. Ekman & Friesen (1971) claim that nonverbal messages interact with verbal speech in six possible ways. Nonverbal messages can substitute for verbal content, especially when there is a shared social meaning of behaviours between the interacting partners. Nonlinguistic communication can also emphasize or complement verbal messages. For example, a negotiator can express dominance by threatening the counterpart verbally, while expressing negative affect and involvement through gestures, eye contact, and lack of positive facial expressions. Nonverbal behaviours can accent spoken messages in communication by, for instance, engaging in hand gestures to emphasize particular points in the verbal discourse. Nonverbal and verbal messages can also contradict each other, such as when a negotiator indirectly suggests “no” to an offer by verbally indicating, “this is an interesting idea” while exhibiting a distant postural position and a lack of eye contact, which

signal disengagement (Manusov & Patterson, 2006). Finally, nonverbal communication can regulate verbal conversation. As an illustration, a negotiator can encourage the counterpart to verbally state his or her goals and interests through positive relational approach by smiling, engaging in eye contact and a forward lean posture. Therefore, by investigating the verbal discourse accompanying nonlinguistic behaviour, researchers can delineate the function of nonverbal behaviour in the different stages of negotiation (Adair & Brett, 2005).

Concluding Remarks

My dissertation demonstrates the significance of nonlinguistic behaviours in expressing a negotiator's intentions, perceptions, and goals. Results show how a negotiator's culture and intentions influence embodiment of messages conveying level of involvement in negotiation and level of affect toward one's counterpart. The findings illustrate how nonverbal expressions influence a negotiator's satisfaction with subjective outcomes and economic outcomes. On the whole, through this dissertation I found that when compared to low context, task oriented Canadian negotiators, high context, relational oriented Chinese negotiators are more subtle in their nonverbal expressions, and these negotiators use nonverbal communication as a means to express the nature of relationships in the negotiation. Also, such subtle behaviours are highly predictive of economic and relational outcomes.

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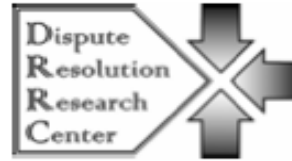
Appendix A

Confidential Role Instructions for At Your Service Negotiation

At Your Service - D

Confidential Information for J.P. Martin

By Jeanne M. Brett & Michele Gelfand



Confidential Information

You are J. P. Martin, a chef with a culinary science degree and 5 years of work experience, which includes winning a prestigious prize in a gourmet food competition. You would like to open a catering business and have been talking to Chris Sands, an entrepreneur with 5 years of experience investing in small businesses. Following some extended discussions the two of you decided to meet to see if you could set up a business catering to parties and weddings under the name of *At Your Service*.

Your and Sands' analysis indicates that you will need \$35,000 in capital to get the business off the ground. There are four issues that you must decide in your upcoming negotiation:

1. The contribution to working capital that you and Sands will each make.
2. The location of the catering kitchen.
3. The size and age of the delivery van.
4. The quality of the kitchen equipment.

Depending on the outcome of this negotiation, you will decide at a later time how to split the profits.

Although you could scrape together as much as \$30,000 to invest in this venture, you would like to only put \$5,000 of your own capital into it and not have to borrow from your extended family. After all, you will be doing the production and Sands will only be doing the financial work and advertising. This is an investment for Sands. Cooking is your profession. The options are:

- Sands puts in \$5,000 and you put in \$30,000 – but you really don't have the money for this.
- Sands puts in \$10,000 and you put in \$25,000 – this would be difficult.
- Sands puts in \$15,000 and you put in \$20,000.
- Sands puts in \$17,500 and you put in \$17,500.
- Sands puts in \$20,000 and you put in \$15,000 – this is better.

- Sands puts in \$25,000 and you put in \$10,000.
- Sands puts in \$30,000 and you put in \$5,000 – this is your most preferred option.

You and Sands have looked at five possible spaces for the catering kitchen all of which are in the same neighborhood:

- Sharing space in a small restaurant kitchen (shared E).
- Sharing space in a large restaurant kitchen (shared D).
- Renting a moderate sized storefront on a quiet side street (storefront C).
- Renting a small storefront on a street with lots of pedestrian traffic (storefront B).
- Renting a moderate size storefront space on a street with lots of pedestrian traffic (storefront A).

