

A Cross-national Study: Using Face-Negotiation Theory to
Understand Gender, Commitment and Culture in Coping Strategies toward a
Partner's Infidelity
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Keywords: face-negotiation theory, commitment theory, sexual infidelity

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ABSTRACT

The current study explored coping strategies toward the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. There were two primary goals for the current study. First, the current study examined the gender and national differences in conflict styles toward the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Second, the current study examined the relationship between face concerns and commitment. There were national and gender differences on self-construal face concern, face-concern and conflict styles in the current study. The current findings also suggested that face concern is moderating the relationship between commitment and conflict styles. The limitation and future directions were discussed as well as the clinical implications in the current study.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	1
THE PURPOSE OF CURRENT STUDY	6
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEFINITION	7
JUSTIFICATION OF THE CURRENT STUDY	21
CURRENT STUDY: RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES.....	23
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	25
CAUSE OF SEXUAL INFIDELITY	25
FACE CONCERNS AND COPING STRATEGIES	32
COMMITMENT AND COPING STRATEGIES	40
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COMMITMENT AND FACE CONCERNS	42
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY	44
PARTICIPANTS	44
PROCEDURES	45
MEASURES AND INSTRUMENTS.....	46
ESTABLISHING EQUIVALENCES.....	51
CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	54
GENERAL PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS.....	54
RESEARCH QUESTION 1: PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	56
RESEARCH QUESTION 2: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN FACE CONCERNS.....	69
RESEARCH QUESTION 3: MODERATING EFFECT OF FACE CONCERNS	72
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION.....	96
RESEARCH QUESTION 1: GENDER AND NATIONAL DIFFERENCES	101
RESEARCH QUESTION 2: CORRELATION BETWEEN COMMITMENT AND FACE CONCERNS.....	108
RESEARCH QUESTION 3: MODERATING EFFECT OF FACE CONCERN	109
LIMITATION AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS: GENDER AND NATIONAL DIFFERENCES.....	115
CONCLUSION	117
REFERENCES.....	121
APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY	144
APPENDIX B: COMMITMENT INVENTORY.....	145
APPENDIX C: SELF-CONSTRUAL SCALE.....	147
APPENDIX D: FACE CONCERNS SCALE	148
APPENDIX E: CONFLICT MANAGEMENT MEASUREMENT STYLE SCALE	149
APPENDIX F: RELIABILITY FOR EACH CONFLICT STYLE	150
APPENDIX E: CRONBACH'S ALPHA FOR EACH CONFLICT STYLE.....	151

List of Tables

Table .1 Cronbach's alpha for subscales	51
Table 2. Demographic characteristics	56
Table 3. Paired T-tests for self-construal	57
Table 4. Means and standard deviations of self-construal by gender and nation	58
Table 5. Summary of multiple regression analysis for variables predicting independent self-construal	59
Table 6. Summary of multiple regression analysis for variables predicting interdependent self-construal	59
Table 7. Paired T-test for face Concerns within nation	61
Table 8. Analysis of covariance for self-face concern	62
Table 9. Group Means Games-Howell post hoc tests for self-face concern	62
Table 10 Analysis of covariance for other-face concern.....	63
Table 11 Tukey-b post hoc test for other-face concern	64
Table 12. Paired T-tests for conflict styles in each nation	65
Table 13 Analysis of covariance for dominant style	66
Table 14. Group means and Games-Howell post hoc tests for dominant style	66
Table 15. Analysis of covariance for integrative style.....	67
Table 16 Group means and Games-Howell post hoc tests for integrative style	67
Table 17. Analysis of covariance for avoidant style	68
Table 18. Group Means and Tukey-b post hoc tests for avoidant style	69
Table 19. Descriptive data and correlations for all variables	71
Table 20. Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for self-face concerns, personal dedication and predicting conflict styles (N=350)	74
Table 21. Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for self-face concerns, constraint commitment and predicting conflict styles(N=350)	75
Table 22. Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for other-face concerns, personal dedication and predicting conflict styles(N=350)	75
Table 23. Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for other-face concerns, constraint commitment and predicting conflict styles(N=350)	76
Table 24. Conditional effect of personal dedication on avoidant style with self-face concern	78
Table 25. Conditional effect of constraint commitment on avoidant style with self-face concern	80
Table 26. Conditional effect of personal dedication on avoidant style with other-face concern	82
Table 27. Conditional effect of constraint commitment on avoidant style with other-face concern	83
Table 28. Conditional effect of personal dedication on dominant style with other-face concern	87
Table 29. Conditional effect of constraint commitment on dominant style with other-face concern	89
Table 30. Conditional effect of personal dedication on integrative style with self-face concern	91

Table 31. Conditional effect of constraint commitment on integrative style with self- face concern	93
Table 32. Conditional effect of constraint commitment on integrative style with other- face concern	94
Table 33. Findings of proposed hypotheses connected to previous literature	96

List of Figures

Figure 1: Moderation Model	24
Figure 2. Simple moderation model	72
Figure 3. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting avoidant style with self-face concern at 50 th ,75 th and 90 th percentile.	77
Figure 4. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting avoidant style with self-face concern at 10 th and 90 th percentile.	79
Figure 5. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting avoidant style with other-face concern above 25 th percentile.	81
Figure 6. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting avoidant style with other-face concern above 50 th percentile.	83
Figure 7. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting dominant style with other-face concern above 25 th percentile.	86
Figure 8. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting dominant style with other-face concern above 25 th percentile.	88
Figure 9. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting integrative style with self-face concern at 10 th percentile.....	91
Figure 10. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting integrative style with self-face concern at 10 th and 25 th percentile.	92
Figure 11. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting integrative style with other-face concern above 75 th percentile	94

Chapter I: Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Infidelity refers to an emotional or sexual extra-dyadic relationship within a committed and exclusive relationship (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). “Infidelity” is a loaded word in comparison to other wording such as an “extra-dyadic relationship.” The term “infidelity” is used in the current study because it has been recognized as a terminology across scholarly fields.

Infidelity is a common social phenomenon. It happens to politicians and celebrities, as well as to ordinary people. Yet, discovering spousal infidelity could be a relationship turning point. Discovering spousal infidelity could be a potential source for relational turbulence and distress that wear out the quality of relationship (Chi, 2011; Greensberg, Warwar & Malcolm, 2010, Rusbult, Kumashiro, Finkel, & Wildschut, 2002). For instance, research studies (e.g. Chi; Greensburg et al.) found that married couples may experience depression, the pain of betrayal, feelings of revenge, loss of self-worth and trust, loss of faith in love and marriage, or the symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder after discovering a partner’s affair. Consequently, the discovering or suspecting of spousal infidelity may set couples up for relational conflicts or crisis (Dillon et al., 2014).

From the marriage and family therapy perspective, spousal infidelity can be a turning point because it forces the couple system to shift to a new homeostasis or to restore the homeostasis (De Stefano & Oala, 2008; Zola, 2007). If couples fail to cope with the aftermath of infidelity, especially for couples with low commitment and poor quality of relationship, they may end up terminating the relationship (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rhodes, Stanley & Markmen, 2011). Yet, some couples may strengthen their relationship through readjusting their relationship after recovering from the aftermath of spousal infidelity, especially by seeking professional help—such as marital counseling (Atkins et al., 2005). How do those couples jointly

cope with the aftermath of spousal infidelity successfully? Coping strategies play a pivotal role in the couple's relationship dynamic after discovering spousal infidelity.

Coping strategies toward relational distress could be on an individual or dyadic level (Papp & Whitt, 2010). About the individual level, coping strategies toward stress focus on problem solving strategies and emotional-focused strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). On the dyadic level or couple dynamic, coping strategies toward relational stress are the interactions of both nonverbal and verbal responses between two partners (Bodenmann, 1997; 2005; Bodenmann & Cina, 2006). Coping strategies are multidimensional and the effectiveness of coping strategies depend on situations, stress levels, and other social factors (Folkman & Moskowitz). Individual and dyadic level coping strategies can result in either positive or negative outcomes (Bodenmann; Folkman & Moskowitz).

In the context of spousal infidelity, optimal coping strategies may differ during different stages of infidelity. Couples often experience three stages: crisis stage, coping stage, and recovery stage (Baucom et al., 2006; Chi, 2011; Greensberg et al., 2011; Gordon & Baucom, 1999; Gordon, Baucom & Snyder, 2005; Olson et al., 2002; Snyder, Baucom & Gordon, 2008). In the crisis stage, couples experience both physical and psychological stress from the discovery of spousal infidelity. In the coping stage, couples still ruminate over the fact of infidelity, but seek support or resources for their relationship. During this stage, couples try to find the reason for the spousal infidelity. In the recovery stage, couples often work on moving on or rebuilding trust and intimacy in their relationship. Currently, the literature of infidelity has only focused on coping strategies during the coping stage and recovery stage (Chi, 2011; Greensberg et al., 2011; Gordon et al., 2005; Olson et al., 2002; Snyder et al., 2008). Moreover, the majority of the literature of has honed in primarily on dyadic level coping strategies for

infidelity. For instance, forgiveness has been identified as an optimal coping strategy for a spousal affair, but the process of forgiveness rarely occurs in the crisis stage (Chih, 2011; Gordon, Baucom & Snyder, 2009; Greensberg et al., 2011; Snyder, Baucom & Gordon, 2008). There has been little empirical study on coping strategies in the crisis stage or that further explores how coping strategies in the crisis stage may affect the effectiveness of coping strategies during the coping and recovery stage. Moreover, recent research studies found that individual and dyadic coping strategies are interconnected (Bodenmann et al., 2010; Papp & Witt, 2010). Therefore, the current research endeavors to explore coping strategies for spousal infidelity in the crisis stage.

Coping with the aftermath of infidelity is not a simple or unidimensional process. Indeed, it is a multi-layered process that also includes broad considerations of cultural factors (e.g. cultural values, gender, socioeconomic class, race, etc.), quality of relationship, commitment, age, and a range of interactional factors (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). Take cultural values as an example. Culture values encompass moral attitudes, perceptions of face loss toward spousal affair, patriarchy system, social norms, etc. Every culture provides a sexual script or a “norm” as a behavioral manual to instruct individuals on how to behave in an appropriate way (Simon & Gagon, 1986). In other words, individuals unconsciously meet their culture’s expectations to cope with spousal infidelity. For examples, in some dominant patriarchal societies (e.g. Islamic culture) or with male partners who value masculinity, violence could be a way to cope with female infidelity because female infidelity brings shame to their families (Baker, Gregware & Cassidy, 1999; Muhammad et al., 2012; Shier & Shor, 2015). Moreover, the emotional and behavioral reactions toward a spousal affair may link to how infidelity violates the social norms

and the consequence of bringing shame or embarrassment to the partners (Afifi et al., 2001; Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Guerreo & Bachman, 2006).

Nowadays, marriage and family therapists serve diverse populations in the United States, while the need of mental health has also increased in Asia (Chao, 2011; Miller & Fang, 2012; Sim & Hu, 2009). Still, most of the research on coping strategies and clinical treatments toward spousal infidelity are mainly based on Western countries. More recently, cross-cultural research studies, specifically face-negotiation studies, have examined the effect of cultural values and perceptions of face concerns on interpersonal conflict styles. Cultural values may inform how individuals should react toward their relational conflicts. For instance, a Chinese proverb “if the family lives in harmony, all matters will prosper” (in Chinese: 家和萬事興) encourages family members to take a less confrontation style or to suppress their emotions (Li & Shiao, 2008). Alternatively, Western cultures, which tend to value individualism, may encourage the importance of voicing one’s own thoughts and be expressive (Ting-Toomey, 1998). Additionally, cultural values may also shape how we perceive the threat of infidelity to our own self-image (Ting-Toomey, 1998; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). If individuals perceive infidelity as the threat of our own self-image, then, individuals may adopt conflict styles (such as confrontation) to protect their own self-image. Since cultural values may affect an individual’s coping strategies, it would be beneficial to understand how the dynamics of coping strategies toward spousal infidelity may differ across cultures.

Other than cultural factors, commitment has a robust effect on coping strategies toward infidelity. The literature on the level of commitment provides a framework for how couples decide to terminate or continue to the relationship (e.g Rhodes, Stanley & Markmen, 2011; Rusbult, 1980; Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Weiser & Weigel, 2014). In particular, couples with high levels of commitment are more likely to continue to work on their relationship. In other

words, a high level of commitment may be one of the motivations for couples to cope with the crisis stage together in order to transition to coping stage. However, the level of commitment may have a different function and meaning across cultures. For instance, level of commitment could mean “till death apart us” in traditional Western culture. Conversely, fulfilling elder care and childbearing responsibilities would be types of commitment in traditional Chinese culture. When commitment meets with cultural factors in the context of spousal affair, which would be a stronger predictor of coping strategies? Moreover, what is the interplay between cultural values, commitment, and coping strategies in a relationship?

The current research aims at comparing the coping strategies between the United States and Taiwan. In cross-national research, the United States has tended to represent Western culture, or so called individualistic culture, whereas Taiwan has been identified with collectivistic culture and so-called Chinese culture (Fletcher et al., 2014). The rationale of comparing coping strategies between United States and Taiwan is rooted in challenges in applying infidelity treatment models in Chinese culture.

First, Chinese culture views family matters as private and personal. An old idiom says, “Don't wash your dirty laundry in public.” As a result, counseling is often the last resource for most Chinese couples. In Chinese culture, most adults may try to solve their problems first, and then seek support from their friends (Wang, 2013). It is still common in Chinese culture that people feel that they may lose their reputation or public image when deciding to seek help from mental health professionals, because mental health has been associated with stigmatized labels including “crazy” and “abnormal” (Chung & Wong, 2004; Li, Stanton, Fang & Lin, 2006; Yang et al., 2013). Legal regulations related to infidelity may be another barrier for couples seeking

help for infidelity. Exploring individual levels of coping strategies across nations will be beneficial for prospective clients.

Second, verbal expressions of love may be another challenge for Chinese couples to express their emotional needs (Higgins et al, 2000; Irving, 2002). Most couples may suppress their expression as a way to tolerate marital dissatisfaction (Huang et al., 2004; Li & Shiao, 2008). Appropriate amounts of tolerance can reduce conflicts and complaints in marital relationships (Li & Shiao). However, being excessively tolerant could make infidelity one outlet for marital dissatisfaction (Fung et al., 2009). Suppressing verbal expressions of emotions may hinder Chinese couples from processing forgiveness after the discovery of infidelity (Chang, 2014).

Culture creates meaning and values for marriage and infidelity. While globalization and the sexual revolution have changed the definition of monogamy and intimacy (Cherlin, 2010; Hatfield, Rapson & Martel, 2007; Zhang, Parish, Huang & Pan, 2012), traditional cultural values are not totally abandoned (Zhang et al., 2012). Utilizing traditional cultural values could promote effectiveness of marital therapy (McGoldrick, Giordano & Garcia-Perto, 2005; Chang, 2014), but could also be a barrier for couples seeking help or to communicating effectively with their spouses. Taken together, in order to promote effectiveness of infidelity treatment during the crisis stage, the current research aims at exploring the differences between coping strategies in the crisis stage of discovering spousal infidelity in Taiwan and the United States.

The Purpose of Current Study

For the purpose of this study, I endeavor to find the differences of coping strategies for spousal sexual infidelity in the United States and Taiwan. Although both emotional and sexual infidelity bring hurt, anger, and turmoil to an intimate relationship, sexual infidelity brings more

intense emotional responses than the emotional infidelity (Sabini & Green, 2004). In addition, the behaviors of sexual infidelity are more clear and concrete than emotional infidelity (Guitar et al., 2016). Hence, the current research will examine the coping strategies for sexual infidelity. Sexual infidelity is not a simple or unidimensional process. Indeed, it is a multi-layered process that also includes issues of culture, gender, class, race, and a range of interactional factors. I propose using both communication theory (Stanley & Markman, 1992) and face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1988) to examine the role of commitment, culture, and gender in coping responses to sexual infidelity in Taiwan and the United States.

Theoretical Framework and Definition

Definition of Sexual Infidelity

The definition of sexual infidelity across various research studies ranges from penetrative sexual behaviors to non-penetrative sexual behaviors with someone outside the ongoing committed and exclusive relationship (Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Negash, Veldorale-Brogan, Kimber & Fincham, 2016). Penetrative sexual behaviors include coitus, oral sex, and anal sex; non-penetrative sexual behaviors include petting, hugging, and kissing (Negash et al., 2016). Although sexual infidelity includes diverse sexual behaviors, past research studies have frequently operationally defined sexual infidelity as having sexual intercourse, but without developing emotional attachment with someone other than the current partner (Buss et al., 1999; Blow & Hartnett, 2005). One of the critiques toward this operational definition of sexual infidelity is that it has simplified the concept of the sexual infidelity (Guitar et al., 2016).

Guitar et al. (2016) recruited 1,379 participants to define and distinguish sexual and emotional infidelity. In the study, both men and women rated the most salient definition of the sexual affair as “when you are in a relationship or marriage, and engage in sexual activity with

another individual that is not your girlfriend/boyfriend, husband or wife. Having an affair, or cheating in a sexual manner” (p. 14). In line with prior literature (Buss et al., 1995; Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Lara, 2012), the authors conceptualized a sexual affair as a theme of deceiving the current partner and sexual behavior with another individual outside the committed relationship. Based on the prior research, sexual infidelity is defined as engaging into sexual behaviors with someone outside the committed relationship without the consent of the current partner in the current study.

Commitment Theories

Commitment is defined as “long-term orientation, including feelings of attachment to a partner and desire to maintain a relationship, for better or worse” (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993, p. 180). Level of commitment can cognitively and emotionally influence behaviors in an on-going relationship (Rusbult & Buunk). Level of commitment is a primary indicator of relationship quality as well as how partners will manage relational distresses. When studying infidelity, researchers often examine commitment as a key role of engaging an extra-dyadic relationship (e.g. Drigotas, Safstorm & Gentilia, 1999) or continuing a relationship after discovering a partner’s external relationship (e.g. Rusbult, 1980; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Rusbult’s (1980) investment model, Johnson’s (1973) tripartite model, and Stanley and Markman’s (1992) commitment theory have been widely used to measure the level of commitment. Even though each commitment theory may highlight different aspects of commitment, there are more similarities than difference among these theories (Stanley, Rhodes & Whitton, 2010).

These three commitment theories are influenced by interdependent theory (e.g. Thibaut & Kelley, 1959) and social exchange theories (e.g. Homans, 1958). There is no clear line to classify which commitment theory is purely based on interdependent theory or social exchange theory.

Rather, the three commitment theories present components from both interdependent and social exchange theory. In general, all three commitment theories present the component of interdependency in an intimate relationship. As the interdependent theory proposes, the level of commitment in intimate relationship is enhanced when the identity of “we-ness” (Agnew, Van Lange, Rusbult & Langston, 1998) or “couple identity” (Johnson, 1991; Stanley & Markman, 1992) become stronger. The more an individual desires to be with his/her partner or needs his/her status as “being in a relationship,” the more likely he/she will be committed to the relationship (Rusbult, Martz and Agnew, 1998; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

Brief overview of theoretical background of commitment theories. Most commitment theorists agree that commitment has two facets. Commitment cannot only simply rely on what drives an individual to dedicate him or herself to a relationship, but it also depends on the barriers to leaving a relationship. Thus, the three commitment theories extend social exchange theory to conceptualize the interplay of interdependency, the barriers to leaving a relationship, and the strength of commitment. In the following, a brief overview of social exchange theory and interdependent theory is summarized.

Social exchange theory. In 1958, Homans (1958) first introduced social exchange theory. He proposes that social behaviors are constructed through a series of exchanges of reward and cost. Sprecher (1998) reviews social exchange models and summarize the general assumptions across social exchange models related to sexuality. First, most social exchange models believe that human beings’ social behaviors are the product of sequences of exchanges of reward and resources with others. Second, social theorists assume that all individuals would love to maximize their benefit through exchange. When a social behavior brings more benefit than its cost, the social behavior is reinforced. The “economic cost” is a term of evaluating the benefit

and the cost of a social behavior (Emerson, 1976). Third, after receiving benefits from others, individuals may be obligated to give back to others. Then, interpersonal exchange will bring a series of reciprocal behaviors. The social exchange theory proposes that the level of commitment is determined through comparing the benefit and the cost of maintaining a relationship between two individuals (Homans, 1958). When the benefit of staying in a relationship is higher than the cost of leaving in the relationship, individuals are more committed to maintaining their relationship.

Interdependence theory. Interdependence theory was developed by Thibaut and Kelley (1959). As Thibaut and Kelley stated “interdependence theory is one type of social exchange theory within the context of an intimate relationship.” (p. 3). Similar to social exchange theory, couples constantly compare their reward and cost from interacting with each other (Thibaut & Kelley ; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). The reward is defined as pleasure and gratification that gain from an intimate relationship (Thibaut & Kelley). For instance, having intimacy and companionship may make both partners feel secure in the relationship. Cost refers to any factors that will bring personal loss or punishment in exchange for interacting with each other in an intimate relationship (Thibaut & Kelley). For instance, a partner may sacrifice his or her extra time and gas money to pick up his or her partner from work. In comparison to the single life, each partner needs to accommodate each other’s life style or tolerate each other’s habits. As an extension of social exchange theory, the interdependent theorists also believe that a person will work on maintaining his or her relationship because he or she gains benefits from interacting with his or her partner (Thibaut & Kelley). However, when the cost is over the reward, it does not mean that the relationship will be terminated (Thibaut & Kelley). The decision to continue

or end relationship pivotally relies on each partner's comparison level and comparison level for alternatives (Thibaut & Kelley).

