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Unpacking the Effects of International Experience in Intercultural Negotiations

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UNPACKING THE EFFECTS OF INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN INTERCULTURAL NEGOTIATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation examines how international experience influences the outcomes of intercultural negotiations. Its main contributions lie in the novel and contextualized conceptualization of international experience and the development of a comprehensive theoretical model that unpacks the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations. I propose that international experience is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses four dimensions: breadth, depth, cultural distance, and cultural heterogeneity. I argue that experiences abroad develop and strengthen individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity, which in turn positively influence the outcomes of intercultural negotiations, i.e., they mediate the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. I contend that it is crucial to differentiate between touristic international experience and international experience acquired through living/working/studying (LWS) abroad. Their effects on intercultural negotiation outcomes, intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity can be expected to differ. I also posit that cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad moderates the relationships between the mediators and intercultural negotiation outcomes, such that the positive effects of intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity on intercultural negotiation outcomes are more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is larger. The sample of the empirical study to test the theoretical model at the dyad level consists of 301 intercultural negotiation dyads (U.S. versus non-U.S.), with 602 participants from 55 countries. Data was collected

through survey questionnaires and a negotiation simulation. Results of the study indicate that breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity of the intercultural negotiation dyads' LWS international experience are positively related to their economic joint gains. They are also positively associated with the dyads' joint subjective value, except for the depth dimension. For the negotiation dyads' touristic international experience, only breadth is positively correlated with their economic joint gains. Overall, these negotiation dyads' international experience is positively related to their intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity, with LWS and touristic international experience having differential impact. In addition, their intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity are positively related to their joint subjective value. Results of mediation analysis provide evidence that both intercultural competence and psychological capital mediate some of the indirect effects of the intercultural negotiation dyads' international experience on their joint subjective value. Moreover, moderator analysis shows that the positive effect of intercultural negotiation dyads' global identity on their joint subjective value is more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is large than when it is moderate. This dissertation provides theoretical arguments and empirical evidence that it is beneficial to acquire different types of international experience and to manage the characteristics of one's international experience in terms of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity so as to leverage their positive direct and indirect effects on one's intercultural negotiation outcomes. This underscores the importance of unpacking the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations. Theoretical contributions

and practical implications of this dissertation, limitations of the empirical study and avenues for future research are discussed.

Keywords: International Experience, Intercultural Negotiation, Intercultural Competence, Psychological Capital, Global Identity, Cultural Distance

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 introduces this dissertation on the positive effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes through developing negotiators' intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity. First, it presents the research background and motivations. Then, it states the research objectives and questions. Next, it explains the main propositions of the theoretical model and the empirical study that has been conducted to test the hypotheses proposed in this dissertation. Subsequently, it highlights the theoretical contributions and implications for practice. Finally, it outlines the structure of this dissertation.

Research Background and Motivations

Being effective in conducting intercultural negotiations is becoming more and more critical with the internationalization of work and study. However, intercultural negotiations are more difficult than intracultural negotiations because the intercultural context adds a layer of complexity and creates more uncertainty and anxiety for negotiators (Adler, 1997; Gudykunst, 1995). This is evidenced by research findings showing that negotiation outcomes tend to be lower in intercultural negotiations compared to intracultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2010).

Although biographic anecdotes of master negotiators often feature their international experience, for instance, statesman Henry Kissinger was born in Germany, grew up and went to schools in the US, and also traveled widely around the world (Liu &

Adair, 2017), surprisingly little has been investigated in the context of intercultural negotiations with regard to the effects of negotiators' international experience on their negotiation outcomes. To the best of my knowledge, there are only three empirical studies so far. Their results indicate that international experience is significantly positively associated with negotiators' creativity (Maddux & Galinsky, 2009) and subjective value and economic gains (Liu et al., 2013) in both intra- and intercultural settings, but not with negotiators' sequencing of integrative information behaviors and cooperative relationship management behaviors in intercultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). These somewhat conflicting results are likely due to the differences in the outcomes examined and/or the way international experience is conceptualized and measured. Liu et al. (2013) found that depth of multicultural experience has a significant positive relationship with intercultural negotiation outcomes and this relationship is mediated by the negotiators' global identity. They conceptualized depth of multicultural experience as encompassing extended immersion in certain cultures for life functions of work, live, or study in the local language. It is measured with three indices: (i) difference between birth and passport countries, (ii) proficiency of foreign languages, and (iii) length of stay in a foreign country for more than 3 months. Although it was not the focus of their study, Imai and Gelfand (2010) found a significant positive correlation between negotiators' length of living abroad experience and their level of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), both overall CQ and behavioral CQ, in intercultural negotiations. Interestingly, Maddux and Galinsky (2009) examined the effects of living abroad versus traveling abroad separately and found that living abroad but not traveling abroad has a significant positive influence on negotiators' creativity. Their results indicate that it is the experience

of deeply immersing in foreign countries while living abroad that enhances one's creativity. Merely traveling abroad does not yield such a benefit. Thus, the type/domain of the international experience matters.

Overall, these three studies indicate that the impact of negotiators' international experience in negotiations is complex and more research is warranted to further tease out when and how international experience influences which negotiation processes and outcomes, for example, by investigating potential mediators and moderators of the international experience-negotiation outcomes relationship which Liu et al.'s (2013) study has illuminated. Moreover, Imai and Gelfand (2010) point out that the intercultural context not only brings about intercultural communication challenges due to cultural differences between the negotiators which compromise the performance of intercultural negotiators compared to intracultural negotiators, the intercultural context also makes it difficult for negotiators to sustain epistemic motivation (low need for closure) and social motivation (cooperative motives) which are two necessary conditions for negotiators to engage in effective integrative negotiation processes that lead to higher joint gains¹. First, negotiators in intercultural negotiations tend to experience higher levels of anxiety and uncertainty because of the cultural diversity in intercultural negotiations (Gudykunst, 1995), resulting in heightened need for closure, i.e., low epistemic motivation (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2012) compared to those in intracultural negotiations. The need for closure is a form of epistemic motivation (Webster & Kruglanski, 1994) where a

¹ Since individual gain is a function of joint gain, the higher the joint gain, the more potential for individual gain to be higher, i.e., higher joint gain is a necessary but insufficient condition for higher individual gain. Value must be created first before it can be claimed. Higher joint gain represents more value creation while higher individual gain reflects more value claiming.

person who has a high need for closure can be said to have low epistemic motivation, and vice versa. Epistemic motivation is defined as “*the desire to acquire a full and accurate understanding of the world*” (De Dreu, 2004: 122). Second, negotiators in intercultural negotiations are less likely to have social motivation in the form of cooperative motives compared to those in intracultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). This is because of inter-group bias, resulting in people being less willing to cooperate with outgroup members compared to ingroup members (Hewstone et al., 2002). Cooperative motives, a type of social motivation refers to having equal and high concerns for both outcomes of self and other (McClintock, 1977). According to the theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949, 1973), social motivation plays a central role in problem-solving behavior and integrative negotiation.

Informed by the above three studies and after reviewing the literature on the effects of international experience and the literature on negotiations, I proceeded to develop a theoretical model to unpack the effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes, in particular by focusing on pertinent aspects of individuals that international experience can develop and can be expected to mitigate or even overcome the communication barriers in intercultural negotiations and/or the deficits in epistemic motivation (low need for closure) and social motivation (cooperative motives) caused by the intercultural context.

In addition, the conceptualization of international experience in the three studies reflects what has been done in the broader literature on the effects of international experience. Most of the research takes into account the breadth and/or depth of international experience, neglecting the cultural contexts in which the international

experiences took place (a few exceptions: e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Research has shown that context matters, hence it is imperative to develop a contextualized conceptualization of international experience.

Research Objectives and Questions

The broad **research objectives** of this dissertation are to propose a novel and contextualized conceptualization of international experience, and to explore the effects of international experience on the outcomes of intercultural negotiations by developing a comprehensive model that describes three mediators through which international experience influences intercultural negotiation outcomes with cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad as a moderator of the relationships between each of the three mediators and negotiation outcomes. Specifically, it seeks to: (1) propose a multi-dimensional conceptualization of international experience that consists of four dimensions, namely breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity; (2) explore intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity as mediators of the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes; and (3) investigate the moderating effect of cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad on the relationships between each of the three mediators and intercultural negotiation outcomes.

Hence, this dissertation seeks to answer the following **research questions**: (1) How do the various dimensions of international experience — breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity affect intercultural negotiation outcomes? (2) How do the various dimensions of international experience — breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity influence intercultural competence, psychological capital and

global identity? (3) How do intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity impact intercultural negotiation outcomes? (4) Do intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity mediate the relationship between the various dimensions of international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes? (5) Are there any differences between the effects of international experience acquired through living/working/studying (LWS) abroad versus touristic international experience for research questions (1) to (4)? And (6) does cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad moderate the relationships between intercultural competence and negotiation outcomes, between psychological capital and negotiation outcomes, as well as between global identity and negotiation outcomes, such that higher levels of intercultural competence and psychological capital, and a stronger global identity have more pronounced positive effects on intercultural negotiation outcomes when cultural distance between the negotiators is larger?

Main Propositions of Theoretical Model and Empirical Study

In this dissertation, I define international experience as the experiences individuals acquire while they are in foreign countries as tourists or while they are living, working or studying there (e.g., Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). I propose that international experience is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses four dimensions: breadth, depth, cultural distance, and cultural heterogeneity. I argue that experiences abroad develop and strengthen individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity, which in turn enable them to mitigate the inherent issues and challenges in intercultural negotiations and achieve better negotiation outcomes. In other words,

intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity mediate the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes.

The intercultural negotiation context inherently erects barriers to effective communication and creates psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation, resulting in worse outcomes for those in intercultural negotiations compared to those in intracultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2010). I postulate that the extent to which negotiators fall victim to these challenges or how capable they are in mitigating or even overcoming them and achieve better negotiation outcomes depends on their intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity. The intercultural context makes it difficult for negotiators to have effective communication because of cultural differences in communication and negotiation norms and styles between them and their negotiation partners. It also makes it hard for intercultural negotiators to maintain epistemic motivation (low need for closure) and social motivation (cooperative motives) which are necessary for them to engage in effective integrative negotiation processes that lead to higher joint gains. I suggest that in intercultural negotiations, negotiators with a higher level of intercultural competence will have more behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to conduct more effective intercultural communication which will allow them to achieve higher joint gains than dyads with a lower level of intercultural competence; negotiators with a higher level of psychological capital will have higher epistemic motivation (lower need for closure) and more positive psychological resources and capacity to engage in more effective integrative negotiation processes that will aid them in attaining better joint gains than dyads with a lower level of psychological capital; and negotiators with a stronger global identity will have more

behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to conduct effective intercultural communication, as well as higher epistemic motivation (lower need for closure) and higher social motivation (more cooperative motives) to engage in more effective integrative negotiation processes, which will help them to get better negotiation outcomes than dyads with weaker global identity.

I contend that it is crucial to differentiate between touristic international experience and international experience acquired through living/working/studying (LWS) abroad. LWS international experience can be expected to have a stronger impact on the development of individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity than touristic international experience. In addition, since the negotiation takes place in an intercultural context, I posit that cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad moderates the relationships between the mediators and intercultural negotiation outcomes, such that the positive effects of intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity on intercultural negotiation outcomes are more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is larger.

At this point in time when there seems to be a detour of globalization with a resurgence of nationalism in many parts of the world, it is all the more crucial to explicate the benefits of gaining international experience and provide empirical evidence for it. To test the theoretical model, I conducted an empirical study using a negotiation simulation based on the Ocampo-Sportsgear Endorsement Deal negotiation case (Teegen & Weiss, 2004). The sample of this study consists of 301 intercultural negotiation dyads with a total of 602 participants. Participants were students at a large southeastern university in the U.S. with an average age of 20.52. Each intercultural negotiation dyad

consists of an American and a non-American. The non-Americans come from 54 countries around the world, representing a wide variety of cultures. I also collected data via survey questionnaires.

Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation makes theoretical contributions to two streams of literature, namely research on the effects of international experience and negotiations research in the intercultural context. First, one main theoretical contribution of this dissertation is my proposal of a novel and contextualized conceptualization of international experience, which suggests that international experience is a multi-dimensional construct comprising four dimensions: breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity. Most of the research on the effects of international experience takes into account the breadth and/or depth of international experience, neglecting the cultural contexts in which the international experiences took place (a few exceptions: e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Research has shown that context matters, hence it is imperative to contextualize the conceptualization of international experience. I argue that cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity are two important dimensions of international experience that contextualize international experience in different ways. Adding cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity to breadth and depth will enrich the conceptualization of international experience.

Results of the empirical study support my proposed conceptualization of international experience as a multi-dimensional construct. The four dimensions of international experience do not necessarily have the same effect on a particular outcome variable, e.g., a certain dimension is a significant predictor of Y, while another dimension

is not a significant predictor of the same outcome Y. Without recognizing this point, one may be working on enhancing one's international experience to improve Y, but on the wrong dimension, thus achieving no results. For example, only breadth of LWS international experience has a significant positive relationship with psychological capital, while the other three dimensions do not. If a person acquires more LWS international experience in terms of more depth (longer stay), larger cultural distance or greater cultural heterogeneity, but not more breadth, i.e., no new country, he or she is unlikely to have a significant increase in psychological capital.

One may ask why we should recognize cultural distance or cultural heterogeneity as a dimension of international experience. It is pertinent to do so because cultural distance or cultural heterogeneity by itself and the other dimensions (breadth and depth) can have significantly different impact on the same outcome variable. Here, I use findings of the empirical study regarding Clarity, one of the three dimensions of quality of communication experience², as an illustration. For Clarity, only cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience has a significant positive effect on it. None of the other dimensions of touristic international experience and not a single dimension of LWS international experience has a significant relationship with it. Thus, by not considering cultural heterogeneity as a dimension of international experience, one would erroneously conclude that international experience has no effect on clarity at all.

Second, results of the empirical study of this dissertation corroborates past research findings that the experience of individuals deeply immersing themselves in

² In the empirical study of this dissertation, intercultural competence is operationalized by quality of communication experience which comprises of three dimensions, clarity, responsiveness, and comfort.

foreign countries when they lived, worked, and/or studied abroad versus other more cursory international experience, such as traveling abroad exerted different influence over the outcomes they examined (e.g., Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). For instance, in the empirical study of this dissertation, I found that intercultural negotiation dyads' LWS international experience (breadth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity) had a significant positive impact on their joint subjective value, but their touristic international experience did not. Conversely, another set of results indicates that touristic international experience matters much more than LWS international experience in increasing psychological capital. Thus, findings of this study expand the list of outcomes where differentiating between international experience gained from living/working/studying overseas versus traveling abroad as a tourist is crucial.

Third, this dissertation brings together the literatures on negotiations and international experience, and contributes to the sparse theoretical and empirical research that has been conducted at the intersection of these two streams of literature by developing a comprehensive, yet parsimonious model on the effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes, and testing it empirically with a laboratory experiment using survey questionnaires and a negotiation simulation conducted by intercultural pairs of negotiators.

Practical Implications

This dissertation offers practical implications for both individuals and organizations. For individuals who are involved in intercultural negotiations or work interactions, accumulating international experience is particularly valuable for them because going abroad develops their intercultural competence, enhances their

psychological capital and strengthens their global identity, all of which enable them to be more effective during their intercultural encounters. International experience that includes an extended stay and deeper involvement with the locals in foreign cultures, such as living, working or studying overseas tends to be more developmental than being a tourist abroad. However, not everyone has the opportunity to live, work or study in foreign countries. Thus, I recommend individuals to visit foreign countries as a tourist as much as they can if they do not have the opportunities to acquire international experience that involves deep immersion in foreign cultures. Touristic international experience has its own benefits too.

For multinational companies, I recommend that they value and factor in international experience in their personnel selection, training programs, leadership and career development programs, and succession planning. This should be a critical consideration for employees whose work nature frequently involves the need for them to interact and negotiate with people from other cultures. Including international experience opportunities such as expatriate assignments as part of the talent management program to groom future global leaders of the company will certainly reap benefits. Company leaders' international experience can help them to be more effective at leading the company as they often need to make critical decisions together with internal staff and external stakeholders who might be from the same culture or from other cultures. The more internationalized the company is, the more important this would be.

There is much value for business schools to incorporate opportunities for their students to acquire international experiences within the curriculum of their various degree programs. For instance, business schools can offer a variety of "Study Abroad"

opportunities that include short-term, faculty-led programs, as well as semester and full-year enrollment programs at international exchange universities. For business schools that have already done so, they should continue to do so and expand their programs because acquiring international experience is very beneficial for the personal and professional development of their students.

Structure of Dissertation

Following this introduction chapter is Chapter 2 where I review the relevant research that has been done in the areas of international experience and intercultural negotiation. In chapter 3, I present the theoretical model. In Chapter 4, I describe the methodology that the empirical study of this dissertation used to test the theoretical model. In Chapter 5, I explain the data analysis that was done and present the results. In Chapter 6, I summarize the main findings of the empirical study and discuss the theoretical contributions and practical implications of this dissertation, limitations of the empirical study and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 reviews relevant research that has been done on the topics of international experience and intercultural negotiation.

Research on the Effects of International Experience

Since this dissertation examines the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations and defines international experience to include the experiences individuals acquire while they are in foreign countries as tourists or while they are living, studying or working there, in other words, whenever they are outside of their home country (e.g., Takeuchi & Chen, 2013), I will start by reviewing extant research that has examined the effects of such international experiences. Scholars have also used other terms to refer to such experiences, including foreign experiences, living abroad, traveling abroad, multicultural experiences, overseas experiences, etc. Regardless of the term or label used, the review below includes the study as long as the definition, operationalization and measurement of the experience examined in the study partially or fully include the type of experiences defined as international experience in this dissertation.

International Experience in the Context of Negotiations

In the context of negotiations, there has been little empirical research that specifically examined the effects of negotiators' international experience. One of these was conducted by Liu et al. (2013). They explored how and when multicultural

experience influences negotiation outcomes in intracultural and intercultural negotiation contexts. Specifically, they examined the differential effects of the breadth and depth of multicultural experience on negotiation outcomes in intracultural and intercultural negotiation contexts, as well as the mediating role played by cultural identities in the form of local and global identities in these relationships.

Liu et al. (2013) conceptualized depth of multicultural experience as extended immersion in certain cultures for life functions of work, live, or study in the local language. They measured it with three indices: (i) difference between birth and passport countries, (ii) proficiency of foreign languages, and (iii) length of stay in a foreign country for more than 3 months. For breadth of multicultural experience, they conceptualized it as an accumulation of short stints to other cultures, and measured it by counting the number of countries visited for less than 1 month with three functional indices: a) work, b) study, c) leisure. They standardized these two composite variables into 7-point Likert scales.

Global identity reflects a sense of belongingness to a worldwide culture and a tendency to adopt behaviors, styles, and information related to a global culture while local identity refers to the sense of belongingness to a local group and community (Arnett, 2002; Erez & Gati, 2004). Individuals can have multiple identities which reflect their sense of belongingness to these multiple groups, respectively (Stryker & Burke, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Thus, local and global identities can coexist and when each of these two identities becomes salient depends on the social context (Erez et al., 2013; Shokef & Erez, 2006). Individuals' global and local identities can vary in strength independently, and it is possible for individuals to have both strong global and local

identities at the same time (Shokef & Erez, 2006). Individuals' global identity becomes salient in a global context and enables them to adapt to their global group and be effective in their social interactions while local identity becomes salient in the local cultural context and enables them to function well within their local community (Erez et al., 2013; Erez & Gati, 2004; Erez & Shokef, 2008). Such frame switching is supported by research which found that bi-cultural individuals who develop two cultural networks and integrate their both cultural identities well can switch effectively between different culturally appropriate behaviors depending on the context (e.g., Friedman et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2000). Moreover, it has been argued that individuals are guided by only one network at any given time, thus there is no dissonance between the two identities even if under contradictory situations (Hong et al., 2000).

Based on the results from four empirical studies, Liu et al. (2013) found that depth of multicultural experience significantly positively influences intercultural negotiation outcomes (both subjective and economic gains), and this effect is mediated by the negotiators' global identity. On the other hand, while they found a significant positive correlation between breadth of multicultural experience and negotiators' global identity, global identity did not significantly mediate the relationship between breadth of multicultural experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. For breadth of multicultural experience, the results of their studies show that its positive effects are on intracultural negotiation outcomes instead, and this effect is mediated by negotiators' local identity.

Imai and Gelfand (2010) found that except for CQ, none of the other individual difference characteristics they examined increased complementary sequences of

integrative information behaviors and sequences of cooperative relationship management behaviors in intercultural negotiations. International experience was one of these other individual difference characteristics examined, among others such as cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, openness, and extraversion. CQ is defined as a person's capability to successfully adapt to new cultural settings (Earley & Ang, 2003), comprising four components: meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral. The meta-cognitive facet of CQ refers to an individual's level of cultural mindfulness or awareness during intercultural interactions. Cognitive CQ refers to an individual's acquired knowledge of similarities and differences regarding norms, practices, and conventions of other cultures. Motivational CQ refers to an individual's ability to direct attention and energy toward adapting to new cultures. Behavioral CQ refers to the extent to which individuals have a wide repertoire of behavioral skills and are able to appropriately enact verbal and non-verbal behaviors in new cultural settings.

The results of Imai and Gelfand's (2010) study indicate that it is largely motivational CQ that drove the positive effect that overall CQ had on complementary sequences of integrative information behaviors, and it is only behavioral CQ that increased sequences of cooperative relationship management behaviors. In addition, it is the negotiator with the lower level of CQ rather than the negotiator with the higher level of CQ in each dyad who determined the extent to which the dyads engaged in complementary sequences of integrative information behaviors and sequences of cooperative relationship management behaviors. Finally, sequences of integrative information behaviors (reciprocal and complementary) and sequences of cooperative relationship management behaviors are significantly positively related to joint gains.

One interesting point to note is that Imai and Gelfand (2010) reported a significant correlation between international experience and CQ (both overall CQ and behavioral CQ) at the individual-level, i.e., participants with more international experience tend to have a higher level of overall CQ and behavioral CQ. In their study, international experience was measured based on the total length of time (in weeks) participants have spent living abroad.

In another rare study that examined the effects of international experience in negotiations, Maddux and Galinsky (2009) found that the amount of time individuals spent living abroad, but not traveling abroad, significantly predicted whether a deal was reached during a negotiation in which a creative yet hidden solution was necessary to achieve an acceptable deal, even when they controlled for a variety of important personality and demographic factors. Their study included both intracultural and intercultural negotiation dyads, but it did not examine whether the negotiation context (intra-vs intercultural negotiations) made a difference to the results since that was not the focus of their study. The focus of their study was to investigate whether there is a positive relationship between living abroad and creativity in the context of negotiations, and they found empirical evidence for it.

To negotiate more effectively in the global marketplace, managers are advised to accumulate rich multicultural experiences so that they can understand better the interests and behaviors of their counterparts (Brett, 2007), implying that individuals with more international experience are more likely to gain better negotiation outcomes in intercultural negotiations. However, the limited extant empirical research yielded somewhat conflicting results. On the one hand, Liu et al. (2013) and Maddux and

Galinsky (2009) found that international experience can help negotiators to become more effective in both intracultural and intercultural negotiations; on the other hand, Imai and Gelfand (2010) did not find international experience to exert any influence. Although Imai and Gelfand (2010) and Maddux and Galinsky (2009) conceptualized and measured international experience similarly – length of time individuals spent living abroad, Imai and Gelfand (2010) examined the effects of international experience on negotiators' sequencing of integrative information behaviors and cooperative relationship management behaviors, while Maddux and Galinsky (2009) looked at its effects on negotiators' ability to come up with a creative solution, i.e., their creativity. Liu et al.'s (2013) conceptualization and measurement of international experience is broader than Imai and Gelfand's (2010). They examined how international experience influenced negotiation outcomes (both subjective and economic gains) through negotiators' cultural identities in the form of global and local identities. The conflicting results found are likely due to differences in the outcomes examined and/or the way international experience is conceptualized and measured. Overall, findings of these three studies indicate that the impact of negotiators' international experience in negotiations is complex and more research is warranted to further tease out when and how international experience influences which negotiation processes and outcomes, for example, by investigating potential mediators and moderators of the international experience-negotiation outcomes relationship which Liu et al.'s (2013) study has illuminated. Moreover, conceptualization and measurement of international experience should be further considered.

Although investigation of the effects of international experience in negotiations is sparse, its influence on a wide range of outcomes has been empirically examined in other research streams and contexts. Research findings in other streams of literature and contexts can potentially inform research in the negotiation context and enrich it. For instance, those outcomes that international experience has been found to have a positive impact on may play a role in intercultural negotiations. Moreover, valuable insights can be gained regarding how international experience has been conceptualized and measured. This will help with determining suitable conceptualization and measurement of international experience for the research purpose and hypotheses proposed in this dissertation.

International Experience in the Expatriate Literature

The effects of international experience have gained most interest among scholars doing research on the topic of expatriation. Most of the studies in this stream of research examined the influence of international experience on cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates (see review by Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). Cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates refers to the degree of ease (or difficulty) employees have with various aspects of an international assignment and comprises of three dimensions, general adjustment, work adjustment, and interactional adjustment (e.g. Black, 1988, 1990a, 1990b; Black & Gregersen, 1991b, 1991a; Black & Stephens, 1989). General adjustment pertains to expatriates' psychological comfort associated with the host country's cultural environment such as food, living conditions, transportation, and weather. Work adjustment refers to their psychological comfort regarding different work values, expectations, and standards prevalent in the host country. Interactional adjustment is

about their psychological comfort related to communicating with people in the host country.

Takeuchi and Chen (2013) note that the results of two meta-analyses conducted to examine the impact of previous international experience on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment are discouraging. Hechanova et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis found that prior international experience has positive but nonsignificant relationships with general adjustment, work adjustment, and interaction adjustment. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis found previous international experience to be positively and significantly correlated with work adjustment and interaction adjustment, but not in the case of general adjustment. Nevertheless, prior international experience explained no more than one percent of the variance in both work and interactional adjustment, leading Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) to conclude that past international experience is only minimally helpful for expatriates' adjustment during their current international assignment. They reasoned that such weak findings could be due to how previous international experience is conceptualized and measured in the studies included in the meta-analyses.

Given the unexpected meta-analytic findings by Hechanova et al. (2003) and Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005), and recognizing the inherent limitation of meta-analyses since they do not take into account the qualitative differences among various studies included in the meta-analysis, for instance, differences between different operationalizations of the construct examined, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) set out to review the literature regarding the effects of international experience on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment. They focused on both substantive and methodological issues to gain

additional insights that may explain the weak impact of previous international experience on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment found in the two meta-analyses.

Takeuchi and Chen (2013) highlight several substantive issues. First, there is an implicit assumption in the extant literature that the relationship between previous international experience and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment is a linear, positive one. They suggest that this may not be the case for two reasons. There could be diminishing marginal returns of the benefits of prior international experience on adjustment. Thus, the relationship could be a curvilinear one instead of a linear one where the slope becomes flatter as international experience increases (adjustment will then level off). In addition, time on the current international assignment influences the level of adjustment as expatriates go through four stages of cross-cultural adjustment – honeymoon stage, culture shock stage, adjustment stage and mastery stage, known as the U-curve adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Prior international experience may alter the trajectory of adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991) and result in a J-curve adjustment instead for those with rich prior international experience as shown in some studies (e.g., Klineberg & Hull, 1979; Torbiörn, 1982). The relationship between previous international experience and adjustment may vary across different periods of the current international assignment. It may be negative in the first few months, neutral in the following months, and positive after 6 months. Given these dynamics at play, Takeuchi et al. (2005) argue that prior international experience is a moderator on the relationship between current assignment tenure and adjustment rather than as an antecedent of adjustment, and their study found support for it. Takeuchi and Chen (2013) suggest that the potential non-linear relationship between previous international experience and

expatriate cross-cultural adjustment may account for the non-significant results found in past studies regarding the relationship between prior international experience and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment since they examined the relationship based on the zero-order correlation or first-order linear regression coefficient. Thus, they urge future research to investigate the possibility of a non-linear relationship to gain a more accurate and time-sensitive understanding of the link between prior international experience and adjustment.