Sharing means sharing space, not equipment. Sharing space E would be the cheapest option, but doing so means a great deal of coordination with the current users of the space. You do not prefer this option. Sharing the larger space (shared D) is a better option, but you want to run your own kitchen. You strongly prefer to have the moderate (storefront A) or even the small storefront (storefront B) space on the streets with lots of pedestrian traffic. You think that over time you can develop a carryout business in addition to the catering business. The space on the quiet side street (storefront C) does not give you the option to expand, nevertheless it is preferable to sharing kitchen space.

You have five van options. You can rent:

- A new Coyota 160 (cc 1600)
- A new Coyota 120 (cc 1200)
- A 2 year old Coyota 200 (cc 2000) with low mileage
- A 2 year old Coyota 160 with high mileage
- A 2 year old Coyota 120 with low mileage. (Coyota is a fictitious auto manufacturer.)

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You think the new 160 is just right for the business. It will accommodate some really big parties. With the new 120 you may have to rent an additional vehicle to get all your equipment to some big parties. The used 200 model is too big (and therefore expensive to maintain), even though it is in good condition. The used 160 is a high mileage vehicle which you think is risky, and the used 120 although low mileage is a bit too small in your opinion. You strongly prefer one of the new vans to any of the used ones.

- New low quality equipment
- Used low quality equipment.

You think the best option is the used mid-quality equipment. You would like to have new equipment but the difference between used top quality and new mid quality equipment is not very great from your perspective. However, low quality equipment is just not acceptable to a chef of your reputation and ability. It will limit what you can do in the kitchen.

You have several options for renting the kitchenware and serving-ware that you will need for the catering business:

- Used top of the line new equipment
- New mid-quality equipment
- Used mid-quality equipment

You are to meet with Sands for 30 minutes to try to negotiate a deal on these four issues. The table below summarizes your preferences on the settlement options for each issue in terms of points. Your goal is to negotiate an agreement worth as many points as possible.

Issues, Options, and Values

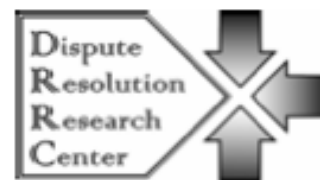
Issue	No.	Option	Value to Martin
Capital	1	\$ 5,000 Sands \$30,000 Martin	5
	2	\$10,000 Sands \$25,000 Martin	10
	3	\$15,000 Sands \$20,000 Martin	15
	4	\$17,500 Sands \$17,500 Martin	20
	5	\$20,000 Sands \$15,000 Martin	45
	6	\$25,000 Sands \$10,000 Martin	75
	7	\$30,000 Sands \$5,000 Martin	85
Space	1	Storefront A, moderate size, high traffic	75
	2	Storefront B, small size high traffic	65
	3	Storefront C, moderate size low traffic	25
	4	Shared space D large size	20
	5	Shared space E small size	15
Van	1	Coyota 160 new	65
	2	Coyota 120 new	55
	3	Coyota 200 used	25
	4	Coyota 160 used high mileage	20
	5	Coyota 120 used low mileage	15
Equipment	1	Used top quality	10
	2	New mid quality	15
	3	Used mid quality	25
	4	New low quality	10
	5	Used low quality	5

****You may tell Sands what you wish about this chart, but DO NOT SHOW it to Sands.****

At Your Service - D

Confidential Information for Chris Sands

By Jeanne M. Brett & Michele Gelfand



Confidential Information

You are Chris Sands, an entrepreneur with 5 years of experience investing in small businesses. You have been considering investing in a catering business and have been talking with a chef, J. P. Martin, who has a culinary science degree and 5 years of work experience as a chef which includes winning a prestigious prize in a gourmet food competition. Following some extended discussions the two of you decided to meet to see if you could set up a business catering to parties and weddings under the name of *At Your Service*.

Your and Martin's analysis indicates that you will need \$35,000 in capital to get the business off the ground. There are four issues that you must decide on in your upcoming negotiation: the contribution to working capital that you and Martin will each make; the location of the catering kitchen; the size and age of the delivery van; and the quality of kitchen equipment. Depending on the outcome of this negotiation, you will decide at a later time how to split the profits.