Comparison level (CL) stands for satisfaction level in an intimate relationship (Thibaut & Kelley , 1959; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). Comparison level is a standard for each partner to compare their outcome of reward and cost of the current relationship with other relationships. Some examples of these other relationships could include each partner's own past relationship, friend's relationship, or social norms (Rusbult & Bunnk). For instance, some women believe and insist that men pay for all the expenses of dating in Taiwan because this is a norm in the society or their friends' boyfriends do so. If their boyfriends insist to "go Dutch" (i.e. split costs), they may perceive their outcome of reward and cost to be below the comparison level. Consequently, those women may feel dissatisfied in their relationships. The CL is the lowest acceptable outcome of comparing reward and cost in the current relationship (Thibaut & Kelley). CL would be a standard for each partner to evaluate the satisfaction level. When the CL is low and all the essential relational needs are met, then the satisfaction level will be higher in the relationship (Thibaut & Kelley ; Rusbult & Buunk).

Comparison level for alternatives (CLalt) stands for dependency in an intimate relationship (Thibaut & Kelley , 1959). CLalt would be the lowest acceptable outcome of comparing reward and cost when there is available potential partners or other forms of relationship such as friendships (Thibaut & Kelley , 1959). For instance, if a partner cannot meet his or her emotional needs from the current intimate relationship and there is an available potential partner or friend who can provide emotional needs, the outcome of the reward and the cost from the on-going relationship may be low. Therefore, the level of dependency on the partner and the ongoing relationship is low. CLalt refers to what extent an individual depends on

their partner or the ongoing relationship to fulfill physical and emotional needs (Thibaut & Kelley , 1959). When the CLalt is low, with limited access to good alternative relationships, the more a partner will depend and need the relationship (Thibaut & Kelley , 1959; Rusbult & Buunk, 1993). How each partner decides to continue or to terminate the on-going relationship relies on their satisfaction and dependency level.

The investment model. As an extension of interdependent theory, Rusbult's (1980, 1983) investment model proposes that commitment mediates the effects of maintaining a relationship on the level of dependency. The level of dependency could be constructed with three variables: relationship satisfaction, quality of alternatives, and investment size. Relationship satisfaction is determined by how one's need in a relationship has been fulfilled by his or her partner. When a partner is satisfied with his or her relationship, his or her level of dependency on the relationship will increase accordingly. Quality of alternatives is defined as how an individual could meet his or her needs from other relationships such as friendships or familial relationships. If a person can fulfill their desires from alternative relationships, his or her dependency on an intimate relationship would be lower. For instance, if an individual can fulfill his or her companionship through friends, he or she will not develop a strong dependency on his or her intimate partner. Investment size refers to the resources that a person invests in to maintain an intimate relationship. The resources could be materials (e.g. money, gifts, etc.) or non-material (e.g. time, children, mutual friends, etc.). When ending a relationship, an individual may lose the resources that he or she has invested. When considering the investment size in an intimate relationship, an individual will be more likely to persist in maintaining a relationship (Rusbult et al., 1998). For example, when there is more relationship stratification, lower quality of alternatives, and larger investment sizes, individuals may develop higher dependency on their

partners. The higher dependency will create a stronger psychological commitment affect; consequently, this commitment will reinforce the behaviors of maintaining an intimate relationship.

Johnson's tripartite model. Johnson (1991) critiques Rusbult's investment model as overly simplifying the core components of commitment. According to Johnson's tripartite model, commitment is constructed with three components: personal commitment, moral commitment, and structural commitment. Personal commitment is defined as the personal desire to stay in a relationship. The level of personal commitment can be determined by one's attraction to a partner and to the relationship, and the sense of the couple's identity. Attraction to a partner will be similar to the feelings of love. The attraction to the relationship is often symbolized in marital or relationship satisfaction.

Moral commitment refers to any moral obligation to maintain a relationship. Moral commitment includes the moral values or norms for a marital or committed relationship, personal moral responsibilities toward a partner, and general values of consistency. Specifically, the moral values or norms for a marital or committed relationship could be operationally defined by divorce attitudes. Personal moral obligation could be operationally defined as a partner contract. The third aspect of commitment, structure commitment, refers to the constraints of leaving the relationship (Johnson, 1991). Structure commitment can be examined by the quality of alternatives, social pressure, the procedure of ending a relationship, and the irretrievable investment (Johnson, 1991; Johnson et al., 1999). Unlike Rusbult (1983) who defined quality of alternatives as non-intimate relationships (e.g. friendships or family relationships) that can fulfill a person's psychological desires, Johnson (1973) perceives the quality of alternatives as the cost of finding an alternative partner. In other words, the quality of alternatives is measured by what it

will cost (e.g. economic, housing, employment, childcare...etc.) a partner to end his or her current relationship. For instance, when a couple breaks up, they may not share the household expenses any more or they may need to rearrange the plan of raising their children. These are a few examples of the cost that keep couples from ending the relationship. Social pressure refers to the attitudes of friends and family toward divorce or breaking up. An individual may stay in a relationship after relational distress because his or her families or friends value persistency in marriage. Termination procedures often refer to barriers to taking actions to end the relationship—such as the legal procedures for divorce. Similar to Rusbult's (1983) investment size, the irretrievable resources refer to feelings of wasting the resources and time that have invested in the relationship (Johnson et al., 1999).

Stanley and Markman's commitment theory. The current study will use Stanley and Markman's (1992) commitment theory because it integrates both Rusbult's (1983) work and Johnson's (1991) work. Stanley and Markman (1992) highlight commitment with two aspects – personal dedication and constraint commitment. Personal dedication refers to one's own desire and motivation to maintain and improve the quality of a relationship, so that both partners can enjoy the benefit of being in an intimate relationship (Stanley & Markman). Personal dedication includes, but is not limited to: the facets of relationship agenda, primacy of the relationship, couple identity, satisfaction, alternative monitoring, and meta-commitment(Stanley & Markman). Constraint commitment refers to the cost of the relationship, and includes: financial investment in the relationship, social pressure, termination procedures, quality of alternatives, and morality regarding divorce (Stanley & Markman, 1992).

The level of commitment often involves determining whether a partner will continue to stay in an intimated relationship after experiencing relational hardships (Rusbult & Zembrodt,

1983; Rhode et al., 2010). Prior studies (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rusbult, Martz & Agnew, 1998) report that people with high commitment levels are more likely to take integrative or avoidant strategies to respond to relational conflicts. When personal commitment brings out the good qualities of a relationship, people would use integrative or avoidant strategies to keep the relationship, as it gives them rewards (such as happiness) (Givertz & Sergin, 2005). On the other hand, when there is high constraint commitment, other studies indicate that people may perceive a high cost of leaving a dissatisfied relationship (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Rhodes et al., 2011). Thus, constraint commitment plays a key role in relational stability (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983; Stanley & Markman, 1992; Rhodes et al., 2011; Givertz, Sergin & Hanzal, 2009). More importantly, when there is low personal dedication but high constraint commitment, people may feel trapped in their relationship (Stanley & Markman, 2002; Staneley, Rhoades & Markman, 2006; Rhodes et al., 2011).

Face-negotiation Theory

Face negotiation theory, developed by Ting-Toomey and her colleagues (e.g. Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998; Ting-Toomey, 2005), explains how culture guides a person to choose interpersonal conflict management strategies in different situational contexts. In a nutshell, culture has a direct effect on self-construals, which refers to the culture selfhood (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). There are two types of self-construals, independent and interdependent. A person with an independent self-construal constructs his or her concept of self by his or her individualistic uniqueness, whereas a person with an interdependent self-construal constructs the concept of self through the connectedness to other people (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Through the self-construal, culture has an indirect effect on face concern, which refers to how a person chooses to protect his/her own self-image (i.e., self-face) or the other person's own

self-image (i.e., other-face) in a conflict situation. Then, one's face concern would guide that person to respond to interpersonal conflicts. The responses toward interpersonal conflicts are coined as "facework behaviors" (Oetzel, 2008).

Face concern. Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) conceptualize "face" as a "sense of favorable social self-worth in a relational and network context" (p.190). Face is universal and exists in every culture (Ting- Toomey, 2001). There are three dimensions of "face": self-face, other-face, and mutual-face (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Ting-Tommey, 1988; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel. 2001). These authors define self-face as one's self-image, credibility, or reputation; other face as other's self-image; and mutual face as group-identity or group reputation (Ting-Toomey, 1994). "Face" becomes more salient in a vulnerable interpersonal situation—such as encountering conflicts, embarrassment, apologizing, and negotiations (Ting-Toomey, 1988; Ting-Toomey, 1994; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). When two individuals are involved with a vulnerable interpersonal situation, either one or both may perceive threats toward "face."

Depending on cultural factors, individuals who are involved in interpersonal situations may perceive various intensities of threats across the three dimensions of face. In general, personal esteem, boundary approval, and credibility are considered as self-face concerns. Other people's personal esteem, honor, and credibility are considered as other face concern. In contrast, social self-esteem, in-group approval, relational boundaries and group-reputation are considered as mutual face concern. (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998, Hui& Bond, 2009). For instance, individuals who are deeply influenced by a collectivistic culture may value "we-identity" and the "harmony of relationship" may perceive more threats to their mutual-face when involved in a family conflict. They may work on protecting their mutual-face during the family conflict. So, the family may present a good image to their neighbors or friends. Conversely, individuals who

are deeply influenced by an individualistic culture may value their self-face more than other-face or mutual-face. During a family conflict, individuals with an individualist outlook may try to protect their self-face.

Facework: Interpersonal conflict styles. “Saving face” is a phrase used to describe what a person does to avoid embarrassing him/herself or the other people in order to keep his/her own or another’s reputation, honor, credibility, competence, loyalty, trust, and status (Ting-Toomey; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). Depending on how we prioritize our face concerns, we may use different behaviors to maintain or restore our self-image or another person’s self-image. In terms of face-negotiation theory, individuals may employ different conflict behaviors to cope with the threats toward their most valued face (Ting-Toomey & Kirogi,1998). Individualistic people tend to satisfy their own personal goals and maintain their own honors and reputation, therefore, they use a more direct, dominant, and solution-oriented style to manage conflicts. Comparatively, collectivistic people focus on maintaining group harmony when handling conflict (Hofstede & Hofstede, 1991). People from collective cultures emphasize the importance of keeping other’s face; hence, they tend to use preventive strategies such as fulfilling their obligations in society or avoiding interpersonal conflicts (Ting-Toomey & Kirogi,1998). The details of facework behaviors will be addressed more in the coping strategies section.

Coping Strategies Toward Relational Distress

Coping strategies toward spousal sexual infidelity could be on the individual or dyadic level. For the current research, which emphasizes coping strategies in the crisis stage, the author focuses on the individual level. Traditional individual coping strategies include problem solving strategies and emotional-focused strategies (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Problem solving strategies are strategies that aim at solving the cause of the problems

(Folkman & Lazarus). Emotional-focused strategies includes seeking emotional support, suppressing negative emotional moods and increasing positive mood, and avoidance techniques (Folkman & Lazarus). All coping strategies could be effective or non-effective depending on the situation. For instance, avoiding problems sometimes could alleviate stress. Yet, if an individual uses substances as an avoidance strategy, he or she may generate more problems that will need to be solved. To address relational dissatisfaction or conflict, numerous studies focus on the decision of separation or divorce (e.g. Bodenmann & Cina, 2006; Stanley, Rhoades & Markmen, 2006), conflict styles (e.g. Russell-Chapin, Chapin & Sattler, 2001; Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; Zhang et al., 2012) and communication styles (e.g. Gottman, 1999; Folkman & Moskowitz). Among these studies, Hirschman's (1974) typologies of responses toward relational dissatisfaction and Rhiem's (1987) conflict styles in interpersonal relationship has been modified and widely used in the recent face-negotiation studies and commitment studies.

Exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (EVLN). In Hirschman's (1970; 1974) original work, the typologies of responses toward dissatisfaction were used in the context of employment. Rusbult and her colleagues (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983) were the first to modify and apply Hirschman's (1970; 1974) four typologies responses to dissatisfactions in the relationship context. The four typologies are exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (Hirschman, 1970; 1974; Rusbult et al., 1982). One of the benefits of using these four typologies is that it looks beyond the single response—staying or ending relationship (Rusbult et al., 1982; Rusbult, 1993). In addition, the four typologies could be used to examine coping strategies in a single episode or over a long-term dyadic pattern (Rusbult, 1993).

Exit refers to the active behaviors of terminating the relationship. An example of exit behavior could be proposing to end the relationship. Voice refers to active behaviors that express

the need to improve a dissatisfied relationship. Voice includes behaviors of attempting to discuss problems or seeking help from others in order to reach joint resolutions. Loyalty refers to passive behaviors of waiting for a relationship to get better. For instance, a partner may not discuss the problem, but hope that time will naturally solve the issue. Neglect includes passive behaviors like ignoring the problem and allowing the relationship to get worse. An example of neglect is ignoring partners. Exit and neglect coping strategies often have a negative impact on a relationship, whereas loyalty and voice tend to bring positive outcomes to a relationship (Rusbult et al., 1982; Rusbult, 1993; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001).

Cultural factors and the level of commitment have been used as a predicting factor for EVLN responses. Rusbult et al. (1982) propose that individuals might pick constructive strategies toward dissatisfied relationships according to factors such as personal commitment and investment size. Their findings suggest that individuals with higher levels of commitment will use constructive coping strategies such as loyalty and voice. The effect of commitment on EVLN has been constantly replicated by other research studies (e.g. Agnew et al., 2008). Regarding cultural factors, some research has found that individuals from Chinese cultures are more likely to use loyalty and neglect, whereas participants from the United States use more voice and exit strategies (Zhang et al. 2012). Gender may also affect the dynamics of EVLN. For instance, some research found that women are more likely to use loyalty and voice than men (Rusbult et al., 1986; Chen, 2010). However, some research found weak gender difference in EVLN (Rusbult, 1993; Zhang et al., 2012). One critique of EVLN is that it does not consider face concern into such responses toward relational conflicts. To be specific, Ting-Toomey and Oetzel (2001) point out that voice can be viewed as either assertive or aggressive based on face concerns. Likewise, neglect could be either passive-aggressive or avoidant (Ting-Toomey&

Oetzel).

Facework behaviors: Interpersonal conflict styles. Adapted from Riham (1983)'s interpersonal conflict behavior, Ting-Toomey and Oetzel (2001) identify five conflict styles—integrating, compromising, obliging, dominating, and avoiding. Corresponding to the face concern, integrating involves solution-oriented coping strategies with both high self and other face concerns. Compromising is a give-and-take approach that involves moderate level of both self and other face concerns. Obliging included behaviors that put others' interests above self-interest. Thus, obliging behaviors are involved with low self-face concern but high other-face concern. Dominating behaviors involve using power and authority to take over the conflict due to high self-face concern and low other-face concern. Subsequently, Ting-Toomey and her colleagues (Ting-Toomey, Oetzel & Yee-Jung, 2000) added emotional expression (e.g. sharing or expressing one's feelings to another), third party help (e.g. seeking outside support) and passive aggression (e.g. indirectly blaming the partner) as potential behaviors. More recently, Oetzel (2007) also suggests five additional conflict behaviors.

However, most conflict management behaviors fall into one of three categories: avoidance, dominating, and integrative behaviors (Fletcher et al., 2014; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2001). Avoidance behaviors include seeking third-party help, obliging (e.g., to meet another's need), pretending, and avoiding. The purpose of avoidance is to passively wait for a relationship to get better (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; 2003). Avoidance behaviors are associated with high other-face concern, but low self-face concern (Ting-Toomey et al., 2000; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). Integrative behaviors include problem solving and compromising behaviors. Integrative behaviors indicate that a partner is actively improving the relationship through constructive relational behaviors (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Integrative behaviors are

associated with high mutual face concern, that is, a moderate level of self-face and other-face concern (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2001). Dominating behaviors include emotional expression, competition, and neglect (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Dominating behaviors are associated with high self-face concern, but low other-face concern (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001).

Empirical studies in face negotiation theory (e.g. Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Oetzel et al., 2008) have discovered that people from collectivistic cultures are more likely to use integrative, avoidance strategies because collectivistic cultures, which are replete with interdependent self-construal, are highly associated with other-face concern (Kim et al., 2007). On the other hand, people from individualistic cultures, which abound with independent self-construal, value self-face and use more dominant strategies (Oetzel et al., 2008). Therefore, nationality has been used as a strong indicator of facework behaviors. It is worth noted that previous face-negotiation studies have not found a strong correlation between gender and facework. However, this may be because these previous study either looked at the gender factor in a friendship setting (e.g. Ting-Toomey et al., 1997) or did not look at the association between gender and face concern (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012).

Justification of the Current Study: Bridging the Theoretical Gaps

Although previous face negotiation theory studies have successfully established cultural variation on conflict behaviors, most of the samples in the literature were college students. Lara (2012) reports that coping strategies toward infidelity depend on life stages. Based on Lara's results, it can be inferred that college students may not reflect actual responses for couples in committed relationships. Therefore, I would like to extend the investigation of face negotiation theory to older, engaged and married couples.

Second, there is lack of face negotiation theory research that examines conflict behaviors

in the context of sexual infidelity. Although a study by Zhang et al. (2012) examines conflict behaviors within the context of emotional infidelity, sexual and emotional infidelity can be considered as two different situational contexts. Sexual and emotional infidelity bring different intensities of emotions (Leeker et al., 2014; Sabani & Green, 2004). When infidelity gets more serious, individuals tend to use more destructive behaviors to respond to their partner's infidelity (Bachman & Guerrero, 2006a; 2006b; Guerrero, & Bachman, 2008; Weiser & Weigel, 2014). Hence, it would be worthwhile to extend face negotiation theory to the context of sexual infidelity.

Third, people in a culture with large power distance may more readily accept unequal power distributions resulting from, but not limited to, gender roles and traditional cultural values (Ting-Toomey, 1998). Often, the level of destructiveness from sexual infidelity depends on factors like gender and culture. For instance, sexual infidelity may be a trigger for honor killings in some nations because it brings shame to the family (Shier & Shor, 2016). Some nations may also have legal systems to regulate sexual infidelity (e.g. Taiwan) (Chiou & Yeh, 2011). Even within cultural variations, people from different national cultures may act differently toward sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity. Furthermore, gender differences in attitudes towards sexual and emotional infidelity has been empirically investigated and supported (Cheng, 2010; Frederic & Fales, 2016). Gender also plays an important role in marital conflict resolution (Gottman, 1999). Hence, it is imperative in this study to examine gender variations and national variations in coping strategies within the context of sexual infidelity.

Finally, in spite of remarkable advances in face-negotiation theory on cultural variations in relational conflict behaviors (Zhang et al., 2012; 2014; 2016), there is the need of integrating communication theory into face-negotiation theory. Prior studies in face negotiation theory did

not consider several key factors—such as commitment—when examining relational conflict behaviors (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). However, there was inconsistent findings on coping strategies toward partner’s sexual infidelity in the literature of commitment theory (e.g. Guerrero & Bachman, 2008 ; Weiser & Weigel, 2014). Since there is a strong association between commitment and conflict behaviors (Guerrero & Bachman,2008;2010; Lara, 2012), it would be appropriate in this study to integrate commitment theory and face-negotiation theory to examine cultural factors in conflict behaviors toward sexual infidelity.

Current Study: Research Questions and Hypotheses

There are two objectives for the current research. First, the current research endeavors to extend face-negotiation theory into the context of sexual infidelity. Because cultural factors are vast and multidimensional, the current study specifically looks into the differences of coping strategies in regard to sexual infidelity by considering nationality and gender factors. Second, the current research aims to integrate commitment theory with face-negotiation theory. Thus, the current study’s purpose is to explore how face concerns may affect the dynamic between commitment and coping strategies. The research questions and the hypotheses of the current study are listed in the following.

Research Question 1: What are the national and gender differences in face concerns and conflict behaviors in situations involving the discovery of a partner’s sexual infidelity?

There are three hypotheses for this research question:

H1a: The Taiwanese sample would have a higher mean score on an interdependent self-construal scale, but lower mean score on an independent self-construal scale than the U.S. sample.

H1b: Taiwanese men will have more self-face concerns and less other-face concerns than

Taiwanese women, but there will be no gender differences for face concern in the U.S. samples.

H1c: Taiwanese women will use more avoidant but less dominating behaviors in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and both U.S. women and men.

Research Question 2: Is there a significant correlation between commitment and face concerns?

H2: Both personal dedication and constraint commitment for all respondents will positively correlate with other-face concerns, but negatively correlate with self-face concerns.

Research Question 3: To what extent does face concern moderate the relationship between commitment and respondents' conflict behaviors in the context of sexual infidelity?

H3: Face concern has a moderating effect on the relationship between commitment and respondent's conflict behaviors for all respondents.

Figure 1 presents a hypothetical moderation model of the research question 3.

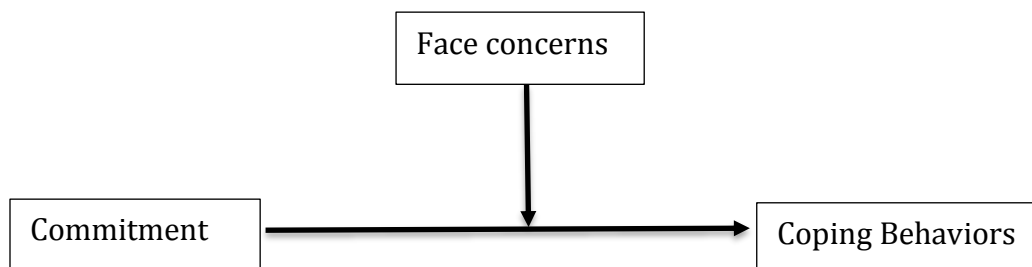


Figure 1. Hypothetical Moderation Model

Chapter II: Literature Review

In this chapter, I provide literature review on the causes of sexual infidelity including cultural and relational factors. Then, I review coping strategies toward infidelity from the literature of face-negotiation theory and commitment theory. My literature review also provide the rationales behind each of my hypotheses.