Second, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) highlight that timing, context, and quality of prior international experience may potentially impact expatriate cross-cultural adjustment differently. They argue that international experience acquired during childhood or adolescence may have the strongest impact on cross-cultural adjustment later in life because people's values, attitudes, beliefs, and norms may be changed more significantly from childhood to late adolescence. Another issue to consider is the context in which the international experience took place due to the context-specificity of knowledge transfer. Knowledge that individuals gained from international experience acquired in more similar contexts as the one in which the current international assignment is located, for instance, cultural similarity, may play a bigger role in enabling their adjustment during the current assignment because the knowledge acquired previously tends to be more informative and transferable (Takeuchi et al., 2005). In addition, the quality of the international experience gained previously is likely to make a differential impact on adjustment during the current assignment. For example, international experience that involved deeper immersion in the host country environment, establishing meaningful relationships with the locals, and engaging in local community activities is likely to be

much more helpful for future relocations to other cultural contexts. Having this kind of higher quality international experience means that the person has gone through a more thorough experience of learning the local cultural values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviors associated with the host country, and thus more able to adjust and adapt to different cultural environments and culturally different others. Hence, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) note that taking these differences into consideration in future research would help to reveal a more accurate picture of the influence of past international experience on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment.

Third, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) point out that there are few studies that have examined the mediating mechanisms or processes through which past international experience influences cross-cultural adjustment. They highlight several mediating mechanisms that future research may consider. For example, prior international experience may influence adjustment through enriching expatriates' knowledge and skill repertoire related to dealing with adjustment issues; enhancing their ability to understand host country nationals' behaviors and make correct attributions about them; increasing their expatriation or cross-cultural self-efficacy; reducing their ethnocentrism and intolerance; increasing their acceptance of other cultures, openness and cultural flexibility; as well as developing a global mindset.

In terms of operationalization and measurement mode of prior international experience, Takeuchi and Chen's (2013) review found that they varied among the studies. These include dichotomous measure (yes/no regarding having previous international experience), amount-based measure (number of international assignments/travel before current assignment), time-based measure (number of years/months previously spent in

foreign countries), and composite measures (combination of more than one indicator). Another aspect of prior international experience conceptualization pertains to the type/domain of previous international experience. There are studies that focused on domain-specific ones like work, living, study, travel, while others looked at non domain-specific general international experience (e.g., a combination of at least two domain-specific international experience).

Takeuchi and Chen (2013) found that none of the studies using dichotomous measure or amount-based measure of prior international work experience showed a significant relationship between prior international experience and all three forms of adjustments – general, work, and interaction. For time-based measure of prior international work experience, the studies indicated positive but nonsignificant correlation with work adjustment and interaction adjustment, and either positive or negative, nonsignificant correlation with general adjustment. Measurement mode (i.e., whether a dichotomous measure, amount-based measure, or time-based measure was used) did not seem to make a clear difference in the results of the various studies. Takeuchi and Chen (2013) reason that it is due to the theoretical issues discussed above that need to be resolved.

In terms of the type/domain of prior international experience, the results of the studies show that prior international living experience and prior general international experience (including two or more types of experience) seem to be more strongly related to adjustment than prior international work experience. They suggest that this could be due to the difference in the nature of the experience. Those who lived in a foreign country

as a child are more likely to be more immersed in the local life there compared to adults who are working there because working people spend a lot of time at work.

Based on their review, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) conclude that prior international experience should be conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct as it comprises of several interrelated but distinct attributes or dimensions, and exists in multiple domains. They note that prior international experience can be conceptualized as combinations of multiple dimensions in many ways. The dimensions to be considered include the domain of experience (e.g., work, living, travel, study, etc.), timing of experience (during childhood, adolescence, and early, mid, and late adulthood), context of experience (similar to or different from host country), quantity versus quality of experience (e.g., amount of experience versus richness and depth of experience), etc. In addition, in terms of the relationship between the overall construct of prior international experience and its multiple dimensions, Takeuchi and Chen (2013) point out that prior international experience is an aggregate model of multi-dimensional construct because it is on the same level as its dimensions, and it is an algebraic function of its dimensions. Prior international experience is formed by its dimensions. Takeuchi and Chen (2013) envision building a mega-model of prior international experience by using a formula that includes all the dimensions mentioned above simultaneously, for instance, by multiplying the scores of each dimension and form a composite score.

Although the effects of prior international experience on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment are dismal, various empirical studies have shown that international experience has a significant influence on career-related outcomes. International experience has been found to develop expatriates' career capital (e.g., Dickmann et al., 2018; Jokinen et al.,

2008), positively impact their later objective and/or subjective career success (e.g. Biemann & Braakmann, 2013; Schworm et al., 2017; Suutari et al., 2018), and positively influence their degree of career internationalization (Felker & Gianecchini, 2015).

In addition, Dragoni et al.'s (2014) study highlights the developmental value of international experience on upper level leaders' strategic thinking competency. Strategic thinking competency refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities that leaders require in formulating value-creating strategic goals and strategies (Dragoni et al., 2011). Dragoni et al. (2014) found that the length of upper level leaders' global work experiences is positively and significantly related to their strategic thinking competency, particularly for those who have had exposure to a more culturally distant country, i.e., international experience in countries with greater cultural distance from one's home country moderated the positive effects length of international experience has on development of strategic thinking competency. This is probably because the exposure to greater cultural distance helps these upper level leaders develop more sophisticated cognitive schemas that increase their capability to detect, digest, and integrate large amounts of complex, culturally-laden information (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). They suggest that the findings of their study provide indirect evidence that leaders' global mindset may be developed through exposure to greater cultural distance in their international experience, and that leaders with a stronger global mindset are not only more likely to be better strategic decision-makers (e.g., Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002; Osland et al., 2006), but also are more likely to have a greater capacity to learn from key international experiences and become more effective.

In calculating cultural distance, Dragoni et al. (2014) used procedures developed by Kogut and Singh (1988), and relied on the “as-is cultural practices” data from the GLOBE project on all nine dimensions (House et al., 2004). For respondents who had exposure to multiple countries, they used the score associated with the most culturally distant country because they argue that it is exposure to the most distinct culture that is most significant.

International Experience in the Literature on Top Management Teams

The effects of international experience have gained much attention among scholars who conduct research on top management team (TMT) using the upper echelon perspective. The international experience examined here is that of the TMT as a whole team, or that of individual TMT members, such as the CEO. In this stream of literature, the benefits of TMT international experience are encouraging for firm-level outcomes, as well as individual-level outcomes personal to the TMT members.

TMT's or CEO's international experience has been found to be positively and significantly associated with firm performance (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2001; Daily et al., 2000; Le & Kroll, 2017; Roth, 1995), firm innovation (Nuruzzaman et al., 2019), firm internationalization (e.g., Athanassiou & Nigh, 2002; Carpenter & Fredrickson, 2001; Chen et al., 2017; Sambharya, 1996; Tihanyi et al., 2000), preference for full-control entry modes (Herrmann & Datta, 2002; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2011), and corporate social responsibility engagement or performance (Slater & Dixon-Fowler, 2009; Zhang et al., 2018).

In terms of individual-level outcomes personal to the TMT members with international experience, studies on the influence of international experience on CEO

selection and career advancement to the C-suite indicate that having international experience is a significant predictor (e.g., Magnusson & Boggs, 2006). However, a few studies have shown that one must be careful not to have too much of it because the relationship between duration of international work experience and career advancement to the C-suite is a curvilinear inverted U-shaped one (Georgakakis et al., 2016; Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011; Schmid & Wurster, 2017). In terms of compensation, Schmid and Altfeld's (2018) study on the effects of international work experience on CFO's compensation shows a similar curvilinear inverted U-shaped relationship. International work experience increases CFO's compensation, but decreases it beyond a certain threshold level of international work experience. Carpenter et al. (2001) found that CEOs' pay is positively related to their international assignment experience, but only when the firm is highly global. In addition, a TMT member's differentiation in terms of international experience in various regions of the world and nationality positively enhances that member's centrality in providing international business advice to the team (Athanassiou & Roth, 2006).

International experience in this stream of research is mostly measured using a dichotomous measure (yes/no regarding previous international experience) (e.g., Nielsen & Nielsen, 2011; Nuruzzaman et al., 2019; Reuber & Fischer, 1997), followed by a time-based measure (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2001; Mohr & Batsakis, 2019; Roth, 1995). Carpenter et al. (2001) found that the results they got by using the number of countries or length of international experience by country did not provide more explanatory power in the models that only used the simple measure of total length of international experience.

There are some studies that considered international experience as a multi-dimensional construct. A few studies used a composite measure that included both amount and time, i.e., a combination of the number of international assignments/countries and total years in such assignments (e.g., Daily et al., 2000; Georgakakis et al., 2016) while a few other studies expanded the conceptualization of international experience beyond amount and length of the international experience to include cultural distance (Le & Kroll, 2017; Magnusson & Boggs, 2006; Schmid & Wurster, 2017), psychic distance (Maitland & Sammartino, 2015) and/or geographic distance (Schmid & Wurster, 2017) between the home country and the country in which the international experience was acquired. Among the studies that included cultural distance as a dimension of international experience, they took different approaches to do so. Magnusson and Boggs (2006) examined the effects of each dimension of international experience (total length, number of countries, and cultural distance) separately. Schmid and Wurster (2017) also examined the effects of total length of international experience, geographic distance and cultural distance separately. Their measures of geographic distance and cultural distance used a weighted average index approach that accounted for the time spent in each country. On the other hand, Le and Kroll (2017) examined the effects of total length of international experience, the interaction between total length of international experience and number of countries, and the interaction between total length of international experience and cultural distance. In calculating cultural distance, Magnusson and Boggs (2006) based it on Ronen and Shenkar's (1985) cultural clusters using an ordinal measure, while Schmid and Wurster (2017) and Le and Kroll (2017) used Kogut and

Singh's (1988) formula and Hofstede's (2001) cultural indices on uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and power distance.

In terms of the type/domain of previous international experience, although most studies in the TMT research stream only examined international experience acquired in the work domain, some of them also included the domains of studying or living, and only one included travel as well. A few studies used nationality of the person to capture international experience information during their formative years (Athanassiou & Roth, 2006; Dauth et al., 2017; Hutzschenreuter & Horstkotte, 2013; Piaskowska & Trojanowski, 2014).

International Experience and Individuals

In addition to the studies reviewed in the previous two sections, the effects of international experience have also been investigated by researchers who are interested in its influence on individuals. Below, I will highlight the empirical evidence this group of scholars found regarding the impact of international experience on developing individuals' various types of intercultural competence, psychological capital, global identity, creativity, and self-concept clarity, as well as its influence on individuals' intergroup bias, generalized trust, ability to appropriately switch cultural frames, and tendency to engage in immoral behavior acts. This wide range of outcomes indicates that international experience undoubtedly leaves its mark on individuals in many ways.

Development of intercultural competence. Although there are many variations of the definition of intercultural competence, Arasaratnam (2016) points out that there is enough consensus among these variations to conclude that there is at least some collective understanding of what intercultural competence is (e.g., Deardorff, 2006).

Deardorff (2006) found that the definition most favored by a panel of internationally known intercultural scholars is “*the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes*” ” (Deardorff, 2004:194). Effectiveness speaks to successfully achieving one’s goals in a particular communication exchange, while appropriateness considers the communication exchange from the other party’s point of view, i.e., whether the communicator has communicated in a way that is contextually expected and accepted (Arasaratnam, 2016). Deardorff (2006) also notes that other highly popular definitions focused mainly on communication and behavior in intercultural situations. In general, her findings from the study indicate that both intercultural scholars and higher education administrators preferred definitions that are broader in nature and refrained from defining intercultural competence based on the specificities that constitute intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Arasaratnam (2016) highlights that the definition of intercultural competence provided by Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) is one of the most helpful ones. They defined it as “*the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioral orientations to the world.*” (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009:7). Spitzberg and Changnon’s (2009) definition extends Deardorff’s (2004) definition by adding that the people involved in the intercultural interactions have different or divergent cognitive, affective, and behavioral orientations. This means that to be interculturally competent, one needs to attend to these three dimensions of differences effectively and appropriately. Thus, intercultural competence can be characterized in terms of affective, cognitive and

behavioral dimensions (Arasaratnam, 2009; Cui & Van Den Berg, 1991; Sercu, 2004; Spitzberg, 1991). Based on this, Arasaratnam, (2009) proposes that in order to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, one must be able to emotionally relate to others and feel a sense of affiliation with people from other cultures — affective dimension; be able to differentiate personal constructs and use them in relating to others and interpreting their behaviors (Adams-Webber, 2001; Gudykunst & Kim, 2003) — cognitive dimension; and be able to engage in behaviors reflecting intercultural and interpersonal competence, e.g., intentionally look for opportunities to interact with people from other cultures (Arasaratnam & Doerfel, 2005), adapt one's behaviors or change one's communication patterns according to the other party (Rubin & Martin, 1994), and cultivate friendships with people from other cultures (Arasaratnam, 2005) — behavioral dimension.

The similar emphasis on effectiveness and appropriateness in Deardorff's (2004) and Spitzberg and Changnon's (2009) definitions also underlies other definitions of intercultural competence (Arasaratnam, 2016). For instance, in a review of the literature on intercultural communication in international negotiation, Liu and Adair (2017: 9) offer a broad definition of intercultural competence: *"Intercultural competence is a variable defined as the capability to navigate and adapt to uncertain situations incurred by cultural complexity."* Synthesizing the numerous definitions and conceptualizations of intercultural competence in the literature, Arasaratnam (2016: 6) points out that an interculturally competent person can be characterized as one who is *"mindful, empathetic, motivated to interact with people of other cultures, open to new schemata, adaptable, flexible, able to cope with complexity and ambiguity. Language skills and culture-specific*

knowledge undoubtedly serve as assets to such an individual. Further, she or he is neither ethnocentric nor defined by cultural prejudices.”

There are both culture-specific and culture-general variables that can contribute to intercultural competence (Arasaratnam, 2016). Culture-general variables are those that can facilitate intercultural competence across multiple cultural contexts, implying its broader application in intercultural encounters. This suggests that even if one does not have culture-specific knowledge, one can still communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural contexts. Culture-general models are more useful and most intercultural competence models take a culture-general approach (Witteborn, 2003). For instance, with the objective of coming up with a culture-general model of intercultural competence, Arasaratnam and Doerfel (2005) searched for commonalities in emic descriptions of a competent intercultural communicator by participants who represent an array of cultural perspectives, enabling them to tease out identifiable variables in a competent intercultural communicator that transcend cultural context and cultural identity of the perceiver. They found that those who were identified as competent intercultural communicators (from the other party's point of view) had five qualities in common. They are empathy, intercultural experience/training, motivation, global attitude/positive towards other cultures, and ability to listen well in conversation.

There are numerous semantically similar labels/terminologies used in research on intercultural competence, such as intercultural efficiency, cultural competence, intercultural sensitivity, intercultural communication competence, cross-cultural competence, and global competence, etc. (Arasaratnam, 2016; Wolff & Borzikowsky, 2018). They are often used interchangeably, most notably between intercultural

competence and intercultural communication competence (Arasaratnam, 2016; Yashima, 2010), as well as between intercultural communication competence and intercultural communication effectiveness (Bradford et al., 2000). Thus, Arasaratnam (2016) suggests that instead of going by the label, it is more important to look at the operationalization of what is being studied, i.e., one can conclude that it is a study of intercultural competence if what is being studied is effectiveness and appropriateness in intercultural communication, regardless of the label.

The studies that empirically examined the effects of international experience on intercultural competence reflect the wide array of definitions, conceptualizations and indicators of intercultural competence. They examined the effects of international experience on different sets of variables that contribute to intercultural competence based on different definitions and conceptualizations of intercultural competence. There is a consensus among intercultural scholars that intercultural competence can be measured in its separate components, not necessarily holistically (Deardorff, 2006). Collectively, the examples of studies that examined the effects of international experience on intercultural competence presented next provide empirical evidence to show that international experience develops individuals' intercultural competence.

Clapp-Smith and Wernsing (2014) conducted a qualitative study using open-ended survey response data from undergraduate students of a U.S. university regarding the transformational triggers that occurred during their study abroad program to examine how early international experience triggers a transformational learning process that contributes to the **development of intercultural competencies**. Their sample consists of participants gaining early international experience, and for many of them, it was their

first international experience. This characteristic of their sample is particularly well-suited for their research purpose since transformational trigger events can be more clearly identified from people with early international experiences, compared to those with more past international experiences as that can create “noise” and make the isolation of transformational triggers more difficult. Moreover, early international experiences have been recognized as being highly formative (Black, Morrison, et al., 1999; Osland, 2008). 43 percent of the participants were overseas for a semester, 3 percent for seven to nine weeks, 39 percent for four to six weeks, and 15 percent for one to three weeks. Participants indicated that their experience abroad was transforming, life changing, empowering, and positive. Clapp-Smith and Wernsing (2014) identified four categories of transformational triggers from the participants’ responses. They explain that these four categories of transformational triggers develop some of the intercultural competencies proposed by Bird et al. (2010).

The first transformational trigger is immersing with local customs and people. By interacting with the locals in their local customs in the foreign country that they were in, participants experienced a shift in frame of reference and became more curious about learning more about the local customs, and in turn immersed more into the local customs for continued learning. This contributes to developing the intercultural competency of cosmopolitanism (Bird et al., 2010). The second transformational trigger is experiencing the novelty of “normality” which represents a shift in frame of reference when participants realized that what they expected to be “normal” or “right” are not necessarily so while abroad where there is another set of values and expectations for normal behavior. Experiencing this type of shift in frame of reference develops the intercultural

competency of non-judgementalness (Bird et al., 2010). The third transformational trigger is communicating in a non-native language. It contributes to the intercultural competencies of social flexibility, self-identity and self-confidence (Bird et al., 2010). Communicating in the local language of the foreign country they were in gave participants the ability and opportunities for deeper immersion into the local culture, and also learn about the nuances of the country and culture that can only be perceived and understood through speaking in the local language. Moreover, when participants learned and practiced speaking the local language, they became more creative in their communication to communicate with the locals, developing their social flexibility. This process also developed their self-identity and self-confidence as they make sense of and integrate the new cultural knowledge they acquired with their existing mental models while abroad. The fourth transformational trigger is finding time for self-reflection which develops the intercultural competency of self-awareness (Bird et al., 2010). Participants indicated that they found more time to journal and reflect on their assumptions about stereotypes, social roles, and attitudes toward work while abroad. By doing so, they broadened their perspectives about cultural differences and became more self-aware of their own culturally conditioned values and beliefs.

Yashima (2010) examined the effects of a short-term (2–3 weeks) international volunteer work project on the development of a large group of Japanese university students' intercultural competence. They found that this short-term international experience developed various aspects of participants' intercultural competence, including openness/ethno-relativism, international awareness, interpersonal communication skills, and self-efficacy. After completing the international volunteer work project, participants'

level of intercultural competence was significantly higher than non-participants.

Moreover, for those participants who had intercultural experience before participating in the project, their level of intercultural competence after the project were higher than participants without prior intercultural experience, indicating that this additional international experience further developed their intercultural competence.

Using two studies, Behrnd and Porzelt (2012) investigated the effects of international experience on developing the intercultural competence of German students who participated in study abroad programs or had internships abroad, and how they benefit from intercultural training. The first study is based on a structural model of intercultural competence proposed by Gertsen (1990) which classified intercultural competencies into three aspects: cognitive, affective, and conative. The cognitive aspects include general knowledge and consciousness of cultural differences, knowledge of a region and its social organization, knowledge of the values, norms, conventions of the foreign culture, as well as knowledge of communication and interaction patterns in a culture. The affective aspects encompass motivation and interest in intercultural encounters, a certain freedom from prejudice, a positive attitude towards the foreign culture, realistic expectations, as well as acceptance of cultural differences and respect for other cultures' customs. The conative aspects refer to being conscious of and having knowledge about different communication styles and non-verbal communication, as well as being able to identify different communication styles and communicate effectively in these different styles. The second study is based on three types of intercultural competence from Bolten's (2007) process model of intercultural competence and Stahl's (1998) list of intercultural successful problem solving strategies. The three types of

intercultural competence from Bolten's (2007) model are: individual intercultural competence (willingness to learn, flexibility, tolerance of ambiguity, and optimism), social intercultural competence (capacity for teamwork, empathy and tolerance, and ability for meta-communication and adaptability), and strategic intercultural competence (organization, problem-solving and decision making abilities, and knowledge management).

Collectively, the findings of both studies indicate that participants became more interculturally competent after their study abroad programs or internships overseas only if they had stayed abroad long enough. Thus, the length of time overseas is more crucial than just being abroad or not in the development of their intercultural competence. However, the findings were not consistent regarding the positive impact of international experience on the various aspects and sub-domains of intercultural competence. The results show that having been overseas enhanced intercultural competence in interaction with the length of stay on the students' cognitive intercultural competence (Study 1), and problem-solving, as well as individual and social intercultural competence (Study 2). In addition, those with higher scores in affective intercultural competence were abroad for at least 10 months, while those with higher scores in strategic intercultural competence were overseas for at least 6 months. Moreover, subsequent intercultural training was more beneficial for students with this international experience (Study 2). One unexpected finding is that the number of countries visited, the number of foreign languages spoken, and the number of private stays abroad were not significantly correlated to the various aspects and sub-domains of intercultural competence in both studies.

A recent study by Wolff and Borzikowsky (2018) examined whether international experience in the form of educational stays abroad led to an increase in intercultural competence after three months. The educational stays abroad included student exchange program, internship, au pair stay, voluntary service, and work-and-travel turn. Participants of the study included both students and non-students who are mostly Germans. Wolff and Borzikowsky (2018) investigated whether participants of their study had an increase in their overall intercultural competence and the six intercultural competence facets of the onion model of intercultural competence (Schnabel et al., 2014) after three months of their educational stay abroad. The first intercultural competence facet is sensitivity in communication. It refers to putting oneself in the position of another person during communication to understand him or her better; and having high sensibility for verbal and nonverbal communication. The second facet, information seeking, is about the purposeful collection of information about a foreign country or another culture. The third facet is socializing, i.e., establishing and maintaining contact with people from other cultures quickly and easily. The fourth facet is goal setting which pertains to having clear goals and being able to implement them consistently. Mediation of interests is the fifth facet. It refers to mediating between parties to achieve the best possible benefit from different approaches. Finally, the sixth facet is cultural identity reflection which is intensively and constantly reflecting upon one's own cultural character. The findings of their study provide empirical evidence that educational stays abroad resulted in a significant increase in intercultural competence after three months. The development of the participants' overall intercultural competence stemmed from increases in the intercultural competence facets of sensitivity in communication, socializing, and cultural

identity reflection, but not from information seeking, goal setting, and mediation of interests. Moreover, the greatest impact of the international experience was developing participants' cultural identity reflection.

CQ is considered as a type of intercultural competence (Liu & Adair, 2017). Matsumoto and Hwang (2013) found that the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Van Dyne et al., 2015) is one of the three most promising tests when they examined the reliability and validity of 10 tests to measure culture-general intercultural competence. In addition, the Cultural Intelligence Scale was identified as one that focused exclusively on malleable abilities while other instruments that measured intercultural competence are as considered as trait-based, attitude-based, capability based or a mixture of them (K. Leung et al., 2014; Schnabel, 2015). By focusing only on malleable abilities, it means that a person's CQ is not static and can be developed through experiences and training.

Reichard et al. (2015) defined cross-culturally competent individuals as those who possess a broadened perspective which is reflected by a high level of CQ (Ang et al., 2006), i.e., the ability to adapt to new cultural contexts (Black, Gregerson, et al., 1999), and being not ethnocentric, i.e., having positive attitudes towards other cultures. Based on the assumption that international experience is the best teacher of cross-cultural competence and that individuals can also be trained to develop it, they conducted two studies. The first study thematically analyzed undergraduate students' international experience (internship or study) to distill the characteristics of and the mechanisms by which international experience develops cross-cultural competence. Based on the results of their qualitative analysis, Reichard et al. (2015) developed a preliminary theoretical model of cross-cultural competence development. It proposes that a cross-cultural trigger

event develops individuals' cultural competence which is reflected by a broadened perspective through their level of engagement in the event. A cross-cultural trigger event is a situation that is culturally novel or displays radically different cultural norms compared to the individuals' own cultural norms. Their level of engagement in the event is determined by the availability of cognitive and social resources. People with more cognitive and social resources are more likely to engage at a higher level of intensity with the event, and thus increase their cross-cultural competence or broadened perspective to a larger extent. Moreover, development of cultural competence is a cyclical, reinforcing process. The increase in cultural competence feeds back into the individual's resources, and thus enables them to engage in future cross-cultural trigger events at higher levels of engagement, which further increases their cultural competence. And then the cycle repeats itself again.

In the second study, Reichard et al. (2015) designed and tested an intercultural competence development training intervention consisting of a series of cross-cultural trigger events based on the findings from the first study and activities to build participants' psychological capital and social resources. They found that the training participants received resulted in an increase in their CQ and a decrease in ethnocentrism. They also found that participants' prior international experience and openness to experience were correlated with cultural competence. This is consistent with their theoretical model that the development of cultural competence is a cyclical, reinforcing process. Yashima's (2010) finding that additional international experience further developed the intercultural competence of those participants who had prior international experience highlighted earlier supports this contention of their theoretical model as well.

Researchers who specifically examined the effects of international experience on CQ found that international experience is significantly positively related to CQ (Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Wood & St. Peters, 2014). Engle and Crowne (2014) and Wood and St. Peters (2014) examined the impact of a short-term international experience in the form of a one to two weeks study abroad program on each of the four facets of CQ. Engle and Crowne (2014) found that it enhanced all four facets of participants' CQ while Wood and St. Peters (2014) found that it increased participants' metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ, but not behavioral CQ.

In addition, the findings of Crowne's (2013) study which used an expanded conceptualization, operationalization and measurement of international experience corroborated the overall results of the two studies above. Crowne (2013) found that international experience, whether in the form of a dichotomous measure (been abroad or not), a breadth measure in terms of the number of countries, or a depth measure that captures a variety of experiences, reflecting a person's level of immersion in the local culture and life abroad, has a significant positive impact on developing CQ. The depth measure encompassed the domain of previous international experience (work, study, travel, missionary work, or other purpose), as well as information on how often participants visited local shops, local food markets, local restaurants, and local residents (using a five-point Likert-type scale — never, rarely, sometimes, very often, and always). It is also worth mentioning here that as highlighted in a previous section, while it is not the intent of their study to investigate the relationship between international experience and CQ, Imai and Gelfand (2010) reported a significant correlation between international experience (total length of time lived abroad) and CQ (both overall CQ and behavioral

CQ). As can be seen from the results of these various studies, international experience plays a pertinent role in developing individuals' CQ.

Cognitive complexity has also been identified with intercultural competence (Gudykunst & Kim, 2003). Cognitive complexity refers to possessing cognitive structures that are both broad and well-integrated (Crockett, 1965). According to anxiety/uncertainty theory (Gudykunst, 1995), cognitive complexity is directly associated with effective management of uncertainty and anxiety in intercultural communication, which in turn leads to intercultural competence (Arasaratnam, 2016). In addition, Arasaratnam (2009) points out that there is substantial evidence showing that people who have higher levels of cognitive complexity tend to possess persuasive and integrative communication skills that are associated with competence (Kline et al., 1990; Leichter & Applegate, 1991; O'keefe & Shepherd, 1987) and a bit of evidence indicating that in intercultural encounters, high levels of cognitive complexity is related to one's ability to relate to the other party and to construct messages to meet the needs of the other party (Chen, 1996).

Using a longitudinal study research design, Fee et al. (2013) examined the influence of international experience on the development of cognitive complexity among a group of expatriates who were international aid workers from Australia and New Zealand sent to work in another country. The results indicate that these expatriates experienced a significant increase in cognitive complexity during the 12-month study period. Their level of cognitive complexity was measured at pre-departure and then 12 months later to capture the change. Also, those who interacted most frequently with host

culture nationals outside work and at work benefited most from this international experience in terms of developing their cognitive complexity.