Although you have as much as \$30,000 to invest in this venture, you would like to only put \$5,000 into it with Martin putting up most of the capital and running the business except for the financial work and advertising that you will be doing. This would allow you to diversify the \$30,000 that you have to invest this year. The options are:

- You put in \$5,000 and Martin puts in \$30,000 – this is your most preferred option.
- You put in \$10,000 and Martin puts in \$25,000 – this is still good, though not the best option for you.
- You put in \$15,000 and Martin puts in \$20,000.
- You each put in \$17,500.
- You put in \$20,000 and Martin puts in \$15,000
- You put in \$25,000 and Martin puts in \$10,000

- You put in \$30,000 and Martin puts in \$5,000 – this is your least preferred option. You think Martin should make a much bigger contribution.

You and Martin have looked at five possible spaces for the catering kitchen all of which are in the same neighborhood:

- Sharing space in a small restaurant kitchen (shared E)
- Sharing space in a large restaurant kitchen (shared D)
- Renting a moderate sized storefront on a quiet side street (storefront C)
- Renting a small storefront on a street with lots of pedestrian traffic (storefront B)
- Renting a moderate size storefront on a street with lots of pedestrian traffic (storefront A).

Sharing means sharing space, not equipment. Sharing space E is the cheapest option. You think the small shared space (shared E) is the best option, until the business proves itself. The storefronts on the streets with lots of pedestrian traffic have the potential to allow you to expand into a carryout business, but they are the most expensive options and you want to keep costs down. You think sharing a small space E is best. The price is right.

You have five van options. You can rent

- A new Coyota 160 (cc 1600)
- A new Coyota 120 (cc 1200)
- A 2 year old Coyota 200 (cc 2000) with low mileage
- A 2 year old Coyota 160 with high mileage
- A 2 year old Coyota 120 with low mileage.

(Coyota is a fictitious auto manufacturer.)

You think renting a new van is too expensive. Alternatively, you can rent the 2 year old 200 model for somewhat less, but you are concerned about maintenance costs for this older bigger van. Your

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preference from a cost perspective is the used Coyota 120 with low mileage. To be sure it may be a little small for some catering jobs, but you think it is the most economical option in the long run.

You have several options for renting the kitchenware and serving-ware that you will need for the catering business:

- Used top of the line new equipment
- New mid-quality equipment
- Used mid-quality equipment
- New low quality equipment
- Used low quality equipment.

You think the best option is the used mid- quality equipment.

You are to meet with Martin for 30 minutes to try to negotiate a deal on these four issues. The table on the next page summarizes your preferences on the settlement options for each issue in terms of points. Your goal is to negotiate an agreement worth as many points as possible.

Issues, Options, and Values

Issue	No	Option	Value to Sands
Capital	1	\$ 5,000 Sands \$30,000 Martin	85
	2	\$10,000 Sands \$25,000 Martin	75
	3	\$15,000 Sands \$20,000 Martin	45
	4	\$17,500 Sands \$17,500 Martin	20
	5	\$20,000 Sands \$15,000 Martin	15
	6	\$25,000 Sands \$10,000 Martin	10
	7	\$30,000 Sands \$5,000 Martin	5
Space	1	Storefront A, moderate size, high traffic	15
	2	Storefront B, small size high traffic	20
	3	Storefront C, moderate size low traffic	25
	4	Shared space D large size	55
	5	Shared space E small size	65
Van	1	Coyota 160 new	15
	2	Coyota 120 new	20
	3	Coyota 200 used	25
	4	Coyota 160 used high mileage	65
	5	Coyota 120 used low mileage	75
Equipment	1	Used top quality	10
	2	New mid quality	15
	3	Used mid quality	25
	4	New low quality	10
	5	Used low quality	5