Causes of Sexual Infidelity

The causes of sexual infidelity are multidimensional. There is no absolute cause that can fully explain why people engage into sexual infidelity. Rather, the causes of sexual infidelity may be interconnected. Each cause may directly or indirectly have effect on engaging in sexual infidelity. In this section, the author will discuss the salient causes of sexual infidelity from the prior literature. The predominate literature on the causes of sexual infidelity are rooted in three perspectives: evolved psychology, social exchange, and interdependency. In general, the causes can be divided into three categories: personal factors, cultural factors, and relational factors (Maddox Shaw et al., 2013; Negash et al., 2016).

Personal factors. Personal factors include personality, use of alcohol and substances, and personal attitude and age. Scholars have linked personality with sexual infidelity. Schimitt (2004) examined the association between Big Five personality (i.e. openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and risky sexual behaviors among 16,362 participants from 52 nations. He found that low agreeability and conscientiousness are highly correlated with relationship infidelity. He further concluded that individuals who were involved in infidelity are more likely to be linked with a lack of trust, empathy, and organization skills. Moreover, machiavellians and psychopathic individuals had a higher tendency to engage in a relational infidelity (Jonason, Li, Webster & Schimitt, 2009; Jones & Paulhus, 2011; Jones &

Weiser, 2014). Buss and Schakelford (2008) suggest that individuals with psychopathic characteristics are more likely to engage in relational infidelity because of impulsivity. On the other hand, Jones and Weiser (2014) believe the root cause of infidelity among machiavellians is that they tend to be more protective of their self-interest than others, especially if the sexual infidelity is considered as sexual pleasure. In the same manner, use of alcohol increases impulsivity and the chances of engaging into sexual infidelity (Hall, Fals-Stewart & Fincham, 2008).

Attitudes toward the sexual infidelity may also differ across cultural and age groups. Individuals with permissive attitudes toward infidelity and non-monogamous relationships maybe more likely to engage into sexual infidelity. For instance, Maddox Shaw et al. (2013) found that if one's parents never got married, a person may show more permissive attitudes toward infidelity because monogamy may not be what they value. Moreover, some researchers made assumptions that the increasing prevalence of female infidelity in both the United States and China may be due to the sexual revolution (Peng, 2007; Zhang, 2011). As the time of the sexual revolution, individuals were encouraged to take more liberal attitudes toward sexuality (D'Emillio & Freedman, 1988; du Lou & Coleman, 2005; Greeley, 1994). Thus, many young generations have held more open attitudes regarding sexual activities such as sexual hookups in both the United States and China (Garcia, Reiber, Massey & Merriwether, 2012; Zhang, 2011).

Relational factors. Engaging in sexual infidelity may be a way of expressing dissatisfaction in an intimate relationship (Tafuya & Spitzberg, 2007). Relational factors including quality of relationship, the level of commitment, and communication styles that may contribute to the causes of sexual infidelity. Across research designs, the operational definitional quality of relationships and the level of commitment both include relationship satisfaction. Many

researchers proposed that engaging in sexual infidelity is one way to escape from the poor quality of a relationship, especially when the sexual need was not met in the relationship (Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Maddox Shaw et al., 2013; Treas & Gisen, 2000). According to family system theory, Moultrup (1990) theorized that having affairs might serve a purpose in order to reach homeostasis in the couple system. If a partner did not feel his or her sexual desire is met by the other, then, he or she may attempt to find other sources such as watching pornography or to meet their emotional and physical needs with another person (Jones & Hertlein, 2012). In China, Li and Zheng (2016) assessed the association between the quality of the relationship and online sexual activities outside a long-term relationship. They found that participants with low relationship satisfaction, insecure attachments, and negative communication patterns are more likely to engage in online flirting or cyber-sex, or seek alternative partners.

Nevertheless, it is not necessary to conclude that every unhappy couple will engage in sexual infidelity. More recently, researchers discovered that the level of commitment is a mediator for predicting sexual infidelity based on sexual attitudes. In particular, individuals with more liberal attitudes toward infidelity and a lower commitment level are more likely to engage in sexual infidelity (Mattingly et al., 2011; Rodrigues, Lopes & Pereira, 2016). In addition, commitment may be a more salient predictor of sexual infidelity than other factors (Negash et al., 2016). Negash et al. conducted a multivariate study that examined multiple predictors of sexual infidelity including gender, race, religiosity, relationship satisfaction, relationship duration, alcohol usage, attachment, and psychological stressors. Among many predictors, they found that relationship satisfaction and attachment style are more prominent and reliable predictors than others. Whether or not commitment is a mediator or a predictor of sexual infidelity, the literature suggests that commitment has a strong association with the engagement

of sexual infidelity.

Cultural factors. Cultural factors include culture, gender, race, religiosity, and social opportunity, among others (Negash et al., 2016). In the following section, the author focuses on the major findings in both the United States and in China and Taiwan.

Gender. Literatures in the United States, China, and Taiwan support the notion that there are double standards between the genders regarding infidelity in American culture and Chinese culture. D'Emilio and Freedman (1997) investigated sexuality in American culture with historical contexts, and found that purism has been emphasized as one of greatest virtues for women in Christianity. Research has shown that couples with strong Christian beliefs are less likely to be involved in infidelity than couples with other religious beliefs (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). Based on the cultural script in American culture, McCormic (2010) concluded that the values of purism continue to exist to condemn women who have engaged in sexual infidelity even though feminism has been working to promote equality of genders in the United States.

Literature on romantic jealousy shows that men and women react differently toward sexual infidelity. As Glass and Wright (1992) stated, "Men and women will differ in types of justifications that they approve. Men will be more approving of sexual justifications, and women will be more approving of emotional justifications" (p. 365). This means that men are more upset at partner's sexual infidelity, whereas women are more upset at their partner's emotional infidelity (Bendixen, Kennair & Buss, 2015). However, some research studies found no difference between genders in terms of jealousy toward types of infidelity (Carpenter, 2012). Furthermore, Leeker and her colleagues (Leeker & Carlozzi, 2012) found that women had stronger responses to both emotional and sexual infidelity than men did. Their findings also suggested that such emotional differences toward infidelity only existed in heterosexual couples,

but typically not within gay and lesbian couples. Based on the literature, gender can be a good indicator for heterosexual couples, but not for gays or lesbians who may have different sexual scripts (Leeker & Carlozzi, 2012; Fedrick & Fales, 2016).

These gendered double standards for infidelity also are found in Chinese culture. Historically, a polygamous system was the norm in traditional Chinese culture because Chinese culture valued filial piety (Chang, 1999). In this system, adult sons were obliged to take care of their elderly parents and had to have a son to ensure the family's prosperity (McGoldrick, Giordano & Garcia-Preto, 2005). Chinese men were wracked with shame and guilt if they failed to achieve filial piety (Sim & Hu, 2009). Until 1949, Chinese men were granted permission in terms of infidelity, based on the cultural scripts of the time, and were allowed to have "three wives and four concubines" to fulfill their responsibilities in both China and Taiwan (Irving, 2002). After polygamy was prohibited in China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, infidelity became a replacement for polygamy. Yet, infidelity was still perceived as a characteristic of masculine gender roles for Chinese men. Chinese men were praised by their same-sex peers for being able to take care multiple partners (Shen, 2005).

Moreover, Chinese culture has provided a clear hierarchy in accordance with age, gender, and social class (Irving, 2002; McGoldrick et al., 2005; Sim & Hu, 2009). Chinese wives were taught to obey and be loyal to their husband because Chinese men were the family's authority figure in traditional Chinese culture (Irving, 2002; Tam & Ma, 2007). In this respect, traditional Chinese women were taught to ignore their husbands' infidelities by their mothers-in-law (Hsiu, 1997). Furthermore, Chinese men usually played the roles of breadwinner and Chinese women usually had to accept their roles as caregivers in exchange for economic support from their husbands (Shen, 2005). Even though polygamy has been illegal in China, Taiwan, and Hong

Kong for a number of decades, Chinese women still appear to have greater tolerance for male infidelity than women in Western culture—as long as their husbands will not emotionally or economically abandon them and their children (Chang, 1999; Shen, 2005).

Similar to the United States, female infidelity is less acceptable than male infidelity in Chinese culture. Female infidelity has been viewed as irresponsible behavior in Chinese culture (Farrer & Zhongxin, 2003). Chinese women who engage in infidelity generally feel more guilt and shame than feeling empowered or strong like some women who are unfaithful in Western culture (Peng, 2007). Moreover, “saving face” is extremely important in Chinese culture (Irving, 2002). While men’s infidelity has been perceived as fulfilling their masculine gender roles and identities in Chinese culture, Chinese men fear losing face and bearing the humiliation due to their female partners’ infidelity. For instance, Chinese usually use the idiom “wearing a green hat” to mock a husband who is betrayed by his partner (Hui & Bond, 2009). As a result, Chinese men may present rage and violence when discovering their partners’ infidelity (Hui & Bond; Irving, 2002).

Social opportunity and social class. Globalization and the development of technology have increased social opportunities for mating (Atkin et al., 2005). First, globalization has pushed capitalism into more countries than ever before, which has in turn created new job opportunities—especially for women (Blow & Harnet, 2005; Cherlin, 2010). As a result, both men and women have more opportunities to meet with the opposite sex through their workplace and social networking, and the odds of infidelity for both men and women may increase (Blow & Harnet, 2005; Fincham & May, 2017). Second, many couples are able to afford long-distance relationships due to globalization and the advent of transportations, such as planes and cars, and the technology for communication, including smartphones and online video conferences

(Cherlin, 2009; Shen, 2005). Yet, Pistole (2010) identified that couples in long-distance relationship frequently experience sadness, a sense of loss, feelings of being stressed or disappointed, and anticipation for the next reunion every time they are separated from their partners. With the combination of feeling loneliness and having geographic separation, each partner has more opportunities and justifications to develop physical sexual relationships in their partner's absence (Le et al., 2010).

In a similar manner, the change in China's economic policies in the 1980s have brought labor migration in China and attracted businessmen from Hong Kong and Taiwan to seek opportunities in China (Cichosz, 2011; Ma, 1994). Many businessmen from Taiwan and Hong Kong decided to migrate to China on their own, leaving their family at home. Shen (2005) found that those businessmen lived like single men and had opportunities to have a mistress due to their working environment that afforded them the opportunity to meet with local women. Similarly, Chinese men who migrated to Japan for work also engaged in infidelity due to the absence of a spouse (Liu-Farrer, 2010). Especially when couples experience relational distress or dissatisfaction, the partners may take the opportunity to have an affair from their work (Fung, 2009).

The socioeconomic status of men is also associated with the social opportunities for infidelity (Lang & Smart, 2002). For instance, Shen (2005) reported that businessmen from Taiwan and Hong Kong may develop extramarital affairs in exchange for companionship or reputation among their friends. On the other hand, women in China were willing to be mistresses because they can gain benefits such as financial security from those businessmen (Shen, 2005). The imbalance of sexual ratio increases social opportunities for women in China to have more available potential partners for mating (Zhang et al., 2012). Interestingly, due to the imbalance in

the sex ratio, there are some surprisingly more permissive attitudes toward female infidelity in contemporary Chinese society (Trent & South, 2012). In other words, women have more choices when selecting their partners and men have a greater competition to find a wife in China (Sim & Hu, 2009). In a similar way, black men in the United States were found to have a greater opportunity to engage in infidelity due to the shortage of unmarried men in the black community (Trea & Giesen, 2000). In response to social class, women may be more likely to engage in infidelity when their partner is not able to support her financially (Zhang et al., 2012). In sum, cultural factors may be an indicator for the cause of engaging into sexual infidelity because cultural factors may indicate whether a person has more potential partners available.

In short, taken together, cultural factors of infidelity are multifaceted. Through reviewing the literature, it is important to note that an individual's demographic background may not directly predict his or her behaviors when engaging in sexual infidelity. Cultural factors may also shape reactions and emotional responses toward sexual infidelity. Yet, even within the interactions between similar cultural factors, individual's attitudes (e.g. morale values) may be either more liberal or reserved toward sexual infidelity.

Face Concerns and Coping Strategies toward Relational Distress

As I mentioned in Chapter I, face negotiation theory consists of four core elements: culture, self-construal, face concerns, and facework behaviors (also known as conflict styles). According to the face negotiation theory, facework behaviors will differ across cultures because each culture may present different self-construal and face concerns. Although the wording is different, facework behaviors are the same concept as coping strategies in the current study. In this section, the author will provide literature related to self-construal, face concern, and face-negotiation in the context of relational distress.

Definition of culture and self-construal. Among the literature on face-negotiation studies, culture is usually defined by its country of origin (Ting-Toomey, 1998; Fletch et al., 2014). In this same literature, self-construal is defined as the process of making meaning of self (Cross, Hardin & Gercek-Swing, 2011). Pertinent to this study is the space in which these two concepts intersect. Markus and Kitayama (1991) were the first to use the “self-construal” to describe the how Americans and Japanese differ in conceptualizing self in relation to others. There are two types of self-construal: independent and interdependent (Markus & Kitayama 1991). Individuals with independent self-construal define “self” as individual, unique, and apart from others (Markman & Kitayama, 1991). Individuals from the United States often associate themselves with an independent self-construal, which values being a free, self-reliant, and standing out in a group (Markman & Kitayama, 1991; Oetzel et al., 2008). In contrast, individuals with interdependent self-construal define “self” from their relationships with others (Markman & Kitayama). For instance, individuals with an interdependent self-construal often associate their family roles, couple identity or the memberships of the group (Markman & Kitayama,; Cross et al.). Individuals with interdependent self-construal value being able to fit in with a group and maintaining harmony in a relationship (Marman & Kitayama; Cross et al., 2011). Individuals from Japan, China, and Taiwan are often associated with interdependent self-construal (Markman & Kitayama, 1991; Oetzel et al. 2008).

Although the independent and interdependent self-construal are similar to the individualism-collectivism dichotomy, it is worth noting that the independent and interdependent self-construal are used to describe individuals rather than cultures (Cross et al., 2011). In other words, not all individuals with an independent self-construal are from individualistic cultures, and not all individuals with an interdependent self-construal are from collectivistic cultures.

However, it is important to note that individuals with an independent self-construal are more prevalent in the prototype individualism country (e.g. United States) because the traits of an individualistic self-construal are recognized as the norm (Cross et al. 2011). Thus, individualistic countries will cultivate individuals to reinforce their independent self-traits. Likewise, countries with collectivistic cultures will encourage individuals to present interdependent self-traits. Therefore, a majority of individuals from prototypical collectivism countries tend to present a higher likelihood of an interdependent self-construal (Fletcher et al., 2014; Cross et al. 2011 ;Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998)

Definition of face concerns. In general, face concerns have three types: self-face, other-face, and mutual-face (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Self-face concern is the concern for one's own image, other-face is a concern for the image of others, and mutual-face is concern for both one's own and another's image in a relationship (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi,1998). Empirical face-negotiation studies (Oetzel et al., 2001; 2008; Ting-Toomey et al., 1991) showed that mutual face concerns have a validity issue, thus, the current study excludes mutual-face concern from its consideration. In cross-national research studies (e.g. Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Oetzel, Garcia & Ting-Toomey, 2007), collectivism and an interdependent self-construal are positively correlated with other-face, and individualism and an independent self-construal are positively correlated with self-face. Other-face concerns are prioritized more so than self-face concern within collectivistic cultures and an interdependent self-construal because collectivists and/or individuals with interdependent self-construal maintain their self-esteem through maintaining harmony in a relationship (Cross et al., 2010; Lin & Yamaguichi, 2011). In contrast, self-face concerns are prioritized more than other-face concerns in individualistic cultures and an independent self-construal because individualists and independent individuals perceive their self-

worth as equal to maintaining one's own honor and self-esteem (Cross et al., 2010).

Face-negotiations with relational conflict. According to face-negotiation theory, individuals choose coping strategies for interpersonal conflict based on how they prioritize face concern (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). The process of prioritizing face concerns relies on cultural factors (i.e. country of origin and self-construal) as well as the context of situations. For instance, individuals may prioritize face concerns differently between a situation with a conflict between strangers and one with friends (Oetzel et al., 2001). Not until recently, face-negotiation studies have paid more attention to the context of intimate relationships. Earlier face-negotiation studies examined coping strategies toward general interpersonal contexts. In prior face-negotiation studies, most of the participants were asked to recall past interpersonal conflicts in general, and these interpersonal conflicts were not specified as spousal infidelity. Only one face-negotiation study (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012) specifically identified the context of emotional infidelity. Hence, the literature review in this section will focus on cross-cultural differences on coping strategies toward relational conflict.

Overview of coping strategies in interpersonal conflict. As previously mentioned, Chinese are often concerned with maintaining both their own self-image and group-image in public (Tin-Toomey, 1997). When facing interpersonal conflicts, Chinese prefer to cultivate a "you win, I win" situations to maintain group-image (Ortzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Ortzel et al., 2001; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2013). As Chinese cultures value *shu* (tolerance and forgiveness), the Chinese tend to take an indirect approach to conflict resolution, such as a more compromising style (Ortzel & Ting-Toomey, 2002). Interestingly, when the conflicts threaten one's own self-construal, many Chinese prefer to take an avoidance style (Liu, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2008, Hui & Bond, 2009). More importantly, this avoidance

style becomes more dominant when individuals feel guilt during interpersonal conflicts (Zhang et al., 2014). In contrast, individualistic cultures value one's own self-image, and this same feeling of guilt becomes a motivation for many Americans to restore relationships with their friends, spouses, and families (Hui & Bond, 2009; Zhang et al., 2014).

Face-negotiation studies in relational conflict in an intimate relationship. Zhang and his colleagues (2012) first used face-negotiation theory to assess coping strategies toward the context of emotional infidelity. To be specific, Zhang et al. used culture and the self-construal as predictors of coping strategies. In their study, students from China and the United States were asked to read a hypothetical scenario of spousal emotional infidelity and rate their coping strategies using the exit-voice-loyalty-neglect scale. Their findings suggest that U.S. students tend to use exit and voice responses, which are considered to be dominant approaches. On the other hand, Chinese students would use loyalty, neglect, and third-party help responses, which are considered to be avoidant responses. In line with the face-negotiation theory, Zhang et al. also found that individuals with a high interdependent self-construal would use more integrative and avoidant (i.e. third-party help), but individuals with a high independent self-construal would use a more dominant approach.

Relevant to coping strategies toward infidelity, there are few face-negotiation studies that examined the association between face concern and forgiveness. Hui and Bond (2009) recruited a total of 409 students from Hong Kong and the United States for their study. They then asked the participants to recall a relational transgression, which refers to experiences when others violated their relational values and norms (Emmers-Sommer, 2003). It is assumed that the relational transgression would bring face-loss and self-dignity (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Hui and Bond did not specify the type of relational transgression, thus, the relational transgression

could range from dating infidelity to conflicts in friendships or family relationships. Hui and Bond found that both students from Hong Kong and the United States presented a lower level of forgiveness when perceiving higher face-loss. Corresponded to face-negotiation theory, Hui and Bond found that students from Hong Kong would be more likely to use forgiveness in order to maintain a relationship. In line with the Ting-Toomey and Kugori (1998), Hui and Bond (2009) believe that students from Hong Kong are influenced by collectivism and, therefore, they are more likely to take partial responsibilities for their face-loss and be more motivated in maintaining a harmonious relationship. Although Hui and Bond did not find a connection between self-construal and forgiveness, Zhang and his colleagues (Zhang, Oetzel, Ting-Toomey & Zhang, 2016) found an association between self-construal, face concerns, and forgiveness in both China and the United States. In particular, individuals with an independent self-construal had higher self-face and, as a result, they are less likely to forgive the other for the relational transgression. On the other hand, individuals with a higher interdependent self-construal had higher other-face, hence, they are more likely to forgive.

In summary, the prior literature suggests that culture, self-construal, and face concerns can predict coping strategies for relational conflicts. Regarding the culture and self-construal, individualism and independence are associated with dominant coping strategies, whereas, collectivism and interdependence is associated with avoidant coping strategies. Moreover, the self-construal will shape face concern (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998; Ting-Toomey, 2005). For the range of face concern types, self-face will be associated with destructive (i.e. terminating relationship, retaliation) or dominant coping strategies, whereas, other-face will be associated with integrative or avoidant behaviors.

In the current study, Taiwan is considered to be a prototype of a collectivist nation and

the United States is considered as a prototype of an individualistic nation. Thus, the hypothesis of self-construal and self-face for this study is listed in the following:

H1a: The Taiwanese sample would have a higher interdependent self-construal and other face concerns than the U.S. sample; On the other hand, the U.S. sample would have a higher independent self-construal and self-face concern than Taiwan samples.

Gender difference. Existing face-negotiation studies have not found gender as a significant predictor for face concerns and coping strategies (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Mak et al., 2009). Nevertheless, I argue that gender could be a significant predictor for face concerns in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. A recent study from Thailand (Srivilas & Singhakowinta, 2015), which is a prototypical collectivist country, has found gender difference within face-negotiation theory. Srivilas and Singhakowinta (2015) examined the gender difference of face concern and coping strategies in the contexts of romantic jealousy in Thailand. In their study, participants were asked to recall an experience of relational jealousy and evaluate their face concerns and coping strategies. They found that men showed higher other-face concern than women in romantic jealousy, and used more avoidant coping strategies than women. In contrast, women were more likely to use dominant approaches such as expressing their anger and blaming their partner. Although these authors' research do not involve cross-cultural comparison and they did not limit the definition of relational jealousy experience within the contexts of infidelity, their findings still suggest that face concerns may still play a role in coping strategies toward sexual infidelity based on gender.