A number of the studies reviewed above used **university students as their sample** and investigated the effects of different types of international experience, including work internships, volunteer work service, and study abroad programs such as educational tours, and student exchange programs, etc. Using young people as their sample allowed these researchers to examine the effects of early international experiences on the development of individuals' intercultural competence and they found a significant positive impact. This confirms assertions by some scholars (e.g., Black, Morrison, et al., 1999; Osland, 2008) that such early international experiences are highly formative.

In addition, the **overseas stays were of varying lengths**, some as short as one to two weeks, some were a few months, and others were longer. It is notable that participants had a significant increase in the level of their intercultural competence even after being overseas for a short period of time. This is in line with other studies that found that even short stays abroad can have a significant developmental effect on individuals, such as their intercultural sensitivity and awareness (e.g., Baruch et al., 2013). Moreover, international experiences acquired at different times have a cumulative effect, i.e., additional international experience can further enhance individuals' intercultural competence that was developed during previous international experience (e.g., Yashima, 2010).

Although the studies found empirical evidence supporting the developmental effect of international experience on individuals' intercultural competence generally, some studies did not find a significant effect on certain aspects or sub-domains of the

intercultural competence models that they used. Also, there are instances where one(some) study(ies) was(were) able to detect a significant effect of international experience on a certain aspect of intercultural competence whereas another(other) study(ies) was(were) unable to do so for that particular or similar aspect of intercultural competence. These inconsistent results may be due to differences in the conceptualization and/or measurement of international experience, and/or research design of the studies. For instance, length of the overseas experience is likely to be a factor. The length of time overseas is a crucial factor in determining the development of intercultural competence and different aspects of intercultural competence have been found to take different amounts of time to be developed (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012).

Development of psychological capital. Basinska (2017) examined the relationship between psychological capital and prior international experience, along with a few other individual and professional resources such as functional language, age and job tenure. According to Luthans et al. (2007), psychological capital is an individual's positive psychological state, consisting of four components: Self-efficacy (possession of self-confidence and the belief in one's own ability to cope with difficult tasks); Optimism (having expectations of positive outcomes and positive events in the future); Hope (focusing on goals and having the perseverance to pursue them, as well as redefining the ways to achieve the goals when necessary); and Resilience (having the positive psychological capacity to cope with uncertainty and conflict at work).

Here, I will focus on Basinska's (2017) arguments and findings regarding the relationship between psychological capital and prior international experience, as well as the conceptualization and measurement of prior international experience in her study.

Basinska (2017) argues that having prior international experience in both private and professional life can broaden individuals' psychological capital because prior international experience facilitates individuals' positive psychological adjustment in a multinational work environment, particularly in their intercultural interactions with co-workers and clients, thus building their psychological capital. Moreover, similar to Reichard et al.'s (2015) assertion, Basinska (2017) argues that the relationship between international experience and psychological capital can be reciprocal.

Basinska (2017) conceptualized international experiences as the variety of experiences (in different time and frequency) that a person gained while working, living, studying or traveling abroad (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013), and measured it using a seven-item index. The seven items are: (1) working in a multinational corporation in the past, (2) working abroad, (3) living abroad, (4) studying abroad, (5) private and business travel abroad, and (6) having a close family member of another nationality. Respondents evaluated their experiences on a bimodal scale (no=0 yes=1) for each item. Higher scores (maximum 7) indicate higher prior international experience in both private and working life.

Using a sample of Polish employees in MNCs, Basinska (2017) assessed the relationship between psychological capital and prior international experience based on the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and Cohen's-*d* effect size. The results indicate that psychological capital was significantly positively correlated with prior international experience (0.22; $p = 0.012$), albeit a small effect size. Cohen's-*d* and a correlation coefficient higher than 0.50 are viewed as a large, between 0.30 and 0.50 as moderate, and less than 0.30 as a small effect size (Cohen, 1988). The results also

indicate that among the components of international experience, business trips abroad accounted for this correlation substantially, suggesting that the work context is more conducive for the development of psychological capital. This study provides some preliminary evidence that international experience is positively associated with the development of individuals' psychological capital since no other empirical study has examined this specific relationship. It supports Reichard et al.'s (2015) suggestion that people who have interacted with others who are culturally different or have traveled or lived abroad are likely to have higher levels of psychological capital.

Development of global identity. There are a few studies that provide empirical evidence indicating the positive relationship between international experience and global identity. As reviewed in a previous section, Liu et al.'s (2013) study proposed and found empirical evidence that individuals' multicultural experience contributes to the development of their global identity. Their findings indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between multicultural experience and global identity. Similarly, citing prior research (Cohavi et al., 2007) which found that global identity is associated with living in more than one country for more than 2 years, Erez et al. (2013) argue that international experience positively influences the development of global identity.

In addition, Schworm et al.'s (2017) study found that international experience has a significant positive impact on global identity (although this relationship is not the focus of their study). International experience in Schworm et al.'s (2017) study is defined as living in one or more foreign countries for study abroad purposes for at least six months and/or for professional purposes for at least one year. One point to note here is that Schworm et al.'s (2017) measurement of international experience with regard to the

component of study abroad purposes did not necessarily capture all study abroad experiences the participants had. The participants were the alumni of a European business school, and the years of study abroad in the measure was based solely on the time spent abroad during their study program at this business school.

Given the limited empirical studies, Liu et al. (2018) highlight that the antecedents of global identity is under researched and call for more research to examine the effects of multicultural experience or motivation for foreign cultural exploration on the development of global identity.

Appropriate cultural frame switching. Cultural frame switching is when people move between different cultural meaning systems in response to situational cues (Friedman et al., 2012). People can possess multiple cultural identities and have access to multiple cultural meaning systems associated with them, and can switch between different culturally appropriate behaviors depending on the context (Hong et al., 2000). Friedman et al. (2012) examined whether and when overseas experience leads to appropriate cultural frame switching. Based on two studies, they found empirical evidence showing that Taiwanese managers who had lived or worked in the West and then returned to work in Taiwan can switch their cultural frames appropriately in response to Chinese or Western cultural priming, but only when they are high in bicultural identity integration, i.e., they have a high level of integration between their Eastern and Western identities.

Increase in self-concept clarity. Adam et al. (2018) explored whether living abroad changes individuals' self-concept clarity. Self-concept clarity refers to the extent to which the contents of an individual's self-concept are "*clearly and confidently defined*,

internally consistent, and temporally stable” (Campbell et al., 1996: 141). Based on the results of six studies, Adam et al. (2018) found that living overseas leads to an increase in self-concept clarity. This clearer sense of the self stems from the living abroad experiences prompting participants to engage in a higher level of self-discerning reflections on whether parts of their identity truly define who they are or are just a mere reflection of their cultural upbringing. In addition, it is the depth of living abroad experiences (i.e., the length of time lived abroad) that increases self-concept clarity, and not the breadth (i.e., the number of foreign countries lived in). Moreover, depth of living abroad experiences positively predicts career decision-making clarity through an increase in self-concept clarity.

Reduction of intergroup bias. Research by Tadmor and colleagues (Tadmor et al., 2018; Tadmor, Hong, et al., 2012) shows that multicultural experiences can lead to a reduction in intergroup bias (stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination). They define multicultural experiences as “*all direct and indirect experiences of encountering or interacting with the elements and/or members of foreign cultures*” (A. K.-Y. Leung et al., 2008: 169). In their studies, multicultural experience was either experimentally manipulated or measured. For those studies that measured multicultural experience, they used the Multicultural Experience Survey (A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010b). This measure comprises of various forms of direct and indirect multicultural experiences, including living abroad experiences, exposure to foreign cultures, number of foreign languages spoken, parents’ places of birth, and the nationality of five favorite cuisines, friends, and musicians.

The results of six studies conducted by Tadmor, Hong, et al. (2012) collectively indicate that multicultural experience leads to a reduction in intergroup bias, including reductions in stereotype endorsement, symbolic racism, and discriminatory hiring decisions. Moreover, experimental exposure to multicultural experience caused a decrease in participants' need for cognitive closure, and the relationship between multicultural experience and intergroup bias is fully mediated by lower levels of need for cognitive closure.

Extending Tadmor, Hong, et al.'s (2012) study, Tadmor et al. (2018) proposed that the need for cognitive closure mediated relationship between multicultural experience and intergroup bias is moderated by perceived mental resources, such that this mediated relationship is only valid among individuals with high levels of perceived mental resources. The results of their six studies corroborate Tadmor, Hong, et al.'s (2012) findings and also support their own contention that multicultural experience leads to reductions in intergroup bias only when people perceive that they have sufficient mental resources.

In a similar vein, Sparkman et al. (2016) conducted two studies and found empirical evidence to support their prediction that multicultural experience reduces intercultural prejudice. In addition, this relationship is mediated by participants' openness to experience, which is one of the Big-Five personality traits (John & Srivastava, 1999). Their two studies indicate that whether measuring multicultural experience or manipulating a multicultural experience, exposure to cultural members and elements of multiple foreign cultures increased participants' openness to experience, which in turn led to reductions in their intercultural prejudice. Sparkman et al.'s (2016) definition of

multicultural experience is the same as that used by Tadmor et al. (2018) and Tadmor, Hong, et al. (2012). The items in their measure of multicultural experience which they adapted from previous research (A. K.-Y. Leung et al., 2008; Narvaez & Hill, 2010) included participants' foreign travel and contact with members of different countries, such as frequency and length of foreign travel, immersion in different cultural norms, number of current contacts with individuals living in different countries, and number of friends and family from different cultures, as well as exposure to the subjective elements of different cultures, including social norms, art, music, film, and food.

Fostering of creativity. The effects of international experience and exposure to different cultures on individuals' level of creativity have gained interest among some scholars. Overall, their empirical studies found a significant positive relationship between such experiences and creativity. They also investigated potential mediators and moderators of this relationship.

The collective results of five studies conducted by Maddux and Galinsky (2009) indicate that participants' length of time spent living abroad positively predicted their creativity levels, and this relationship is mediated by the degree to which they had adapted to the different cultures while living abroad. They did not find such an effect for the international experience participants gained through traveling abroad.

Defining multicultural experience as including all direct and indirect experiences of encountering or interacting with the elements and/or members of foreign cultures, A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu's (2008, 2010b) research found a positive link between multicultural experience and creativity through a series of studies. Moreover, they found that this relationship is moderated by their participants' openness to experience (A. K.-Y.

Leung & Chiu, 2008), need for cognitive closure (a need for firm answers) and existential terror (mortality concerns) (A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010b). Specifically, the influence of multicultural experience on creativity is stronger when participants are those who adapt and are open to experiencing and being exposed to different cultures, and when the creative context does not require the need for firm answers or highlight mortality concerns to them. In their series of studies, multicultural experience was either experimentally manipulated or measured using the Multicultural Experience Survey (A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010b) that they developed and validated. This measure encompasses various forms of direct and indirect multicultural experiences, including living abroad experiences, exposure to foreign cultures, number of foreign languages spoken, parents' places of birth, and the nationality of five favorite cuisines, friends, and musicians.

Extending this stream of research, Tadmor, Satterstrom, et al. (2012) explored the effects of multicultural experience on collective creativity to see if the benefits of multicultural experience are synergistic in the context of culturally diverse teams, i.e., if they can be more than a simple summation of increased individual creativity. The findings of their study indicate that multicultural experience has a superadditive effect on dyadic creativity, even after controlling for individual creativity. The dyads that exhibited the best performance on a creative task are those where both dyad partners have high levels of multicultural experience. They measured multicultural experience of the participants with the Multicultural Experience Survey (A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010b).

There are also a few studies that examined whether specific types and/episodes of international experience such as an expatriate assignment or study abroad experience

fostered individuals' creative thinking abilities. Fee and Gray (2012) used the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (Goff, 2002) to measure the level of creative-thinking abilities of a group of expatriates before their expatriate assignment and 12 months after they have been on it. They found that these expatriates exhibited a significant increase in their overall creative-thinking abilities over this 12-month period, controlling for their previous international experience. This increase in overall creative-thinking abilities is driven mainly by the increase in cognitive flexibility. On the other hand, the control group did not show any significant changes in the level of their creative-thinking abilities.

In terms of the effects of study abroad programs on participants' creative-thinking abilities, a couple of studies have confirmed a significant positive relationship. In addition to doing the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (Goff, 2002) which assesses domain general creative thinking, the participants in C. S. Lee et al.'s (2012) study also did the Cultural Creativity Task (C. S. Lee et al., 2011) which assesses culture specific creative thinking. The results of this study show that participants who had studied abroad possess higher levels of both domain general and culture specific creative thinking abilities (indicated by their higher quality creative responses on both tests) compared to participants who did not have any study abroad experience. Cho and Morris (2015) also found that the length of study abroad experience is significantly positively related to problem-solving unconventionality, after controlling for international work experience. The effect of length of work abroad on problem-solving unconventionality was only marginally significant.

Godart et al. (2015) furthered this stream of research by exploring the relationship between individuals' international work experience and organizational creativity, thereby taking a multilevel approach in their study. Specifically, they explored whether the international work experience of creative directors of fashion houses predicted their firm's creative innovations measured by the creativity ratings of their collections published by the renowned French trade magazine, *Journal du Textile* which is the only industry-validated measure available (Barkey & Godart, 2013; Crane, 1997). Godart et al. (2015) conceptualized international work experience of the creative directors as a three-dimensional construct consisting of breadth (the total number of foreign countries worked in), depth (the total number of years worked abroad), and cultural distance (the cultural distance between the home country and the foreign countries worked in).

Godart et al. (2015) found that each of the three dimensions of international work experience has a curvilinear relationship with the firm's creative innovations. Specifically, breadth and cultural distance have an inverted U-shaped relationship with the firm's creative innovations, i.e., the firm produced the highest levels of creative innovations at moderate levels of breadth and cultural distance, while depth has a decreasing positive effect that never turned negative. Thus, their findings indicate that the highest level of creative innovations is achieved when the creative directors' international work experience is characterized by high depth, moderate breadth, and moderate cultural distance. They also found a significant three-way interaction effect among the three dimensions that showed that breadth and cultural distance are important when depth is low, but not when it is high. The results also indicate that although more breadth and larger cultural distance are useful when depth is low, having more of one or the other is

enough because the combination of both did not seem to provide additional benefits. As such, depth is the most important dimension of international work experience for coming up with creative innovations.

To calculate cultural distance, Godart et al. (2015) relied on Hofstede's cultural indices (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 2010) and used Kandogan's (2012) approach, which is Kogut and Singh's (1988) formula plus taking into account the possible bias resulting from positive or negative correlations between the pairs of cultural value dimensions. In cases where the creative director has worked in more than one foreign country, Godart et al. (2015) added up the absolute values of the cultural distances between each of the foreign countries and the home country of the creative director. They decided to use the sum of the cultural distances because it reflects the entire requisite variety to which a person has been exposed to.

Effects on generalized trust. Cao et al. (2014) explored the effects of breadth (i.e., the number of countries traveled to) and depth (the length of time spent traveling abroad) of foreign experiences on generalized trust. Generalized trust refers to the belief in the benevolence of human nature (Yamagishi & Yamagishi, 1994). Although generalized trust can be expected to be difficult to establish in foreign or unfamiliar environments, Cao et al. (2014) propose that the breadth of foreign experiences may be crucial for facilitating generalized trust because breadth provides the variety and diversity of experiences that are necessary to produce generalizations and learning. Based on the collective results of five studies, they found that the breadth of foreign travel experiences increases generalized trust, but not the depth of foreign experiences.

Effects on immoral behavior acts. Noting that research on the effects of international experience has generally focused on its positive effects, Lu et al. (2017) explored when and why foreign experiences can lead to immoral behavior acts by conducting a series of eight studies. They define immoral behavior acts as “*either illegal or morally unacceptable to the larger community*” (Jones, 1991: 367), and used lying and cheating, which are deemed as morally unacceptable to the larger community as the behavioral measures of immorality in their studies. The results of their eight studies collectively provide empirical evidence to show that breadth of foreign experiences (i.e., the number of countries lived in or visited) is a stronger predictor of immoral behavior than the depth of foreign experiences (i.e., the length of time lived or spent traveling abroad), and that the breadth of foreign experiences positively predicts moral relativism, which in turn increases immoral behavior. On the other hand, the depth of foreign experiences is not a reliable predictor of moral relativism. It seems that individuals’ willingness to engage in immoral behavior acts increases because their moral standards become more relative than absolute after being exposed to a variety of different moral codes through their living in or visiting of more countries.

Relevant Insights from the Literature Review of International Experience Effects

The literature review above provides several insights that are useful for consideration when developing and empirically testing a model of how international experience can develop individuals in pertinent ways that enable them to be more effective in intercultural negotiations. I will discuss these below.

Conceptualization, operationalization and measurement of international experience. Researchers examining the effects of international experience have

conceptualized, operationalized and measured international experience in different ways. First, there is variation in terms of the domains/types of international experience being considered. Popular domains of international experience include living, working, studying and traveling abroad. There are studies that focused on only one type, such as international work experience (e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014) or one particular international experience episode to operationalize international experience (e.g., Fee & Gray, 2012). Others looked at non domain-specific general international experience, i.e., a combination of at least two domain-specific international experience (e.g., Basinska, 2017). The effects of living abroad (including working and/or studying) versus traveling abroad have also been investigated separately. Empirical research indicates that the experience of individuals deeply immersing themselves in foreign countries when they lived, worked, and/or studied abroad versus other more cursory international experience, such as traveling abroad exerted differential influence over the outcomes they examined (e.g., Maddux & Galinsky, 2009).

Hence, it is important to consider the research question and the outcome variable and decide how best to operationalize international experience. For instance, if different levels of immersion in the foreign country could potentially have a different impact on the outcome variable, then it would be useful to examine travel abroad and those that encompass deep immersion (living, working, studying) separately. In the context of negotiations, there is evidence to show that this is the case. Maddux and Galinsky (2009) found that living abroad but not traveling abroad has a significant positive influence on negotiators' creativity. Thus, future research about the effects of international experience

in negotiations should take this into consideration when conceptualizing, operationalizing and measuring international experience.

Second, international experience has been conceptualized as a single or a multi-dimensional construct by different researchers. When international experience is conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct, it is mostly conceptualized as having two dimensions – breadth and depth. Breadth is usually measured in terms of the total number of foreign countries while depth is mostly measured by the total length of time abroad (e.g., Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014) and sometimes based on a measure that captures a variety of experiences that reflects an individual's level of immersion in the local culture and life abroad (e.g., Crowne, 2013). Several scholars conceptualized international experience with cultural distance as one of its dimensions (e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Le & Kroll, 2017). They argue that foreign countries vary in how culturally different they are from the person's home country. This influences people's experiences in the foreign countries. For instance, their adaptation and learning are likely to be different in foreign countries with higher cultural distances from their home country compared to those with lower cultural distances.

Cultural distance is an important and interesting dimension to include in the conceptualization of individuals' international experience because it can have differing effects, depending on the outcomes examined. For example, prior international experience in culturally similar countries is more helpful for expatriate adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2005) while previous international experience in culturally distant countries is better for developing upper level leaders' strategic thinking competency (Dragoni et al., 2014), and creative directors' past international experience that is

characterized by a moderate level of cultural distance is most conducive for their firms to come up with creative innovations than low or high levels of cultural distance (Godart et al., 2015). The findings of these studies show that the cultural distance dimension of international experience can have a significant influence on the outcomes examined and different levels of cultural distance are better for different outcomes. Including more dimensions of international experience in its conceptualization can enable researchers to have a more nuanced understanding of the effects of international experience on different outcomes, especially by examining the effects of the different dimensions separately and also the interactions among them (e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015).

So far, research investigating the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations has included breadth and depth in their conceptualization of international experience but not cultural distance. Since cultural distance as an additional dimension has yielded significant and interesting results in other contexts, it would be fruitful for new research in the intercultural negotiations context to include cultural distance as an additional dimension of international experience to investigate its effects.

Third, international experience has been measured in different ways. The choice of measures used by various researchers is related to their research question(s), conceptualization and operationalization of international experience, as well as availability of more detailed data on subjects' international experience. Researchers should consider carefully all these factors together when designing their research studies.

Studies that measure international experience beyond a dichotomous measure which reflects whether subjects have previous international experience or not (yes or no), tend to be more informative (Sommer, 2012; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). The findings of

some studies indicate that different types of measures, for example, a time-based (depth) versus an amount-based (breadth) measure, can yield different results (e.g., Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014). On the other hand, Carpenter et al. (2001) found that the results they got by using the number of countries or length of international experience by country did not provide more explanatory power in the models that only used the simple measure of total length of international experience. International experience with a multi-dimensional conceptualization can be measured by a composite index to encompass the multiple dimensions (i.e., a combination of more than one indicator) (e.g., Daily et al., 2000; Georgakakis et al., 2016) or by having separate measures for each of the dimensions. If it makes theoretical sense that the different dimensions of international experience can potentially yield differential results or have interactional effects among them, using a stand-alone measure for each dimension is better than using a composite index.

Studies that use primary data have the advantage of being able to obtain more detailed data of subjects' international experience than those that use secondary data. Research in the negotiation context tend to use negotiation simulations in their studies and solicit information regarding participants' international experience through survey questionnaires. Negotiations researchers should take the opportunity to conceptualize, operationalize and measure international experience in such a way that enables them to answer their research questions more meaningfully and hypothesize interesting relationships between international experience and the outcomes of interest as long as it makes theoretical sense. This will help to advance the research frontier on the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations.

Fourth, while most studies operationalize international experience based on actual experiences in foreign countries, there are some studies that include both actual and indirect experiences. The studies that include both actual and indirect experiences usually term the construct as ‘multicultural experience’ and assess it using the Multicultural Experience Survey (MES; A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010b) (e.g., Tadmor et al., 2018). It is important to note that being exposed to other cultures in one’s home country where one is still surrounded by one’s own culture in general is very different from being overseas where one has to function within the foreign culture almost, if not all the time. Being exposed to a foreign culture while in one’s home country involves shorter periods of time and the dominant culture is still the home country’s culture. The adaptation and learning through actual experiences are more intense and impactful than indirect experiences. Including both actual and indirect experiences may give a fuller picture of one’s exposure to foreign cultures. However, the impact of adding indirect experiences to the operationalization of international experience may or may not be significant. It depends on how substantial one’s actual experiences are, and the cultural distance and heterogeneity of one’s actual experiences in foreign cultures. The operationalization chosen should be in line with the research question(s) and purpose of the study.

Nature of the relationship between international experience and outcomes.

Most studies in the various streams of research that investigated the effects of international experience assume that the relationship between international experience and the outcomes examined is linear. The findings of some studies reveal that international experience has a curvilinear (inverted-U shape) relationship with creative innovations of companies (Godart et al., 2015), career advancement to the C-suite

(Georgakakis et al., 2016; Hamori & Koyuncu, 2011; Schmid & Wurster, 2017), and CFO's compensation (Schmid & Altfeld, 2018). Takeuchi and Chen (2013) suggest that this could potentially be the case for expatriate cross-cultural adjustment as well and could explain why past studies regarding the relationship between prior international experience and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment tend to yield non-significant results.

Future research should consider the research context, outcomes of interest and sample characteristics carefully in hypothesizing whether this relationship is likely to be a linear or curvilinear one. Moreover, post-hoc analysis is recommended to investigate the alternative if the results do not support the hypothesized relationship. This will illuminate whether the relationship is truly non-significant or that the wrong type of relationship was postulated. One caveat could be the age of the subjects in the study. If the mode or median age of the subjects is younger, the relationship may still be linear instead of curvilinear because younger people may not have the opportunities or time to accumulate enough international experience for the curvilinear relationship to emerge. It would be interesting to investigate if the diminishing marginal returns of the benefits of international experience happens and at what threshold level of international experience.

Appropriateness of sample. The extant literature has shown that depending on the research question and purpose, there is value to use young individuals such as university student populations as the sample. For instance, when one is examining the effects of early international experience (e.g., Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014), undergraduate student populations are appropriate. When the focus is on investigating the developmental impact of international experience on individuals, university student populations is appropriate because international experience acquired during childhood or

adolescence have been recognized as being highly formative (Black, Morrison, et al., 1999; Osland, 2008). When the sample consists of older people, the study should take their international experience in their younger days into account.

Effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations under-researched. The effects of international experience have been examined in various streams of research. Overall, the findings indicate that international experience has a significant impact on individuals in various ways and contexts. However, it is under-researched in the context of intercultural negotiations. Extant research reveals that international experience can develop and influence various aspects of individuals. Some of these aspects of individuals can potentially play a significant role in helping them to become more effective in intercultural negotiations, for instance intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity. Theorizing and empirically testing how international experience develops these aspects of individuals and how these aspects enable them to achieve better outcomes in intercultural negotiations will enrich this stream of literature.

Intercultural Negotiation

Negotiation is the social process by which two or more interdependent parties make decisions, allocate resources, or resolve disputes (Brett, 2014). The negotiation context can be intracultural or intercultural. Intracultural or same-cultural negotiation refers to negotiation where all the parties involved are from the same culture, while intercultural negotiation consists of negotiators from different cultures. Intercultural negotiation tends to be more challenging than intracultural negotiation because of cultural differences between the negotiating parties which adds an additional layer of complexity.

As a result, intercultural negotiation outcomes tend to be lower than intracultural negotiation outcomes (Liu et al., 2010).

Negotiation Strategies and Outcomes

The overall objective of the negotiators is to try and find a mutual agreement regarding the negotiation issues while protecting and advancing their interests (Brett et al., 2017). This negotiated agreement results in outcomes for each negotiator. The outcomes in negotiation can be computed in two ways, on an individual negotiator basis or on a joint basis between the pair of negotiators, i.e., the sum of the individual gains of both parties in the dyad. Joint gains reflects the total value created which is then divided among the negotiators according to what is stipulated in the negotiated agreement (Brett et al., 2017). They are considered an important metric to determine negotiation effectiveness because negotiated agreements that feature high joint gains usually provide both parties with good economic outcomes, are associated with higher satisfaction, better relationships and easier agreement implementation (Brett, 2014; Brett et al., 2017).

On the other hand, individual gains are each negotiator's share of the joint gains. This is another kind of negotiation effectiveness in that while joint gains represent value creation, individual gains represent value claiming. If a negotiator generates high joint gains with his/her counterpart but has substantially lower individual gains than his/her counterpart, it means that this negotiator fails to claim much value from the value he/she helped to create. This does not reflect well on his/her negotiation effectiveness. One point to note is that individual gains is a function of joint gains. The higher the joint gains, the more potential for individual gains to be higher. Value must be created first, before it can be claimed.

In negotiation theory (Walton & McKersie, 1991), there are two types of strategy: distributive and integrative. The goal of negotiators using a distributive strategy is to claim value for themselves. Here, negotiators rely on behaviors such as making offers and substantiating offers. Those who focus on claiming value, i.e., maximizing their individual gain, tend to use distributive strategy a lot. For negotiators using an integrative strategy, their goal is to create value both for themselves and their counterparts, maximizing the joint gains, and then claim enough of it for themselves. Behaviors associated with integrative strategy include asking questions and sharing information about each other's interests and priorities as well as finding potential trade-offs (logrolling). This strategy is used a lot by negotiators who want to create value, i.e. generate high joint gains.

Negotiation outcomes can be classified into two types, namely economic and subjective value outcomes. Economic outcome refers to the payoffs negotiators get based on the negotiated agreement, i.e., it is an objective value outcome. On the other hand, subjective value negotiation outcomes pertain to the social psychological outcomes that people value in negotiations. These include: (1) feelings about instrumental outcomes, e.g., outcome satisfaction and distributional fairness, (2) feelings about the self, e.g., saving face and living up to one's own standards, (3) feelings about the negotiation process, e.g., fairness and voice, and (4) feelings about the relationship, e.g., trust and a good foundation for the future as perceived by negotiators (Curhan et al., 2006). Besides objective value negotiation outcomes, negotiation effectiveness can also be evaluated based on subjective value negotiation outcomes because "subjective value can serve as a

good in itself, as a negotiator's intuition about objective outcomes, and as a predictor of future objective value" (Curhan et al., 2006: 8).