****You may tell Martin what you wish about this chart, but DO NOT SHOW it to Martin.****

Appendix B

Categories of Dominant Behaviours

Categories	Nonverbal Behaviours and Descriptions	Categories
Use of Space	<i>Space</i> : Spreading of arms across table and air <i>Hands on table</i> : Placing of hands on table <i>Moved hands</i> : Gesturing when speaking	Scale rating (1= behaviour did not occur; 5= behaviour was displayed very often)
Relaxed Posture	<i>Lean Sideways</i> : Posture leaning to left or right <i>Lean Back</i> : Posture leaning back in chair <i>Relaxed posture</i> : Body seems relaxed and at ease	Frequency count
Negative Emotion	Angry, nervous, scared, disgusted, ashamed, sad, irritable, hostile	Scale rating (1= behaviour did not occur; 5= behaviour was displayed very often)

Appendix C

Confidential Role Instructions for Towers Market

Brown's Bakery

Background Information

You own a highly successful traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery. You have inspected several equally desirable locations. You do not have many favourable alternatives and you have limited options. You care a lot about the final outcome of this negotiation since there are no attractive alternatives.

You offer a wide selection of French breads, croissants, and brioches (a type of bread), as well as delectable pastries and desserts. You have recently put in a small number of tables and started selling coffee. You have been so successful that you have almost outgrown your existing premises and need to find a new location for your store. You have inspected several equally desirable locations. Which location you choose will depend on the terms of the lease that you negotiate. Unless you get a lease that is favourable for your business, you will not relocate.

Today, you are investigating more closely one option, which is to take up some vacant space in Tower Market. The Market has several shops arranged in an open plan with a common decor. The food and other products are in "departments," where customers are able to purchase a range of products by crossing aisles instead of crossing streets. At the moment, there is vacant space designed to hold two businesses at the Market. Today, you are negotiating with the owner of Domaine Vintage Cellars, who is also interested in locating a shop in the Market. You need to discuss several aspects of managing the space.

Below you will see a summary of the issues that you need to discuss and the options that are available to you. You will see points next to each option. These provide an indication of what something is worth to your business. It is your goal to get the best contract that you can for yourself. To do this, you should aim to maximise the number of points that the contract is worth to you.

Description of Issues

Staff. The major issue here seems to be whether the two stores should continue to offer the extremely personalised service that they offered in their original stores, or whether they should economise and share costs of hiring and training. Because your sales staffs do not need any special skills, you are happy to hire and train as a group.

- Staff 1: hire and train as a group, distribute equally between shops, share costs.
- Staff 2: hire and train as a group, distribute according to demand for service, share costs
- Staff 3: hire and train as a group, distribute according to demand for service, pay according to use.
- Staff 4: hire as a group, distribute according to demand for service provide additional individual training as required, pay according to use.
- Staff 5: hire and train individually, all decisions made by you, you pay from individual profits
- Your preferred option is Staff 1

Advertising. You will need to consider whether it would be better to promote the two stores together or whether it would be better to continue advertising in the manner which you have found to be most successful. Your products appeal to a broad range of customers. You believe that provided the market attracts customers you will also attract customers.

- Ad1: combined campaign, advertising for market as a whole, costs to be divided equally. Flat rate of \$2,000/shop
- Ad2: combined campaign, advertising for market as a whole, to be paid according to percentage of profits contributed for each store. Approx 2% of gross profit.
- Ad3: combined campaign, advertising the stores as individual units on the same flyers, to be paid according to percentage of profits contributed for each store. Approx 4% of gross profit.
- Ad4: separate campaign for each member, black-and-white flyers. Approx 6% of gross profits.
- Ad5: separate campaign for each member, colour flyers. Approx 8% of gross profits.
- Your preferred option is Ad1

*** You are very eager about the upcoming negotiation. It is something you are really into, so you feel extremely involved in the negotiation process. You are very lively, animated, and engaged during the negotiation and care a lot about the final outcome. During this negotiation, please remember that you are keen, interested, fascinated, and feel very involved.

Staffing	Profit	Advertising	Profit
Staff1	2400	Ad1	6000
Staff2	1800	Ad2	4500
Staff3	1200	Ad3	3000
Staff4	600	Ad4	1500
Staff5	000	Ad5	000

Domaine Vintage Cellars

Background Information

You own a highly successful wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars. You have inspected several equally desirable locations. You do not have many favourable alternatives and you have limited options. You care a lot about the final outcome of this negotiation since there are no attractive alternatives.