Historically, sexual infidelity is a clear indicator of violating the norms in a monogamous relationship (Chiou & Yeh, 2011). Even though Taiwan has been modernized, traditional gender roles persist, dictating that women are seen as subordinate than men—something that especially

impacts family roles (Wang, 2010). Thus, female sexual infidelity could be construed as a threat to masculinity and a family's reputation in Chinese culture. On occasion, female sexual infidelity has been identified as a trigger of physical aggression and homicide in Taiwan (Chiou & Yeh, 2011). In contrast, male sexual infidelity has been more tolerated in Chinese culture, because polygamy was previously a norm for men in Chinese culture (Shen, 2005). Considering cultural contexts, I predict that gender differences on face concerns in the context of sexual infidelity would be more robust within the Taiwanese sample than the U.S. sample. The hypotheses of face concerns are summarized in the following:

H1b: Taiwanese men will have more self-face concern and less other-face concerns than Taiwanese women, but there will be no gender differences between face concern based on gender in the U.S. samples

It has been assumed that the U.S. sample is self-face oriented and the Taiwanese sample is other-face oriented (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2012). According to the face negotiation theory, the U.S. sample would use more dominant behaviors (Zhang et al., 2012), whereas avoidance and integrative behaviors have been cultivated and reinforced in Chinese culture (Wang, 2012). Considering the gender variations of attitudes toward sexual infidelity, I assume that Taiwanese men, U.S. men, and U.S. women would use both more dominant behaviors than avoidant and integrative behaviors due to the self-face concerns. On the other hand, Taiwanese women would use more avoidant behaviors than Taiwanese men, U.S. men, and U.S. women. Based on the prior existing literature (Wang, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012), there would be no gender and cultural differences in use of integrative behaviors. Based on the prior existing literature (Wang, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012), there would also be no gender and cultural differences in integrative behaviors. The hypotheses regarding to conflict behaviors is listed in

the following.

H1c: Taiwanese women will use more avoidant, but less dominant behaviors in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and both U.S. women and men.

Commitment and Coping Strategies toward Relational Distress

Rusbult et al. (1982) developed four typology responses—exit, voice, loyalty and neglect—toward dissatisfaction in a relationship. Many research studies (e.g. Dillow, Malachowski, Brann & Weber, 2011; Guerreo & Bachman, 2008; Weiser & Weigel, 2014) have extended Rusbult's initial investment model and replicated the responses for sexual infidelity. For example, Dillion et al. (2011) recruited 215 participants to examine how coping strategies toward sexual infidelity differed based on commitment factors including investment size, quality of alternatives, satisfaction, and motives for forgiveness. Regardless of the motivation for engaging in infidelity, the authors found that investment size and satisfaction have a positive relationship with the coping responses toward sexual infidelity. That is, if an individual invests more resources or feels satisfied in his or her relationship, they tend to use more voice. In contrast, their findings show that the quality of alternatives has positive relationship with neglect in their study. That is, when an individual has more available potential partners or alternate relationship, the individuals are more likely to use neglect. Although prior studies (Dillion et al., 2011; Finkle et al., 2002) did not find significant associations between commitment with loyalty and exit, Weiser and Weigel (2014) discovered that most of their participants decided to use exit or voice to respond to infidelity.

Other than studies that extended Rusbult's (1982) investment model, prior literature also found similar results by using the Johnson's commitment theory (e.g. Johnson , Caughlin &

Huston, 1999) and Stanley and Markman's commitment theory (e.g. Rhodes et al., 2010). Brandua-Brown and Ragsdale (2008) found that married couples with high personal commitment (i.e. love and couple's identity), morale commitment, and structural commitment are more likely to use assurance repair strategies. In addition, the authors found that partners with low personal commitment and structural commitment would be more likely to use punishment. Although research studies that used Stanley and Markman's (1992) commitment theory often looked at single responses toward relational transgressions, their findings also aligned with the fact that a higher level of commitment is associated with constructive responses, such as staying in the relationship (Guerreo & Bachman, 2008;2010;Rhoades et al., 2011). Taken together, research studies among commitment theories (e.g. Rusbult & Buunk, 1993; Guerreo & Bachman, 2008;2010) suggest that individuals with higher levels of commitment, individuals tend to use more constructive and active responses toward the aftermath of sexual infidelity. It is worth noting that active responses could include active destructive behaviors—such as terminating the relationship.

Linking with the forgiveness process, commitment level and coping strategies toward the crisis stage after discovering spousal sexual infidelity are imperative. Commitment level and initial responses toward spousal sexual infidelity would be the foundations of an individual's motivations of forgiveness. Several research studies have found the effect of commitment level, coping strategies, and motivations for forgiveness. In particular, individuals who use constructive approaches such as integrative behaviors or voice (e.g. talking out the relational issue) are more likely to stay in the relationship and forgive their partner. Interestingly, depending on the level of hurt feelings, a high level of commitment does not always predict constructive coping strategies or forgiveness in dating relationships (Bachman & Guerreo, 2008; Weiser & Weigel, 2014).

Although couples with high relationship satisfaction are more likely to stay in the relationship after a relational transgression, those couples often experienced more intense hurt feelings due to their partner's behavior, especially to a partner's sexual infidelity (Bachman & Guerreo, 2008). Yet, when a partner feels more deeply hurt and has conflict with their other partner, they are more likely to resort to more destructive behaviors—such as breaking-up (Rhodes et al., 2011).

Relationship between Commitment and Face Concern

Both commitment and face concerns can explain conflict behaviors, yet how face concerns associate commitment is still unknown. According to prior literature, I may find face concerns moderating the relationship between commitment and conflict behaviors. First, recent studies (Givertz, Woszidlo, Sergin & Jia 2016; Zhong & Mahli, 2014) found associations between personal dedication and couple interdependency. In particular, the Chinese have been found to have higher structural commitment, which is considered as constrained commitment, than Americans (Gao, 2001; Lin & Rusbult, 1995). As Chinese culture is linked with other-face concerns, I thus deduct that both personal dedication and constraint commitment would strongly predict other-face concerns in the context of infidelity.

H2: Both personal dedication and constraint commitment will positively correlate with other-face concern, but negatively correlate with self-face concern.

Commitment did not always predict coping strategies in the context of sexual infidelity. Depending on the severity of sexual infidelity, individuals may engage into different coping strategies toward coping strategies. Guerreo and Bachman (2008) found that individuals tend to use more destructive coping strategies such as using anger voice or exit in sexual infidelity regardless of commitment level. Guerreo and Bachman (2006a;2006b) found that even less serious sexual infidelity such as kissing or flirting may also lead to destructive coping strategies.

Nevertheless, the recent research by Weiser and Weigel (2014) found that high level commitment may associate with constructive and positive coping strategies in the less serious sexual infidelity such as flirting or kissing but not in the ongoing sexual infidelity. These research findings suggested that sometimes commitment can predict the coping strategies in the context of sexual infidelity, but sometimes it cannot. In addition, Afifi et al. (2001) stated that discovering a partner's sexual infidelity may bring self-face threat. Also, face concerns may related to the constructive coping strategies such as forgiveness (Zhang et al., 2014). Thus, I suspect that discovering sexual infidelity may bring self-face threat, and commitment may not have an effect on coping strategies with high self-face threat condition. In order to explore “when” communication would predict coping strategies in the context of sexual infidelity, I examined the moderating effect of face concern on the relationship between commitment and conflict style in the context of sexual relationship. The hypothesis is succinctly summarized in the following:

H3: Face concern has a moderating effect on commitment and respondent's conflict behaviors.

Chapter III. Methodology

The current study was grounded in non-experimental quantitative research methods. The current study measured three research questions. For the first research questions, the current study measured the gender and national differences in self-construal, face concerns, and conflict style—which were used to measure coping strategies. The second research question was developed to assess the correlation between commitment and face concerns. The third research question in the current study was to measure the moderating effect of face concern on relationships in terms of commitment and conflict styles. This chapter addresses the descriptive characteristics of participants, data collection procedures, and measurement.

Participants

Respondents included 175 individuals from Taiwan and 175 from the United States. All participants identified themselves as heterosexual. In terms of relationship status, participants were either married (88% of Taiwanese respondents; 93% of U.S. respondents), engaged (1% of Taiwanese respondents; 2% U.S. respondents), or in a cohabited relationship (11% of Taiwanese respondents; 5% of U.S. respondents). All participants were over the age of 18. The average age of Taiwanese respondents was 38.24 years old ($SD = .72$; ranging from 19 to 74 years old). The average age of U.S. respondents was 52.28 years old ($SD = 1.11$; ranging from 23 to 83 years old). Taiwanese respondents were in the married or committed relationship for an average of 11.13 years ($SD = .67$; ranges from 1 to 50 years) and 80% of them had children ($M = 1.77$ children, $SD = 1.53$). The U.S. respondents were in either married or committed relationships for an average of 22.87 years ($SD = 1.15$; ranges from 1 to 64 years) and 76% of them having children ($M = 1.71$ children, $SD = .11$). All respondents held at least a high school diploma or equivalent. A total of 70.8% of Taiwanese respondents had also earned a bachelor's degree or

higher, whereas 46.3% of U.S. respondents had earned a bachelor's degree or higher. For the U.S. respondents, there were 90% of White, 3% of African American, 2 % of Asian, 1 % of Latino and 15 % of Bi-racial.

Procedures

Virginia Tech's Institutional Review Board approved all procedures regarding the current study. The individuals were recruited and completed study procedures using the Qualtrics Survey Company (<https://www.qualtrics.com>). All participants' compensation procedures followed the guidelines set forth by Qualtrics Survey Company. All survey procedures, including informed consent, were conducted online. The Qualtrics Survey Company emailed an invitation to the participants who met the selecting criteria (i.e. age and marital status) for the current study. The prospective participants were instructed to follow a link to an informed consent page. Participants indicated their consent by clicking the next page to complete the survey. A total of 715 prospective Taiwanese and 413 prospective U.S. participants visited the survey for the current study.

If the individuals agreed to participate in the study, they answered two screening questions including a) if they were currently married, engaged, or premarital cohabited and b) their nationality. Participants who met all criteria were then directed to the survey for the current study. The criteria were a) over age 18, b) currently married, engaged or premarital cohabited and c) either the citizen from Taiwan or the United States. To ensure the quality of the survey, participants would not be qualified to complete the full survey if they failed to respond appropriately to a quality-check question (i.e. Do you commit to thoughtfully provide your best answers to each question in this survey?). In total, 285 Taiwanese responses and 248 U.S. respondents qualified to complete the survey. The participants who passed the quality check

questions then completed the commitment inventories and read a hypothetical scenario about discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Next, they were asked to complete a self-report conflict style measurements in response to the vignette. Participants took approximately 10 to 15 minutes to finish the survey.

Moreover, to ensure all the respondents were real humans instead of robots, the participant needed to answer an attention filter question (i.e. I am reading these questions and will select strongly agree as a reading check.) correctly. If the participants finished, but failed to answer the attention filter question or completed the survey under five minutes, the survey company did not include these participants in the final results. I also dropped respondents who had the same answer for all survey questions. A total of 175 Taiwanese and 178 U.S. respondents completed the survey according to these terms. Thus, the data of 175 Taiwanese and 175 U.S. respondents were used in the current study.

Measures and Instruments

Independent Variables

Research question 1: Demographic survey. For research question 1 of the current study, the independent variables include gender and nationality. Questions regarding to the participant's demographic characteristics were collected in the final section of the online survey. The demographic survey included: gender, age, nationality, ethnicity, length of relationship, education level, and the number of children. All the demographic questions were either dichotic choices (e.g. yes/ no), multiple choice (e.g. What is the highest degree you have received? 1= below high school, 2= high school degree or equivalent, 3=some college...etc.), or fill in the blank question (e.g. If any, how many children do you have?). Please see Appendix A for the demographic questions.

Research question 2 and 3: Commitment Inventory. The current research used the commitment level as an independent variable in both research question 2 and 3. The current study used the short version of commitment inventories as adapted by Owen et al. (2010) and Stanley and Markmen (1992). There were total of 24 items in the Commitment Inventory of the current study to measure personal dedication and constraint commitment (please see Appendix). Each item was measured by a seven-point Likert scale (ranging from “1=strongly disagree” to “7= strongly agree”). In this case, the higher sum score of items indicates higher commitment (Owen et al., 2011; Stanley & Markman, 1992). Previous studies show good content validity, criterion validity, and internal consistency when using this inventory for both unmarried and married couples (Kolb & Owen, 2014; Rhodes et al., 2010; Owen et al., 2010).

Eight of the 24 items measured personal dedication in the following areas: primacy of relationship, relationship agenda, and couple identity. An example of this kind of question includes, “My relationship with my partner is more important to me than almost anything in my life” (Kolb & Owen, 2014; Owen et al., 2010; Rhodes et al., 2011; Stanely, Markman & Whitton, 2002). Moreover, sixteen of the 24 items measured constraint commitment, which considered social pressure, financial alternatives, termination procedures, concern for partner’s welfare, availability of other partners, and structural investment. An example item for this kind of question includes, “ If we ended this relationship, I would feel fine about my financial status.” There were 17 items from the short version of commitment inventories (Owen et al., 2010; Stanely & Markman, 1992). Two of the items, which measured social pressure, ended up having the exact same wording after translating to Chinese. Therefore, the current study dropped one of the items. The reliability of personal dedication was .62 for Taiwanese respondents and .86 for the U.S. respondents. The reliability of constraint commitment was .66 for Taiwanese

respondents and .81 for the U.S. respondents. Please see Appendix B for Commitment Inventory Survey for current study.

Vignette of Partner's Sexual Infidelity

The vignette of the partner's sexual infidelity was adapted from the vignette in Zhang et al. (2012). To capture the elements of sexual infidelity, I used the definition of sexual infidelity from the findings of Guitar et al. (2016) and Blow and Hartnett (2005). The vignette used in the current study captured two elements of sexual affairs: a) engaging in sexual activity with another person outside the current committed relationship and b) deceiving the current partner. The vignette is included below:

“You are happy about your relationship. When you are using your partner's phone, you find out a photo that suggests that your partner had sex with another individual last weekend. And your partner told you he/she was working last weekend.”

Some participants may not consider infidelity as relational conflict, thus, the participants answered a follow-up questions, “If the scenario happened to you, would you consider your partner's behavior to be a relational problem?” A total 72% of Taiwanese respondents and 79.4% of the U.S. respondents believed that they would experience conflict with their partners if the vignette were to happen in their real life.

Outcome Variables

Self-construal Scale. Self-construal is defined as independent and interdependent characteristics (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The current study adapted the eight items of the self-construal scale, which were developed and validated by Oetzel and Ting-Toomey (2003). Each item was rated as seven-point Likert scale (ranging from “1=strongly disagree” to “7=strongly agree”). Although self-construal scale did not have good construct validity among five

nations (Fletcher et al., 2014), J.G. Oetzel (personal communication, August 29th, 2016) suggested that I use self-construal because it has worked well for American and Chinese participants in the past. Three items were used to assess independency. Example questions included, “It is important for me to be able to act as a free and independent.” Five items were used to measure interdependency. Example questions include, “My relationship with the other person is more important than winning the conflict.” The Cronbach’s Alpha of independent self-construal in this case was .73 for the U.S. respondents and .58 for Taiwanese respondents. Likewise, the Cronbach’s Alpha of interdependent self-construal was .70 for the U.S. respondents and .57 for Taiwanese respondents. Please see Appendix C for Self-Construal Scale.

Face Concerns Scale. Face concern is defined as how individuals perceive threats to self-face and other-face (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). The current study replicated ten seven-point Likert-type items (1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree, etc.) from Oetzel and Ting-Toomey (2003). Four items measured self-face concern (e.g. “I was concerned about not bringing shame to myself”). Six items measured other-face concern (e.g. “Helping to maintain the other person's pride was important”). The Cronbach’s Alpha of self-face concern was .82 for the U.S. respondents and .70 for Taiwanese respondents. The Cronbach’s Alpha of other-face concern was .91 for the U.S. respondents and .84 for Taiwanese respondents. Please see Appendix D for Face Concerns Scale.

Conflict Management Measurement Scale. Conflict styles were defined as coping behaviors toward interpersonal conflict. The current study used the conflict style as both a dependent variable and moderator. Conflict style was measured by the Conflict Management Style Scale, which was originally from Rahim (1983). The current study adapted the revised version from Ting-Toomey et al. (2001; 2003). I modified the wording from “other person” to

“my partner,” so each survey item would be appropriate for the context of sexual infidelity. To fit the Taiwanese cultural context, I also specified the definition of the “the third party” as “close friends/family/legal service/counselor” for the Taiwanese version of the text. The revised version measured eight types of conflict behaviors including: avoidance (e.g. I remain silence and did not discuss the conflicts with the partner), integration (e.g. I would work with my partner to reach a joint resolution to our conflicts), third party help (e.g. I would ask a third person to negotiate a resolution to the conflict), passive aggression (e.g. I would say things and do things out of anger to make my partner to feel bad), compromising (e.g. I would win some and lose some so that a compromise could be reached), dominating (e.g. I would use my power to win a conflict), emotional expression (e.g. I would be emotionally expressive in the scenario), and obliging (e.g. I give in to my partner’s wishes). The current study had a total 32 items reflecting styles of conflict management. Please see Appendix E for Face Concern Scale. The Cronbach’s Alpha ranged from .57 to .90 for Taiwanese respondents and .65 to .93 for the U.S. respondents. Please see Appendix F for the reliability in each conflict style.

The eight conflict styles fell under the three constructs of conflict styles: avoiding, integrating, and dominating (Fletcher et al., 2014; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). In line with prior studies (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Chen, 2012), the current study originally grouped the avoidance style with obliging, third party, and avoidance. The reliability test showed that third party would deteriorate the internal consistency of the avoidant style. Hence, the current study excluded the third party from the avoidant style. The dominant style included the items assessing dominant behaviors, passive aggressive, and emotional expression. The integration style included the integrative strategies and compromise. Cronbach’s Alpha for the avoidant style was .77 for Taiwanese respondents and .70 for U.S.

respondents. The Cronbach's Alpha for the integrative approach was .77 for Taiwanese respondents and .88 for U.S. respondents. Cronbach's Alpha for the dominant style was .55 for Taiwanese respondents and .65 for the U.S. respondents.

Table 1. presents the Cronbach's Alpha of the subscales of Commitment Inventory, Self-Construal Scale, Face Concerns Scale and Conflict Management Scale.

Table 1

<i>Cronbach's Alpha for Subscales</i>		
	USA	Taiwan
<i>Commitment</i>		
Personal dedication	.86	.62
Constraint	.81	.66
<i>Self-construal</i>		
Independent	.73	.58
Interdependent	.70	.57
<i>Face concerns</i>		
Self-face	.82	.70
Other-face	.91	.84
<i>Conflict Styles</i>		
Avoidant	.77	.70
Integrative	.77	.88
Dominant	.65	.55

Establishing Equivalences

The validity of each measurement was established in the previous literature (e.g. Fletcher et al., 2014), but it is important to establish measurement equivalences for cross-cultural research design (Gudykunst, 2005). I followed the suggestions by Gudykunst (2005) to establish five measurement equivalences for the current survey.

Linguistic equivalence. In the current study, the English survey was translated into Chinese to ensure that each respondent completed the survey in his or her native language

(Gudykunst, 2005). To establish linguistic equivalence and ensure the accuracy of translation, the back-translation technique (Brislin, 1970) was used. To be specific, I first translated the English survey into Chinese, then another bilingual scholar who was also fluent in both Chinese and English back-translated the Chinese survey into English for the survey in the current study (Brislin, 1970).

Conceptual and functional equivalence. Conceptual equivalence indicates whether each question in the survey illustrates similar concepts in both the U.S. and Taiwan (Gudykunst, 2005). For instance, do Taiwanese respondents have the same concept of commitment like the U.S. respondents? Relating to conceptual equivalence, functional equivalency refers to whether the behaviors served the same functions in both the U.S. and Taiwan (Gudykunst, 2005). For examples, do Taiwanese respondents view behaviors of sexual infidelity in a way that is similar to the U.S. respondents? In particular, I want to ensure that both Taiwanese and U.S. respondents view the behaviors, which described in the vignette as sexual infidelity. To ensure the conceptual and functional equivalence, I followed the suggestions from intercultural researchers (e.g. Cheung et al., 2011; Gudykunst, 2005) and interviewed ten Taiwanese individuals who were international Ph.D. students in the social sciences at Virginia Tech to ensure the concepts and functions presented in each instrument were applicable in Taiwan.

Metric equivalency. Metric equivalency refers to by how much people differ in scoring on the Likert scale from different cultures (Gudykunst, 2005). The differences could come from failing to establish linguistic equivalency, missing data, or cultural differences on showing strong opinions (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). I followed the procedure that was implemented in the study by Fletcher et al. (2014), and I established metric equivalency through careful data screening and analysis. Please see the data cleaning and preliminary analysis in the Chapter IV.