Issues and Challenges in Intercultural Negotiations with Adverse Effects on Negotiation Outcomes

Intercultural negotiations are often plagued by communication problems due to differences in cultural values, language, nonverbal behaviors, and thought patterns (Adler & Graham, 1989). On each side, negotiators go to the negotiation table with their own culturally influenced communication styles and negotiation scripts, as well as culture-specific schemas and approaches that are likely to be incompatible with the other party's (e.g., Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2010; Tinsley et al., 1999). Moreover, compared to those in same-cultural negotiations, negotiators in intercultural negotiations experience higher levels of anxiety and uncertainty due to the cultural diversity (Gudykunst, 1995). Thus, they are more prone to misinterpreting and misunderstanding each other, have more difficulties in synchronizing, reciprocating and coordinating with each other in their communication and moves, and tend to feel less comfortable when they are involved in intercultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2010). All these make intercultural negotiations particularly challenging and frustrating for those involved in it (Adair et al., 2001), often resulting in decreased trust, lack of interpersonal attractiveness, reduced willingness to cooperate (K. Lee et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2010), premature closure of the search for alternatives and inefficient information sharing (Brett & Okumura, 1998). Hence, negotiation outcomes tend to be lower in intercultural negotiations compared to intracultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2010).

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL MODEL

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical model of this dissertation and states the proposed hypotheses. To develop a theoretical model on the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations, this dissertation builds upon and extends existing research by proposing a novel and contextualized conceptualization of international experience, synthesizing the inherent issues and challenges in intercultural negotiations, and identifying aspects of individuals that can be developed by international experience and can potentially alleviate the challenges inherent in intercultural negotiations to achieve better negotiation outcomes.

I propose that international experience is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses four dimensions: breadth, depth, cultural distance, and cultural heterogeneity. I argue that experiences abroad develop and strengthen individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity, which in turn enable them to mitigate the inherent issues and challenges in intercultural negotiations and achieve better negotiation outcomes. In other words, intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity mediate the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes.

The intercultural negotiation context inherently erects barriers to effective communication and creates psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation, resulting in worse outcomes for those in intercultural negotiations compared

to those in intracultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2010). I postulate that the extent to which negotiators fall victim to these challenges or how capable they are in mitigating or even overcoming them and achieve better negotiation outcomes depends on their intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity. The intercultural context makes it difficult for negotiators to have effective communication because of cultural differences in communication and negotiation norms and styles between them and their negotiation partners. It also makes it hard for intercultural negotiators to maintain epistemic motivation (low need for closure) and social motivation (cooperative motives) which are necessary for them to engage in effective integrative negotiation processes that lead to higher joint gains. I suggest that in intercultural negotiations, negotiators with a higher level of intercultural competence will have more behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to conduct more effective intercultural communication which will allow them to achieve higher joint gains than dyads with a lower level of intercultural competence; negotiators with a higher level of psychological capital will have higher epistemic motivation (lower need for closure) and more positive psychological resources and capacity to engage in more effective integrative negotiation processes that will aid them in attaining better joint gains than dyads with a lower level of psychological capital; and negotiators with a stronger global identity will have more behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to conduct effective intercultural communication, as well as higher epistemic motivation (lower need for closure) and higher social motivation (more cooperative motives) to engage in more effective integrative negotiation processes, which will help them to get better negotiation outcomes than dyads with weaker global identity.

I contend that it is crucial to differentiate between touristic international experience and international experience acquired through living/working/studying (LWS) abroad. LWS international experience can be expected to have a stronger impact on the development of individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity than touristic international experience. In addition, since the negotiation takes place in an intercultural context, I posit that cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad moderates the relationships between the mediators and intercultural negotiation outcomes, such that the positive effects of intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity on intercultural negotiation outcomes are more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is larger.

Figure 3.1 presents the theoretical model summarized above and discussed in detail below.

Dependent Variable: Intercultural Negotiation Outcomes

This dissertation focuses on the intercultural negotiation context and a two-person negotiation. Intercultural negotiation refers to negotiation where the negotiators are from different cultures. In line with the literature, I look at negotiation outcomes based on both economic and subjective values in the form of joint gains and individual gain. These negotiation outcomes reflect negotiators' performance in different ways.

Economic outcome refers to the payoffs negotiators get based on the negotiated agreement, i.e., it is an objective value outcome. On the other hand, **subjective value negotiation outcomes** pertain to the social psychological outcomes that people value in negotiations. These include: (1) feelings about instrumental outcomes, e.g., outcome satisfaction and distributional fairness, (2) feelings about the self, e.g., saving face and

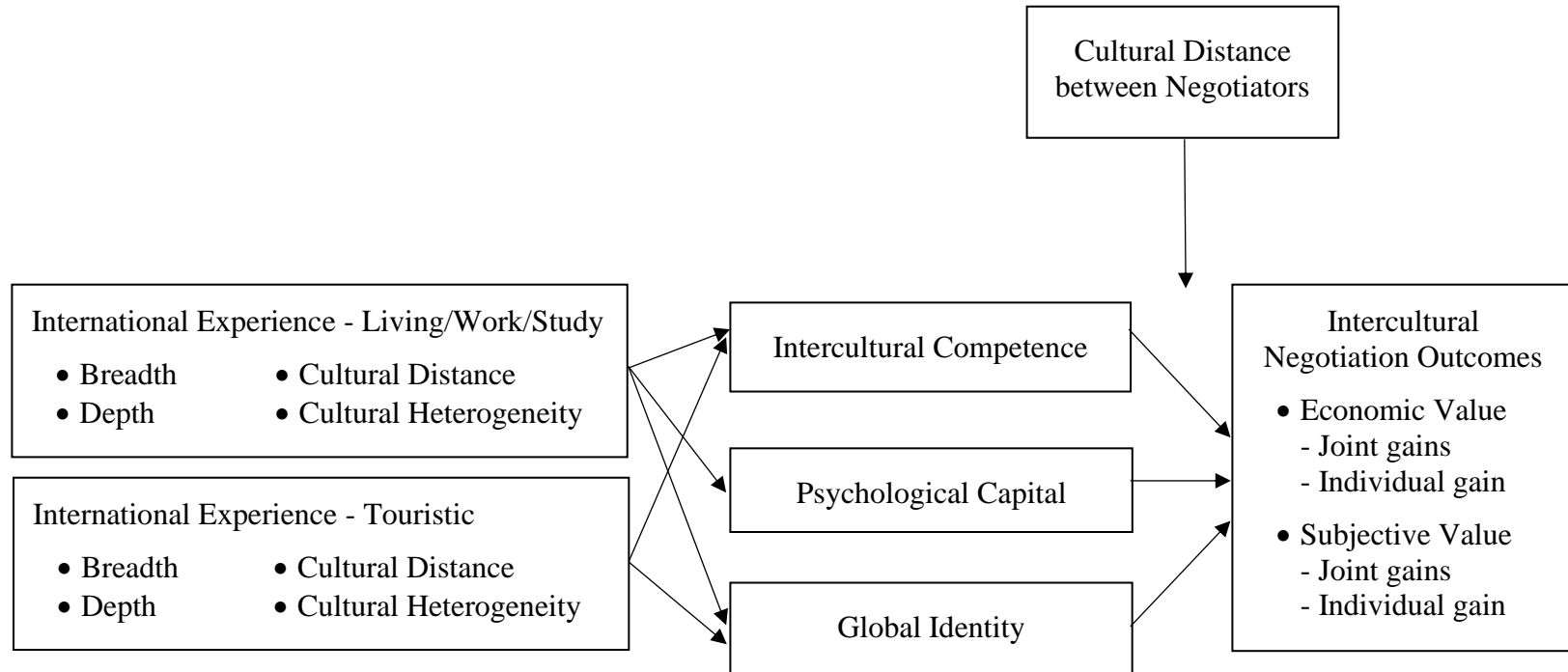


Figure 3.1 Effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations

living up to one's own standards, (3) feelings about the negotiation process, e.g., fairness and voice, and (4) feelings about the relationship, e.g., trust and a good foundation for the future as perceived by negotiators (Curhan et al., 2006). I compute both economic and subjective value negotiation outcomes in two ways, on an individual negotiator basis and on a joint basis between the pair of negotiators.

Individual gain refers to what each individual negotiator gets. **Joint gain** is the sum of the individual gains of both parties in the dyad. Joint gain reflects the total value created while individual gain represents value claimed by each negotiator (Brett et al., 2017). Value must be created first before it can be claimed. Thus, the higher the joint gain, the higher the potential for bigger individual gains.

Independent Variable: International Experience

I define international experience as the experiences individuals acquire while they are in foreign countries as tourists or while they are living, studying or working there (e.g., Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). I classify these domains/types of international experience into two categories: (1) traveling as a tourist, and (2) living, studying and working abroad (e.g., Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). I conceptualize international experience as a multi-dimensional construct, consisting of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity.

LWS International Experience versus Touristic International Experience

I argue that it is necessary to classify the various types/domains of international experience into two categories, LWS international experience versus touristic international experience in the theoretical model and to empirically test the effects of both categories separately. This is because there are differences in the nature of the

experience and depth of knowledge of foreign countries acquired by those who travel overseas as tourists versus those who live, study and/or work abroad. Due to these differences, the two categories of international experience are likely to have different impact on individuals. For instance, it has been shown that living abroad but not traveling abroad has a significant positive influence on negotiators' creativity (Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). Both categories of international experience may potentially influence individuals' intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity in different ways or to a different extent.

For people who are **living, working and/or studying in foreign countries**, their experiences largely differ from those who are there as tourists. Their activities and interactions with the local community, as well as the issues and challenges they face are different. Those who live, work or study overseas have to interact with the locals at a deeper level, usually in the local language, and over a broader range of activities and interactions that cut across professional, academic, social and daily life spheres. It is imperative for them to learn and adapt to the local culture and environment in order to overcome the issues and challenges they face locally. There is a critical need for them to function well enough, if not effectively in the foreign country so that they can succeed in their jobs and/or school and manage their day-to-day living. If they are unable to overcome the initial culture shock that they experience, they will not be able to adjust to living, studying and/or working in the foreign country that they are in. This will likely result in sub-par performance at work or school, and negatively affect the psychological well-being of the individuals concerned. They are likely to return to their home country prematurely, and less likely to be offered and/or accept another international assignment.

On the other hand, for **tourists**, the range of their exposure and interactions with the locals of the foreign country they are visiting, and the issues and challenges they might face there are lesser, limiting the scope of their learning and adaptation to the local culture and environment. For those who are more interested in other countries and cultures, they may learn more about the local culture and environment, and even learn how to speak some local language, and engage in meaningful interactions with the locals, but it will not be to the same extent as those who live, work or study there. In general, tourists tend to have a basic understanding of the foreign country since their experiences there are more cursory than deep immersion. If they did not like a particular country that they visited, it does not necessarily turn them off from visiting other countries. They are likely to think that their unpleasant experience and discomfort during that trip is country/culture-specific rather than being a tourist by itself.

Knowledge can be differentiated into surface-level and deep-level knowledge (De Jong & Ferguson-Hessler, 1996). Surface-level knowledge covers the basic facts and answers the question of “what” but not “why”. On the other hand, deep-level knowledge addresses the questions of “why”, “how” and “when” with the details. Traveling abroad as a tourist provides individuals with surface level knowledge of the foreign country they are visiting. For those who deeply immerse themselves in the foreign country where they lived, studied and/or worked in, they gain deep-level knowledge. This difference in depth of knowledge can lead individuals to make different interpretations, attributions and conclusions regarding what they see and experience while abroad. Those who gained deep-level knowledge tend to be more accurate compared to those who acquired only surface-level knowledge.

Conceptualization of International Experience as a Multi-dimensional Construct

I conceptualize international experience as a multi-dimensional construct, consisting of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity. Breadth and depth reflect the quantity and quality of the international experience, respectively, and cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity provide the context of the experience (e.g., Takeuchi & Chen, 2013). **Breadth** refers to the total number of foreign countries where the international experience was acquired, while **depth** is about the total length of stay overseas (e.g., Adam et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015). **Cultural distance** captures the cultural distance between the home country and the foreign country where the international experience was acquired (e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015). **Cultural heterogeneity** pertains to the degree of dispersion of international experience gained from different cultural clusters across the world.

I contend that it is imperative to contextualize the conceptualization of international experience by adding cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity to breadth and depth. Most of the research on the effects of international experience takes into account the breadth and/or depth of international experience, neglecting the cultural contexts in which the international experiences took place (a few exceptions: e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Adding both cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity enriches the conceptualization of international experience because they contextualize international experience in different ways.

Cultural distance reflects the extent of cultural differences between foreign and home country. When the cultural distance between foreign and home country is larger, there are more jarring cultural differences and individuals will experience a higher level

of cultural cognitive dissonance between their experience in that foreign country and their existing knowledge structures (Rickley, 2019), as well as encounter more challenging situations (Dragoni et al., 2011). The few studies that included cultural distance as a dimension of international experience found that cultural distance matters (e.g., Dragoni et al., 2011; Godart et al., 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2005). It can have a significant influence on the outcomes examined and different levels of cultural distance are better for different outcomes. For example, prior international experience in culturally similar countries is more helpful for expatriate adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2005) while previous international experience in culturally distant countries is better for developing upper level leaders' strategic thinking competency (Dragoni et al., 2014), and creative directors' past international experience that is characterized by a moderate level of cultural distance is most conducive for their firms to come up with creative innovations than low or high levels of cultural distance (Godart et al., 2015). Hence, it is important to include cultural distance as one of the dimensions of international experience and examine its effects on the outcomes of our research interest.

Cultural heterogeneity captures how culturally differentiated the individual's overall international experience is. I propose operationalizing cultural heterogeneity as the extent to which individuals have acquired international experience in the 10 clusters of culturally similar countries identified by the GLOBE study — Southern Asia, Latin America, Nordic Europe, Anglo, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern Europe, Middle East, and Confucian Asia (House et al., 2004; Mensah & Chen, 2014). Having international experience in more cultural clusters indicates that the individual's international experience is more culturally heterogeneous or diverse. For

example, consider two individuals from the U.S., John and Jack. John's international experience was acquired in Japan, China and Singapore (all in the Confucian Asia cluster) while Jack's was gained in Sweden (Nordic Europe cluster), Austria (Germanic Europe cluster) and Spain (Latin Europe cluster). Although John went to more culturally distant countries, all three are culturally similar. On the other hand, although Jack went to less culturally distant countries, each of them is from a different cultural cluster, thereby providing him with a more culturally heterogeneous set of international experience. Therefore, the cultural distance of John's international experience is higher than Jack's while cultural heterogeneity is lower. If John had gone to Japan (Confucian Asia cluster), Russia (Eastern Europe cluster) and Egypt (Middle East cluster) instead, the cultural distance is still higher than Jack's, but cultural heterogeneity is now as high as Jack's. This hypothetical scenario illustrates that cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity are two different dimensions of international experience. There is value to add both cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity to breadth and depth in conceptualizing international experience because it will allow a richer analysis of the effects of international experience.

International Experience and Intercultural Negotiation Outcomes

I propose that international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes, i.e., negotiators with international experience (living, studying, working and touristic travels abroad) that is broader (more foreign countries), deeper (longer in total length of overseas stays), and higher in cultural distance (between foreign and home country) and cultural heterogeneity are more likely to achieve better economic and subjective value outcomes in intercultural negotiations. Biographic anecdotes of

master negotiators often feature their international experience, for instance, statesman Henry Kissinger was born in Germany, grew up and went to schools in the US, and also traveled widely around the world (Liu & Adair, 2017). Moreover, although research on the effects of international experience in intercultural negotiations is still in its nascent stage with very limited empirical studies, there is some evidence that having international experience is beneficial for individuals involved in intercultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2013; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). Findings of the following two studies provide general support for my contention that international experience is positively associated with intercultural negotiation outcomes. First, Maddux and Galinsky (2009) found that length of negotiators' living abroad is positively associated with the negotiation dyads' probability of reaching an agreement using a creative approach. The ability to find creative solutions in negotiations is valuable because creative solutions are usually those that create more value, resulting in higher joint gains. Second, Liu et al. (2013) found that depth of international experience significantly positively influences intercultural negotiation outcomes (both subjective and economic gains), and this effect is mediated by negotiators' global identity. They defined depth as consisting of extended immersion in certain cultures for life functions of work, live, or study in the local language, and measured it with three indices: (i) difference between birth and passport countries, (ii) proficiency of foreign languages, and (iii) length of stay in a foreign country for more than 3 months. Hence, I propose the following hypotheses:

H1: LWS international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes. Specifically,

H1a: Breadth of LWS international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H1b: Depth of LWS international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H1c: Cultural distance of LWS international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H1d: Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H2: Touristic international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes. Specifically,

H2a: Breadth of touristic international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H2b: Depth of touristic international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H2c: Cultural distance of touristic international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H2d: Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience is positively related to intercultural negotiation outcomes.

Mediators of the Relationship between International Experience and Intercultural Negotiation Outcomes

International experience can be considered as a transformational experience for people (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Fee & Gray, 2012; Mendenhall, 2001). When people are abroad, they often face new, meaningful, critical, and/or contradictory behaviors and experiences that they are unable to understand based on their existing schemata and frame of reference, leading them to experience cognitive dissonance (Endicott et al., 2003; Le & Kroll, 2017; Piaget, 1955) which creates a sense of arousal, uncertainty, stress, and emotional ambivalence in them (Le & Kroll, 2017). Thus, they are motivated to make sense of the new culture they are in and learn how to operate and communicate appropriately in that culture in order to reduce the cognitive dissonance and adapt to the new culture (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; D. A. Kolb, 1984; Le & Kroll, 2017; Piaget, 1955). As they reconcile the incongruence between what they are used to thinking and doing, etc. and those that are appropriate in the new culture, and make the necessary adjustments to the new environment, they undergo changes in various aspects of themselves. The more engaged they are in interacting with the locals and in adapting to the ways of the new culture, the more changes they experience (Reichard et al., 2015). Research has shown that these aspects of individuals include their intercultural competence (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Wolff & Borzikowsky, 2018; Yashima, 2010), frame of reference (assumptions, perspectives, mental maps and mindsets) (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Mezirow, 2000), schemata (knowledge, beliefs, and other memories) and cognitive structures (Le & Kroll, 2017; Piaget, 1955), self-narratives related to their personal identities (McAdams & Pals, 2006), local and

global identities (Liu et al., 2013; Schworm et al., 2017), self-concept clarity (Adam et al., 2018), perceptions of their self-efficacy and confidence (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Yashima, 2010), psychological capital (Basinska, 2017; Reichard et al., 2015), and motivational and structural ways of processing information (Benet-Martínez et al., 2006; Tadmor, Satterstrom, et al., 2012), etc. Hence, it is not the international experiences accumulated by individuals per se that directly lead to better intercultural negotiation outcomes. The positive effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes work through its developmental effects on aspects of individuals that make them more predisposed and able to deal with the issues and challenges in intercultural negotiations.

I propose that international experience positively influences intercultural negotiation outcomes by developing three pertinent aspects of individuals, namely intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity, which in turn help them to mitigate the inherent issues and challenges in intercultural negotiations and achieve better negotiation outcomes. In other words, intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity mediate the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. In line with my suggestion, research has shown that these three aspects of individuals are not static, all of them can be developed and strengthened through experiences and/or training (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017; Reichard et al., 2015; Schworm et al., 2017). In this dissertation, I focus on the developmental effects of international experience on them and their effects in intercultural negotiations.

Intercultural Competence

I propose that intercultural competence mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. I argue that international experience develops individuals' intercultural competence (e.g., Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Wolff & Borzikowsky, 2018; Yashima, 2010) and this higher level of intercultural competence in turn enables them to mitigate the barriers to effective communication inherent in intercultural negotiations so that they can achieve better negotiation outcomes (Liu et al., 2010). Intercultural competence refers to “*the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioral orientations to the world.*” (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009: 7). Effectiveness speaks to successfully achieving one's goals in a particular communication exchange, while appropriateness considers the communication exchange from the other party's point of view, i.e., whether the communicator has communicated in a way that is contextually expected and accepted (Arasaratnam, 2016). Intercultural competence consists of three dimensions: cognitive, behavioral and affective (Arasaratnam, 2009; Cui & Van Den Berg, 1991; Sercu, 2004; Spitzberg, 1991; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). This suggests that intercultural competence is about a person's cognitive, behavioral and affective abilities that enable him/her to interact effectively and appropriately across cultures (Arasaratnam, 2016). In intercultural negotiations, the ability to do so is particularly crucial (Liu & Adair, 2017). There are more barriers to effective communication in intercultural than intracultural negotiations due to the cultural differences between the two negotiators (Adler, 1997; Imai & Gelfand, 2010). At the same time, the rewards for

effective communication are bigger in intercultural negotiations than in intracultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2010).

International experience has been touted as the best teacher of intercultural competence (Reichard et al., 2015). It can be viewed as a learning experience for individuals and is thus developmental in nature. International experience fosters individuals' cognitive, behavioral and affective abilities that they need in order to interact effectively and appropriately across cultures through their learning and adaptation to the foreign countries during their stays abroad when they engage with the local people in those foreign countries. When people are abroad, they often face new, meaningful, critical, and/or contradictory behaviors and experiences that they are unable to understand based on their existing schemata and frame of reference, leading them to experience cognitive dissonance (Endicott et al., 2003; Le & Kroll, 2017; Piaget, 1955). This creates a sense of arousal, uncertainty, stress and emotional ambivalence in them (Le & Kroll, 2017). Hence, they are motivated to make sense of the new culture they are in and learn how to operate and communicate appropriately in that culture in order to reduce cognitive dissonance and adapt to the new culture (DeRue & Wellman, 2009; D. A. Kolb, 1984; Le & Kroll, 2017; Piaget, 1955). According to experiential learning theory, learning is a holistic process of adaptation that integrates experience, cognition, perception, behavior and feeling (A. Y. Kolb & Kolb, 2005; D. A. Kolb, 1984; D. A. Kolb et al., 2001). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), individuals learn and develop through their engagements with their surroundings. In the development of intercultural competence, an international experience is a concrete experience and serves as the basis of observation and reflection (D. A. Kolb, 1984). Through observation and reflection,

individuals learn how to operate and communicate appropriately in the new culture as they adapt to the new environment when they are abroad. This process expands their frame of reference and schemata, fundamentally changing their cognitive structures, and also improves their behavioral and affective abilities to interact more effectively across cultures, i.e., acquire a higher level of intercultural competence. Individuals learn more and increase their intercultural competence more when they are more engaged in interacting with the locals (Bandura, 1977; Fee et al., 2013; Reichard et al., 2015). The results of a number of studies corroborate this. They found that international experience significantly contributes to the development of a multitude of indicators/types of intercultural competence proposed by various intercultural scholars. These indicators/types of intercultural competence include cosmopolitanism, non-judgementalness, social flexibility, self-identity, self-confidence and self-awareness proposed by Bird et al. (2010) (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014); openness/ethno-relativism, international awareness, interpersonal communication skills, and self-efficacy proposed by Yashima (2010); willingness to learn, flexibility, tolerance of ambiguity, and optimism (individual intercultural competence), capacity for teamwork, empathy and tolerance, and ability for meta-communication and adaptability (social intercultural competence), organization, problem-solving and decision making abilities, and knowledge management (strategic intercultural competence) proposed by Bolten (2007) (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012); sensitivity in communication, socializing, and cultural identity reflection proposed by Schnabel et al. (2014) (Wolff & Borzikowsky, 2018); CQ proposed by Earley and Ang (2003) (Crowne, 2013; Engle & Crowne, 2014; Reichard et al., 2015; Wood & St. Peters, 2014); and cognitive complexity (Fee et al., 2013).

In this dissertation, I conceptualize international experience as a multi-dimensional construct, consisting of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity. I contend that each of these dimensions of international experience is positively related to the development of individuals' intercultural competence. First, **breadth of international experience**, which refers to the total number of foreign countries where international experience was acquired, can be expected to contribute to the development of individuals' intercultural competence. The more countries people go to, the more variety of cultures they come into contact with. Whenever they go to a new country, they acquire specific knowledge of the new country in order to adapt to that new environment. They also develop their general skills in interacting across cultures. With each international experience, individuals expand their schemata, frame of reference, and repertoire of behaviors and communications skills by learning and adapting to the new culture and environment, and engaging with the local people, thereby strengthening their intercultural competence (Le & Kroll, 2017). For instance, Crowne (2013) found that breadth of international experience has a significant positive impact on developing CQ. They found that the more foreign countries study participants had been to, the higher their CQ tends to be. This is likely to be the case for other intercultural competence indicators as well. Research has also shown that international experiences acquired at different times have a cumulative effect, i.e., additional international experience can further enhance individuals' intercultural competence that was developed during previous international experience (Reichard et al., 2015; Yashima, 2010). A higher number of countries means additional international experiences at different times. Each of these international experiences has an additive effect on individuals' level of intercultural

competence. Hence, breadth of international experience is likely to be positively related to the level of intercultural competence.

Second, **depth of international experience**, measured by the total length of stay abroad, can also be expected to positively correlate with the level of intercultural competence. Various studies have shown that time spent in foreign cultures is a crucial factor in determining the development of intercultural competence (e.g., Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012). Spending more time in a foreign culture enables one to have the opportunity to be exposed to more aspects of the culture and have a longer exposure period. A considerable amount of time and exposure to a foreign culture are needed to uncover the culture's deeper layers and for learning and adaptation to take place so that one can function more effectively in that culture and improve one's intercultural competence (Le & Kroll, 2017). Different aspects/indicators/types of intercultural competence may also take different amounts of time to be developed (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012). For example, the findings of Behrnd and Porzelt's (2012) study show that for strategic intercultural competence to be developed to a certain high degree, their study participants who were overseas on study abroad programs or internships needed at least 6 months, while affective intercultural competence took them longer and required at least 10 months.

Third, **cultural distance** between an individual's home country and the foreign country is likely to influence his/her experiences in the foreign country and the development of his/her intercultural competence. Cultural distance refers to the extent of novelty or differences between a person's home country culture and the cultures of other countries he/she has been to (e.g., Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). Foreign countries

differ in how culturally distant they are from a person's home country. International experience that is characterized by larger cultural distances tends to play a stronger role in developing intercultural competence. For instance, when one is in a foreign country that has a high cultural distance from one's home country compared to other people who are in foreign countries with low cultural distance from their home country, one experiences a much bigger culture shock, and more stress, anxiety, uncertainty and cognitive dissonance than the others. At the same time, one could also be intrigued by the novelty of the foreign culture because it is very different from one's home country culture. When cultural distance is larger, one has more to learn and more to adapt in order to reduce the additional cognitive dissonance one experiences and to be able to function effectively in the foreign culture. This larger cultural distance facilitates the development of more sophisticated cognitive schemas given the bigger contrast between one's home country culture and the foreign culture (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). The more one learns and develops more sophisticated cognitive schemas, and adapts to the foreign culture, one's communication and interactions with the locals become more effective and appropriate, i.e., one's level of intercultural competence increases. International experience in more culturally distant countries stretches one's ability and capacity to navigate through the challenges posed by large cultural differences. More culturally distant countries provide very fertile learning grounds and fodder to hone one's intercultural competence. On the other hand, for people with international experiences in countries that have a low cultural distance from their home country, they do not have the opportunity nor the need to develop their intercultural competence as much while abroad. The need and opportunities to do so increase as cultural distance between the foreign and

home country becomes larger. Hence, those with international experiences in more culturally distant countries are more likely to have developed a higher level of intercultural competence.