Your store is proud of its claim that you have a cellar with over 300 different high quality wines, both from Australia and overseas. You also have a fine selection of Scotches and other liquors. Your sales continue to rise. You have been so successful that you have almost outgrown your existing premises and need to find a new location for your store. You have inspected several equally desirable locations. Which location you choose will depend on the terms of the lease that you negotiate. Unless you get a lease that is favourable for your business, you will not relocate.

Today, you are investigating more closely one option, which is to take up some vacant space in Tower Market. The Market has several shops arranged in an open plan with a common decor. The food and other products are in "departments," where customers are able to purchase a range of products by crossing aisles instead of crossing streets. At the moment, there is vacant space designed to hold two businesses at the Market. Today, you are negotiating with the owner of Brown's Bakery, who is also interested in locating a shop in the Market.

Below, you will see a summary of the issues that you need to discuss and the options that are available to you. You will note points next to each option. These provide an indication of what something is worth to your business. It is your goal to get the best contract that you can for yourself. To do this, you should aim to maximise the number of points that the contract is worth to you.

Description of Issues

Staff. The major issue here seems to be whether the two stores should continue to offer the extremely personalized service that they offered in their original stores, or whether they should economize and share costs of hiring and training. Because your business is built on the expertise of your service staff you believe it is important that you have complete control over staff decisions.

- Staff 1: hire and train as a group, distribute equally between shops, share costs.
- Staff 2: hire and train as a group, distribute according to demand for service, share costs
- Staff 3: hire and train as a group, distribute according to demand for service, pay according to use.
- Staff 4: hire as a group, distribute according to demand for service provide additional individual training as required, pay according to use.
- Staff 5: hire and train individually, all decisions made by you, you pay from individual profits
- Your preferred option is Staff 5

Advertising. You will need to consider whether it would be better to promote the two stores together or whether it would be better to continue advertising in the manner which you have found to be most successful. Since your client base is very specialised, you prefer to maintain control over your advertising campaign. You believe that your clients are attracted by high quality, colour advertising and you are willing to pay the extra costs.

- Ad1: combined campaign, advertising for market as a whole, costs to be divided equally. Flat rate of \$2,000/shop
- Ad2: combined campaign, advertising for market as a whole, to be paid according to percentage of profits contributed for each store. Approx 2% of gross profit.
- Ad3: combined campaign, advertising the stores as individual units on the same flyers, to be paid according to percentage of profits contributed for each store. Approx 4% of gross profit.
- Ad4: separate campaign for each member, black-and-white flyers. Approx 6% of gross profits.
- Ad5: separate campaign for each member, colour flyers. Approx 8% of gross profits.
- Your preferred option is Ad5

*** You are very eager about the upcoming negotiation. It is something you are really into, so you feel extremely involved in the negotiation process. You are very lively, animated, and engaged during the negotiation and care a lot about the final outcome. During this negotiation, please remember that you are keen, interested, fascinated, and feel very involved.

Staffing	Profit	Advertising	Profit
Staff1	000	Ad1	000
Staff2	1500	Ad2	600
Staff3	3000	Ad3	1200
Staff4	4500	Ad4	1800
Staff5	6000	Ad5	2400

Appendix D

Negotiator Approach Manipulation

<i>Passive (Low Involvement, Negative Affect)</i>	<i>Active (High Involvement, Positive Affect)</i>
<p>You own a highly successful <u>wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery</u>. You inspected several equally desirable locations. You have many favourable alternatives and have several options. You are not too concerned about the final outcome of this negotiation since you have other attractive alternatives.</p> <p>You are not very excited about the upcoming negotiation. It is not something you care much about, so it is hard for you to feel involved in the negotiation process. You are disinterested in the negotiation and are indifferent about the final outcome. In this negotiation, please remember that you are unexcited and do not feel very engaged or involved.</p>	<p>You own a highly successful <u>wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery</u>. You inspected several equally desirable locations. You do not have many favourable alternatives and have limited options. You are care a lot about the final outcome of this negotiation since there are no attractive alternatives.</p> <p>You are very eager about the upcoming negotiation. It is something you are really into, so you feel extremely involved in the negotiation process. You are very lively, animated, and engaged and care a lot about the final outcome. In this negotiation, please remember that you are keen, interested, fascinated, and feel very involved.</p>
<i>Positive (High Involvement, Positive Affect)</i>	<i>Negative (Low Involvement, Negative Affect)</i>
<p>You own a highly successful <u>wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery</u>. Your negotiating partner also owns a successful business. Other businessmen, who negotiated with your counterpart, reported a positive negotiation experience. They perceived the negotiation experience to be pleasant, cheerful, nice, and positive.</p> <p>You are very optimistic about the upcoming negotiation. You have a positive feeling about this and feel happy and merry. You are very cheerful and have a positive feeling. In this negotiation, please remember that you are nice, pleasant, favourable, and optimistic.</p>	<p>You own a highly successful <u>wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery</u>. Your negotiating partner also owns a successful business. Other businessmen, who negotiated with your counterpart, reported a negative negotiation experience. They perceived the negotiation experience to be unpleasant, and negative.</p> <p>You are very pessimistic about the upcoming negotiation. You have a negative feeling about this and are unhappy and gloomy. You are very distrustful and have a bad feeling. In this negotiation, please remember that you are gloomy, unhappy, distrustful, and pessimistic.</p>