Sample equivalence. Sample equivalency refers to the similarities of the sample population from Taiwan and the U.S (Gudykunst, 2005). In the previous face-negotiation studies (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014; Fletcher et al., 2014), college students were used to ensure that the sample equivalence was due to the similar demographic characteristics. The college students were not population of choice in the current study. Rather, I attempted to establish sample equivalency through recruiting couples that were in serious committed relationship (e.g. premarital cohabitation, engaged or married).

Chapter IV: Data Analysis and Results

In this section, I address the preliminary analysis for demographic variables and report results for each hypothesis in the current study. Because each research question of this study used different statistical analysis, I organize the preliminary analysis and the findings according to each research question.

General Preliminary Analysis

Data Preparation

The SPSS 22.0 was used in the current study for data screening, transformation, and recoding. There were only two missing data in the age variable for the current study. First, I transformed all continued variables except demographic variables to an average score. The range of each continuous variables was between 0 and 7. Second, all reversed items (e.g. I do not want to be with my partner few years from now) were recoded to be consistent with the rest of the items. Third, I created dummy coding for the variables of nationality and gender. For the nation variable, 0 represented the United States and 1 represented Taiwan. For the gender variable, 0 represented men and 1 represented women. In particular for the research question 1, I created a dummy code for combined gender and nation. 0 represented U.S. men, 1 represented the U.S. women, 2 represented Taiwanese men, and 3 represented Taiwanese women. Fifth, outliers were examined by a box-plot graph. There was only one outlier – interdependent self-construal. The outlier of interdependent self-construal was removed.

Sixth, the normal distribution of each variable was screened by the Z score value of skewness and histogram and normal Q-Q plot. If the value of the Z score was larger than 2 or less than -2, the variable was considered skewed (George & Mallery, 2010). The Z score of skewness revealed that age, integrative style, length of relationship, interdependent self-construal, and self-face concern were skewed for all respondents in the current study. By

examining the normal Q-Q plot, the data of integrative style, interdependent self-construal and self-concern distributed approximately within a normal distribution. Thus, I only transformed age and the length of relationship with a logarithmic (Log 10) due to their negative skewness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). After transformation, both age and the length of relationship appeared normally distributed.

Descriptive Characteristics

National differences. The sample demographic characteristics are presented in Table 2. An analysis to examine national differences in age and length of relationship was conducted by an independent t-test. The results showed that the Taiwanese respondents were statistically younger than the U.S. respondents ($t= 10.65, p<.001$). In addition, Taiwanese respondents had a significantly shorter length of relationship than the U.S. respondents ($t= 8.43, p<. 05$). A Fisher's exact test was conducted to measure the national differences of education. The results indicated that there were more respondents who had acquired a bachelor's degree or above in the Taiwanese sample than in the U.S. sample ($p<.001$). The U.S. respondents had a higher average number of children than the Taiwanese respondents ($t= 2.83, p<.01$).

Gender differences within nationalities. The independent t-tests showed that there were gender differences in age for the U.S. sample ($t= 2.39, p= .02$), but not for Taiwanese respondents ($t= 1.88, p= .06$). There was no gender difference in length of relationship for both the Taiwanese sample ($t= -.03, p= .97$) and the U.S. sample ($t= -.09, p= .96$). There was also no gender difference in the numbers of children for both the U.S. sample ($t= .37, p= .71$) and Taiwan respondents ($t= .1.04, p= .30$).

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for demographic characteristics for both Taiwanese and the U.S. respondents in the current study.

Table 2.
Demographic Characteristics

	Taiwan						USA					
	Men (n=89)		Women (n=86)		Total (n=175)		Men (n=88)		Women (n=87)		Total (n=175)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	39.58	1.06	36.86	0.92	38.2	0.71	52.28	1.57	49.5*	1.53	52.28**	1.11
Relationship Length	11.24	1.04	11.02	0.86	11.1	0.67	23.31	1.69	22.43	1.57	22.87**	1.15
Children	1.41	0.083	1.27	0.11	1.34	0.07	1.75	0.15	1.67	0.16	1.71**	0.111
Education											57%	29.1%**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Research Question 1: Preliminary Analysis and Results

H1a: Taiwanese respondents would have a higher score on interdependent self-construal than U.S. respondents; Taiwanese respondents would have a lower score on independent self-construal than U.S. respondents.

Data Screening Stage. In order to examine differences in self-construal between the two nations, I conducted two multiple regression model in order to control the relationship length and education level. The outcome variable in the first multiple regression model is independent self-construal. The outcome variable in the second multiple regression model is interdependent self-construal. Independent variable for the both multiple regression model is nation and the control variables are relationship length, education level, the interaction between nation and relationship length, and the interaction between nation and education level. To examine the assumptions of multiple linear regressions, I conducted the Normal Q-Q plot to examine the normality. I conducted the scatter plots to examine the homoscedasticity. I examined the multicollinearity through Tolerance and Variance inflation factor (VIF). I used the case diagnosis program from the SPSS 20.0 examined the outlier. All assumptions were met.

The multiple regression model of the interdependent self-construal did not show a significant overall model due to the no correlation between outcome variable and control

variables. Thus, independent t-test was appropriate for analyzing the interdependent self-construal, because it can be used to comparing two groups—and is especially robust for sample sizes larger than 30 (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). The interdependent self-construal violated homogeneous of variance for the independent t-test, as the *Levene's* test for homogeneity of variance was significant for both ($p < .05$). Therefore, the t-test that did not assume homogeneous variance were calculated.

Before analyzing H1a, I conducted two paired t-tests to examine the mean differences between independent and interdependent self-construal in each country. The results showed that Taiwanese respondents had higher scores in independent self-construal than the interdependent self-construal ($t = -3.95$; $p < .01$; $d = .29$). The U.S. respondents had a higher score in interdependent self-construal than independent self-construal ($t = -7.4$; $p < .01$; $d = .55$).

Table 3 shows the results of the paired t-test with mean differences and the t-values of the independent and interdependent self-construal in both countries.

Table 3.

<i>Paired T-tests for Self-construal</i>		
	Independent vs. Interdependent	
	<i>M</i> differences	t
Taiwan	-0.26	-3.96**
USA	0.04	7.4**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Additionally, I conducted two multiple regressions to examine gender differences in individual self-construal after controlling relationship length and education level. Because there was no correlation between control variables and interdependent self-construal in the both countries, I conduct two independent t-tests to examine gender differences in interdependent

self-construal. The U.S. women had higher average scores on independent self-construal than the U.S. men, $F(1, 170) = 7.52, p < .01$. The U.S. women had lower average scores on interdependent self-construal than U.S. men, $F(3, 173) = 4.63, p < .01$. Taiwanese women had lower average score on independent self-construal than Taiwanese men, $F(3, 171) = 2.89, p < .05$. There was no difference between Taiwanese men and women in interdependent self-construal, $t(173) = .56, p > .05$.

Table 4 shows the gender differences in the independent self-construal with mean and standard deviations in both nations.

Table 4.
Mean and Standard Deviation of Self-construal by Gender and Nation

	Taiwan				USA			
	Men (n=89)		Women (n=86)		Men (n=88)		Women (n=87)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Independent	5.21	0.82	5.3	0.88*	4.29	1.51	4.85**	1.21
Interdependent	5.64	0.64	5.59	0.63	5.91	0.76	5.31**	0.92

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

I present the results of H1a in the following.

Independent self-construal. The overall regression model was significant, $F(5, 344) = 13.36, p < .001$, with the model accounting for 16% of variances in average score of independent self-construal. Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in the Table 5. The results indicated that relationship length ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$) and nation ($\beta = .27, p < .01$) were significant predictors of the average score of independent self-construal. The level of education ($\beta = .04, p > .05$) was not the significant predictor. The interaction between education level and the nation ($\beta = .07, p > .05$) was not significant. The interaction between relationship

length and nation was significant ($\beta = .21, p < .01$). This suggested that the relationship between relationship length and the average score of independent self-construal might be different between both Taiwan and the U.S. While keeping other variables constant, the U.S. respondents has the mean of independent self-construal that are 1.21 point lower than Taiwanese respondents'.

Table 5.
Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Independent Self-Construal

	B	SE	β
Intercept	4.28	0.37	
Nation ^a	0.65	0.13	0.27**
Relationship Length	-0.09	0.04	-0.12*
Education	0.03	0.05	0.04
Interactions			
NationXRelationship Length	0.28	0.07	0.21**
Nation X Education	0.09	0.06	0.07
R ²		0.17	
F		14.25**	

Note. N=350. B= Standardized coefficient. a Nation coded as U.S.A. =0, Taiwan=1.

*p < .05, ** p < .01

Interdependent self-construal. The overall regression model was insignificant. Table 6 shows the result of multiple regression for the interdependent self-construal. This result suggested that nations, relationship length, and education level are not a good predictor for the interdependent self-construal.

Table 6
Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Interdependent Self-Construal

	B	SE	β
Intercept	5.64	0.25	
Nation	0.02	0.09	0.01
Relationship Length	0.02	0.03	0.04
Education	-0.03	0.03	-0.05

Interactions			
NationX Relationship Length	-0.04	0.05	-0.05
Nation X Education	-0.01	0.04	-0.02
R ²		0	
F		0.44	

Note. N=350. *B*= Standardized coefficient. *a* Nation coded as U.S.A. =0, Taiwan=1.

*p < .05, ** p < .01

The results from the Independent t-test indicate that there was no significant difference in interdependent self-construal between the nations, $t(325.06) = .25, p = .80$. This result suggests that Taiwanese respondents ($M = 5.62, SD = .64$) had a similar score in independent self-construal to that of the U.S. respondents ($M = 5.64, SD = .83$). In short, there was no national difference in interdependent self-construal. Table 7 presents the results of the independent t-test for both nations .

Taken together, these results suggest that Taiwanese respondents presented more salient individualistic characteristics than the U.S. respondents did. In addition, the Taiwanese and the U.S. respondents both presented similar levels of interdependent characteristics. Thus, hypothesis H1a was rejected.

H1b: Taiwanese men would have higher self-face concern and less other-face concerns than Taiwanese women, but there would be no gender differences on face concerns among the U.S. respondents.

Data screening stage. Two *one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)* models were used to examine whether face concerns would differ in discovering a partner’s sexual infidelity between Taiwanese men and women and U.S. men and women. The independent variables were the four groups, Taiwanese men, Taiwanese women, U.S. men, and U.S. women. The dependent variables were either the average score of other-face concern or self-face concern. The covariates was relationship length and education level. A preliminary analysis evaluating the homogeneity-

of-regression assumption was met. The relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable did not differ significantly as a function of independent variable. *Gams-Howell post hoc* were used for self-face concern to compare the four group difference. An alpha level of .05 was used for all subsequent analyses. Before analyzing H1b, I conducted two paired t-tests to compare the differences between self-face and other-face in each nationality sample. The results showed that both Taiwanese ($t= 5.9, p<.01$) and U.S. respondents ($t= 2.93, p<.01$) had higher self-face concern than the other-face concern. This implies that both Taiwanese and U.S. respondents perceived higher self-face threats when discovering their partner’s sexual infidelity.

Table 7 presents the result of paired t-tests for face concerns in both samples.

Table 7

Paired-T-tests for Face Concerns within Nation

	Self-face		Other-face		<i>t</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Taiwan	5.15	0.95	4.49	1.36	5.9**
the U.S.	4.26	1.45	3.82	1.52	2.93**

* $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$

I present the results of the H1b in the following sections.

Self-face concern. The *one-way ANCOVA* of respondents’ average score regarding the measure of self-face concern reveals a statistically significant main effect, $F(3, 344) = 16.19, p<.01$. This indicates that the mean of each four groups (paring nationalities and gender) did not had the same average score for the measure of self-face concern after controlling the relationship length and the education level. The estimated omega square ($\omega^2=.13$) indicates that approximately 13% of the total variation in average score in self-face concern is attributable to differences between the four groups.

Table 8 shows the analysis of covariance for self-face concern.

Table 8
Analysis of Covariance for Self-Face Concern

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Combined group	48.57	3	16.19	10.92**
Relationship Length	2.25	1	2.25	0.22
Education	3.07	1	3.07	0.15
Error	510.2	344		
Total	592.23	349		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Post hoc comparisons, using the *Games-Howell post hoc* procedure, were conducted to determine which pairs of the four groups differed significantly. The results are given in Table 7 and indicate that Taiwanese women ($M = 5.33$, $SD = .88$) had a significantly higher average score in the self-face concern than U.S. men ($M = 4.20$, $SD = 1.51$) and U.S. women ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.38$). In addition, Taiwanese men ($M = 4.98$, $SD = .93$), had a significantly higher average score in self-face concern than both U.S. men and women. No group difference was found between Taiwanese women and men ($p > .05$). Neither were there group differences between U.S. men and women ($p > .05$). This result suggests that there were no gender differences within a nationality, but Taiwanese respondents generally rated higher on their self-face concerns within the context of discovering a partner's infidelity than U.S. respondents.

In the following, Table 9 presents the results of post hoc for self-face concern.

Table 9.

Group Means and Games-Howell Post Hoc Tests for Self-Face Concern

	Mean	Mean Differences			
		1	2	3	4
1. TW women	5.34	--			
2. TW men	4.98	0.36	--		
3. U.S. men	4.2	1.14**	.78**	--	
4. U.S. women		1**	.64**	-0.14	--

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Other-face concern. The *one-way ANCOVA* of respondents' average score in terms of the measure of other-face concern reveals a statistically significant main effect, $F(3, 344) = 10.92, p < .01$. This indicates that the mean of the other-face concern in the four groups (pairing nationality and gender) were different after controlling the relationship length and education. The estimated omega square ($\omega^2 = .09$) indicates that approximately 9% of the total variation in average score in face-concern is attributable to differences between the four groups.

Post hoc comparisons, using the *Tukey-b post hoc* procedure, were conducted to determine which pairs of the four groups differed significantly. The results are given in Table 10 and indicate that Taiwanese women ($M = 4.42, SD = 1.46$) had a significantly higher average score in other-face concern than U.S. women ($M = 3.44, SD = 1.47$). In addition, Taiwanese men ($M = 4.57, SD = 1.47$) had a significantly higher average score on other-face concern than U.S. women. Moreover, U.S. men ($M = 4.19, SD = 1.48$) also had a significant higher score in the other-face concerns than U.S. women. There were no differences among Taiwanese men, Taiwanese women, and U.S. men. These results suggest that U.S. women had the lowest score of other-face concern in comparison to other groups.

Table 10 shows the analysis of covariance for other-face concern. Table 11 presents the result of Tukey-b post hoc for the other-face concern between four groups.

Table 10
Analysis of Covariance for Other-Face Concern

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Combined group	67.86	3	22.62	10.92**
Relationship Length	8.87	1	8.87	4.44*
Education	2.32	1	2.32	0.28
Error	686.93	344		
Total	761.62	349		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 11.

Tukey-b Post Hoc Tests for Other-Face Concern

	<i>M</i>	<i>Mean Differences</i>			
		1	2	3	4
1. TW women	4.42	--			
2. TW men	4.56	-0.15	--		
3. U.S. men	4.19	0.23	0.37	--	
4. U.S. women	3.44	.97**	1.12**	.74**	--

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

To sum up, Taiwanese respondents scored higher in self-face concern than U.S. respondents. This suggests that Taiwanese respondents perceived a higher self-face threat than U.S. respondents in the context of discovering a partner’s sexual infidelity. There were no gender differences regarding self-face concern. This suggests both men and women perceive similar levels of self-face threat in the context of discovering their partner’s sexual infidelity. The U.S. women scored lowest in other-face concern. The hypothesis H1b was rejected.

H1c: Taiwanese women will use more avoidant but less dominate behaviors in the context of discovering a partner’s sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and both U.S. women and men.

Data screening stage. Three *one-way ANCOVA* models were used to examine whether conflict style would differ among Taiwanese men and women and U.S. men and women after controlling relationship length and education level. The independent variable represented the four groups: Taiwanese men, Taiwanese women, U.S. men, and U.S. women. The dependent variable was either the average score of avoidant style, integrative style, or dominant style. A preliminary analysis evaluating the homogeneity-of-regression assumption was met. The relationship between the covariates and the dependent variables do not differ significantly as a function of independent variable. Nevertheless, homogeneity of variance was significant for both

integrative and dominant styles. For integrative style, I found Levene's $F(3, 346) = 11.17$, $p < .01$, and for the dominant style, Levene's $F(3, 346) = 5.67$, $p < .01$. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met for both integrative and dominant styles. For avoidance style, I found Levene's $F(3, 346) = .14$, $p = .94$. This indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. Therefore, Gams-Howell post hoc test were used for the dominant and integrative style. An alpha level of .05 was used for all subsequent analyses.

Before analyzing for H1c, I conducted paired t-tests to see if there were any differences between the means of each conflict style in each nation. Table 12 presents the results of the paired t-tests.

Table 12

Paired-T-tests for Conflict Styles in Each Nation

	Taiwan		USA	
	<i>M</i> <i>difference</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>M</i> <i>difference</i>	<i>t</i>
Avoidant vs. Dominant	-1.08	-10.27**	-1.29	-10.15**
Avoidant vs. Integrative	-1.2	-17.34**	1.48	18.07**
Integrative vs. Dominant	0.12	1.37	0.12	1.34

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The paired t-tests show that there were statistically differences between the average scores of avoidant style and dominant style, and the average scores of avoidant style and integrative. This suggests that both Taiwanese respondents and U.S. respondents use less avoidant style than integrative or dominant styles to cope with their partner's sexual infidelity.

I present the results of H1c in the following.

Dominate style. The *one-way ANCOVA* of respondents' average score for the measure of dominant style revealed a statistically significant main effect, $F(3, 344) = 11.21$, $p < .001$. This indicates that not all respondents from the four groups (nation vs. gender) had the same

average score on the measure of dominant style after controlling relationship length and education level. The estimated omega square ($\omega^2 = .16$) indicate that approximately 16% of the total variation in average score in dominant style is attributable to differences between the four groups.

Table 13 presented the results of one-way ANCOVA for the dominant style.

Table 13
Analysis of Covariance for Dominant Style

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Combined group	23.67	3	7.89	11.21**
Relationship Length	6.29	1	6.29	8.94**
Education	0.36	1	0.36	0.51
Error	242	344		
Total	291.31	349		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 14 presents the post hoc differences between groups for dominant style.

Table 14
Group Means and Games-Howell Post Hoc Tests for Dominant Style

	<i>M</i>	<i>Mean Differences</i>			
		1	2	3	4
1. TW women	5.12	--			
2. TW men	4.8	.32*	--		
3. U.S. men	4.22	.91**	.58**	--	
4. U.S. women	4.43	.69**	.36**	-0.21	--

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Post hoc comparisons, using *the Games-Howell post hoc* procedure, were conducted to determine which pairs of the four groups differed significantly. The results are given in Table 14

and indicate that Taiwanese women ($M= 5.12, SD= .8$) had a significantly higher average score in the dominant style than Taiwanese men ($M= 4.8, SD= .7$), U.S. men ($M= 4.22, SD= 1.1$), and U.S. women ($M= 4.43, SD= .9$). In addition, Taiwanese men had a significantly higher average score in the dominant style than both U.S. men and women. No group difference was found between U.S. women and men ($p>.05$).

Integrative style. The one-way ANCOVA of respondents' average score for the measure of integrative style reveals a statistically significant main effect, $F(3, 344) = 5.09, p < .01$. This indicates that not all respondents from the four groups (nation vs. gender) had the same average score for the measure of integrative style after controlling the relationship length and education level. The estimated omega square ($\omega^2=.05$) indicates that approximately 5% of the total variation in average score on integrative style is attributable to differences between the four groups after controlling the covariance.

Table 15 presents the statistic results of ANCOVA for integrative style and Table 16 presents the post-hoc result for integrative style.

Table 15
Analysis of Covariance for Integrative Style

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Combined group	24.49	3	8.16	5.09**
Relationship Length	1.42	1	1.42	0.89
Education	5.45	1	5.45	3.4
Error	551.06	344		
Total	586.7	349		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 16
Group Means and Games-Howell Post Hoc Tests for Integrative Style

	<i>M Differences</i>				
	<i>M</i>	1	2	3	4

1. TW women	5.07	--			
2. TW men	5.08	-0.01	--		
3. U.S. men	4.64	0.43	0.44	--	
4. U.S. women	4.4	.67**	.68**	0.24	--

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Post hoc comparisons, using the Games-Howell post hoc procedure, were conducted to determine which pairs of the four groups differed significantly. The results are given in Table 14 and indicate that Taiwanese women ($M = 5.07$, $SD = .93$) had a significantly higher average score in the integrative style than U.S. women ($M = 4.4$, $SD = 1.52$). In addition, Taiwanese men ($M = 5.08$, $SD = .94$) had a significantly higher average score in the integrative style than U.S. women. No difference was found between Taiwanese women, Taiwanese men, and U.S. men ($p > .05$). There was no difference between U.S. men and U.S. women either ($p > .05$).

Avoidant style. The one-way ANCOVA of respondents' average score on the measure of avoidant style reveals a statistically significant main effect, $F(3, 344) = 11.21$, $p < .01$. This indicates that not all respondents from the four groups had the same average score for the measure of avoidant style after controlling the relationship length and the education level. The estimated omega square ($\omega^2 = .12$) indicates that approximately 12% of the total variation in average score in avoidant style is attributable to differences between the four groups after controlling the covariates.

Table 17 presents the results of ANCOVA for avoidant style.

Table 17
Analysis of Covariance for Avoidant Style

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Combined group	70.42	3	23.47	14.69**
Relationship Length	2.07	1	2.07	1.3
Education	2.29	1	2.29	1.43
Error	549.52	344		
Total	631.43	349		

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 18 presents the post hoc group differences in avoidant style

Table 18.