Fourth, I propose that **cultural heterogeneity** is another important dimension of international experience that plays a positive role in developing individuals' intercultural competence. While cultural distance of international experience captures the extent of cultural differences that an individual had experienced compared to his/her home country culture, cultural heterogeneity of international experience reflects the degree of cultural diversity in his/her overall international experience, i.e., the range of cultures he/she has been exposed to. For example, out of the 10 clusters of culturally similar countries identified by the GLOBE study — Southern Asia, Latin America, Nordic Europe, Anglo, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern Europe, Middle East, and Confucian Asia (House et al., 2004; Mensah & Chen, 2014), the more clusters he/she has had experience in, the more culturally heterogeneous his/her international experience is along the nine cultural dimensions which the GLOBE study used as the basis for the clustering. A more culturally heterogeneous set of international experiences provides much more fodder for developing a person's intercultural competence than one that is more culturally homogenous. The learning is both broad and nuanced with regard to one's understanding of the cultural differences. Cultural heterogeneity of international experience provides differentiated content to enrich one's cultural toolkit that one relies on when interacting with people from other cultures. In addition, the more a person's international experience spans across these cultural clusters, the more likely he/she is able to see certain sets of similarities and differences among the various cultures such that

he/she is able to discern cultural patterns among them. As such, he/she becomes more apt at applying discriminative cultural knowledge in different cultural contexts (A. K.-Y. Leung & Chiu, 2010a). For instance, when individual A whose overall international experience has a high level of cultural heterogeneity interacts with individual B who is from a country which falls into a particular cultural cluster where individual A had acquired international experience but not in individual B's home country, individual A would know that he should draw upon the knowledge he had gained from his international experiences in that particular cultural cluster and appropriately apply it to his interactions and communication with individual B. Hence, people whose international experience is more culturally heterogeneous are more likely to have a higher level of intercultural competence.

International experience can be acquired through different ways. I argue that **LWS international experience** has a stronger influence on the development of intercultural competence than **touristic international experience**. This is because these two categories of international experience differ in the degree of immersion in the foreign country and the type of knowledge people gain from these international experiences. Although different forms of international experience can be expected to develop and strengthen individuals' intercultural competence, it is the kind that involves deep immersion in foreign cultures and acquisition of deep-level knowledge of foreign cultures that has a greater impact on intercultural competence development. LWS international experience belongs to this category of international experiences. Studies that examine the effects of international experience on intercultural competence development tend to use this category of international experiences in their research design. The type of

international experiences of their study participants included living abroad (Imai & Gelfand, 2010), work internships (e.g., Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012), volunteer work service (e.g., Fee et al., 2013; Yashima, 2010), and study abroad programs such as educational tours (e.g., Wood & Peters, 2014) and student exchange programs (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014). The findings of these studies provide empirical evidence that international experiences in the form of living, work and study play a critical role in developing and strengthening individuals' intercultural competence.

For those who live, work or study overseas, their international experience is characterized by meaningful deep immersion in the foreign culture. They interact with the people from there at a deeper level, usually in the local language, and over a wider range of activities and interactions that cut across professional, academic, social and daily life spheres. With their prolonged exposure to the foreign culture at a meaningful deep level, and their learning and adaptation to the local culture and environment, they gain deep-level knowledge about the culture. This kind of knowledge addresses the questions of “why”, “how” and “when” with the details about the foreign culture they are in. It also enables them to engage in a deliberate reappraisal of the cultural differences between their home and host cultures (Pettigrew, 1998). All these experiences help them to develop the behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to interact effectively and appropriately with people from other cultures.

Although the duration of LWS international experiences are usually of a longer period of time in terms of months or years, there are instances of short ones such as educational tours that last from one to two weeks (e.g., Wood & Peters, 2014) and it was found that participants of these educational tours had a significant increase in the level of

their intercultural competence even after being overseas for such a short period of time. This is in line with other studies that found that even short stays abroad can have a significant developmental effect on individuals, such as their intercultural sensitivity and awareness (e.g., Baruch, Dickmann, Altman, & Bournois, 2013).

On the other hand, the experiences of tourists in foreign countries tend to be rather cursory and fleeting. Their exposure to the foreign culture, their interactions with the people from that culture, their opportunities for learning, the scope of their learning and the need for adaptation to the foreign culture are usually rather limited. As such, the knowledge they gain about the culture of these foreign countries is more of the surface-level kind which includes the basic facts of the culture, and answers the question of “what” the culture is like, but not “why” the culture is like that. This is why LWS international experience can be expected to play a greater role in developing individuals’ intercultural competence than the touristic type.

Nevertheless, we should not underestimate the impact of international experiences as a tourist. Such experiences are still consequential in the development of intercultural competence, especially for people who do not have the opportunities to live, work or study overseas. There is a significant material difference between having zero international experience and having the experience of being abroad even for a short period of time and engaging in a limited scope of activities as a tourist. Nothing can substitute experiencing a foreign culture first hand. It is usually during their touristic trips abroad that they come into contact with people from other cultures and being in foreign countries where familiar signs and cues in the environment are not present. They have to make sense of the foreign environment and navigate within it while they are there. For

those tourists who are more interested in other countries and cultures, they may learn more about the culture and environment, and even learn how to speak some local language, and engage in meaningful interactions with the locals. However, it still would not be to the same extent as what those who live, work or study overseas do.

To support my contention that intercultural competence mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes, I put forth my arguments and highlighted research findings showing that international experience develops individuals' intercultural competence in the discussion above. Next, I explain how this higher level of intercultural competence in turn enables individuals to break down the barriers to effective communication inherent in intercultural negotiations so that they can achieve better negotiation outcomes.

Research has shown that intercultural negotiations are often plagued by communication problems due to differences in cultural values, language, nonverbal behaviors, and thought patterns (Adler & Graham, 1989). On each side, negotiators go to the negotiation table with their own culturally influenced communication styles and negotiation scripts, as well as culture-specific schemas and approaches that are likely to be incompatible with the other party's (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2010; Tinsley et al., 1999). Negotiators are more prone to misinterpreting and misunderstanding each other, have more difficulties in synchronizing, reciprocating and coordinating with each other in their communication and moves, and tend to feel less comfortable when they are in intercultural negotiations than intracultural ones (Liu et al., 2010). All these communication problems make intercultural negotiations particularly challenging and frustrating for those involved in it (Adair et al., 2001), often resulting in decreased trust,

lack of interpersonal attractiveness, reduced willingness to cooperate (e.g., (K. Lee et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2010), premature closure of the search for alternatives and inefficient information sharing (Brett & Okumura, 1998). If negotiators do not have a high enough level of intercultural competence, they are more likely to fall victim to these communication pitfalls in intercultural negotiations and miss the chance of cooperating with each other to come up with a more optimal agreement, thus leaving value on the negotiation table.

On the other hand, those with a higher level of intercultural competence honed through their international experiences have more sophisticated cognitive schema and a richer cultural toolkit to draw upon. They are aware that there can be cultural differences in communication and negotiation norms and styles between them and their negotiation partners. They also have the knowledge, experience and motivation to adapt to their negotiation counterparts to facilitate their communication and the negotiation process in order to maximize their chances of achieving better negotiation outcomes.

Research has shown that quality of communication experience, which is the degree of clarity, responsiveness, and comfort that negotiators experience during the negotiation, has significant positive effects on their negotiation outcomes, and that this effect is more pronounced in intercultural than in intracultural negotiations (Liu et al., 2010). Having a higher level of intercultural competence indicates that one has more cognitive, behavioral and affective abilities to interact and communicate more effectively and appropriately across cultures (Arasaratnam, 2016; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). As such, negotiators with a higher level of intercultural competence would experience a better quality of communication with their counterparts. With a better quality of

communication experience, they are more likely to achieve better negotiation outcomes. For instance, negotiators with a higher level of intercultural competence are more capable of communicating verbally and non-verbally with their negotiation counterpart in such a way that their counterpart can understand the meaning of their message accurately, and vice versa. This helps both parties to understand each other's position, interests, preferences, priorities, resources, and capabilities correctly, thereby maximizing their chances of finding common ground and achieving better negotiation outcomes. They are also more likely to be willing and able to synchronize, reciprocate and coordinate with their counterpart in their communication and overtures, paving the way for more cooperative moves and timely exchange of information, which leads to more efficient negotiations. In addition, they tend to feel comfortable interacting with people from other cultures and also able to make the other party feel comfortable with their interaction. As such, the other party is more likely to be motivated to spend the time and effort to share information and search for more integrative solutions that offer better outcomes.

In the above discussion, I suggest that the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural negotiation outcomes is a positive one. I further argue that the strength of this relationship depends on the cultural distance between the two negotiators. High cultural distance indicates more cultural differences and impediments to effective communication during the negotiation which thwarts negotiators' motivation and ability to engage in integrative behaviors to maximize joint gains. Here, intercultural competence can be expected to play a greater role in mitigating the communication challenges and pave the way for the negotiators to achieve better outcomes. On the other hand, when cultural distance is low, the hurdles to effective communication are lower.

Increases in the level of intercultural competence are likely to have a smaller positive impact on negotiators' outcomes. The payoff for increases in the level of intercultural competence is bigger when cultural distance is high than when it is low. In other words, I suggest that cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger.

Based on the explanations and arguments I presented above, my main contentions are: (1) International experience is a multi-dimensional construct comprising of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity; (2) intercultural competence mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes; (3) LWS international experience has a stronger influence on the development of intercultural competence than touristic international experience; and (4) cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger. In line with these contentions, I propose the following hypotheses:

H3: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

Specifically,

H3a: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that breadth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H3b: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that depth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H3c: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that cultural distance of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H3d: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H4: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.
Specifically,

H4a: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that breadth of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H4b: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that depth of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H4c: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that cultural distance of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H4d: Intercultural competence mediates the positive effect that cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H5: LWS international experience has a stronger influence on intercultural competence than touristic international experience. Specifically,

H5a: Breadth of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on intercultural competence than breadth of touristic international experience.

H5b: Depth of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on intercultural competence than depth of touristic international experience.

H5c: Cultural distance of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on intercultural competence than cultural distance of touristic international experience.

H5d: Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on intercultural competence than cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience.

H6: Cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between intercultural competence and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger.

Psychological Capital

I propose that psychological capital mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. I contend that international experience develops individuals' psychological capital (Basinska, 2017; Reichard et al., 2015) and this higher level of psychological capital in turn enables them to mitigate or even overcome some of the psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation that are inherently found in intercultural negotiations, thereby maximizing their chances of attaining better negotiation outcomes. Psychological capital is defined as "*an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by: (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success.*" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007: 3). This implies that psychological capital is about a person's positive psychological resources that help him/her to maintain an internalized sense of control and intentionality while pursuing and accomplishing his/her goals (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Compared to those in intracultural negotiations, negotiators in intercultural negotiations experience higher levels of anxiety and uncertainty due to the cultural diversity (Gudykunst, 1995), thus they face certain psychological impediments to effective negotiation that the intercultural context bestows. In such circumstances, the psychological capital that they had gained through their

international experiences can be expected to aid them in mitigating or overcoming these psychological impediments to effective negotiation.

Although research on the relationship between international experience and psychological capital is sparse, the findings support my contention that international experience plays a significant role in developing individuals' psychological capital (Basinska, 2017). In terms of the individual components of psychological capital, research shows that international experience plays a significant role in developing individuals' self-efficacy (Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Yashima, 2010) and optimism (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012).

In addition, I posit that only **LWS international experience** can be expected to develop a person's psychological capital. There is evidence indicating that it is international experience in the work context, in particular international business trips, that is more conducive for the development of psychological capital (Basinska, 2017).

Touristic international experience is unlikely able to have such an influence. This is because tourists' exposure to the foreign culture, their interactions with the people and the scope of their activities in the foreign culture are usually rather limited. Situations that are challenging enough to influence individuals' psychological capital tend to be encountered when people are living, studying or working overseas rather than traveling abroad as a tourist. In general, the situations or issues that tourists encounter are not impactful enough to influence them psychologically to the extent that would develop or diminish their psychological capital.

I propose that all four dimensions of international experience, breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity, are positively related to the development of

individuals' psychological capital. First, I suggest that **breadth of international experience** has a positive relationship with psychological capital. The more countries people live/study/work in, the more times they would face new sets of challenges because every time they relocate to a new country, they need to start all over again with their learning of the new culture and adaptation to the new culture and environment. A higher number of countries is likely to indicate that their previous stays abroad were all successful. Thus, every time they successfully overcome the challenges and issues that they faced in each of those countries, their level of psychological capital would increase (Reichard et al., 2015). On the other hand, if they had failed to overcome the challenges of living, studying or working overseas and failed to accomplish the objectives of that stay abroad, especially if it is their first time, it is likely that they would return home prematurely and/or it is unlikely that they would pursue another such type or similar types of international experience in the future (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Tung, 1988). This kind of negative experiences is likely to negatively impact their psychological capital, such as a loss of self-efficacy (Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Tung, 1988).

Second, **depth of international experience** can be expected to play a positive role in developing individuals' psychological capital. Similar to the development of intercultural competence, the development of psychological capital also requires substantial amount of time spent in the foreign countries. The longer one lives, studies or works overseas, the higher the likelihood that he/she would face challenging situations in terms of a higher number of times as well as higher degrees of difficulty. The more times he/she overcomes the challenges encountered and the more difficult those situations were, the more psychological capital he/she would accumulate. Supporting my

suggestion that more challenging situations in terms of higher degrees of difficulty would lead to the development of psychological capital, research has shown that task complexity is a significant predictor of psychological capital (Avey, 2014). Challenges that are of higher degrees of difficulty are likely to be more complex to solve.

Third, **cultural distance** between an individual's home country and the foreign country is likely to influence his/her experiences in the foreign country and the development of his/her psychological capital. I suggest that cultural distance is positively associated with the level of psychological capital, i.e., the larger the cultural distance, the higher the level of psychological capital. The larger the cultural distance, the more likely that one faces challenging situations in terms of a higher number of times as well as higher degrees of difficulty. The more times the challenges encountered are overcome and the more difficult those situations were, the more psychological capital would be developed.

Fourth, I propose that **cultural heterogeneity** of international experience positively correlates with the level of psychological capital. A more culturally heterogeneous set of international experiences provides individuals with a more culturally diverse set of challenges that is harder to deal with and requires more of their effort than a set of international experiences that is more culturally homogenous. This is because higher cultural heterogeneity in their international experience means that whenever they relocate to a new country, they do not have a vast set of prior international experiences in culturally similar countries to draw upon. When individuals successfully overcome the harder to deal with challenges that are associated with more culturally heterogeneous international experience, their level of psychological capital would increase.

To support my contention that psychological capital mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes, I put forth my arguments and highlighted research findings showing that international experience develops individuals' psychological capital (Basinska, 2017; Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Clapp-Smith & Wernsing, 2014; Takeuchi & Chen, 2013; Yashima, 2010) in the discussion above. Next, I explain how this higher level of psychological capital in turn enables them to alleviate or even overcome some of the psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation that are inherently found in intercultural negotiations, thereby maximizing their chances of attaining better negotiation outcomes.

Negotiators in intercultural negotiations tend to experience higher levels of anxiety and uncertainty because of the cultural diversity in intercultural negotiations (Gudykunst, 1995), resulting in heightened need for closure (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2012) and lower cognitive flexibility (Baas et al., 2008) compared to those in intracultural negotiations. The need for closure is a form of epistemic motivation (Webster & Kruglanski, 1994) where a person who has a high need for closure can be said to have low epistemic motivation, and vice versa. This implies that negotiators in intercultural negotiations generally find it more difficult to sustain epistemic motivation than those in intracultural negotiations. Epistemic motivation is defined as "*the desire to acquire a full and accurate understanding of the world*" (De Dreu, 2004: 122). In order to have a full and accurate understanding of the world, individuals with high epistemic motivation would process new information in a deliberate, systematic and thorough way, and less likely to rely on heuristic cues that have no true relevance to the situation (De Dreu, 2004; Imai & Gelfand, 2010). As such, negotiators with lower epistemic

motivation are more likely to rely on heuristic cues instead of processing new information in a systematic and thorough way during the negotiations. Supporting this, research has shown that negotiators in intercultural negotiations with lower epistemic motivation would freeze their mental model early during the negotiation, making it hard for them to absorb and process new information, and build consensus with their negotiation partner as the negotiation proceeds, thereby preventing them from seeing the opportunities for integrative solutions that can create value and increase joint gains (Liu et al., 2012). Moreover, the need for closure (lower epistemic motivation) heightened in intercultural negotiations makes negotiators become more ethnocentric and adopt a negative attitude towards those who are culturally different from them (Kruglanski & Webster, 1996; Liu et al., 2012).

I propose that psychological capital helps negotiators in intercultural negotiations to sustain their epistemic motivation (low need for closure), and also provides them with positive psychological resources and capacity to engage in effective integrative negotiation behaviors, and consequently pave the way for better negotiation outcomes. In line with my contention that psychological capital can help negotiators in intercultural negotiations to maintain their epistemic motivation (i.e., decreasing, neutralizing or even reversing their heightened need for closure caused by the intercultural context), scholars have put forth the following assertions: The more psychological capital people have, the higher the intensity of their involvement in intercultural encounters, such as cross-cultural trigger events (Reichard et al., 2015); people who are highly self-efficacious tend to be more willing to engage with the unfamiliar and avoid withdrawal after facing impediments (Earley, 2002; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Van Dyne et al., 2010); and

psychological capital facilitates individual adjustment in a multicultural environment in their professional life through being open, tolerant, and curious about other cultures (Rozkwitalska & Basinska, 2015).

I argue that having higher levels of psychological capital developed through international experience, that is possessing self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience, is particularly helpful to those involved in intercultural negotiations. For instance, there is empirical evidence showing that psychological capital gives negotiators the confidence to engage in effective integrative negotiation behaviors that lead to better negotiation outcomes. It was found that negotiators with high self-efficacy would engage in open information exchange in not only intracultural negotiations (O'Connor & Arnold, 2001), but also intercultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). Moreover, psychological capital by definition can be expected to provide negotiators in intercultural contexts with the psychological capacity to stay on course and focused on their objectives, be motivated to persist in continuing with negotiation and avoid pre-mature closing of the negotiation, be able to see that obstacles or impasse in the negotiation can be overcome, and make the effort to share information about their position, interests, preferences, priorities, resources, and capabilities and spend enough time to find common ground and logrolling opportunities, as well as engage in creative problem solving so as to come to an agreement with a solution that maximizes their joint gains and satisfies both parties well.

In addition, I propose that the strength of the positive relationship between psychological capital and intercultural negotiation outcomes depends on the cultural distance between the two negotiators. Specifically, I hypothesize that cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between psychological capital and

intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger. A larger cultural distance represents more contrasting cultural differences and more unfamiliar or even opposing norms, resulting in a great deal of anxiety, uncertainty and discomfort for the negotiators. They are likely to feel much more daunted by the cultural barriers and have very little epistemic motivation. In such a situation, the epistemic motivation that psychological capital helps to maintain, and the positive psychological resources and capacity that psychological capital provides can be expected to matter even more than when cultural distance is low, i.e., psychological capital is likely to have a greater positive effect on negotiators' outcomes when cultural distance between the negotiators is high than when it is low.

Based on the discussion above, I propose the following hypotheses:

H7: Psychological capital mediates the positive effect that LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

Specifically,

H7a: Psychological capital mediates the positive effect that breadth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H7b: Psychological capital mediates the positive effect that depth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H7c: Psychological capital mediates the positive effect that cultural distance of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H7d: Psychological capital mediates the positive effect that cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H8: LWS international experience positively influences psychological capital while touristic international experience does not have any influence. Specifically,

H8a: Breadth of LWS international experience positively influences psychological capital while breadth of touristic international experience does not have any influence.

H8b: Depth of LWS international experience positively influences psychological capital while depth of touristic international experience does not have any influence.

H8c: Cultural distance of LWS international experience positively influences psychological capital while cultural distance of touristic international experience does not have any influence.

H8d: Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience positively influences psychological capital while cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience does not have any influence.

H9: Cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between psychological capital and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger.

Global Identity

I propose that global identity mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. Specifically, I suggest that international experience develops individuals' global identity (Cohavi et al., 2007; Erez et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Schworm et al., 2017) and this stronger global identity in turn enables them to mitigate the barriers to effective communication as well as the psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation processes that are inherently found in intercultural negotiations, thereby maximizing their chances of attaining better negotiation outcomes. In the global context, individuals who operate across cultural boundaries need to answer the question "Who am I?" through their membership in either their home culture or the global culture (Berry, 1997). Global identity captures the degree to which individuals see themselves as belonging to a worldwide society, aids adoption of behaviors, styles, and information related to a global culture (Arnett, 2002; Erez & Gati, 2004), demonstrates intergroup helping and empathy (Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2013), and facilitates more open communication and cooperation with culturally different others (Buchan et al., 2011; Hinds & Mortensen, 2005).

Although research on the relationship between international experience and global identity is in its nascent stage (Liu et al., 2018), the findings of a few studies support my contention that international experience plays a significant role in developing individuals' global identity. For example, Liu et al. (2013) and Schworm et al. (2017) found empirical evidence that individuals' global identity can be developed through their multicultural experience. I propose that all four dimensions of international experience, breadth, depth,

cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity, are positively related to the development of individuals' global identity. First, I suggest that **breadth of international experience** has a positive relationship with global identity. Global identity captures the identity development process at a specific point in time with regard to a feeling of belonging to the global context (Schworm et al., 2017). Thus, when people go to more countries and come into contact with more people from different cultures, they are likely to feel more connected to people from other countries, thereby strengthening their global identity. Because of the high exposure rate to foreign cultures and interactions with foreigners, they view themselves as part of the worldwide society. Also, given that their frequency of going abroad is high, they would view going to another country as something that is easily done, and not very different from going to another town in their own country. To them, country boundaries is something that is easy to cross. In fact, this ease of crossing country boundaries is likely to enhance their feeling of connectedness to the rest of the world, increasing their global identity. People who are able to go abroad very often are likely to be those who have passports that allow them to travel to many countries without visa and thus they do not face the hassle and time spent applying for visas and the trepidations that their application may not be approved.

Second, I argue that **depth of international experience** is likely to be positively correlated with the strength of global identity. Providing empirical evidence to support my suggestion, one study found that global identity is associated with living in more than one country for more than 2 years (Cohavi et al., 2007). The longer individuals are exposed to other cultures, the more they will understand their own culture and other cultures with much more open-mindedness. Lengthier international experience works

towards helping individuals to reduce their own culture's stereotypes or unquestioned assumptions (Shaules, 2007). Once these assumptions, unquestioned in their own cultures, are re-examined after deep exposure to other cultures, these individuals are more likely to embrace other cultures' merits and global values. Longer stays abroad also provide individuals with the time to build affections towards (Gaertner et al., 1999), and make positive evaluations of culturally different others (Eller & Abrams, 2004), leading to a higher level of interaction and cooperation for common goals (Gaertner, Dovidio, Guerra, Hehman, & Saguy, 2016). As a result, depth of international experience is likely to play a significant positive role in the development individuals' global identity.

Third, **cultural distance** between an individual's home country and the foreign country is likely to influence his/her experiences in the foreign country and the development of his/her global identity. When people are in culturally distant countries, they can see and feel the differences and yet the fact that they are living, studying or working there, deeply immersed in the culture and environment of the foreign country and able to function well after the initial adjustment period, have friends and/or colleagues whom they socialize with, they are likely to feel that cultural differences are not insurmountable. They would begin to see themselves as being able to adapt to vastly different cultures and identify themselves as citizens of the world, thereby strengthening their global identity.

Fourth, I suggest that **cultural heterogeneity** of international experience plays a positive role in developing individuals' global identity. When individuals have more culturally diverse international experience in countries from more cultural clusters, they will begin to see patterns of similarities among and differences between the countries

across the various cultural clusters. When people go to other countries, cultural differences are often expected. However, it is the pleasant surprise they get when they discover similarities with people from other countries or similarities between their home country culture. Since it is unexpected, these similarities leave them with a deeper impression and make the similarities more salient to them despite the fact that the cultural differences that they expected do exist. Thus, they feel that they are not so different after all, and everyone is part of the global village. As a result, their global identity gets strengthened.

In terms of the impact of the type of international experience, I propose that LWS international experience has a stronger influence on the development of global identity than touristic international experience. It is possible for a person's identification with a certain group to form rather quickly after exposure to the group, however, strengthening that identity beyond a certain threshold would require deep immersions in that group like those provided by LWS international experience in order to gain a deeper understanding of the group and build stronger ties and identification with the group. Thus, although touristic international experience may develop individuals' global identity as they jet-set around the world, I postulate that it cannot be strengthened beyond a certain threshold level. Touristic international experience is likely to have a positive relationship with the strength of global identity, but the influence of this type of international experience on global identity development will taper off after a certain threshold level.

To support my assertion that global identity mediates the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes, I explained and highlighted research findings showing that international experience develops individuals'

global identity (Cohavi et al., 2007; Erez et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Schworm et al., 2017) in the discussion above. Next, I consider how a stronger global identity would in turn enable them to alleviate the barriers to effective communication and the psychological impediments to effective integrative negotiation processes that are inherent in intercultural negotiations, thereby maximizing their chances of achieving better negotiation outcomes.

Besides the barriers to effective communication and the heightened need for closure (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Liu et al., 2012) caused by higher levels of anxiety and uncertainty due to the cultural diversity in intercultural negotiations (Gudykunst, 1995), negotiators in intercultural negotiations are also less likely to have social motivation in the form of cooperative motives compared to those in intracultural negotiations (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). This is because of inter-group bias, resulting in people being less willing to cooperate with outgroup members compared to ingroup members (Hewstone et al., 2002). Cooperative motives, a type of social motivation is having equal and high concerns for both the outcomes of self and other (McClintock, 1977). According to the theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1949, 1973), social motivation plays a central role in problem-solving behavior and integrative negotiation. Prosocial individuals develop trust, positive attitudes, and perceptions. They engage in constructive exchange of information. They also listen and seek to understand one another's perspective. Hence, prosocially motivated negotiators are more likely to engage in effective integrative negotiation processes which lead them to uncover possibilities for trade-off and to realize integrative potential (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1998). As can be seen, the intercultural negotiation context inherently erects barriers to effective

communication and creates deficits in epistemic motivation (low need for closure) and social motivation (cooperative motives), thereby diminishing the probability of intercultural negotiators engaging in effective integrative negotiation processes that lead to more superior negotiation outcomes.

I propose that in intercultural negotiations, negotiators with a stronger global identity will have more behavioral, cognitive and affective abilities to conduct effective intercultural communication, as well as higher epistemic motivation (lower need for closure) and higher social motivation (more cooperative motives) to engage in more effective integrative negotiation processes. All these will help them to obtain better negotiation outcomes than dyads with weaker global identity.

Research has shown that the context of intracultural versus intercultural negotiation activates different norms of negotiation behaviors. In intercultural negotiations, negotiators on both sides of the table come with different cultural profiles and orientations where the differences may range from small ones to those that stand in stark contrast to each other. The presence of a partner from a different culture, or a foreigner, activates awareness and knowledge about the uncertain context (Gudykunst, 2005). This knowledge helps negotiators from both sides to activate their knowledge about the intercultural situation, shape their behaviors towards international approaches, and remind themselves to behave, as the international negotiations require (Gudykunst, 2005; Kim, 1988, 2008; Ting-Toomey, 1999).

For those with a stronger global identity, they view themselves as citizens of the world, and they are more seasoned in interacting with foreigners and can behave more skillfully in these contexts (Erez & Gati, 2004). They are unlikely to be fazed about the

intercultural context. In fact, they are probably excited about the intercultural interaction. Moreover, since they have a stronger global identity, their inter-group bias would not surface because they would not view people from other countries as out-group members. In fact, they would view them as in-group members. Hence, negotiators with a stronger global identity would have both epistemic and social motivations that prompt them to engage in effective integrative negotiations processes.

Negotiators with a stronger global identity are more able to mitigate or overcome the intercultural communication problems that are typically found in intercultural negotiations, such as negotiators adhering to different and incompatible negotiation scripts (Adair & Brett, 2005; Tinsley et al., 1999), and negotiators bringing different culture-specific schemas to the negotiation table (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). Moreover, the counterpart of the negotiator with the stronger global identity is likely to appreciate the understanding and adaptation to his/her cultural ways. All these would motivate the stronger global identity negotiator's partner to be more collaborative in exchanging pertinent information to discover common interest issues and explore integrative solutions or be less contentious on distributive issues. This would enable the negotiators to avoid the typical pitfalls of intercultural negotiations which tend to be plagued with problems of premature closure of the search for alternatives and inefficient information sharing (Brett & Okumura, 1998). As a result, negotiators' stronger global identity developed by their international experience enables them to attain better negotiation outcomes in the intercultural context.