Dominant (*High Involvement, Negative Affect*)

Submissive (*Low Involvement, Positive Affect*)

You own a highly successful wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery. You are a more experienced negotiator and businessman than your counterpart. Your business is well known and you are respected within the community. You possess a higher social status than your partner. You are determined to take control in the upcoming negotiation.

You are assertive, authoritative, and controlling. You are a leader and it is very important for you to take charge during this negotiation. You want to get what you want out of this negotiation. In this negotiation, please remember that you are very controlling, assertive, and dominant.

You own a highly successful wine business, Domaine Vintage Cellars OR traditional French bakery, Brown's Bakery. Compared to your counterpart, you are a less experienced negotiator and businessman. Your business is not as well known and you are not as respected within the community. You possess a lower social status than your partner. You are compliant and do not plan to take control in the upcoming negotiation.

You are inferior, meek, and obeying. You are yielding and it is very important for you to comply and give-in during this negotiation. In this negotiation, please remember that you are very submissive, inferior, and compliant.

Appendix E

Categories of Nonverbal Behaviour

Categories	Nonverbal Behaviours and Descriptions
Mouth Movement	<i>Silence:</i> Noticeable points in the conversation when no one is saying anything <i>Verbal Speech:</i> Length and frequency of the person talking
Posture	<i>Forward lean:</i> Upper torso tilted forward, with back away from chair <i>Lean Back:</i> Posture leaning back in chair <i>Straight Back:</i> Rigid posture, back is not leaned against the chair
Head Movement	<i>Head down:</i> Sagittal tilt forward, head down <i>Face Side:</i> Nose and Chin pointed away from partner
Hand Movement	<i>Hand Gesture:</i> Hand gestures and movements accompanying speech <i>Palms down:</i> Hands on table and palms placed downward
Facial Expression	<i>Open Smile:</i> Smiling facial expression with mouth open, lips not touching

Appendix F

Global Rating of Vocal Paralanguage

The Target's Voice....			
Pitch Variation	Was monotone (no intonation or variation in pitch)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Contained vocal variability (variation in pitch)
Expressiveness	Was inexpressive (did not incorporate affective or attitudinal expression)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Was animated (incorporated affective or attitudinal expression)
Warmth	Sounded cold (mellow, soothing voice)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Sounded warm (positive affect in voice, communicating affection, liking, and/or concern)
Calmness	Sounded anxious (nervousness in tone of voice)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Sounded calm (serene and calm voice)
Pleasantness	Sounded unpleasant (negative affect in voice, communicating displeasure—sound unhappy, disgusted, or angry)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Sounded pleasant (positive affect in voice, communicating pleasure—sound happy and agreeable)
Voice activeness	Was dull/bored (no variation in voice—in terms of pitch, volume and rate)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Was full of life/interested (variation in voice—in terms of pitch, volume and rate)
The target's speech was:			
Low volume	Loud (loudness of talk or intensity of speech)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Soft
Speech rate	Slow (few number of words per minute, not hurried)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Fast (a lot of words per minute, hurried speech)
Fluency	Filled with dysfluencies (speech was disjointed and choppy)	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Very fluent (smooth and fluid talk)