Group Means and Tukey-b Post Hoc Tests for Avoidant Style

	<i>M Differences</i>				
	<i>M</i>	1	2	3	4
1. TW women	3.7	--			
2. TW men	4.05	-0.35	--		
3. U.S. men	3.3	0.91	.75**	--	
4. U.S. women	2.78	.92**	1.27**	.52*	--

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Post hoc comparisons, using the Tukey-b post hoc procedure, were conducted to determine which pairs of the four groups differed significantly. The results are given in Table 15 and indicate that Taiwanese women ($M = 3.7, SD = 1.27$) had a significantly higher average score in avoidant style than both U.S. men ($M = 3.3, SD = 1.32$) and U.S. women ($M = 2.78, SD = 1.27$). In addition, Taiwanese men ($M = 4.04, SD = 1.19$) had a significantly higher average score in avoidant style than both U.S. men and women. Further, U.S. men had a significantly higher average score in avoidance than U.S. women. There was no difference between Taiwanese men and women.

To sum up, Taiwanese women did not score lowest in avoidant style, and they scored highest in dominant style among the four groups. There was no gender difference among the U.S. respondents for dominant and integrative style, but there was gender difference for the avoidant style. Thus, H_{1c} was rejected, because the results did not show that Taiwanese women use more avoidant but less dominate behaviors in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and both U.S. women and men.

Research Questions 2: Correlations between Face Concerns

Data Screening Stage

A Pearson correlation was run to assess the relationship between commitment level and face concerns for all respondents in the current research. (See Table 18) The preliminary analysis shows the relationship to be linear. Although the four variables were not normally distributed, Pearson correlations have been found to be robust with large samples (Kang & Haring, 2012; Norman, 2010). Only self-face was detected with the outlier, and the outlier was altered with the next lowest value. According to Cohen (1988), the absolute value of correlation less than .3 is considered to be a small correlation, .3 to .5 is considered to be a moderate correlate, and larger than .5 is considered to be a strong correlation.

Results

There was a small, negative correlation between personal dedication and self-face, $r(348) = -.266, p < .01$. Personal dedication explains 7% ($r^2 = .07$) of the variation in perceiving self-face concern. There was no significant correlation between personal dedication and other-face, $r(348) = -.079, p > .05$. There was also a small, negative correlation between constraint commitment and self-face, $r(348) = -.173, p < .01$. The constraint commitment explains 3% ($r^2 = .03$) of the variation in perceiving self-face concern. There was no significant correlation between personal dedication and other-face, $r(348) = .013, p > .05$. Therefore, H2 was half-rejected. The results show that both personal dedication and constraint commitment were negatively correlated with self-face concern, but neither personal dedication nor constraint commitment correlated with other-face concern.

Table 19 presents the descriptive data and correlations for all variables for the total respondents ($N=350$).

Table 19: *Descriptive Data and Correlations for All Variables*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.Dedication	-												
2.Constraint commitment	.637**	-											
3. Independent SC	-.487**	-.524**	-										
4.Interdependent SC	.444**	.256**	-0.093	-									
5. Other-face	-0.079	0.013	-0.014	.245**	-								
6. Self-face	-.266**	-.173**	.311**	.114*	.209**	-							
7.Integrative	-0.04	0.083	-0.027	.223**	.759**	.227**	-						
8.Dominant	-.363**	-.312**	.408**	0.027	-0.073	.573**	-0.009	-					
9. Avoidance	-.239**	-0.083	0.057	.210**	.791**	.265**	.706**	.107*	-				
10. Education	-.120*	-.137*	0.094	-0.028	0.093	.148**	.134*	.123*	.118*	-			
11.Children	.115*	.151**	-0.014	0.086	-0.015	-0.014	-0.058	-0.009	0.004	-0.104	-		
12. Relationship Length	.411**	.375**	-.290**	0.045	-0.005	-.214**	-0.06	-.290**	-0.089	-.217**	.363**	-	
13. Age	.392**	.309**	-.305**	0.02	-0.024	-.265**	-0.056	-.369**	-.130*	-.219**	.272**	.794**	-
<i>Mean</i>	5.43	4.41	4.96	5.62	4.15	4.71	4.8	4.64	3.45	4.35	1.5	17	45.26
<i>SD</i>	1	0.95	1.22	0.74	1.48	1.3	1.3	0.91	1.35	1.39	1.16	13.77	14.18

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Research Question 3: Moderating Effect of Face Concerns

Data Screening Stage.

“Moderation” analysis is used to examine when the relationship between two variables would exist with a moderator (Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004). Multiple regressions have been widely used for testing a moderation (Frazier et al. 2004). Overall, the independent variable was the level of commitment. The dependent variable was conflict style and the moderator was face concerns.

Figure 2 shows the simple moderation model of the current study. In the Figure 2, *M* represents as moderator. The moderator in the present study could be either the average score of self-face concern or other face concern. The independent variable in the model was either the average score of personal dedication or constraint commitment. The dependent variable was either the average score of dominant style, integrative style or avoidant style. The Figure 2 illustrates that face concerns may strengthen or weaken the relationship between commitment and conflict style.

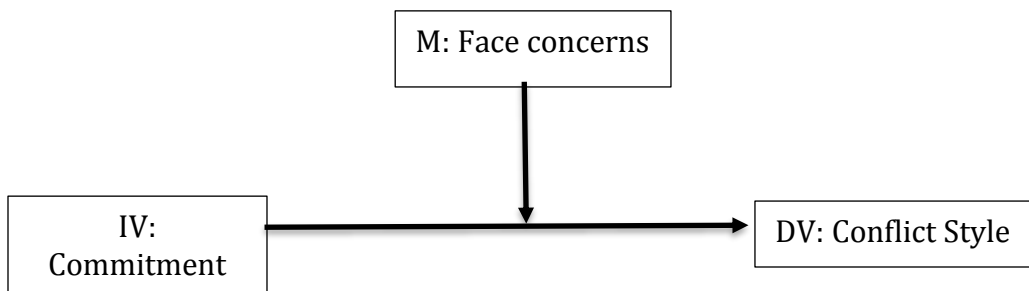


Figure 2. Simple moderation model

In order to meet the assumptions of multiple regression, the residuals of the dependent variables should be normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For this research question, I conducted 12 multiple regressions in total. Three multiple regressions assessed the moderating effect of self-face concern on the relationship between personal dedication and each

conflict style. Another three multiple regressions assessed the moderating effect of self-face concern on the relationship between constraint commitment and each conflict style. Likewise, the six multiple regressions assessed the moderating effect of face-concern on the relationship between two types of commitment and the conflict styles.

To examine the assumptions of multiple regressions, the residuals of the dependent variables (i.e. avoidant style, integrative style, and dominant style) were examined by histogram and normal Q-Q plot. All of them presented normal distribution. Second, the multiple regression required multinormality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), thus, I used SPSS 22.0 to assess multicollinearity and case diagnosis for multivariate outliers. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), tolerance values, and the covariance showed there was no multicollinary (Klien,2011). Additionally, no extreme outlier was found. Finally, the multiple regression required homoscedasticity, but the residuals of the integrative style violated the assumption of homoscedasticity. Thus, I used hierarchical multiple regression analysis by using PROCESS macro software by Hayes (2012). PROCESS uses heteroscedasticity-consistent standard estimation, which allows the regression to assess the model without assuming homoscedasticity (Hayes, 2012).

Within the PROCESS macro, PROCESS first auto-centralizes the mean of each variable (i.e. standardized score) in the model. Then, it runs the hierarchical regression to assess if there is an interaction between the independent variable and moderator variable. If there is interaction between the independent variable and moderator variable, PROCESS probes the moderated effect by the “pick a point approach” (Bauer & Curran, 2005) and Johnson-Neyman technique (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). The “pick a point approach” uses one standardization above and below the mean of the moderator to distinguish “where” the effect of the independent variable is

on the dependent variable (Bauer & Curran, 2005). In the current study, the moderator (the data of self-face concern) was skewed. Rather than using one standardization to pick a point, Hayes (2005) suggests that the researcher use the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile to identify moderating effects for skewed moderators.

Results

I present 12 simple moderation models with Table 20, Table 21, Table 22 and Table 23 in the following. Table 20 shows three regression models for self-face concern, personal dedication and predicting conflict styles.

Table 20.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Self-Face Concerns, Personal Dedication and Predicting Conflict Styles(N=350)

Variable	Model 1: Avoidance			Model 2: Integrative			Model 3: Dominant		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
R ²	.15**			.08**			.38**		
F for change In R ²	.05*			.03*			0		
Constant	3.38	.07	51.75**	4.75	.07	67.68**	4.64	.04	113.91**
Dedication	-.26	.06	-4.43**	.02	.08	.2	-0.21	.04	-4.75**
Self-face	.27	.06	4.43**	.26	.07	3.83**	0.36	.04	9.47**
Interaction	-.23	.05	-4.33**	-.15	.07	-2.26*	0	.03	-.12

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 21 describes the regression models for self-face concern, constraint commitment and predicting conflict styles.

Table 21.

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Self-Face Concerns, Constraint Commitment and Predicting Conflict Styles(N=350)

Variable	Model 4: Avoidance			Model 5: Integrative			Model 6: Dominant		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
R ²	.10**			.10**			.38**		
F for change In R ²	.03*			.04*			0		
Constant	3.42	.07	50.18**	4.76	0.07	68.63**	4.64	0.04	114.46**
Constraint	-.09	.08	-1.07	.14	0.09	1.59	-.21	0.05	-4.52**
Self-face	.26	.06	4.05**	0.24	0.07	3.27**	.38	0.04	9.81**
Interaction	-.17	.06	-2.93**	-.18	0.07	-2.52*	-.01	0.03	-.18

*p<.05;**p<.01

Table 22 describes the regression models for other-face concern, personal dedication and predicting conflict styles.

Table 22

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Other-Face Concerns, Personal Dedication and Predicting Conflict Styles(N=350)

Variable	Model 7: Avoidance			Model 8: Integrative			Model 9: Dominant		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
R ²	.67**			.59**			.19**		
F for change In R ²	.01**			.01*			.05**		
Constant	3.45	.04	80.51**	4.81	.04	108.12**	4.63	.04	104.6**
Dedication	-.24	.05	-5.31**	.03	.05	.6	-.34	.05	-7.19**
Other-face	.72	.03	25.39**	.67	.03	18.87**	-.05	.05	-1.33
Interaction	-.1	.03	-3.22**	.1	.04	2.54*	-.14	.04	-3.64**

Table 23 describes the regression models for other-face concern, constraint commitment and predicting conflict styles.

Table 23

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Other-Face Concerns, Constraint Commitment and Predicting Conflict Styles(N=350)

Variable	Model 10: Avoidance			Model 11: Integrative			Model 12: Dominant		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
R ²	.65**			.59**			.16**		
F for change In R ²	.02**			.01*			.06**		
Constant	3.46	.04	80.64**	4.80	.05	105.76**	4.63	.05	102.17**
Constraint	.15	.05	-3.03**	.10	.05	2.13*	-.34	.05	-6.28**
Other-face	.71	.03	24.92**	.66	.04	17.81**	-.05	.04	-1.31
Interaction	.11	.03	-3.83**	.02	.04	.43	-.15	.04	-3.68**

Avoidant style.

Self-face concerns and personal dedication. The overall model (see Model 1 in Table 20), personal dedication, self-face concern and the interaction between dedication and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in avoidant style, $R^2 = .15$, $F(3, 347) = 17.54$, $p < .001$. All independent variables—dedication ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .001$), self-face concern ($\beta = .27$, $p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .001$)—significantly demonstrated the effect on the avoidant style. The interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant style, $\Delta R^2 = .053$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 18.82$, $p < .001$. As shown in Table 17, personal dedication is significantly related to avoidant style, and self-face concern significantly moderates that relationship.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 3. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of personal dedication at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentiles of self-face concerns.

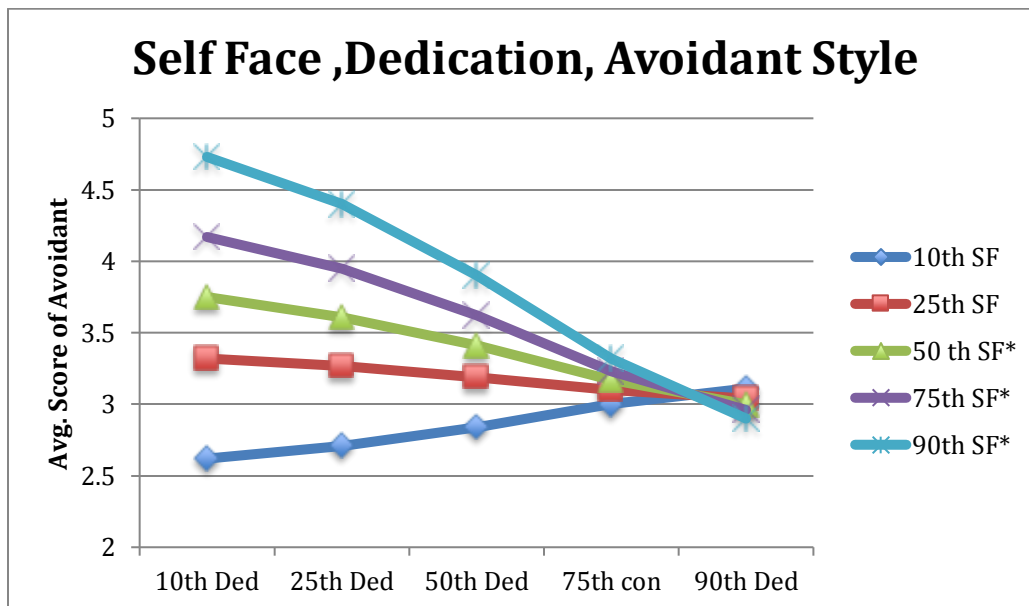


Figure 3. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting avoidant style with self-face concern at 50th, 75th and 90th percentile.

Table 24 shows the conditional effect of personal dedication on avoidant style with different level of self-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between personal dedication and avoidant style.

Table 24

Conditional Effects of Personal Dedication on Avoidant Style with Self-Face Concern

Self-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	0.18	0.11	1.58
25th	-0.1	0.07	-1.48
50th	-0.27	0.06	-4.26**
75th	-0.44	0.08	-5.52**
90th	-0.68	0.12	-5.59**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 24, dedication is significantly related to the avoidant style when self-face concern was above 50th percentile ($p < .00$). The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that self-face has a reverse effect on the relationship between personal dedication and avoidant style. More precisely, when the self-face concern is below -2.27 standard deviation, personal dedication can significantly and positively predict for avoidant style. When self-face concern was above -.58 standard deviation, personal dedication would negatively predict for avoidant style. In addition, when the self-face concern was increasing above -.58 standard deviation, the self-face concern would enhance the strength of the relationship between personal dedication and the avoidant style. That is, with increasing self-face concern and increasing personal dedication, the lower was the score of the avoidant style.

Self-face concerns and constraint commitment. The overall model, constraint, self-face concern, and the interaction between constraint and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in avoidant style, $R^2 = .10$, $F(3,346) = 7.66$, $p < .001$. Moreover, about 10%

of the variance of avoidant style can be explained by these three predictors. However, constraint ($b = -.09, p > .1$) was not a significant predictor of avoidant style. Self-face concern ($\beta = .26, p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.17, p < .001$) significantly demonstrated the effect on the avoidant style. The interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant style, $\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F(3, 346) = 8.57, p = .000$. Although constraint may not have an effect when self-face was set to 0, it probably does have an effect for other values of self-face as shown in the Model 4 (see Table 21.)

The interaction is illustrated in Figure 4. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of personal constraint at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of self-face concerns.

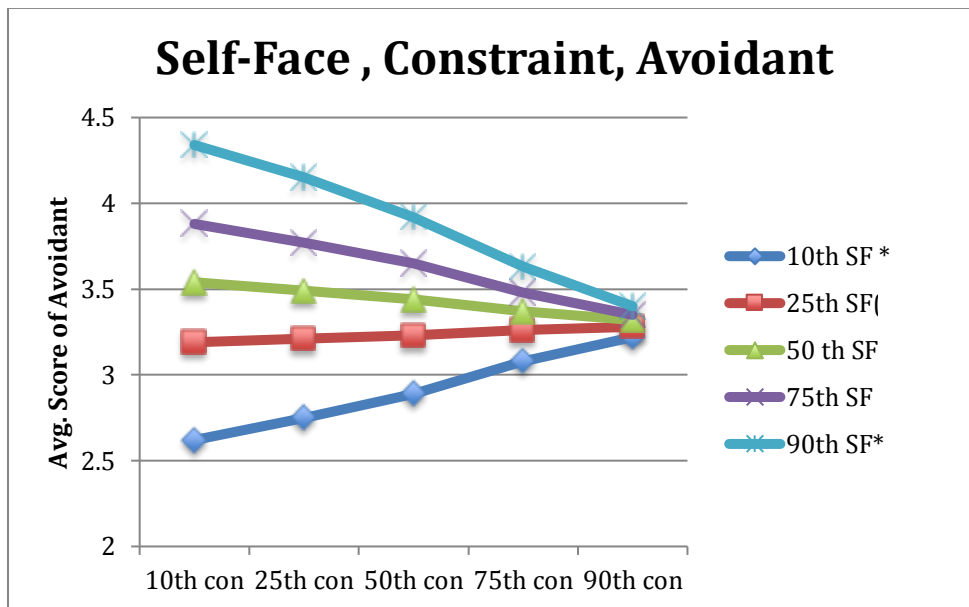


Figure 4. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting avoidant style with self-face concern at 10th and 90th percentile.

Table 25 shows the conditional effect of constraint commitment on avoidant style with different level of self-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style.

Table 25
*Conditional Effects of Constraint Commitment on
 Avoidant Style with Self-Face Concern*

Self-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	0.25	0.1	2.62**
25th	0.4	0.07	0.54
50th	-0.09	0.08	-1.14
75th	-0.22	0.11	-1.95
90th	-0.39	0.16	-2.39*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 24, constraint commitment significantly predicted for avoidant style when self-face concern was at 10th percentile ($p = .01$) and above 75th percentile ($p = .05$). The self-face concern had the reverse effect on the relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style. The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that when the self-face is below -1.35 standard deviation and above .81 standard deviation, the constraint commitment would significantly predict for the avoidant style. The avoidant style would increase with increasing constraint commitment when self-face concern is below -1.35 standard deviation. In contrast, the avoidant style would decrease with the increasing constraint commitment when the self-face concern was above .81 standard deviation. In addition, when the self-face concern was above .81 standard deviation, the self-face concern would enhance the strength of the relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style. That is, with increasing self-face concern and the constraint commitment, the lower was the score in avoidant style.

Other-face concern and personal dedication. The overall model (see Model 7 in Table 22), personal dedication, other-face concern, and the interaction between personal dedication and other-face concerns accounted for a significant amount of variance in avoidant style, $R^2 = .67$, $F(3,347) = 286.96$, $p < .001$. All independent variables—personal dedication ($\beta = -.24$, $p = .001$),

other-face concern ($\beta = .71, p < .001$) and their interaction ($\beta = -.10, p = .001$)—significantly regressed for avoidant style. The interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant, $\Delta R^2 = .01, \Delta F(1, 346) = 10.36, p = .001$. The significance of the interaction indicates that other-face concern has a moderate effect on the relationship between personal dedication and avoidant style.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 5. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of personal dedication at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of other-face concern.

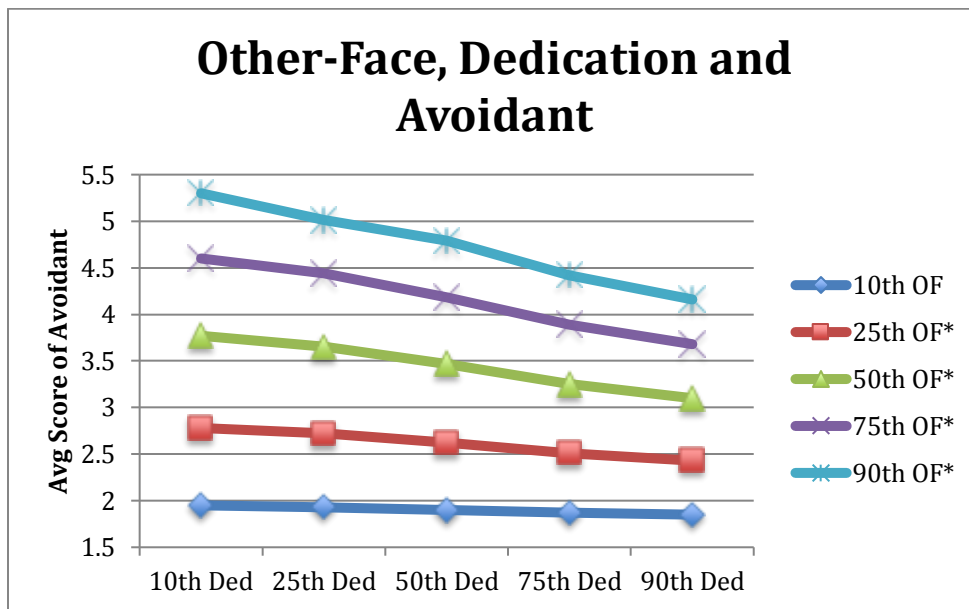


Figure 5. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting avoidant style with other-face concern above 25th percentile.

Table 26 shows the conditional effect of personal commitment on avoidant style with different level of other-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between personal commitment and avoidant style.