Despite the limited number of empirical studies conducted so far, there is promising evidence that supports my contention that global identity mediates the

relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. Liu et al. (2013) found that depth of multicultural experience significantly positively influences intercultural negotiation outcomes (both subjective and economic gains), and this effect is mediated by the negotiators' global identity. However, although they found a significant positive correlation between breadth of multicultural experience and negotiators' global identity, global identity did not significantly mediate the relationship between breadth of multicultural experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. More empirical studies are needed in this stream of research so that we can have a clearer understanding of these relationships.

Finally, I propose that the strength of the positive relationship between global identity and intercultural negotiation outcomes depends on the cultural distance between the two negotiators. Specifically, I hypothesize that cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between global identity and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger. A larger cultural distance represents more contrasting cultural differences and more unfamiliar or even opposing norms, resulting in not only more potential for intercultural communication problems and negotiators experiencing a great deal of anxiety, uncertainty and discomfort, but also a bigger in-group versus out-group chasm between them. When the cultural distance is larger, the epistemic and social motivations that a stronger global identity helps to maintain, as well as the ability of the negotiators with a stronger global identity to follow norms that are more widely accepted in the business world—not only in their own culture, but also in their negotiation partners' cultures in their communication and interactions with their negotiation partner can be

expected to matter even more than when cultural distance is low, i.e., a stronger global identity is likely to have a greater positive effect on negotiation outcomes when cultural distance between the negotiators is high than when it is low.

Based on the discussion above, I propose the following hypotheses:

H10: Global identity mediates the positive effect that LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes. Specifically,

H10a: Global identity mediates the positive effect that breadth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H10b: Global identity mediates the positive effect that depth of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H10c: Global identity mediates the positive effect that cultural distance of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H10d: Global identity mediates the positive effect that cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H11: Global identity mediates the positive effect that touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes. Specifically,

H11a: Global identity mediates the positive effect that breadth of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H11b: Global identity mediates the positive effect that depth of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H11c: Global identity mediates the positive effect that cultural distance of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H11d: Global identity mediates the positive effect that cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience has on intercultural negotiation outcomes.

H12: LWS international experience has a stronger influence on global identity than touristic international experience. Specifically,

H12a: Breadth of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on global identity than breadth of touristic international experience.

H12b: Depth of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on global identity than depth of touristic international experience.

H12c: Cultural distance of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on global identity than cultural distance of touristic international experience.

H12d: Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience has a stronger influence on global identity than cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience.

H13: Cultural distance between the negotiators moderates the relationship between global identity and intercultural negotiation outcomes such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance is larger.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Chapter 4 describes the methodology for empirically testing the theoretical model and set of hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter. The theoretical model postulates how international experience influences the outcomes of intercultural negotiations, including both individual and joint negotiation outcomes. In this dissertation, I focus on testing the theoretical model and the set of hypotheses proposed in chapter 3 at the dyad-level, i.e., I choose the negotiation dyad as the unit of analysis and examine how negotiation dyads' international experience influences their joint negotiation outcomes. Negotiation dyads' joint negotiation outcomes refers to their economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation.

Since the unit of analysis of this empirical study is the negotiation dyad and the focus is on the dyad's joint negotiation outcomes, consisting of economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation (and not individual outcomes), the empirical study will answer the set of research questions stated in Chapter 1 with more specificity, i.e., (1) How do the various dimensions of intercultural negotiation dyads' international experience — breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity affect their economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation.? (2) How do the various dimensions of intercultural negotiation dyads' international experience — breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity influence their intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity? (3) How do intercultural negotiation dyads'

intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity impact their economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation? (4) Do the intercultural negotiation dyads' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity mediate the relationship between the various dimensions of their international experience (breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity) and their joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation)? (5) Are there any differences between the effects of intercultural negotiation dyad's LWS international experience versus the effects of their touristic international experience for research questions (1) to (4)? (6) Does cultural distance between the two negotiators in intercultural negotiation dyads moderate the relationship between intercultural negotiation dyads' intercultural competence and joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation), such that the positive effect of intercultural negotiation dyads' intercultural competence on their joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation) is more pronounced for intercultural negotiation dyads with a larger cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad than dyads with a smaller cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad? Does cultural distance between the two negotiators in intercultural negotiation dyads moderate the relationship between intercultural negotiation dyads' psychological capital and joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation), such that the positive effect of intercultural negotiation dyads' psychological capital on their joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation) is more pronounced for intercultural negotiation dyads with a larger cultural distance between the two negotiators

in the dyad than dyads with a smaller cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad? Does cultural distance between the two negotiators in intercultural negotiation dyads moderate the relationship between intercultural negotiation dyads' global identity and joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation), such that the positive effect of intercultural negotiation dyads' global identity on their joint negotiation outcomes (economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation) is more pronounced for intercultural negotiation dyads with a larger cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad than dyads with a smaller cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad?

Accordingly, the set of hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3 will be tested by the empirical study of this dissertation with more specificity reflecting the negotiation dyad as the unit of analysis and the dyad's economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation (not individual negotiation outcomes) as the outcome variables.

Sample and procedure

The sample of this study consists of 301 intercultural negotiation dyads with a total of 602 participants. Participants were students at a large southeastern university in the U.S. Their average age is 20.52 with a minimum of 17 and a maximum of 46. 80% of them are between the age of 19 and 21. 54.6% of them are male and 45.4% are female. 65.4% of them have working experience. The average amount of working experience is 1 year 5 months. The minimum is 5 days and the maximum is 25 years. Each intercultural negotiation dyad consists of an American and a non-American. The non-Americans come from a wide range of countries/cities/territories around the world (see Table 4.1 for the full list of participants' home country/city/territory). 55 countries/cities/territories are

represented in this sample. 52.8% of the negotiation dyads are cross-gender dyads while 28.2% are male only dyads and 19% are female only dyads.

For the negotiation, I used the Ocampo-Sportsgear Endorsement Deal negotiation case (Teegen & Weiss, 2004). It involves an endorsement deal by a world-famous Mexican soccer player of a U.S. team for a leading U.S. maker of athletic shoes and clothing. It is an 8-issue negotiation scenario that includes 3 common interest issues, 2 integrative issues, and 3 distributive issues. All role materials were in English and all negotiations were conducted in English. Since the non-American participants were students at an AACSB-accredited business school of a U.S. university, they could understand the role materials and conduct the negotiation in English. This situation is reflective of the common practice of using English as the language of communication in international business and in many MNCs.

A few weeks before the negotiation, participants completed pre-negotiation questionnaires designed to collect data on their demographic characteristics and basic human values, international experience, strength of global identity and level of psychological capital, etc. On negotiation day, participants were given the same maximum amount of time to read their role materials and conduct the negotiation. All negotiation dyads submitted their signed contract detailing the terms that they agreed on and their scores immediately after they finished their negotiation. Then, they completed the post-negotiation questionnaire designed to collect data on their quality of communication experience during the negotiation and their subjective value of their

Table 4.1 Participants' home country/city/territory

Country/City/Territory		
1. Argentina	2. Honduras	3. Russia
4. Australia	5. Hong Kong	6. Saudi Arabia
7. Austria	8. India	9. Singapore
10. Bangladesh	11. Indonesia	12. South Korea
13. Belgium	14. Italy	15. Spain
16. Bolivia	17. Jamaica	18. Sweden
19. Brazil	20. Japan	21. Switzerland
22. Cameroon	23. Kenya	24. Taiwan
25. Canada	26. Kuwait	27. Tortola, British Virgin Islands
28. China	29. Lebanon	30. Trinidad and Tobago
31. Colombia	32. Mexico	33. Tunisia
34. Cuba	35. Morocco	36. Turkey
37. Dominican Republic	38. Nepal	39. Ukraine
40. Ecuador	41. Panama	42. United States of America
43. El Salvador	44. Paraguay	45. Venezuela
46. England	47. Pakistan	
48. Ethiopia	49. Philippines	
50. France	51. Poland	
52. Germany	53. Puerto Rico	
54. Guatemala	55. Romania	

negotiation. Since this dissertation is part of a larger research program, there are questions in the three questionnaires administered to the participants to collect other sets of data (see Appendix A for the three questionnaires).

Measures

Dependent variables

Economic joint gains. Negotiators' economic gain is based on the payoff structure embedded in the Ocampo-Sportsgear Endorsement Deal negotiation case (Teegen & Weiss, 2004). Economic joint gains of each negotiation dyad is the sum of both negotiators' scores calculated as a percentage of the maximum possible payoff points that each dyad can potentially score. This percentage value is divided by 100 and then logit-transformed. Logit transformation is recommended for variables with bounded outcome scores so that the transformed variable may be considered to have a normal distribution (Johnson, 1949).

Joint subjective value. Each negotiation dyad's joint subjective value in the negotiation is the average of the individual subjective values of both negotiators in the dyad. Each negotiator's subjective value of the negotiation is measured using Curhan et al.'s (2006) Subjective Value Inventory. It encompasses four factors to represent subjective negotiation outcomes, including instrumental, self, process, and relational values as perceived by the negotiators. There are altogether 16 items (see Table 4.2 for the items). Each item is measured on a 7-point Likert-type response scale.

Table 4.2 Items of the Subjective Value Inventory (Curhan et al., 2006)

Items	
1	How satisfied are you with your own outcome — i.e., the extent to which the terms of your agreement (or lack of agreement) benefit you?
2	How satisfied are you with the balance between your own outcome and your counterpart(s)'s outcome(s)?
3	Did you feel like you forfeited or “lost” in this negotiation?
4	Do you think the terms of your agreement are consistent with principles of legitimacy or objective criteria (e.g., common standards of fairness, precedent, industry practice, legality, etc.)?
5	Did you “lose face” (i.e., damage your sense of pride) in the negotiation?
6	Did this negotiation make you feel more or less competent as a negotiator?
7	Did you behave according to your own principles and values?
8	Did this negotiation positively or negatively impact your self-image or your impression of yourself?
9	Do you feel your counterpart(s) listened to your concerns?
10	Would you characterize the negotiation process as fair?
11	How satisfied are you with the ease (or difficulty) of reaching an agreement?
12	Did your counterpart(s) consider your wishes, opinions, or needs?
13	What kind of “overall” impression did your counterpart(s) make on you?
14	How satisfied are you with your relationship with your counterpart(s) as a result of this negotiation?
15	Did the negotiation make you trust your counterpart(s)?
16	Did the negotiation build a good foundation for a future relationship with your counterpart(s)?

Independent variables

Breadth of LWS international experience. Each negotiation dyad's breadth of LWS international experience is the average of the breadth of LWS international experiences of both negotiators in the dyad. Each participant's breadth of LWS international experience is measured by the total number of foreign countries/territories in which he/she had lived, studied or worked in. For those without any LWS international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting zero foreign countries.

Depth of LWS international experience. Each negotiation dyad's depth of LWS international experience is the average of the depth of LWS international experiences of both negotiators in the dyad. Each participant's depth of LWS international experience is measured by the total amount of time (in months) that he/she had spent living, studying, or working overseas. For those without any LWS international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting zero months.

Cultural distance of LWS international experience. Each negotiation dyad's LWS international experience cultural distance is the average of both negotiators' LWS international experience cultural distances. I use two ways to capture the cultural distance dimension of international experience. The first approach is summing up all the cultural distances of LWS international experience, i.e., the sum of the absolute values of the cultural distances between each of the foreign countries and the home country of the participant. The sum of the cultural distances is appropriate because it captures participants' entire set of experiences in foreign countries with different cultural distances from their home country. The second approach is using the largest cultural distance the participant had experienced in his/her LWS international experiences, i.e., the biggest

absolute value among all the absolute values of the cultural distances between each of the foreign countries and the home country of the participant. The largest cultural distance is also suitable because it reflects the greatest extent to which participants' have been culturally exposed and challenged during their LWS international experience in terms of the furthest they have been culturally "stretched". The 'sum of cultural distances' and 'largest cultural distance' reveal a different qualitative aspect of participants' LWS international experience cultural distance and can have different implications. For instance, between Robert and Peter, Robert can have a higher score than Peter based on the 'sum of cultural distances' measure and at the same time, have a much lower score than Peter based on the 'largest cultural distance' measure.

To calculate cultural distance, I use the formula specified by Konara and Mohr (2019). They explain that Kogut and Singh's (1988) index is incorrectly specified and captures the squared cultural distance instead. I rely on Hofstede's cultural indices (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 1980) and the values data from the GLOBE project on all nine dimensions (House et al., 2004) to calculate cultural distance because they complement each other (resulting in two sets of data for each measure). Hofstede's cultural indices encompass a wider range of countries than the Globe study – 104 countries versus 62 countries. On the other hand, Hofstede's data for 40 of the 104 countries were collected between 1967 and 1973 while the data for the Globe study were collected in the late 1990s. For participants without any LWS international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting absence of LWS international experience, thus zero cultural distance.

Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience. Each negotiation dyad's cultural heterogeneity of their LWS international experience is the average of the cultural heterogeneity of both negotiators' LWS international experience. There are two different cultural frameworks by which countries are categorized based on cultural differences that are suitable for calculating the cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience.

The first one is the 10 clusters of culturally similar countries identified by the GLOBE study — Southern Asia, Latin America, Nordic Europe, Anglo, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern Europe, Middle East, and Confucian Asia (House et al., 2004; Mensah & Chen, 2014). To calculate cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience, participants are allotted a score of one if they had one LWS international experience in a foreign country that is in the same cultural cluster as their home country and they are allocated one more point for each additional country that is not in any of the cultural clusters where they have received points for countries in those cultural clusters. If they don't have any LWS international experience in countries that are in the same cultural cluster as their home country, they are allocated two points for the first country that gets counted, and then they are allocated one more point for each additional country that is not in any of the cultural clusters where they have received points for countries in those cultural clusters. For participants without any LWS international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting absence of LWS international experience. A higher total score indicates a higher level of cultural heterogeneity in the participant's LWS international experience. For this measure, participants' scores can range from zero to ten.

The second one is A. K.-Y. Leung and Cohen's (2011) dignity, face, and honor cultural types framework. Recent research in negotiations have proposed theoretically and empirically shown that cultural differences delineated along the lines of these three cultural types can help explain national cultural differences in the use of negotiation strategy and their impact on negotiation outcomes (e.g., Aslani et al., 2013, 2016; Yao et al., 2017). As such, it is apt to calculate the heterogeneity of participants' international experience based on these three cultural types.

To calculate cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience based on the dignity, face, and honor cultural types framework, participants are allotted a score of one if they had one LWS international experience in a foreign country that is in the same cultural type category as their home country and they are allocated one more point for each additional country that is not of the same cultural type as the countries that they have already received points for. If they don't have any LWS international experience in countries that are of the same cultural type as their home country, they are allocated two points for the first country that gets counted, and then they are allocated one more point for each additional country that is not of the same cultural type as the countries that they have already received points for. Participants are assigned the value of zero if they do not have any LWS international experience, reflecting absence of LWS international experience. A higher total score indicates a higher level of cultural heterogeneity in the participant's LWS international experience. With this measure, participants' score can range from zero to three.

Breadth of touristic international experience. Each negotiation dyad's breadth of touristic international experience is the average of the breadth of touristic international

experiences of both negotiators in the dyad. Each participant's breadth of touristic international experience is measured by the total number of foreign countries/territories in which he/she had travelled there as a tourist. For participants without any touristic international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting zero countries.

Depth of touristic international experience. Each negotiation dyad's depth of touristic international experience is the average of the depth of touristic international experiences of both negotiators in the dyad. Each participant's depth of touristic international experience is measured by the total amount of time (in days) that he/she had visited foreign countries as a tourist. For those without any touristic international experience, they are assigned the value of zero, reflecting zero days.

Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience. Each negotiation dyad's cultural heterogeneity of their touristic international experience is the average of the cultural heterogeneity of both negotiators' touristic international experience. To calculate participants' cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience, I used the same procedure for calculating cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience except that the relevant international experiences for this measure are those where participants had travelled overseas as a tourist. As such, cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience has two measures. One uses the GLOBE study's cultural clusters framework and the other relies on A. K.-Y. Leung and Cohen's (2011) dignity, face, and honor cultural types framework to categorize countries in meaningful ways to capture the cultural heterogeneity of participants' touristic international experience.

Mediators

Intercultural competence. Each negotiation dyad's intercultural competence is the average of both negotiators' intercultural competence. I operationalize intercultural competence using the construct, quality of communication experience introduced by Liu et al. (2010). Quality of communication experience is measured using Liu et al.'s (2010) 15-item scale (see Table 4.3 for the items). Each item is measured on a 7-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). Each negotiation dyad's quality of communication experience is the average of both negotiators' quality of communication experience.

Liu et al. (2010) conceptualized quality of communication experience as a three-dimensional construct that includes cognitive, behavioral, and affective elements, specifically the clarity, responsiveness, and comfort that communicators experience during social interaction. This is consistent with Spitzberg and Changnon's (2009) definition of intercultural competence which is about a person's cognitive, behavioral and affective abilities to interact effectively and appropriately across cultures. A person's level of intercultural competence is manifested in the quality of communication experience that he or she experiences in intercultural interactions. A higher quality of communication experience during an intercultural negotiation indicates that the negotiator has more cognitive, behavioral and affective abilities to communicate effectively and appropriately with the other party, i.e., he or she has a higher level of intercultural competence.

Table 4.3 Items of the Quality of Communication Experience scale (Liu et al., 2010)

Items	
1	I understood what the other side was saying.
2	I understood what was important to the other side.
3	We clarified the meaning if there was a confusion of the messages exchanged.
4	I think the other side understood me clearly.
5	The messages exchanged were easy to understand.
6	The other side responded to my questions and requests quickly during the interaction.
7	The conversation ran smoothly without any uncomfortable silent moments or I did not notice any uncomfortable silent moments.
8	I was willing to listen to the other side's perspectives.
9	When the other side raised questions or concerns, I tried to address them immediately.
10	One or both of us kept silent from time to time.
11	I was nervous talking to the other side.
12	I felt the other side trusted me.
13	I felt the other side was trustworthy.
14	I felt comfortable interacting with the other side.
15	The other side seemed comfortable talking with me.

Instead of using a particular model or type of intercultural competence in this dissertation to operationalize intercultural competence, it is more practical to use quality of communication experience to operationalize it because quality of communication experience captures the manifestation of each negotiator's intercultural competence during the negotiation. It is more meaningful to do so because it truly reflects the intercultural competence of the individuals in that specific context and occasion instead of the negotiators' perceptions of how interculturally competent they are. Moreover, the conceptualization and measure of quality of communication experience were theoretically developed, and empirically validated and tested in the context of negotiations (Liu et al., 2010). Since this dissertation explores how negotiators' overall intercultural competence developed through their international experience can help them achieve better negotiation outcomes rather than focusing on specific components, indicators, types or models of intercultural competence, using quality of communication experience to operationalize it has its advantages and can side-step certain issues. Quality of communication experience makes it possible to capture the overall intercultural competence of the negotiators without having to use a certain type or model of intercultural competence, or a certain list of indicators that may include too many or too few of them. Moreover, instead of relying on self-reports of negotiators' intercultural competence, it is more proximal to use their self-report of their quality of communication experience during the negotiation. This avoids the issues of social desirability answers and under- or over-estimation of one's level of intercultural competence. Compared to more direct measures, self-appraisal tests are susceptible to response biases, for instance social desirability or acquiescence (Barker et al., 2005). Such response biases are less

likely to occur when answering questions about the quality of communication experience during the negotiation because it is less personal, the items of the scale to measure it are about what the negotiators experienced during their negotiation and not about their personal attributes and/or abilities.

Psychological capital. Each negotiation dyad's psychological capital is the average of both negotiators' psychological capital. Participants' psychological capital is measured using a 16-item scale which captures all four dimensions of psychological capital – hope, optimism, resiliency and self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2007) (see Table 4.4 for the items). Each item is measured on a 7-point Likert-type response scale. (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). The scale used here is an adapted and shorter version of the original scale. Each dimension is measured by 4 items.

Global identity. Each negotiation dyad's global identity is the average of both negotiators' global identity. Participants' global identity is measured using the Global Identity Scale developed and validated by Erez and Shokef (Erez & Gati, 2004; Shokef & Erez, 2006). There are 5 items in this scale (see Table 4.5 for the items). Each item is measured on a 7-point Likert-type response scale (1 = Not at all; 7 = Very much).

Moderator

Cultural distance between both negotiators in the negotiation dyad. I used Konara and Mohr's (2019) cultural distance formula to calculate the cultural distance between the two negotiators in each dyad based on Hofstede's cultural indices (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 1980) and the cultural values data from the GLOBE project on all nine dimensions (House et al., 2004).

Table 4.4 Items of the Psychological Capital Scale

Items	
1	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals.
2	Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.
3	I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.
4	At this time, I am meeting the goals that I have set for myself.
5	In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
6	I always look on the bright side of things.
7	I'm always optimistic about my future.
8	Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
9	I quickly get over and recover from being startled.
10	I am usually able to overcome stressful situations.
11	I am able to bounce back from difficult situations.
12	I get over my anger at someone reasonably quickly.
13	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
14	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many difficult tasks.
15	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
16	Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Table 4.5 Items of the Global Identity Scale (Erez & Gati, 2004; Shokef & Erez, 2006)

Items	
1	I see myself as part of the global international community.
2	I feel a strong attachment towards the world environment I belong to.
3	I would define myself as a citizen of the global world.
4	I relate to people from other parts of the world as if they were close acquaintances/associates.
5	I feel a strong attachment towards people from all around the world.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Chapter 5 describes the data analysis of the empirical study and presents the results.

Descriptive Statistics, Variable Names and Inter-correlations of Study Variables

Means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations among dyad-level variables in this study are reported in Table 5.1. Some of the variables names in the table have abbreviations at the end of the name. It is to indicate the data source or framework used in the calculation of that measure when a variable is measured in more than one way. GV indicates that the measure uses Globe study's cultural values indices. H indicates that the measure uses Hofstede's indices. GC indicates that the measure uses Globe study's cultural clusters classification of culturally similar countries. CT indicates that the measures uses Leung and Cohen's (2011) dignity, face, and honor cultural types framework.

The dependent variables are Economic joint gains, and Joint subjective value. The independent variables reflecting the four dimensions of LWS international experience are: Breadth of LWS international experience, Depth of LWS international experience, Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV, Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H, Largest cultural distance of LWS

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among dyad-level variables

Dyad-level variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Breadth of touristic international experience	5.17	3.26	1	.544**	.760**	.384**	.318**	.214**	.180*	.182**	0.011
2 Depth of touristic international experience	60.07	48.34	.544**	1	.458**	.252**	.149*	0.028	0.075	0.063	-0.121
3 Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	3.19	1.20	.760**	.458**	1	.623**	.362**	.173**	.211**	.270**	0.021
4 Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	1.94	0.47	.384**	.252**	.623**	1	.210**	0.097	0.106	.133*	-0.007
5 Breadth of LWS international experience	0.84	0.46	.318**	.149*	.362**	.210**	1	.618**	.840**	.864**	.446**
6 Depth of LWS international experience	28.45	28.55	.214**	0.028	.173**	0.097	.618**	1	.387**	.570**	.219**
7 Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	2.90	1.41	.180*	0.075	.211**	0.106	.840**	.387**	1	.871**	.730**

Dyad-level variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8 Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	2.68	1.50	.182**	0.063	.270**	.133*	.864**	.570**	.871**	1	.519**
9 Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	2.44	0.93	0.011	-0.121	0.021	-0.007	.446**	.219**	.730**	.519**	1
10 Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	2.22	0.87	0.032	-0.038	.146*	0.070	.514**	.398**	.618**	.723**	.761**
11 Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	1.35	0.51	.242**	0.049	.281**	.152*	.774**	.509**	.761**	.750**	.744**
12 Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	1.24	0.44	0.103	-0.057	.175**	0.112	.579**	.376**	.610**	.591**	.803**
13 Quality of communication experience – overall	5.35	0.55	0.105	0.044	0.133	0.098	0.125	.133*	0.010	.142*	-0.120
14 Quality of communication experience – Clarity	5.83	0.68	0.107	0.071	.144*	0.119	0.071	0.086	-0.008	0.119	-0.125

Dyad-level variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15 Quality of communication experience – Responsiveness	5.35	0.62	0.113	0.032	.149*	0.082	.186**	.178**	0.008	.168*	-0.116
16 Quality of communication experience – Comfort	4.87	0.61	0.045	0.000	0.038	0.045	0.070	0.075	0.023	0.079	-0.074
17 Psychological capital – overall	5.36	0.55	.161*	.156*	.186**	0.123	.119*	0.091	0.023	0.081	-0.078
18 Psychological capital – Hope	5.40	0.75	.134*	0.143	.170**	0.125	0.018	0.046	-0.060	-0.003	-.150*
19 Psychological capital – Optimism	5.30	0.75	0.092	0.119	0.086	-0.016	0.064	-0.012	0.019	0.038	-0.024
20 Psychological capital – Resiliency	5.29	0.68	0.104	0.054	.138*	.136*	.142*	0.111	0.071	0.106	-0.011
21 Psychological capital – Self efficacy	5.46	0.64	.174**	.165*	.181**	.143*	.160**	.151*	0.046	.128*	-0.057
22 Global identity	4.93	0.90	.190**	.160*	.243**	.133*	.255**	.185**	.146*	.210**	0.097
23 Cultural distance between both negotiators – GV	4.69	0.58	-.275**	-.326**	-.230**	-.185**	-.200**	-0.078	.156*	.139*	.362**
24 Cultural distance between both negotiators – H	5.25	0.71	-.178**	-.213**	-0.130	-.152*	-.176**	-0.108	0.073	.150*	.144*

	Dyad-level variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25	Economic joint gains	2.78	1.62	.149*	-0.001	0.118	0.059	.181**	.179**	.162*	.156**	0.046
26	Joint subjective value	4.92	.48	0.051	-0.097	0.084	0.074	.147*	0.082	0.100	.168*	0.085

	Dyad-level variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Breadth of touristic international experience	0.032	.242**	0.103	0.105	0.107	0.113	0.045	.161*	.134*	0.092
2	Depth of touristic international experience	-0.038	0.049	-0.057	0.044	0.071	0.032	0.000	.156*	0.143	0.119
3	Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.146*	.281**	.175**	0.133	.144*	.149*	0.038	.186**	.170**	0.086
4	Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	0.070	.152*	0.112	0.098	0.119	0.082	0.045	0.123	0.125	-0.016
5	Breadth of LWS international experience	.514**	.774**	.579**	0.125	0.071	.186**	0.070	.119*	0.018	0.064
6	Depth of LWS international experience	.398**	.509**	.376**	.133*	0.086	.178**	0.075	0.091	0.046	-0.012
7	Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.618**	.761**	.610**	0.010	-0.008	0.008	0.023	0.023	-0.060	0.019

Dyad-level variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
8 Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	.723**	.750**	.591**	.142*	0.119	.168*	0.079	0.081	-0.003	0.038
9 Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	.761**	.744**	.803**	-0.120	-0.125	-0.116	-0.074	-0.078	-.150*	-0.024
10 Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	1	.801**	.843**	0.067	0.032	0.084	0.057	-0.003	-0.039	0.014
11 Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.801**	1	.884**	0.082	0.047	0.120	0.048	0.097	0.029	0.095
12 Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	.843**	.884**	1	0.026	-0.016	0.066	0.019	0.055	0.008	0.081
13 Quality of communication experience – overall	0.067	0.082	0.026	1	.881**	.874**	.828**	.315**	.306**	.188**
14 Quality of communication experience – Clarity	0.032	0.047	-0.016	.881**	1	.677**	.574**	.305**	.315**	.182**
15 Quality of communication experience – Responsiveness	0.084	0.120	0.066	.874**	.677**	1	.587**	.277**	.233**	.172**
16 Quality of communication experience – Comfort	0.057	0.048	0.019	.828**	.574**	.587**	1	.218**	.228**	0.121

Dyad-level variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
17 Psychological capital – overall	-0.003	0.097	0.055	.315**	.305**	.277**	.218**	1	.778**	.801**
18 Psychological capital – Hope	-0.039	0.029	0.008	.306**	.315**	.233**	.228**	.778**	1	.543**
19 Psychological capital – Optimism	0.014	0.095	0.081	.188**	.182**	.172**	0.121	.801**	.543**	1
20 Psychological capital – Resiliency	0.010	0.096	0.054	.230**	.191**	.237**	.159*	.741**	.319**	.450**
21 Psychological capital – Self efficacy	0.010	0.082	0.024	.282**	.280**	.246**	.186**	.819**	.540**	.477**
22 Global identity	.197**	.274**	.225**	.160*	0.098	.184**	.132*	.420**	.353**	.341**
23 Cultural distance between both negotiators – H	.369**	0.030	.153*	-.212**	-.182**	-.245**	-0.125	-.222**	-.292**	-0.058
24 Cultural distance between both negotiators – GV	.278**	-0.036	0.014	-0.056	-0.030	-0.074	-0.046	-0.121	-.166**	0.029
25 Economic joint gains	0.001	0.105	0.025	-0.002	0.004	0.002	-0.009	0.074	-0.020	0.042
26 Joint subjective value	.147*	.151*	0.121	.626**	.563**	.509**	.549**	.226**	.178**	.157*

Dyad-level variable		20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1	Breadth of touristic international experience	0.104	.174**	.190**	-.275**	-.178**	.149*	0.051
2	Depth of touristic international experience	0.054	.165*	.160*	-.326**	-.213**	-0.001	-0.097
3	Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.138*	.181**	.243**	-.230**	-0.130	0.118	0.084
4	Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – cultural types	.136*	.143*	.133*	-.185**	-.152*	0.059	0.074
5	Breadth of LWS international experience	.142*	.160**	.255**	-.200**	-.176**	.181**	.147*
6	Depth of LWS international experience	0.111	.151*	.185**	-0.078	-0.108	.179**	0.082
7	Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	0.071	0.046	.146*	.156*	0.073	.162*	0.1
8	Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience –GV	0.106	.128*	.210**	.139*	.150*	.156**	.168*
9	Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	-0.011	-0.057	0.097	.362**	.144*	0.046	0.085
10	Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	0.010	0.010	.197**	.369**	.278**	0.001	.147*
11	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	0.096	0.082	.274**	0.030	-0.036	0.105	.151*
12	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	0.054	0.024	.225**	.153*	0.014	0.025	0.121
13	Quality of communication experience – overall	.230**	.282**	.160*	-.212**	-0.056	-0.002	.626**
14	Quality of communication experience – Clarity	.191**	.280**	0.098	-.182**	-0.030	0.004	.563**

Dyad-level variable	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
15 Quality of communication experience – Responsiveness	.237**	.246**	.184**	-.245**	-0.074	0.002	.509**
16 Quality of communication experience – Comfort	.159*	.186**	.132*	-0.125	-0.046	-0.009	.549**
17 Psychological capital – overall	.741**	.819**	.420**	-.222**	-0.121	0.074	.226**
18 Psychological capital – Hope	.319**	.540**	.353**	-.292**	-.166**	-0.02	.178**
19 Psychological capital – Optimism	.450**	.477**	.341**	-0.058	0.029	0.042	.157*
20 Psychological capital – Resiliency	1	.600**	.279**	-.145*	-.131*	.133*	.182**
21 Psychological capital – Self efficacy	.600**	1	.340**	-.205**	-0.120	0.091	.198**
22 Global identity	.279**	.340**	1	-.158*	-.160**	0.038	.139*
23 Cultural distance between both negotiators – H	-.145*	-.205**	-.158*	1	.732**	-0.108	-.141*
24 Cultural distance between both negotiators – GV	-.131*	-0.120	-.160**	.732**	1	-.166**	-0.08
25 Economic joint gains	.133*	0.091	0.038	-0.108	-.166**	1	.098
26 Joint subjective value	.182**	.198**	.139*	-.141*	-0.080	.098	1

Note. $N = 178 - 301$ * $p < .05$ (2-tailed) ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed)

international experience – GV, Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H, Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC, and Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT. The independent variables reflecting the dimensions of touristic international experience are: Breadth of touristic international experience, Depth of touristic international experience, Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC, and Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT. Cultural distance of touristic international experience is not examined in this study.