Table 26
Conditional Effects of Personal Dedication on Avoidant Style with Other-Face Concern

Other-Face (percentile)	β	<i>SE</i>	t
10th	-0.04	0.07	-0.49
25th	-0.13	0.05	-2.46*
50th	-0.24	0.05	-5.33**
75th	-0.34	0.06	-5.88**
90th	-0.42	0.08	-5.41**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 26, personal dedication significantly predicted for the avoidant style only when other-face concern was above 25th percentile ($p = .01$). This interaction plot shows that other-face concern strengthens the relationship between avoidant style and personal dedication when the level of other-face increases. The Johnson-Newman technique shows that when other-face concern is above -1.36 standard deviation, an enhancing moderation effect appears. Conversely, with the increasing the level of other-face above -1.36 standard deviation and personal dedication, avoidant style decreases.

Other-face concern and constraint commitment. The overall model (see Model 10 in Table 22), constraint commitment, other-face concern, and the interaction between constraint commitment and other-face concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in avoidant style, $R^2 = .65$, $F(3, 347) = 216.42$, $p < .001$. All independent variables—constraint ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .003$), other-face concern ($\beta = .71$, $p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .001$)—significantly regressed for the avoidant style. The interaction which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant is as follows: $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 14.67$, $p = .000$. This suggests that constraint commitment significantly relates to avoidant style, and other-face concern significantly moderates that relationship.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 6. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of constraint commitment at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of other-face concerns.

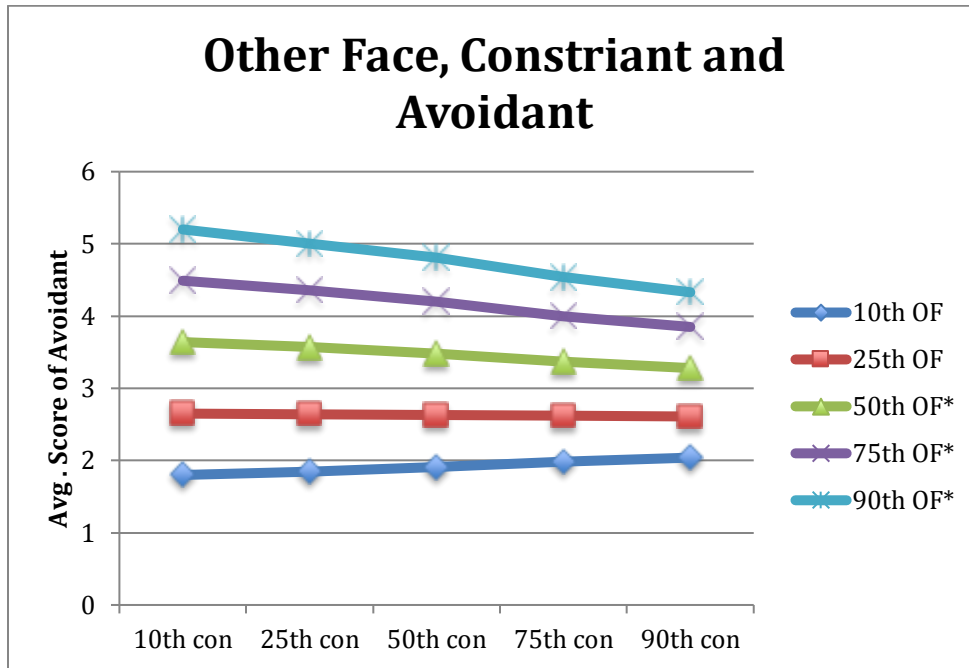


Figure 6. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting avoidant style with other-face concern above 50th percentile.

Table 27 shows the conditional effect of constraint commitment on avoidant style with different level of other-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between personal commitment and avoidant style.

Table 27
Conditional Effects of Constraint Commitment on Avoidant Style with Other-Face Concern

Other-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	0.1	0.07	1.46
25th	-0.02	0.05	-0.33
50th	-0.15	0.05	-3.04*
75th	-0.27	0.07	-4.03**
90th	-0.36	0.08	-4.23**

**p < .05; **p < .01*

As shown in Table 26, constraint commitment significantly predicted for avoidant style only when other-face concern was above 50th percentile ($p = .003$). This interaction plot shows that other-face concern strengthens the relationship between avoidant style and constraint commitment. When the level of other-face concerns increases, and the constraint commitment increases, the scores in avoidant style decrease. The Johnson-Neyman technique shows this to be true when other-face concern was above $-.50$ standard deviation or below -2.64 standard deviation. When other-face concern is above $-.50$ standard deviation, the other-face concern has an enhancing effect on the relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style. When the level of other-face concern increases above $-.50$ standard deviation and constraint commitment increases, the respondents are less likely to use avoidant style. In contrast, when the other-face concern is below -2.64 , the constraint commitment would positively predict for avoidant style. The respondents with extremely low other-face concern and with higher dedication levels would be more likely to increase in avoidant style.

Summary. Both self-face and other-face concerns moderated the relationship between commitment level and avoidant style. The moderator of self-face concern had both a reverse and an enhancing effect on the relationship between personal dedication and avoidant style, and the relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style. In terms of reverse effect, with the extreme low self-face concern, both personal dedication and constraint commitment can positively predict for the avoidant style. With increasing self-face concern, both personal dedication and constraint commitment change from positively to negatively predicting for the avoidant style. Likewise, other-face concern had a reverse moderating effect on the relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style, and the relationship between personal

dedication and avoidant style. However, with increasing other-face concern, the constraint commitment changed from positively to negatively predict for avoidant style. Also, when the other-face concern was above the 50th percentile, increasing other-self face concern would also strengthen the negative relationship between constraint commitment and avoidant style. Likewise, other-face concern served as an enhancing moderating effect on the relationship between personal dedication and avoidant style after other-face reach above 25th percentile.

Dominant style.

Self-face concern and personal dedication. The overall model (see Model 3 in Table 19), dedication, self-face concern, and the interaction between dedication and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in dominant style, $R^2 = .39$, $F(3, 346) = 51.82$, $p < .001$. Although both self-face concern ($\beta = .36$, $t = 9.47$, $p < .01$) and personal dedication ($\beta = -.21$, $t = -4.75$, $p < .01$) significantly regressed on dominant style, adding the interaction did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in dominant style, $\Delta R^2 = .0$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = .03$, $p > .10$, $\beta = -.00$, $t(349) = -.18$, $p > .10$. In other words, there was no moderating effect of self-face on the relationship between the dedication and the dominant style.

Self-face concern and constraint commitment. The overall model (see Model 6 in Table 21), constraint, self-face concern, and the interaction between dedication and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in dominant style, $R^2 = .08$, $F(3, 346) = 8.57$, $p = .001$. Both constraint ($\beta = -.21$, $t = -4.52$, $p = .00$) and self-face concern ($\beta = .38$, $t = 9.81$, $p = .00$) significantly regressed dominant style. However, the interaction ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .87$) did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in dominant style, $\Delta R^2 = .0$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = .03$, $p > .10$. In other words, there was no moderating effect in the model of predicting for dominant style.

Other-face concern and personal dedication. The overall model, personal dedication, other-face concern, and the interaction between dedication and other-face concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .19$, $F(3, 346) = 22.96$, $p < .001$. The other-face concern ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .18$) did not have significant effect on dominant style. Rather, dedication ($\beta = -.32$, $p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.14$, $p < .001$) significantly regressed for dominant style. Although other-face concern may not have an effect on dominant style when the value of commitment level was set to 0, it probably had an effect for other values of dedication level. Moreover, the interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in dominant style, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 13.57$, $p < .001$. This suggests that other-face had a conditional effect on the relationship between dedication and dominant style.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 7. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of dedication at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of the other-face concern.

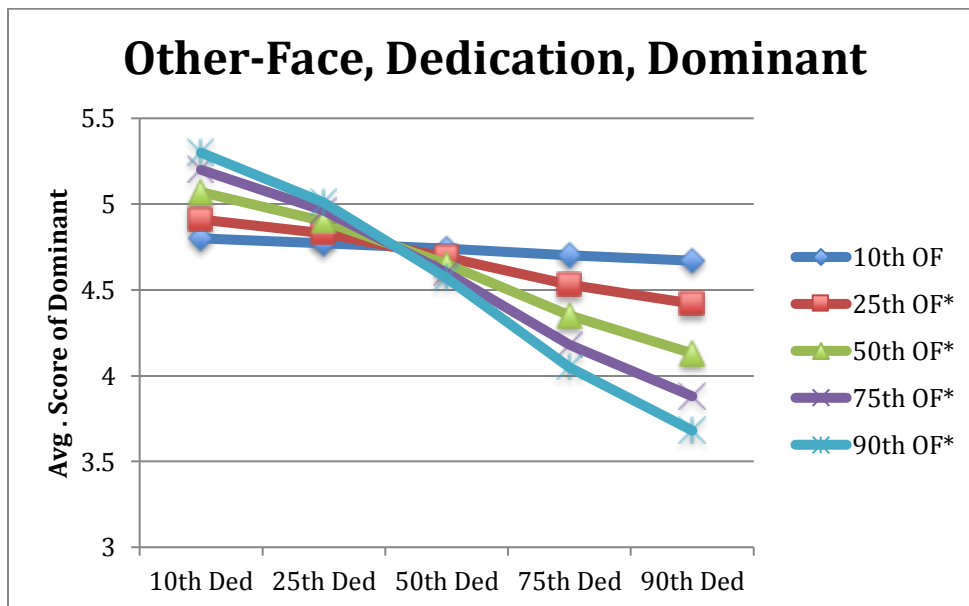


Figure 7. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting dominant style with other-face concern above 25th percentile.

Table 28 shows the conditional effect of personal dedication on dominant style with different level of other-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between personal commitment and dominant style.

Table 28
*Conditional Effects of Personal Dedication on
 Dominant Style with Other-Face Concern*

Other-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	-0.05	0.1	-0.49
25th	-0.18	0.07	-2.79**
50th	-0.34	0.05	-7.21**
75th	-0.48	0.06	-8.05**
90th	-0.59	0.08	-7.21**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 27, dedication can significantly predict for dominant style when other-face concern was above the 25th percentile ($b = -.18, p = .005$), but not when other-face concern was at the 10th percentile ($\beta = -.04, p = .62$). The relationship between dedication and dominant style is strengthened when increasing other-face concern. The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that when other-face concern is above -1.44 standard deviation, dedication can negatively predict for the dominant style. That is, with the increasing level of other-face concern from -1.44 standard deviation, the higher the dedication level is, the less likely the respondents would use dominant style.

Other-face concern and constraint commitment. The overall model (see Model 12 in Table 23), constraint commitment, other-face concern, and the interaction between constraint commitment and other-face concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .15, F(3,346) = 17.14, p < .001$. Other-face concern ($\beta = -.05, p = .19$) did not have significant effect on dominant style. Rather, constraint commitment ($\beta = -.32, p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.14, p < .001$) significantly regressed for dominant style. Although other-face

concern may not have an effect on dominant style when the value of commitment level was set to 0, it probably does have an effect for other values of commitment level. The interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in dominant style, $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 13.57$, $p < .001$. This suggested that other-face concern may have a conditional effect on the relationship between constraint commitment and dominant style.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 8. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of constraint commitment on dominant style at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of other-face concern.

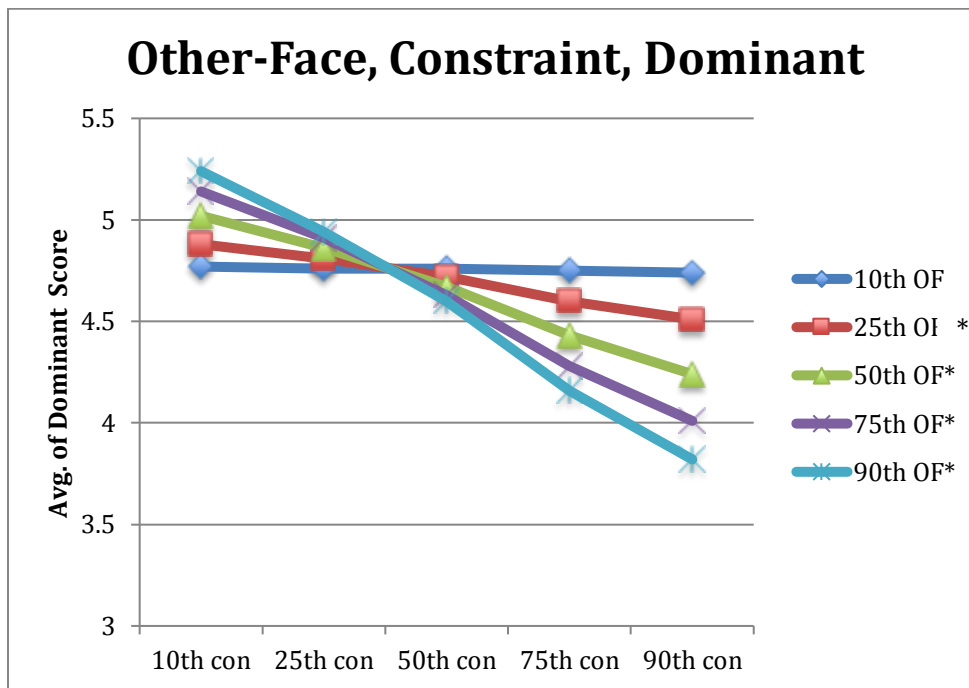


Figure 8. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting dominant style with other-face concern above 25th percentile.

Table 29 shows the conditional effect of constraint commitment on dominant style with different level of other-face concern. The significant t-value of conditional effect indicates when there was significant relationship between constraint commitment and dominant style.

Table 29
*Conditional Effects of Constraint Commitment on Dominant Style
 with Other-Face Concern*

Other-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	-0.01	0.09	-0.08
25th	-0.15	0.06	-2.36*
50th	-0.32	0.05	-6.31**
75th	-0.47	0.07	-6.88**
95th	-0.59	0.09	-6.32**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 29, constraint commitment can significantly predict for dominant style when other-face concern is above the 25th percentile ($\beta = -.15, p = .001$), but not when self-face concern is at the 10th percentile ($\beta = .14, p > .1$). The relationship between constraint commitment and dominant style are strengthened when increasing other-face concern. The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that when other-face concern is above -1.29 standard deviation, the constraint commitment can negatively predict for the dominant style. That is, with the higher other-face concern (above -1.29 standard deviation), the higher the constraint commitment level is and the less likely the respondents would use dominant style.

Summary. Self-face concern, dedication, and constraint commitment can predict for dominant style. However, self-face concern was neither a moderator for the relationship between dedication and dominant style, nor for the relationship between constraint commitment and dominant style. In other words, self-face concern did not moderate the relationship between commitment level and dominant style. On the other hand, other-face concern did not significantly predict for the dominant style. The results showed that other-face concern served as a moderator for dominant style. When the level of other-face concern increased above the 25th

percentile, the relationship between commitment (i.e. both constraint and dedication) and dominant style would enhance negatively. That is, respondents above the 25th percentile of other-face concern and with higher level of commitment level would be less likely to use dominant style as a coping strategy toward a partner's sexual infidelity.

Integrative Style

Self-face concern and dedication. The overall model (see Model 2 in Table 19), dedication, self-face concern, and the interaction between dedication and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .08$, $F(3, 346) = 9.14$, $p < .001$. Dedication ($\beta = .015$, $p = .84$) did not have significant effect on integrative style. Rather, self-face concern ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .02$) significantly demonstrated an effect on integrative style. Although dedication may not have an effect when self-face was set to 0, it probably does have an effect for other values of self-face. The interaction effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 5.10$, $p = .03$. Self-face concern significantly moderates the relationship between dedication and integrative style.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 9. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of personal dedication on integrative style at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of self-face concern.

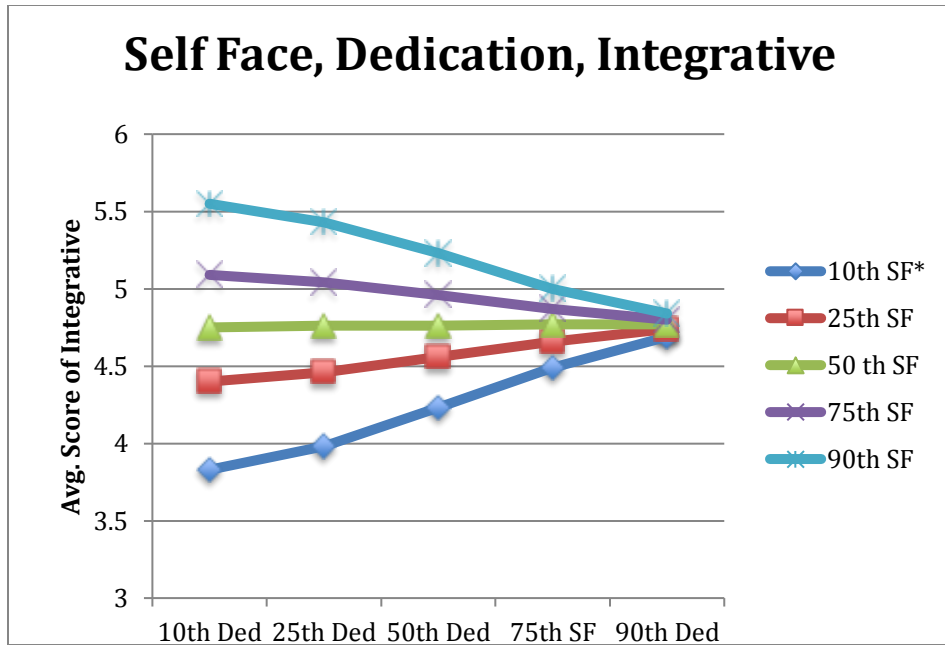


Figure 9. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting integrative style with self-face concern at 10th percentile.

Table 30 showed that personal dedication significantly predicted for integrative style at the 10th percentile of the self-face concern ($\beta = .31, p = .03$).

Table 30
Conditional Effects of Personal Dedication on Integrative Style with Self-face concern

Self-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	0.31	0.14	2.18*
25th	0.12	0.09	1.44
50th	0.01	0.06	0.12
75th	-0.1	0.1	-1.05
90th	-0.26	0.15	-1.69

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

In other words, the relationship between dedication and integrative style exists when the self-face concern is low. The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that the relationship between dedication and integrative style is significant when self-face is less than -1.31 standardized

deviation. This interaction plot shows that personal dedication had a significantly positive relationship with integrative style.

Self-face concern and constraint commitment. The overall model (see Model 5 in Table 20), constraint commitment, self-face concern, and the interaction between constraint commitment and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .10$, $F(3, 346) = 7.78$, $p < .001$. The constraint commitment ($\beta = .14$, $p = .113$) did not have a significant effect on integrative style. Rather, self-face concern ($\beta = .24$, $p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.18$, $p = .01$) demonstrated a significant effect on integrative style. Although constraint commitment may not have an effect on integrative style when self-face was set to 0, it probably does have an effect for other values of self-face. The interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in avoidant, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 6.39$, $p = .01$. This suggested that self-face concern significantly moderates the relationship between constraint commitment and integrative style.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 10, The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of constraint commitment at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th of self-concern.

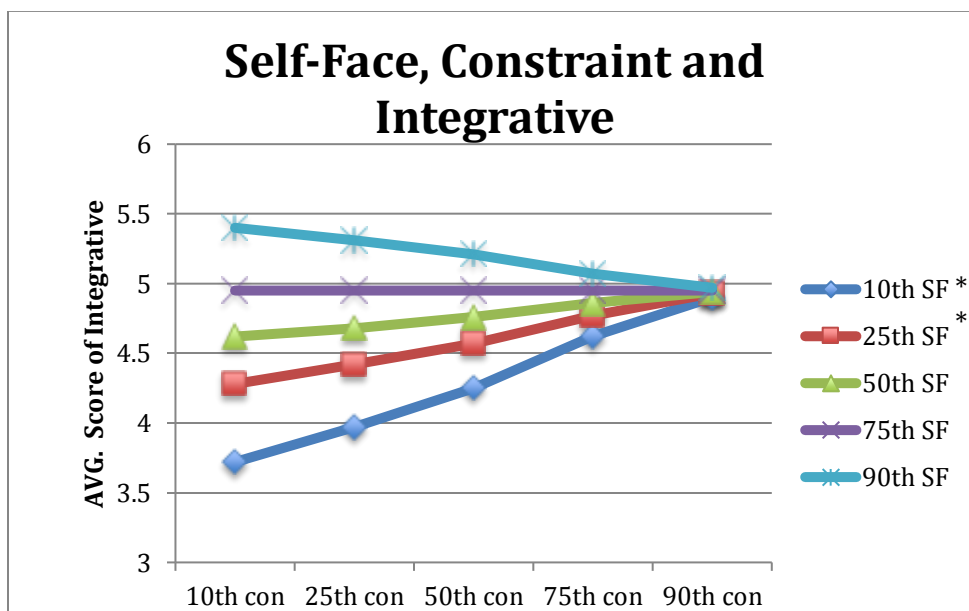


Figure 10. Simple slopes of constraint commitment significantly predicting integrative style with self-face concern at 10th and 25th percentile.

As shown in Table 31, constraint commitment was significantly related to integrative style when self-face concern was at the 25th percentile ($\beta = .26, t(349) = 3.32, p = .001$) or below.

Table 31
Conditional Effects of Constraint Commitment on Integrative Style with Self-Face

Self-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	0.49	0.13	3.86**
25th	0.27	0.08	3.33**
50th	0.13	0.09	1.48
75th	0	0.12	-1.95
90th	-0.18	0.18	-0.97

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The Johnson-Neyman techniques shows that the relationship between constraint commitment and integrative style is significant when self-face is less than -.14 standard deviation. When the self-face concern is below -.14 standard deviation, there is a significant and positive relationship between constraint commitment and integrative style. This interaction plot shows that there is a buffering effect on self-face concern with less than -.14 standard deviation. In other words, the self-face concern weakens the relationship between constraint commitment and integrative style. With increasing self-face concern under -.14 standard deviation, the effect of constraint commitment on integrative style decreases.