The mediators are Quality of communication experience, Psychological capital, and Global identity. Intercultural competence in the theoretical model presented in Chapter 3 is operationalized by Quality of communication experience in this empirical study. Quality of communication experience consists of three dimensions, namely Clarity, Responsiveness, and Comfort. The study variables related to Quality of communication experience include Quality of communication experience – overall, Quality of communication experience – Clarity, Quality of communication experience – Responsiveness, and Quality of communication experience – Comfort. Psychological capital has four dimensions. The variables representing Psychological capital and its four dimensions are Psychological capital – overall, Psychological capital – Hope, Psychological capital – Optimism, Psychological capital – Resiliency, and Psychological capital – Self efficacy. The moderators are Cultural distance between both negotiators – GV, and Cultural distance between both negotiators – H.

Effects of LWS International Experience and Touristic International Experience on Intercultural Negotiation Outcomes

To test hypotheses H1, H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d, H2, H2a, H2b, and H2d, I conducted a series of simple linear regression analyses with economic joint gains and joint subjective value as dependent variables, and the four dimensions of LWS international experience and touristic international experience as independent variables. Table 5.2 shows that intercultural negotiation dyads' breadth, depth and cultural distance of their LWS international experience are significantly positively associated with their economic joint gains. Breadth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity of their LWS international experience are also significantly positively associated with their joint subjective value in the negotiation. Taken together, these results provide support for hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d. In terms of the influence of touristic international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes, only breadth of touristic international experience is significantly positively related to economic joint gains, supporting H2a. H2b and H2d are unsupported. H2c is not tested in this study.

Mediation Effects of Intercultural Competence, Psychological Capital and Global Identity on the Relationship between International Experience and Intercultural Negotiation Outcomes

Hypotheses H3, H4, H7, H10 and H11, together with all their respective sub-hypotheses are about proposing intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity as mediators between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes, in one way or another. To test whether intercultural competence

Table 5.2 Results of regression analysis for LWS international experience and touristic international experience predicting intercultural negotiation outcomes

Variable	Economic joint gains		Joint subjective value	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
LWS international experience				
Breadth of LWS international experience	.640**	.181**	.149*	.147*
Depth of LWS international experience	.011**	.179**	.001	.082
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	.187*	.162*	.033	.100
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.174**	.156**	.051*	.168*
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	.080	.046	.043	.085
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	.002	.001	.080*	.147*
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.330	.105	.138*	.131*
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	.09	.025	.129	.121
Touristic international experience				
Breadth of touristic international experience	.075*	.149*	.008	.051
Depth of touristic international experience	-3.615E-5	-.001	-.001	-.097
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.163	.118	.034	.084
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	.208	.059	.078	.074

Note. $N = 147 - 301$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Each dependent variable is regressed on each independent variable individually.

(operationalized by quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation), psychological capital and global identity are mediators, I followed Zhao et al.'s (2010) approach in conducting mediation analysis. They argue that the one and only requirement to establish mediation is a significant indirect effect $a \times b$, especially using a bootstrap test (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). To do so, I used the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018) to estimate the indirect effects of all the proposed mediation models and relied on the bootstrapping method to determine whether there is a significant indirect effect in each of the proposed mediation models. A significant indirect effect suggests that there is some form of mediation. PROCESS is an observed variable OLS and logistic regression path analysis modeling tool (Hayes, 2018).

Table 5.3 shows the results of the mediation analysis in which the indirect effects of the mediation models are determined to be significant using a bootstrapping test. I excluded those proposed mediation models that did not have significant indirect effects from the table. I specified bootstrapping to do 10000 times of resampling with replacement instead of the default 5000 times. I also included a command in the program for a heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator to be used so that the data analyses are robust against violations of homocedasticity. I selected the HC3 method which is recommended for sample sizes less than 250 (Long & Ervin, 2000; MacKinnon & White, 1985). This is important since PROCESS is based on multiple linear regression which assumes homoscedasticity of the residuals.

Intercultural competence as a mediator

In Table 5.3, the bootstrapping test results indicate that the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity of LWS

Table 5.3 Results of mediation analysis for quality of communication experience as a mediator between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes

M	Y	X	Indirect effect of X on Y The amount of mediation	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	Is there a mediation effect?
Quality of communication experience	Joint subjective value	Breadth of LWS international experience	.0784	.0351	.0120	.1512	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Quality of communication experience	Joint subjective value	Depth of LWS international experience	.0013	.0006	.0002	.0025	Yes, but the amount of mediation is trivial because it is less than the small effect size threshold.
Quality of communication experience	Joint subjective value	Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.0266	.0097	.0088	.0469	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Quality of communication experience	Joint subjective value	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.0321	.0161	.0008	.0647	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.

M	Y	X	Indirect effect of X on Y The amount of mediation	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	Is there a mediation effect?
Clarity	Joint subjective value	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.0313	.0154	.0024	.0624	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Responsiveness	Joint subjective value	Breadth of LWS international experience	.0939	.0317	.0332	.1577	Yes, medium effect size
Responsiveness	Joint subjective value	Depth of LWS international experience	.0014	.0005	.0004	.0024	Yes, but the amount of mediation is trivial because it is less than the small effect size threshold.
Responsiveness	Joint subjective value	Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.0255	.0090	.0083	.0436	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Responsiveness	Joint subjective value	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.0269	.0126	.0033	.0525	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.

Note. $N = 147 - 244$

international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation through their intercultural competence (operationalized by quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation) are significant. The effect size, also shown in Table 5.3, indicates the amount of mediation by the negotiation dyads' quality of communication experience. According to Kenny (2018), at least 0.01 but less than 0.09 is a small effect size, but non-trivial; at least 0.09 but less than .25 is a medium effect size; and at least 0.25 can be considered a large effect size. Hence, the indirect effects of breadth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience on joint subjective value which is mediated by quality of communication experience is small but non-trivial. However, the indirect effects of depth of LWS international experience on joint subjective value which is mediated by quality of communication experience and one of its dimensions, responsiveness is below the small effect size threshold (Kenny, 2018), i.e. the amount of mediation is deemed to be trivial. Both statistical significance and practical significance are important. Therefore, H3a, H3c, H3d are supported while there is no support for H3b.

The results also show that the mediation effects of the negotiation dyads' quality of communication experience is mainly driven by its responsiveness dimension. It should be noted that the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' breadth of LWS international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation through the responsiveness dimension of quality of communication experience is medium. This is notable considering that all other instances of mediation by quality of communication experience or any of its dimensions are at most a small effect size.

The results did not reveal any significant mediation by intercultural competence (operationalized by quality of communication experience) in terms of the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' touristic international experience on their joint negotiation outcomes. Thus, H4a, H4b, and H4d are unsupported. H4c is not tested in this study.

Psychological capital as a mediator

In terms of the set of hypotheses associated with negotiation dyads' psychological capital as a mediator of the indirect effects of their LWS international experience on their intercultural negotiation outcomes, as shown in Table 5.4, the results of the bootstrapping test indicate that the indirect effect of negotiation dyads' cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience on their joint subjective value mediated through their psychological capital and one of its dimensions, self-efficacy is significant, providing support for H7d. For both cases, the effect size of the mediation is small but non-trivial based on Kenny's (2018) effect size determination. H7a, H7b and H7c are unsupported. The indirect effects of negotiation dyads' LWS international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation are also significantly mediated by certain dimensions of psychological capital although not by the overall construct itself. First, both resiliency and self-efficacy mediate the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' breadth of LWS international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation with a non-trivial small effect size. Second, hope mediates the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' cultural distance of LWS international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation, also with a non-trivial small effect size. Third, self-efficacy mediates the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' depth of LWS international experience on their joint

Table 5.4 Results of mediation analysis for psychological capital as a mediator between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes

M	Y	X	Indirect effect of X on Y The amount of mediation	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	Is there a mediation effect?
Psychological capital	Joint subjective value	Breadth of touristic international experience	.0060	.0033	.0003	.0132	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Psychological capital	Joint subjective value	Depth of touristic international experience	.0006	.0003	.0001	.0013	Yes, but the amount of mediation is trivial because it is less than the small effect size threshold.
Psychological capital	Joint subjective value	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.0153	.0078	.0026	.0327	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Hope	Joint subjective value	Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	-.0124	.0076	-.0303	-.0007	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Resiliency	Joint subjective value	Breadth of LWS international experience	.0264	.0156	.0006	.0606	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.

M	Y	X	Indirect effect of X on Y The amount of mediation	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	Is there a mediation effect?
Self-efficacy	Joint subjective value	Breadth of LWS international experience	.0275	.0161	.0015	.0632	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Self-efficacy	Joint subjective value	Depth of LWS international experience	.0005	.0003	.0001	.0011	Yes, but the amount of mediation is trivial because it is less than the small effect size threshold.
Self-efficacy	Joint subjective value	Breadth of touristic international experience	.0062	.0036	.0006	.0144	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.
Self-efficacy	Joint subjective value	Depth of touristic international experience	.0005	.0003	.0001	.0012	Yes, but the amount of mediation is trivial because it is less than the small effect size threshold.
Self-efficacy	Joint subjective value	Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.0148	.0089	.0019	.0364	Yes, small effect size but non-trivial.

Note. $N = 144 - 277$

subjective value in the negotiation as indicated by the bootstrap test, but the effect size is below the small effect size threshold (Kenny, 2018). Contrary to expectations, psychological capital and one of its dimensions, self-efficacy play a significant mediating role for the indirect effects of negotiation dyads' breadth and depth of touristic international experience on their joint subjective value in the negotiation as shown by the bootstrapping results in Table 5.4. The amount of mediated indirect effects of breadth of touristic international experience is considered small but non-trivial. However, the mediated indirect effect of depth of touristic international experience is less than the threshold level of a small effect size.

Global identity as a mediator

The results indicate that negotiation dyads' global identity did not significantly mediate any indirect effects of their LWS and touristic international experiences on any of their intercultural negotiation outcomes. Thus, the results did not provide any support for H10, H10a, H10b, H10d, H11, H11a, H11b, and H11d. H10c and H11c are not tested in this study.

Relative Influence of LWS versus Touristic International Experience

Relative influence on intercultural competence

To test hypotheses H5a, H5b, and H5d, I conducted a series of regression analyses with quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation (operationalization of intercultural competence) as the dependent variable and two independent variables, one from LWS international experience and another from touristic international experience, each of them reflecting the same dimension of international experience. Standardized beta coefficients can be used to compare the relative importance

of predictors. The predictor with a bigger standardized beta coefficient is of greater relative importance over the other predictor in the regression in predicting the outcome variable, i.e. it has a stronger influence.

In predicting quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation, the standardized beta coefficient of breadth of LWS international experience is greater than that of breadth of touristic international experience (LWS-B = .115; Touristic-B = .063). On the other hand, the standardized beta coefficient of depth of touristic international experience is greater than the standardized beta coefficient of depth of LWS international experience (Touristic-D = .054; LWS-D = .052) in predicting quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation. The standardized beta coefficient of cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience is also greater than that of cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience in predicting quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation. Based on Globe cultural clusters, Touristic-CH = .118 and LWS-CH = .046. Based on Cultural Types, Touristic-CH = .095 and LWS-CH = .021.

In summary, the results indicate that negotiation dyads' breadth of LWS international experience has a stronger positive influence on their intercultural competence (operationalized by quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation) than their breadth of touristic international experience, supporting H5a. Contrary to H5b and H5d, depth and cultural heterogeneity of negotiation dyads' touristic international experience have a stronger positive influence on their intercultural competence than depth and cultural heterogeneity of their LWS international experience. Thus, H5b and H5d are unsupported. H5c is not tested in this study.

Relative influence on psychological capital

A similar procedure as above is used to test hypotheses H8a, H8b, and H8d with psychological capital as the dependent variable. H8c is not tested in this study. The standardized beta coefficients of breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience are all greater than those of LWS international experience (Touristic-B = .146* and LWS-B = .045; Touristic-D = .174* and LWS-D = .017; Touristic-CH = .185** and LWS-CH = .002). This means that contrary to H8a, H8b and H8d, breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of intercultural negotiation dyad's touristic international experience not only significantly positively influence their psychological capital, they also play a greater role in their influence on psychological capital compared to breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience. Thus, H8a, H8b, and H8d are all unsupported.

Relative influence on global identity

To test hypotheses H12a, H12b, and H12d, I conducted the same statistical analysis procedures as above, this time with global identity as the dependent variable. The standardized beta coefficients of breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience are all greater than those of touristic international experience (LWS-B = .178** and Touristic-B = .133*; LWS-D = .221** and Touristic-D = .155*; LWS-CH = .178** and Touristic-CH = .114). These results provide support for H12a, H12b, and H12d indicating that negotiation dyads' breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience have a stronger influence on their global identity than breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of their touristic international experience. H8c is not tested in this study.

Moderation Effect of Cultural Distance between Negotiators in the Dyad

To test hypotheses H6, H9, and H13, I conducted hierarchical regression analysis using mean-centered values of all predictor (quality of communication experience, psychological capital and global identity) and moderator (cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad) variables. In the first step, I entered the variable for cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad (moderator), in the second step I entered the independent variable (quality of communication experience, psychological capital or global identity), and finally in the third step, I entered the respective interaction term between the moderator and the independent variable of the model being tested. The results show that cultural distance between negotiators in the dyad significantly moderates the relationship between negotiation dyads' global identity and their joint subjective value in the negotiation, but not the relationship between negotiation dyads' intercultural competence (operationalized by quality of communication experience) and their joint negotiation outcomes, nor the relationship between negotiation dyads' psychological capital and their joint negotiation outcomes, providing support for H13 but not H6 and H9.

The results in Table 5.5 show that as hypothesized, cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad significantly moderates the relationship between negotiation dyads' global identity and their joint subjective value in the negotiation, such that this relationship is stronger when cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad is larger. I calculated the cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad using both Hofstede's cultural values indices and Globe study's cultural values indices. The results are consistent across both sets of cultural indices.

Table 5.5 Results of regression analysis for cultural distance between negotiators in the dyad as a moderator of the relationship between negotiation dyads' global identity and their joint subjective value in the negotiation

Variable	Cultural distance is calculated based on Hofstede's indices		Cultural distance is calculated based on Globe study's cultural values indices	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Step 1:				
Cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad	-.036	-.081	-.065*	-.142*
ΔR^2 in Step 1		.007		.020
Step 2:				
Cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad	-.026	-.059	-.055	-.122
Global identity	.070	.136	.063	.117
ΔR^2 in Step 2		.018		.013
Step 3:				
Cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad	-.046	-.104	-.073*	-.161*
Global identity	.073*	.142*	.067	.123
Cultural distance between negotiators in each dyad x Global identity	.077*	.152*	.089*	.168*
ΔR^2 in Step 3		.021		.027
<i>R</i>		.213		.245
<i>R</i> ²		.046		.06
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.032		.046
<i>F</i>		3.353*		4.227**

Note. *N*= 215-249 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Mean-centered values are used for all predictor and moderator variables.

Graphical representation of the results makes it easier to interpret them. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 depicts the same moderation model, except that one uses Hofstede's cultural values indices and the other uses Globe study's cultural values indices to calculate the cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad. As shown in the two figures, when cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad is small, the relationship between negotiation dyad's global identity and their subjective value of the negotiation is negative. This means that when cultural distance between the two negotiators is small, a higher level of negotiation dyads' global identity results in lower subjective value of the negotiation. When cultural distance is moderate, this relationship changes direction and becomes positive, i.e., only when cultural distance between the two negotiators is at least moderate, then negotiation dyads with a higher level of global identity will have higher subjective value of the negotiation. The slope of this positive relationship becomes steeper when cultural distance between the negotiators in the dyad is large, meaning that the positive effect of negotiation dyads' level of global identity on their subjective value of the negotiation is more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is large than when it is moderate.

Additional Data Analysis

The data analysis done above focused on testing the set of hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3. Taking stock of the data analysis done so far, additional data analysis needs to be done to address the following two research questions: (1) How do the various dimensions of intercultural negotiation dyads' international experience — breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity influence their intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity? (2) How do intercultural negotiation dyads'

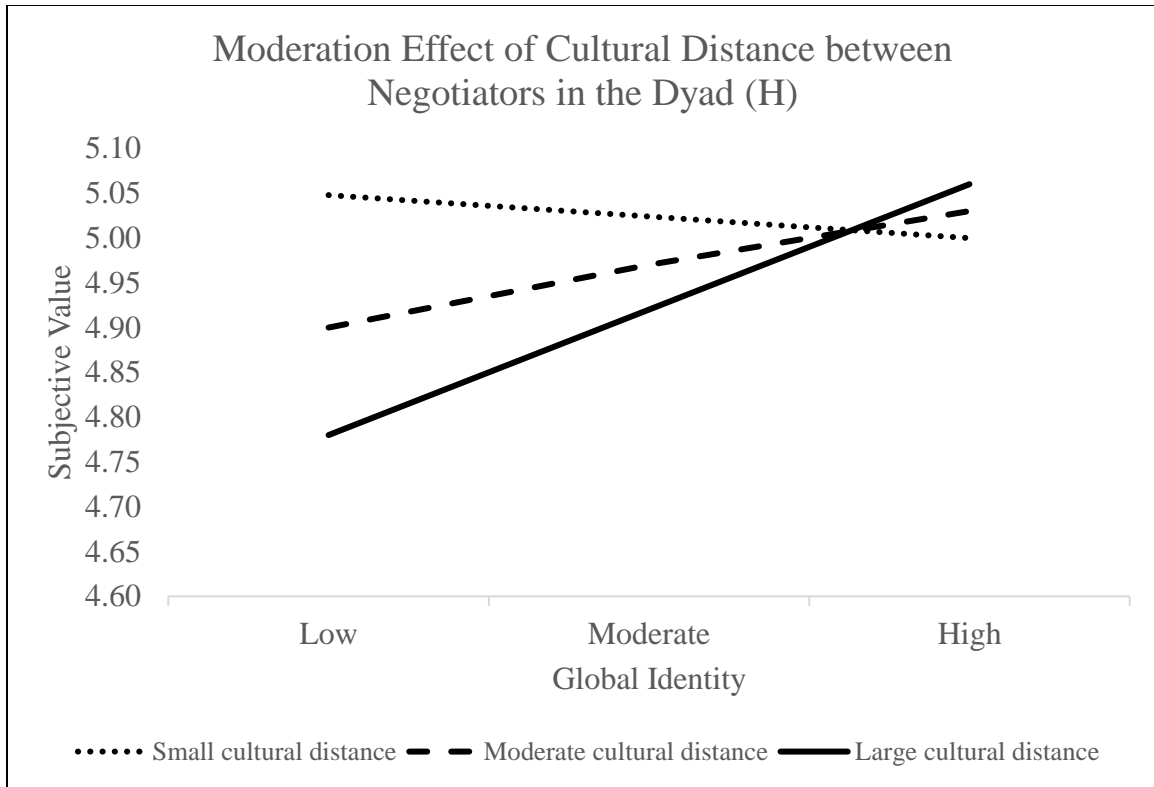


Figure 5.1 Moderation effect of cultural distance between negotiators in the dyad on the relationship between negotiation dyads' global identity and their joint subjective value in the negotiation (based on Hofstede's cultural values indices)

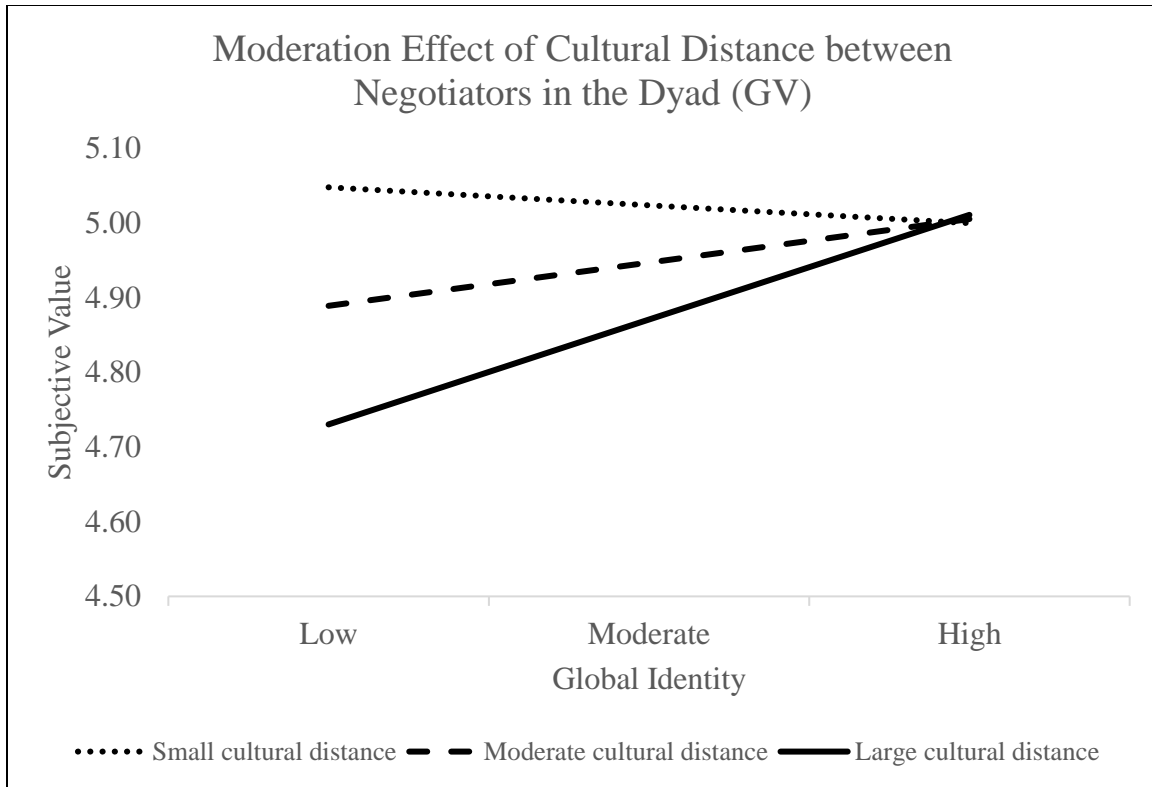


Figure 5.2 Moderation effect of cultural distance between negotiators in the dyad on the relationship between negotiation dyads' global identity and their joint subjective value in the negotiation (based on Globe Study cultural values indices)

intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity impact their economic joint gain and joint subjective value in the negotiation? To answer the first question, I conducted a series of simple linear regression analyses with quality of communication experience (operationalization for intercultural competence), psychological capital, and global identity as the dependent variables; and the different dimensions of LWS international experience and touristic international experience as the independent variables. In this study, four dimensions of LWS international experience are examined (breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity), while only three dimensions of touristic international experience are included. Cultural distance of touristic international experience is not examined in this study. Table 5.6 shows that intercultural negotiation dyads' depth and cultural distance of their LWS international experience are significantly positively associated with their quality of communication experience, i.e., intercultural competence. In terms of the dimensions of quality of communication experience, the responsiveness dimension is significantly positively related to breadth, depth and cultural distance of their LWS international experience, and cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience. Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience is also significantly positively associated with Clarity. Hence, negotiation dyads' quality of communication experience (intercultural competence) seems to be somewhat positively influenced by their LWS international experience and a little positively influenced by their touristic international experience.

On the other hand, negotiation dyads' international experience influence on their psychological capital displays an opposite pattern from its influence on quality of communication experience (see Table 5.7). Touristic international experience has a

Table 5.6 Results of regression analysis for LWS international experience and touristic international experience predicting quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation

Variable	Quality of communication experience							
	Overall		Clarity		Responsiveness		Comfort	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
LWS international experience								
Breadth of LWS international experience	.146	.125	.101	.071	.245**	.186**	.091	.070
Depth of LWS international experience	.02*	.133*	.002	.086	.004**	.178**	.002	.075
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	.004	.010	-.003	-.008	.004	.008	.010	.023
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.050*	.142*	.051	.119	.067*	.168*	.031	.079
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	-.070	-.120	-.087	-.125	-.076	-.116	-.048	-.074
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	.043	.067	.025	.032	.060	.084	.041	.057
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.087	.082	.061	.047	.144	.120	.056	.048
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	.031	.026	-.024	-.016	.091	.066	.026	.019

Variable	Quality of communication experience							
	Overall		Clarity		Responsiveness		Comfort	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Touristic international experience								
Breadth of touristic international experience	.019	.105	.024	.107	.023	.113	.009	.045
Depth of touristic international experience	.001	.044	.001	.071	.000	.032	-4.911E-6	.000
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.058	.133	.079*	.144*	.075*	.149*	.019	.038
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	.110	.098	.169	.119	.107	.082	.057	.045

Note. $N = 147 - 244$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Each dependent variable is regressed on each independent variable individually.

Table 5.7 Results of regression analysis for LWS international experience and touristic international experience predicting psychological capital

Variable	Psychological capital									
	Overall		Hope		Optimism		Resiliency		Self-efficacy	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
LWS international experience										
Breadth of LWS international experience	.142*	.119*	.029	.018	.104	.064	.207	.142	.219**	.160**
Depth of LWS international experience	.002	.091	.001	.046	.000	-.012	.003	.111	.003*	.151*
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	.009	.023	-0.31	-0.60	.010	.019	.033	.071	.020	.046
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.030	.081	-.001	-.003	.019	.038	.047	.106	.054*	.128*
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	-.046	-.078	-1.21*	-.150*	-.018	-.024	-.008	-.011	-.039	-.057
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	-.002	-.003	-.034	-.039	.013	.014	.008	.010	.007	.010
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.103	.097	.042	.029	.137	.095	.125	.096	.100	.082
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	.067	.055	.014	.008	.135	.081	.081	.054	.034	.024

Variable	Psychological capital									
	Overall		Hope		Optimism		Resiliency		Self-efficacy	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Touristic international experience										
Breadth of touristic international experience	.027*	.161*	.031*	.134*	.021	.092	.021	.104	.034**	.174**
Depth of touristic international experience	.002*	.156*	.002	.143	.002	.119	.001	.054	.002*	.165*
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.084**	.186**	.104**	.170**	.053	.086	.087*	.138*	.094**	.181**
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	.142	.123	.197	.125	-.025	-.016	.199*	.136*	.192*	.143*

Note. $N = 175 - 277$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Each dependent variable is regressed on each independent variable individually.

substantial influence on psychological capital while LWS international experience not so much. Breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of their touristic international experience are all significantly positively related to their psychological capital while only breadth of LWS international experience is significantly positively associated with their psychological capital. In terms of the individual dimensions of psychological capital, negotiation dyads' international experience has the most effect on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has a positive relationship with breadth, depth and cultural distance of LWS international experience, and breadth, depth and cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience. Negotiation dyads' breadth and cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience also positively influences the dimension of hope. On the other hand, cultural distance of their LWS international experience is negatively related with hope. For global identity, all dimensions of negotiation dyads' LWS and touristic international experiences are positively related to it (see Table 5.8).

To answer the second question, I conducted a series of simple linear regression analyses with economic joint gains and joint subjective value as the dependent variables and quality of communication experience (operationalization for intercultural competence), psychological capital, and global identity as the independent variables. Table 5.9 shows that intercultural negotiation dyads' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity all have a positive impact on their joint subjective value. However, for economic joint gains, only the resiliency dimension of psychological capital has a positive relationship with it.

Table 5.8 Results of regression analysis for LWS international experience and touristic international experience predicting global identity

Variable	Global identity	
	<i>B</i>	β
LWS international experience		
Breadth of LWS international experience	.496***	.255***
Depth of LWS international experience	.006**	.185**
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – GV	.091*	.146*
Sum of cultural distances of LWS international experience – H	.126**	.210**
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – GV	.093	.097
Largest cultural distance of LWS international experience – H	.206**	.197**
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – GC	.474***	.274***
Cultural heterogeneity of LWS international experience – CT	.450***	.225***
Touristic international experience		
Breadth of touristic international experience	.051**	.190**
Depth of touristic international experience	.003*	.160*
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – GC	.177***	.243***
Cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience – CT	.252*	.133*

Note. *N* = 177 – 280 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 5.9 Results of regression analysis for quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation, psychological capital and global identity predicting intercultural negotiation outcomes

Variable	Economic joint gains		Joint subjective value	
	<i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	β
Quality of communication experience [†]	-.005	-.002	.545***	.626***
Clarity	.010	.004	.398***	.563***
Responsiveness	.004	.002	.391***	.509***
Comfort	-.024	-.009	.428***	.549***
Psychological capital	.215	.175	.187**	.226**
Hope	-.044	-.020	.110**	.178**
Optimism	.090	.042	.095*	.157*
Resiliency	.317*	.133*	.127**	.18**
Self-efficacy	.232	.091	.144**	.198**
Global identity	.068	.038	.073*	.139*

Note. Each dependent variable is regressed on each independent variable individually.
N = 224 – 280 * *p* < .05 ** *p* < .01 *** *p* < .001

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

This dissertation has several goals. First, it seeks to propose a multi-dimensional conceptualization of international experience that encompasses the dimensions of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity. Second, to examine how these dimensions of international experience and how different types of international experience (international experience acquired through living/working/studying (LWS) abroad versus touristic international experience) affect intercultural negotiation outcomes, intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity. Third, to investigate how intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity influence intercultural negotiation outcomes. Fourth, to test if intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity mediate the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes. Fifth, to explore whether cultural distance between negotiators within the dyad moderates the relationships between intercultural competence and negotiation outcomes, psychological capital and negotiation outcomes, as well as global identity and negotiation outcomes, such that the positive effects of intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity on intercultural negotiation outcomes are more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators is larger.

The overall results of the empirical study I conducted to test the theoretical model at the dyad level provide evidence that conceptualizing international experience as having

four dimensions of breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity, as well as differentiating between LWS international experience and touristic international experience is crucial because they can have differential effects on the same or different outcomes. Not all international experiences are the same nor their effects.

As hypothesized, intercultural negotiation dyads with LWS international experience that is characterized by more countries (breadth), longer time (depth), larger cultural distance between the foreign countries and their home country, and greater cultural heterogeneity among the foreign countries achieved greater economic joint gains compared to those negotiation dyads whose LWS international experience had less breadth, less depth, smaller cultural distance, and lower cultural heterogeneity. The same pattern was found for the effect of intercultural negotiation dyads' LWS international experience on their joint subjective value, except for the depth dimension.

On the other hand, the impact of their touristic international experience on their negotiation outcomes is limited. Only breadth of their touristic international experience significantly influenced their economic joint gains, i.e., intercultural negotiation dyads that had visited more countries as tourists (breadth) attained more economic joint gains than those that went to less countries as tourists. This shows that LWS international experience has a greater positive effect on intercultural negotiation dyads' joint economic gains and joint subjective value than touristic international experience.

The results also indicate that experiences abroad develop and strengthen intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity, and they have a positive effect on joint subjective value in intercultural negotiations. In terms of economic joint gains, only the resiliency dimension of psychological capital has a

positive relationship with it. In the empirical study, intercultural competence is operationalized by quality of communication experience during intercultural negotiation.

The effects of international experience on intercultural competence, psychological capital and global identity vary, depending on the type of international experience (LWS versus touristic) and the dimensions of the international experience (breadth, depth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity). For instance, intercultural competence is positively influenced by depth and cultural distance of LWS international experience, and cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience. On the other hand, exhibiting an opposite pattern, more dimensions of touristic international experience play a significant role in developing and strengthening psychological capital. Going to more foreign countries (breadth) that are more culturally different from one another (cultural heterogeneity) for longer periods of time (depth) as a tourist can help to increase one's psychological capital. For LWS international experience, only breadth is positively related to psychological capital. For global identity, all dimensions of LWS and touristic international experience are instrumental in developing and strengthening it.

Moreover, intercultural negotiation dyads' intercultural competence, psychological capital, and global identity have a positive impact on the joint subjective value the dyads gain in the negotiation. For economic joint gains, only the resiliency dimension of psychological capital has a positive relationship with it. Results of mediation analysis reveal that intercultural competence and psychological capital mediate some of the indirect effects the intercultural negotiation dyads' international experience have on their joint subjective value. However, although both types of international experience are significantly positively associated with global identity, and global identity

is significantly positively correlated with joint subjective value, the mediation analysis results did not suggest that global identity acts as a mediator in the relationship between international experience and joint subjective value. This peculiar finding warrants further investigation.

Last but not least, another set of findings from the study shows that cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad moderates the relationship between intercultural negotiation dyads' global identity and the joint subjective value they gain in the negotiation, such that the positive effect of global identity on joint subjective value is more pronounced when cultural distance between the two negotiators in the dyad is large than when it is moderate. Interestingly, when cultural distance between the two negotiators is low, global identity has a negative effect on joint subjective value.

Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation makes theoretical contributions to two streams of literature, namely research on the effects of international experience and negotiations research in the intercultural context. First, one main theoretical contribution of this dissertation is my proposal of a novel and contextualized conceptualization of international experience. I argue that international experience is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses four dimensions: breadth, depth, cultural distance, and cultural heterogeneity. Most of the research on the effects of international experience takes into account breadth and/or depth of international experience, neglecting the cultural contexts in which the international experiences took place (a few exceptions: e.g., Dragoni et al., 2014; Godart et al., 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Research has shown that context matters, hence it is imperative to contextualize the conceptualization of international experience. I contend that cultural

distance and cultural heterogeneity are two important dimensions of international experience that contextualize international experience in different ways. Adding cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity to breadth and depth will enrich the conceptualization of international experience.

Results of the empirical study support my proposed conceptualization of international experience as a multi-dimensional construct. The four dimensions of international experience do not necessarily have the same effect on a particular outcome variable, e.g., a certain dimension is a significant predictor of Y, while another dimension is not a significant predictor of the same outcome Y. Without recognizing this point, one could be working on enhancing one's international experience to improve Y, but on the wrong dimension, thus achieving no results. For instance, only breadth of LWS international experience has a significant positive relationship with psychological capital, while the other three dimensions do not. If a person acquires more LWS international experience in terms of more depth (longer stay), larger cultural distance or greater cultural heterogeneity, but not breadth, i.e., no new country, he or she is unlikely to have a significant increase in psychological capital.

One may ask why we should recognize cultural distance or cultural heterogeneity as a dimension of international experience. It is pertinent to do so because cultural distance or cultural heterogeneity by itself and the other dimensions (breadth and depth) can have significantly different impact on the same outcome variable. Here, I use the findings of the empirical study regarding Clarity, one of the three dimensions of quality of communication experience, as an illustration. For Clarity, only cultural heterogeneity of touristic international experience has a significant positive effect on it. None of the

other dimensions of touristic international experience and not a single dimension of LWS international experience has a significant relationship with it. Thus, by not considering cultural heterogeneity as a dimension of international experience, one would erroneously conclude that international experience has no effect on Clarity at all.

Second, results of the empirical study corroborates past research findings that the experience of individuals deeply immersing themselves in foreign countries when they lived, worked, and/or studied abroad versus other more cursory international experience, such as traveling abroad exerted differential influence over the outcomes they examined (e.g., Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). For instance, in this study, I found that intercultural negotiation dyads' LWS international experience (breadth, cultural distance and cultural heterogeneity) had a significant positive impact on their joint subjective value, but their touristic international experience did not. Conversely, another set of results indicates that touristic international experience matters much more than LWS international experience in increasing psychological capital. Thus, findings of this study expand the list of outcomes where differentiating between international experience gained from living/working/studying overseas versus traveling abroad as a tourist is crucial.

Third, this dissertation brings together the literatures on negotiations and international experience, and contributes to the sparse theoretical and empirical research that has been conducted at the intersection of these two streams of literature by developing a comprehensive, yet parsimonious model on the effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes, and testing it empirically with a laboratory experiment using survey questionnaires and a negotiation simulation conducted by intercultural pairs of negotiators.

Limitations

As with every empirical research, there are limitations of the study. First, the data for the empirical study was collected from a negotiation simulation that study participants took part in. It is plausible that participants may not have taken the negotiation exercise seriously, thereby compromising the quality of the data on the negotiation dyads' economic joint gains. Nevertheless, a preemptive mechanism was built into the administration of the negotiation simulation to minimize this possibility. To mitigate potential participants' nonchalance when participants are conducting the negotiation simulation, they are incentivized to be serious about it and do their best. Since participants are students of a full-semester course at a university, I was able to give "winners" of the negotiation simulation extra points that count towards their exam score or course grade. Those whose scores are in the top 30% are given the extra points. The extra points amount is one that is not overly substantial that would cause resentment among the "losers" nor it is one that is not substantial enough to motivate the participants to take the negotiation simulation seriously. I set the number of extra points such that it would be attractive enough for participants. Feedback from participants confirmed that the amount of extra points and the cut-off criteria for the proportion of winners were appropriate and effective.

Second, except for the scores that are calculated from the pay-off structures of the negotiation exercise (Teegen & Weiss, 2004), the rest of the data are from survey questionnaires that participants completed. Thus, this set of data has the same limitations as self-reports (Barker et al., 2005).

Third, only one empirical study was conducted. This limits the generalizability of the results. To reduce this problem, additional studies should be conducted, for example with a different negotiation scenario for the simulation.

Avenues for Future Research

There are a few avenues for future research. First, since the data of the current empirical study is analyzed at the dyad-level, i.e., the unit of analysis is the negotiation dyad and the focus is on the dyad's joint negotiation outcomes, it would be fruitful to test the theoretical model and hypotheses at the individual level. I recommend using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) (D. A. Kashy & Kenny, 2000; David A. Kenny, 1996) approach to analyze the data at the individual level, i.e. the unit of analysis is the individual negotiator and the focus is on individual negotiation outcomes. The APIM is a model of dyadic relationships predicting individual level outcomes. It integrates a conceptual view of interdependence with the appropriate statistical techniques for measuring and testing it. Given the interdependent nature of negotiation data, the APIM approach is particularly suited for analyzing individual level data in negotiation research (e.g., Turel, 2010).

Second, I urge future research to theorize and empirically test for more mediators to include in the theoretical model, especially those that mediate the relationship between international experience and economic joint gains. Results of the study reveal that the current set of mediators of the relationship between international experience and intercultural negotiation outcomes in the theoretical model are predictive of joint subjective value, but not economic joint gains. This means that there are other variables

that act as mediators of the relationship between international experience and economic joint gains.

Third, it would be interesting for future research to theorize and empirically test the effects of international experience on intercultural negotiation outcomes in multi-round negotiations. Studies can investigate if and how economic gains and subjective value attained (due to the effects of international experience) from previous rounds of negotiation influence the negotiation outcomes of the current round of negotiation. Researchers can also extend the research frontier by examining the incremental impact of additional international experience acquired by the negotiators as they progress through multiple rounds of negotiation.

Practical Implications

This dissertation offers practical implications for both individuals and organizations. For individuals who are involved in intercultural negotiations or work interactions, accumulating international experience is particularly valuable for them because going abroad develops their intercultural competence, enhances their psychological capital and strengthens their global identity, all of which enable them to be more effective during their intercultural encounters. International experience that includes an extended stay and deeper involvement with the locals in foreign cultures, such as living, working or studying overseas tends to be more developmental than being a tourist abroad. However, not everyone has the opportunity to live, work or study in foreign countries. Thus, I recommend individuals to visit foreign countries as a tourist as much as they can if they do not have the opportunities to acquire international experience that

involves deep immersion in foreign cultures. Touristic international experience has its own benefits too.

For multinational companies, I recommend that they value and factor in international experience in their personnel selection, training programs, leadership and career development programs, and succession planning. This should be a critical consideration for employees whose work nature frequently involves the need for them to interact and negotiate with people from other cultures. Including international experience opportunities such as expatriate assignments as part of the talent management program to groom future global leaders of the company will certainly reap benefits. Company leaders' international experience can help them to be more effective at leading the company as they often need to make critical decisions together with internal staff and external stakeholders who might be from the same culture or from other cultures. The more internationalized the company is, the more important this would be.

There is much value for business schools to incorporate opportunities for their students to acquire international experiences within the curriculum of their various degree programs. For instance, business schools can offer a variety of "Study Abroad" opportunities that include short-term, faculty-led programs, as well as semester and full-year enrollment programs at international exchange universities. For business schools that have already done so, they should continue to do so and expand their programs because acquiring international experience is very beneficial for the personal and professional development of their students.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES

Below are the three questionnaires completed by participants of the empirical study.

Pre-Negotiation Questionnaire 1

Name: _____

Class: _____

There are no “right” or “wrong” answers. Please answer the questions candidly. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

Section 1: To what extent do the following descriptions characterize you?

Using the 1-7 scale below (1 = Not at all; 7 = Very much), please circle the answer that best describes you.

	Global Identity	Not at all				Very much		
1	I see myself as part of the global international community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel a strong attachment towards the world environment I belong to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I would define myself as a citizen of the global world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I relate to people from other parts of the world as if they were close acquaintances/associates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel a strong attachment towards people from all around the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Local Identity	Not at all				Very much		
1	I see myself as part of my society (e.g., American).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel a strong attachment towards the society I belong to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I define myself as an _____. (your nationality/citizenship - e.g., Israeli, American, Korean, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I relate to people from my country as if they were close acquaintances/associates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel a strong attachment towards people from my country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2: Circle the answer that **BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE**, using the 1-7 scale below (1= Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagree				Strongly agree		
1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I vary the rate of my speech when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross- cultural situation requires it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Below are statements that describe **how you may think about yourself in general**. Indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement using the 1-7 scale below (1 = Strongly disagree; 7 = Strongly agree).

		Strongly disagree				Strongly agree		
1	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	At this time, I am meeting the goals that I have set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I always look on the bright side of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I'm always optimistic about my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I quickly get over and recover from being startled.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I am usually able to overcome stressful situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I am able to bounce back from difficult situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I get over my anger at someone reasonably quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4: International Experiences

- My age: _____
- Gender: ___ Male ___ Female
- I was born in (country): _____
- My citizenship(s)/passport(s): _____
- The country I consider my home country is: _____.
I have lived in my home country for ___ years.
- My current country of residence (i.e. the country you are living in now) is: _____
I have been living in my current country of residence for ___ year(s) & ___ month(s).
- Home University (if you are an exchange student): _____
- Languages (include proficiency level): _____
- Cultures that I identify with (both country and ethnic): _____

10. Countries I have visited as a tourist:

- a. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ days
- b. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ days
- c. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ days
- d. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ days
- e. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ days
- f. Please feel free to add more in the space below.

11. Countries I have lived or worked:

- a. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
- b. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
- c. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
- d. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
- e. Country: _____ Length of stay: ____ year(s) ____ month(s)
- f. Please feel free to add more in the space below.

12. Working Experience (include length and job):

Pre-Negotiation Questionnaire 2

Name: _____

Class: _____

In this questionnaire, there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. Please answer all the questions in all three sections candidly. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential.

Section 1: Values Survey

In this section of the questionnaire, you are to ask yourself: "What values are important to ME as guiding principles in MY life, and what values are less important to me?" There are two lists of values on the following pages. These values come from different cultures. In the parentheses following each value is an explanation that may help you to understand its meaning.

Your task is to rate how important each value is for you as a guiding principle in your life. Use the rating scale below:

0 = the value is not at all important, it is not relevant as a guiding principle for you.

3 = the value is important.

6 = the value is very important.

The higher the number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), the more important the value is as a guiding principle in YOUR life.

-1 is for rating any values opposed to the principles that guide you.

7 is for rating a value of supreme importance as a guiding principle in your life; *ordinarily there are no more than two such values.*

Please turn over to the next page for Values List I...

In the space before each value, write the number **(-1,0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7)** that indicates the importance of that value for you, personally. Try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers. You will, of course, need to use numbers more than once.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
opposed to my values	not important		important				very important	of supreme importance

Before you begin, read the values in List I, choose the one that is most important to you and rate its importance. Next, choose the value that is most opposed to your values and rate it -1. If there is no such value, choose the value least important to you and rate it 0 or 1, according to its importance. Then rate the rest of the values in List I.

VALUES LIST I

There are no “right” or “wrong” answers, please answer honestly.

- 1 ____EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)
- 2 ____INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)
- 3 ____SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)
- 4 ____PLEASURE (gratification of desires)
- 5 ____FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)
- 6 ____A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual not material matters)
- 7 ____SENSE OF BELONGING (feeling that others care about me)
- 8 ____SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)
- 9 ____AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)
- 10 ____MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)
- 11 ____POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)
- 12 ____WEALTH (material possessions, money)
- 13 ____NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)
- 14 ____SELF RESPECT (belief in one's own worth)
- 15 ____RECIPROCATION OF FAVORS (avoidance of indebtedness)
- 16 ____CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)
- 17 ____A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)
- 18 ____RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)
- 19 ____MATURE LOVE (deep emotional & spiritual intimacy)
- 20 ____SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)
- 21 ____PRIVACY (the right to have a private sphere)
- 22 ____FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)
- 23 ____SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)
- 24 ____UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)

- 25___A VARIED LIFE (filled with challenge, novelty and change)
 26___WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)
 27___AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)
 28___TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close, supportive friends)
 29___A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)
 30___SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)

VALUES LIST II

Now rate how important each of the following values is for you as a guiding principle in YOUR life. These values are phrased as ways of acting that may be more or less important for you. Once again, try to distinguish as much as possible between the values by using all the numbers.

Before you begin, read the values in List II, choose the one that is most important to you and rate its importance. Next, choose the value that is most opposed to your values, or--if there is no such value--choose the value least important to you, and rate it -1, 0, or 1, according to its importance. Then, rate the rest of the values.

AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN MY LIFE, this value is:

-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
opposed to my values	not important			important			very important	of supreme importance

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, please answer honestly.

- 31___ INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
 32___ MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling & action)
 33___ LOYAL (faithful to my friends, group)
 34___ AMBITIOUS (hard-working, aspiring)
 35___ BROADMINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)
 36___ HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)
 37___ DARING (seeking adventure, risk)
 38___ PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)
 39___ INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)
 40___ HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)
 41___ CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)
 42___ HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)
 43___ CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)
 44___ ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)
 45___ HONEST (genuine, sincere)
 46___ PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")
 47___ OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)
 48___ INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)

- 49____HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)
 50____ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)
 51____DEVOUT (holding to religious faith & belief)
 52____RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)
 53____CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)
 54____FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)
 55____SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)
 56____CLEAN (neat, tidy)
 57____SELF-INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)

Section 2: Indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement using the 1-5 scale below (1= Strongly disagree; 5=Strongly agree). Check the box that best reflects your answer. **There are no “right” or “wrong” answers, please answer honestly.**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
It upsets me to go into a situation without knowing what I can expect from it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I'm not bothered by things that interrupt my daily routine.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I enjoy having a clear and structured mode of life.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I like to have a place for everything and everything in its place.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I enjoy being spontaneous.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I find that a well-ordered life with regular hours makes my life tedious.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I don't like situations that are uncertain.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I hate to change my plans at the last minute.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I hate to be with people who are unpredictable.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I find that a consistent routine enables me to enjoy life more.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I enjoy the exhilaration of being in unpredictable situations.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
I become uncomfortable when the rules in a situation are not clear.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section 3: Please consider each statement and decide if the statement correctly describes your personality characteristics. If it does, please check the box, **True**. If not, please check the box, **False**. **There are no “right” or “wrong” answers, please answer honestly.**

		True	False
1	Even though I know I am wrong at times, I am not willing to admit it in public.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	I pay little attention to others' attitude toward me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	It does not matter to me if people like me or not.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	I am usually very particular about the way I dress because I do not want others to look down on me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	I would rather cut down on my regular expenses, but when it comes to inviting people out or giving presents, I must be generous.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	I do not care how others see me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Even if I do not have much money, I would still try to buy a presentable coat.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	I feel a loss of face when others turn down my favor.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	For fear of being rejected, I always avoid expressing my feelings to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Sometimes I pretend I understand a lot, because I do not want others to look down on me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Inviting someone out to dinner has to be done in style in order to keep up appearances.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Post-Negotiation Questionnaire

Name: _____

Class: _____

Post Negotiation Reflections

Section 1: For each question, please circle a number from 1-7 that most accurately reflects your opinion regarding your negotiation experience just now.

1. How satisfied are you with your own outcome — i.e., the extent to which the terms of your agreement (or lack of agreement) benefit you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

2. How satisfied are you with the balance between your own outcome and your counterpart(s)'s outcome(s)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

3. Did you feel like you forfeited or “lost” in this negotiation?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			A great deal

4. Do you think the terms of your agreement are consistent with principles of legitimacy or objective criteria (e.g., common standards of fairness, precedent, industry practice, legality, etc.)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

5. Did you “lose face” (i.e., damage your sense of pride) in the negotiation?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			A great deal

6. Did this negotiation make you feel more or less competent as a negotiator?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It made me feel <i>less</i> competent			It did not make me feel more or less competent			It made me feel <i>more</i> competent

7. Did you behave according to your own principles and values?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

8. Did this negotiation positively or negatively impact your self-image or your impression of yourself?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It <i>negatively</i> impacted my self-image			It did not positively or negatively impact my self-image			It <i>positively</i> impacted my self-image

9. Do you feel your counterpart(s) listened to your concerns?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

10. Would you characterize the negotiation process as fair?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

11. How satisfied are you with the ease (or difficulty) of reaching an agreement?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all satisfied			Moderately satisfied			Perfectly satisfied

12. Did your counterpart(s) consider your wishes, opinions, or needs?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

13. What kind of “overall” impression did your counterpart(s) make on you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely <i>negative</i>			Neither negative nor positive			Extremely <i>positive</i>

14. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your counterpart(s) as a result of this negotiation?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

15. Did the negotiation make you trust your counterpart(s)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

16. Did the negotiation build a good foundation for a future relationship with your counterpart(s)?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Moderately			Perfectly

Section 2: Based on your negotiation experience just now, indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement using the 1-7 scale below (1=Strongly disagree; 7=Strongly agree). Circle your answer.

	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat disagree	4 Neutral	5 Somewhat agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly agree
I understood what the other side was saying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I understood what was important to the other side.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
We clarified the meaning if there was a confusion of the messages exchanged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think the other side understood me clearly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The messages exchanged were easy to understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The other side responded to my questions and requests quickly during the interaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The conversation ran smoothly without any uncomfortable silent moments or I did not notice any uncomfortable silent moments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I was willing to listen to the other side's perspectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When the other side raised questions or concerns, I tried to address them immediately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One or both of us kept silent from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I was nervous talking to the other side.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt the other side trusted me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt the other side was trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt comfortable interacting with the other side.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The other side seemed comfortable talking with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I had difficulty maintaining perspective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I felt less creative than usual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I could easily remember what I wanted to do or say.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I was able to focus on the problem at hand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I behaved unpleasantly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I resisted giving in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tried to show that I couldn't be intimidated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tried not to back down.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I smiled less.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tried to not to display or express any emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3A: Your emotions during the negotiation...

Think about **the emotions you experienced** during the negotiation with your counterpart just now. On a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often you felt** the following:

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (for your counterpart)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

On a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often your behaviors during the negotiation showed** your counterpart that you felt the following:

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (for your counterpart)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

On a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often you told** your counterpart how you felt during the negotiation with respect to each of the following emotions. It need not be these specific words. It can be anything you said that conveyed these emotions.

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (for your counterpart)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

On a scale of 1-7 (1=Not at all; 7 = A great deal), indicate **the extent to which you tried to hide how you truly felt from your counterpart** with respect to the following emotions.

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (for your counterpart)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3B: Your counterpart's emotions during the negotiation...

Based on **your overall perception**, indicate what you think regarding the emotions that your counterpart experienced during the negotiation, i.e. on a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often you think your counterpart felt** the following:

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (towards you)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

On a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often your counterpart's behaviors showed** that he/she felt the following:

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (towards you)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

On a scale of 1-7 (1=Never; 7 = Very often), indicate **how often your counterpart told you** how he/she felt during the negotiation with respect to each of the following emotions. It need not be these specific words. It can be anything he/she said that conveyed these emotions.

	Never						Very often
Happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neutral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Surprised	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disappointed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Contempt (towards you)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Grateful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bored	1	2	3	4	5	6	7