Other-face concern and personal dedication. The overall model (see Model 8 in Table 19), personal dedication ($\beta = .03, p = .59$), other-face concern ($\beta = .65, p < .001$) and the interaction ($\beta = -.10, p = .01$) between personal dedication and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .59, F(3,346) = 120.18, p < .001$. The interaction did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in integrative style, $\Delta R^2 =$

.01, $\Delta F(1, 346) = 6.46, p = .01$. Although personal dedication may not have an effect on integrative style when other-face concern was set to 0, it probably does have an effect with other values of other-face concern.

This interaction is illustrated in Figure 11. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of personal dedication on integrative style at the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 90th percentile of other-face concern.

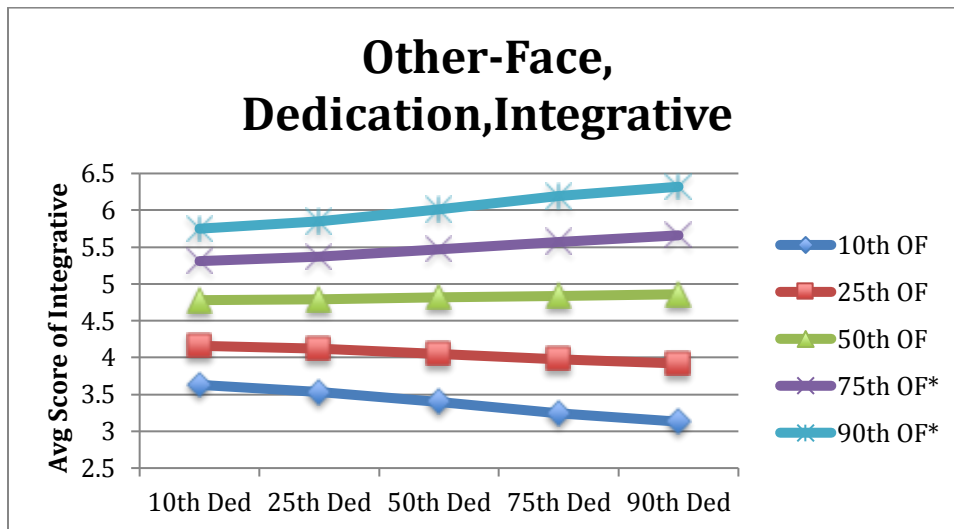


Figure 11. Simple slopes of personal dedication significantly predicting integrative style with other-face concern above 75th percentile.

As shown in Table 32, personal dedication significantly predicts for dominant style when other-face concerns is above the 75th percentile ($\beta = .13, t(349) = 2.64, p = .009$).

Table 32
Conditional Effects of Personal Dedication on Integrative Style with Other-Face Concern

Other-Face (percentile)	β	SE	t
10th	-0.18	0.11	-1.63
25th	-0.08	0.08	-1.08
50th	0.03	0.05	0.61
75th	0.13	0.05	2.64**
90th	0.21	0.07	3.08**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The Johnson-Neyman technique shows that when other-face concern is above .60 standard deviation, the personal dedication can positively predict for integrative style. The other-face concern had an enhancing effect on the relationship between the personal dedication and integrative style after other-face concern was above 75th percentile.

Other-face concern and constraint commitment. The overall model (see Model 11 in Table 23), constraint commitment ($\beta = .10, p = .03$), other-face concern ($\beta = .67, p < .001$), and the interaction ($\beta = .03, p = .67$) between constraint commitment and self-concern accounted for a significant amount of variance in integrative style, $R^2 = .58, F(3, 346) = .110, p < .001$. Although the overall model was significant, the interaction did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in integrative style, $\Delta R^2 = .0, \Delta F(1, 346) = .18, p = .67$. In other words, there was no moderating effect of other-face concern in integrative style.

Summary. Both self-face concerns and other-face concerns moderated the relationship between commitment and integrative style. In particular, when self-face concern was below 10th percentile, the personal dedication can positively predict the integrative style. Likewise, constraint commitment also positively predict integrative style when self-face concern was below 25th percentile. On the other hand, other-face concern only moderated the relationship between personal dedication and integrative style. When other-face concern was above 75th percentile, the personal dedication can positively predict integrative style.

Chapter V: Discussion

There were two primary purposes of this study. First, the current study extended the face-negotiation theory to the coping strategies in the context of discovering a partner’s sexual infidelity. In particular, the current study explored the national and gender differences on conflict styles toward a partner’s sexual infidelity. This chapter would focus on the implications of results and discuss the similarities and differences between the current study and the previous literature. In the later section of the chapter, I pointed out the limitation of this current study and the directions for the future studies. Table 31 provides an overview of hypotheses, the results, and the connection to previous literature. The findings are interpreted with the theoretical lens of face-negotiation theory and commitment theory.

Table 33.
Findings of Proposed Hypotheses Connected to Previous Literature

Hypothesis	Support through Results	Connection to Previous Literature
<p>H1a: The Taiwanese sample would have a higher mean score on an interdependent self-construal scale, but lower mean score on an independent self-construal scale than the U.S. sample.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taiwanese respondents have higher independent self-construal, which values individualistic characteristics, than the U.S. respondents. • There is no differ between Taiwanese and U.S. a respondent on 	<p>Findings were not consistent with the literature for self-construal. Taiwanese , who are the prototype sample of collectivism, had higher independent self-construal than the U.S. respondents, who are the prototype sample of individualism.</p>

	<p>interdependent self construal, which value group harmony.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • H1a is not supported 	
<p>H1b: Taiwanese men will have more self-face concerns and less other-face concerns than Taiwanese women, but there will be no gender differences for face concern in the U.S. samples.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taiwanese respondents have higher self-face concern than U.S. respondents. Taiwanese respondents would be more likely to protect their self-image in the context of sexual infidelity. • No gender difference was in self-face concern within nation. • U.S. women have the lowest other-face concern than other groups. U.S. women would be less likely to protect their partner's self-image than other groups. There is gender difference in U.S. sample. 	<p>Finding was consistent with past literature in the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Face concern is more apparent in Chinese culture. • The high self-face concern is associated with the context of sexual infidelity and the cultural values. Individuals would be more likely to • The independent self-construal is associated with self-face concern.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • H1b is not supported. 	
<p>H1c: Taiwanese women will use more avoidant but less dominating behaviors in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and both U.S. women and men.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taiwanese women would be more likely to use dominant style than other groups. • U.S. women would be less likely to use avoidant style than other groups. • U.S. women would be less likely to use integrative style than Taiwanese respondents. • H1c is not supported. 	<p>Findings were consistent with the literature in the followings:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consistent with the relational jealousy literature, Taiwanese women use more dominant style than Taiwanese men. <p>Findings were inconsistent with literature relating to culture values, Taiwanese women use more dominant style because they may not tolerate their partner's sexual infidelity than other groups.</p>
<p>H2: Both personal dedication and constraint commitment for all respondents will positively correlate with other-face concerns, but negatively correlate with self-face concerns.</p>	<p>Personal dedication and constraint commitment has small negative relationship with self-face concern. H2 was half supported.</p>	<p>Findings were consistent with commitment literature, respondents with high personal dedication and constraint commitment would be more likely to invest in their relationship after discovering the partner's sexual</p>

		infidelity.
<p>H3: Face concern has a moderating effect on the relationship between commitment and respondent's conflict behaviors for all respondents.</p>	<p>Avoidant style:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With medium level of self-face concern or mid-low level of other-face concern, personal dedication can significantly negatively predict the avoidant style. • With low self-face concern, constraint commitment can positively predict avoidant style. • With high self-face concern or medium level of other-face concern, the constraint commitment can negatively predict the avoidant style. <p>Integrative style</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With low self-face concern, both personal dedication and constraint 	<p>Overall, findings were novel than the literature, because the current study integrated both face negotiation theory and commitment theory. Findings supported both face-negotiation theory and commitment theory:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When perceiving low self-face threat or high concerns on protecting their partner's face, respondents may perceive the benefit of maintaining the relationship. In addition, when • When perceiving the need of protecting their partner's face, and the benefit of maintaining the relationship or the high cost of leaving the relationship, respondents might use less dominant style.

	<p>commitment can positively predict the integrative style.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With high other-face concern, personal dedication can positively predict integrative style. • No moderation for other-face concern on the relationship between constraint commitment and integrative style. <p>Dominant style</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With above mid-low level of other-face concern, both personal dedication and constraint commitment can negatively predict dominant style. • No moderation for self-face concern on either type of commitment <p>H3 was supported.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • With low self-face threat, respondent who perceive high cost of leaving their current relationship might use avoidant style. On the other hand, respondents who perceive high benefit of remaining relationship might be more likely to use integrative style. • With medium to high level of other-face concern, respondents who perceive high cost of leaving the relationship or high benefit of maintaining the relationship might be more likely to use avoidant style.
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Research Question 1: Gender and National Differences

Self-construal

Hypothesis 1a stated that Taiwanese respondents would have a higher interdependent self-construal but a lower independent self-construal than the U.S. respondents would. The current findings show that Taiwanese respondents presented higher independent self-construal than the U.S. respondents, and no difference was found in interdependent self-construal between nations. This finding suggests that the Taiwanese respondents presented more individualistic characteristics such as valuing their own uniqueness in comparison to the U. S. respondents. In addition, Taiwanese respondents presented a higher independent self-construal than an interdependent self-construal, whereas, the U.S. respondents presented a higher interdependent self-construal than independent self-construal. Thus, the H1a was rejected. Inconsistent with face negotiation literature (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 1998; Zhang et al., 2012, Fletcher et al., 2014) and self-construal studies (e.g. Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Kim et al., 2007), I did not find that self-construal reflects cultural characteristics. Taiwanese sample did not reflect that Taiwan is a prototype of collectivism and the U.S. sample did not reflect that U.S. is a prototype of individualistic culture in the current study. Rather, the respondents from Taiwan presented were more likely to express themselves and value their own personal uniqueness comparing to the U.S. respondents. This suggests that it is not necessary that individuals from collectivistic culture will present interdependent characteristics (Cross et al., 2002; 2011; Fletcher et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2007).

Previous face-negotiation studies have found a strong association between nation and self-construal, meaning that there were more individuals with an independent self-construal in the individualistic nations and more individuals with interdependent self-construal in the

collectivist nations (Fletcher et al., 2014). In the case of the Taiwanese participants in this study, the surprising results could be accounted for, perhaps, if there has been a decline in collectivism-oriented values and/or an increase of individualistic-oriented value in Taiwan over the past few decades (Hung, 2004). As Hung states, individualism may have increased alongside education level in Taiwan. Most of the Taiwanese respondents in the current study had a bachelor's degree, and it is therefore possible that my sample included more Taiwanese respondents who value their independent self-construal than interdependent self-construal. This observation is complicated by previous face-concern literature and self-construal literature examined the self-construal on college students. For instance, Lu and Chang (2007) found that Taiwanese college students actually valued interdependent characteristics more than individualistic characteristics. Perhaps, I did not find that my Taiwanese respondents had higher interdependent characteristics because most of them were older (i.e. not college-aged).

Although H1a did not examine the gender difference in self-construal, the current findings suggested that there was gender differences in self-construal. In particular, the U.S. men had higher interdependent self-construal and lower independent self-construal than U.S. women in the current study. Likewise, Taiwanese women also had higher independent self-construal than Taiwanese men in the current study. Inconsistent with previous studies (Cross & Madson, 1997; Foels & Tomcho, 2009; Guimod et al., 2006), my findings suggest that women were not prioritize the group benefit or the harmony of relationship in comparison to men. For instance, women may value of their own personal selfhood in comparison to men in the current study. They may value the freedom of expressing their own thoughts and feelings more than maintaining the harmony of the relationship (Kim et al., 2007; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This inconsistency between literature and current study could be due to the gender equality in

both nations. For instance, women in both country have equal opportunities in the labor force and education (Cherlin, 2010; Lai & Sarkar, 2017). When women have equal opportunity in education and labor force, people would have more egalitarian gender role attitudes (Goldscheider et al., 2015). Perhaps, women may have more egalitarian gender role attitudes in the both country, so they may have higher independent self-construal than men. Still, it is unclear why U.S. women had lower interdependent self-construal than U.S. men. Since there was no national difference in interdependent self-construal, gender egalitarian may not be able to explain the differences. Future studies could look into why there is gender differences in interdependent self-construal in the United States.

Face Concerns

Hypothesis H1b stated that Taiwanese men would present higher self-face concern and lower other-face concerns than Taiwanese women, but there would be no gender differences for face concern in the U.S. samples. The findings show that both Taiwanese men and women would be more likely to perceive self-face threat from discovering a partner's sexual infidelity in comparison to the U.S. men and women. In addition, there was no gender difference in the self-face concern. In other words, Taiwanese respondents would be more likely to protect their self-face (e.g. self-image or own honor) than the U.S. respondents when discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Regarding to the other-face concern, the current findings show that U.S. women perceived least other-face threat than U.S. men and Taiwanese men and women when discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. That is, U.S. women would be least likely to protect their partner's self-image or honor than other groups in the context of discovering partner's infidelity. To sum up, there was no gender difference in self-face concern and other-face concern

in Taiwan sample, but there was gender difference in other-face concern in the U.S. sample. The H1b was rejected.

The current study suggests that Taiwanese respondents perceive a higher self-face threat from a partner's sexual infidelity than the U.S. respondents do. Consistent with face negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1998), the independent self-construal is associated with self-face concern, and interdependent self-construal is associated with other-face concern. In the present study, the Taiwanese respondents had a higher independent self-construal than the U.S. respondents did. In addition, sexual infidelity may bring self-face threats (Afifi et al., 2001)—especially when the threat of sexual infidelity is associated with personal honor and reputation in Chinese culture (Chen, 2010; Chio & Yeh, 2011; Hui & Bond, 2009). Similar to the previous literature (Hui & Bond, 2009; Mak et al., 2009; Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998; Oetzel et al., 2001), self-face concerns were more salient in the Taiwanese respondents than for the U.S. respondents in the current study.

The current findings did not find that self-construal could fully explain the gender differences in self-face concern. According to the current findings, there was gender differences in independent self-construal in Taiwan sample, but I did not find gender differences in self-concern for Taiwanese sample. Likewise, I did not find gender difference in self-face concern in the U.S. sample, even though there was gender difference of independent self-construal in U. S. sample. These findings are contradict to face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1998) that self-construal would be relate to face-concerns. Nevertheless, face-negotiation theory also stated that individuals might perceive different face-concerns regarding to the context of situational contexts (Ting-Toomey, 2005; Oetzel, 2001). As Carpenter (2012) found, both women and men would have similar emotional distress toward sexual infidelity. Perhaps, there was no gender

differences in self-face concern, because both women and men perceive similar level of self-face threat in the context of sexual infidelity. However, there was gender difference in other-face concern, because the context of discovering a partner's infidelity is associated with more self-face threat than other-face threat (Afifi, et al., 2001). Consistent with face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey), the U.S. men had higher other-face concern than U.S. women, because U.S. men also had higher interdependent self-construal than the U.S. women. Even though the gender differences does not imply causality (Pedhazur & Schmelkin,1991), the current study findings supported the assumptions of face-negotiation.

Conflict Styles

H1c stated that Taiwanese women would use more avoidant style but less dominant style to cope with the partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men and the U.S. respondents. Surprisingly, Taiwanese women had the highest score on dominant behaviors and Taiwanese men had highest score on avoidant style in the current study. In other words, Taiwanese women would be more likely to use dominant behaviors to cope with their partner's sexual infidelity in comparison to Taiwanese men and U.S. men and women. Taiwanese men would be more likely to use avoidant style to cope with their partner's sexual infidelity than Taiwanese women and U.S. men and women. Therefore, hypothesis H1c was rejected. Although I did not hypothesize national and gender difference in integrative style, I found that Taiwanese respondents used more integrative style to cope with partner's sexual infidelity in comparison to the U.S women. Consistent with face-negotiation literature (e.g. Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003), Taiwanese respondents used more integrative style than the U.S. women, because U.S. women have the lowest other-face concern in the current study.

According to face-negotiation literature (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2014), dominant behaviors are associated with independent self-construal and self-face concern. The current study suggests that the Taiwanese respondents had a higher independent self-construal and self-face concern than the U.S. respondents. Consistent with the assumptions of face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1998), Taiwanese respondents were more likely to use dominant behaviors (e.g. passive aggression, emotional expression, and competing behaviors) than the U.S. respondents to cope with a partner's sexual infidelity. In addition, Hui and Bond (2009) found that respondents from Chinese culture might perceive higher self-face concern in a hurtful event in comparison to the respondents from American culture. Consistent with Hui and Bond (2009), the preliminary analysis for self-face concern revealed that Taiwanese respondents perceive higher self-face threat from the partner's sexual infidelity in comparison to the U.S. respondents. The current finding suggests that Taiwanese respondents were more likely to use dominant style than the U.S. respondents were, because they perceived higher self-face threat from their partner's sexual infidelity. Consistent with previous literature (Hui & Bond, 2009; Zhang et al., 2014), our findings suggests that self-face threat may be relate to retaliation or destructive behaviors in the context of sexual infidelity.

Inconsistent with Ting-Toomey et al. (1991), the face concerns cannot provide an insight of the gender differences in the dominant style, because there was no gender difference for face concerns in the Taiwanese sample and there was no gender difference in dominant style for the U.S. respondents. However, gender differences in emotional expression may be explained the gender difference in dominant style for the current study. Consistent with literature in relationship jealousy (Cheng, 2010; Leeker & Carlozzie, 2012; Srivillas & Singhakowinta, 2015), Taiwanese women were more likely to use dominant behaviors than Taiwanese men

because women are more upset at their partner's sexual infidelity more than men are. Although Taiwanese sample did not reflect with higher interdependent characteristics, cultural values may still play a role in conflict style (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel et al., 2003; Cheng; Li & Hsiao, 2008; Wang, 2010; 2012). For example, regarding to national differences in dominant style, the current findings suggested that female infidelity may be less acceptable in Chinese culture than American culture (Trent & South, 2012), so Taiwanese men use more dominant style than U.S. men in the current study. In consistent to the previous literature (Shen, 2005), the current findings did not suggest that Chinese women are more tolerated in their partner's sexual infidelity. Regarding the gender difference, it may be more acceptable for women to express their emotions than men in Chinese culture (Chang, 2011; Li & Hsiao).

In the current study, Taiwanese men and women were more likely to use avoidant style (i.e. neglect and obliged), and the U.S. women were least likely to use avoidant style when discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Additionally, there was no difference between Taiwanese women and U.S. men. This findings support face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003).. U.S. women who had least other-face concern in the current study were also the least likely to use avoidant style. Overall, the current findings suggested that Taiwanese respondents may be more tolerant toward infidelity, because tolerance has been reinforced in Chinese culture (Li & Hsiao, 2008). Consistent with Davies et al. (2012), our current findings suggest that avoidant style would allowed Taiwanese men to detach from emotional distress events than the U.S. men. In comparison to Chinese culture, emotional expression was encouraged in American culture (Fratraroli ,2006). This could help account for why there was nation difference in avoidance. U.S. women were more likely to feel and express their emotions, so they were least likely to use avoidant style. Nevertheless, it is still unclear why U.S. women

did not use more dominant style than Taiwanese men and women, if they were more likely to express their emotion. Future studies may need to look into the associations between emotional regulations and coping strategies toward sexual infidelity.

Overall, the current findings support the face-negotiation theory. The national differences in conflict style are related to the level of face concern. As U.S. women, who has the lowest other-face concern than other groups in the current study, are less likely to protect their partner's face when discovering their partner's sexual infidelity. Thus, U.S. women are less likely to use integrative style and avoidant style comparing to other groups in the current study. In aspect of national difference, Taiwanese respondents use more dominant style than the U.S. respondents because they have higher self-face concern. The current findings also support the relational jealous literature and literature related to Chinese culture. The gender differences in dominant style was found in Taiwanese respondents, because Taiwanese women are more likely to be emotional expressive and express more emotional upset toward the context of sexual infidelity than Taiwanese men.

Research Question 2: Correlation Between Commitment and Face Concerns

H2 stated that both personal dedication and constraint commitment would positively correlate with other-face concern, but negatively correlate with self-face concern. H2 was partially supported. According to the results of this study, both constraint commitment and personal dedication had a negatively correlation with self-face concern, but they were no correlation with other-face concern in the current study. As previously, mentioned, personal dedication refers to personal commitment or love, whereas constraint commitment refers to the investment size and the cost of leaving relationship (Stanley & Markmen, 1992). Our findings suggest that individuals who either perceive a high cost of leaving in the relationship or a high

benefit of staying in the relationship would be more likely to perceive less self-face threat from discovering the partner's sexual infidelity. Consistent with the literature on commitment (Finkle et al., 2002; Dillow et al., 2011; 2012), there has been an indication that individuals with higher commitment levels often see their partner as unique, and they were highly invested in their relationship. Thus, when facing a partner's infidelity, individuals with high commitment may want to persist in maintaining their relationship.

The preliminary data analysis showed that both personal dedication and constraint commitment were negatively associated with independent self-construal but were positively associated with interdependent self-construal. According to Markus and Kitayama(1992), individuals with high interdependent self-construal would be more likely to regulate emotional expression in order to maintain relationship harmony. Perhaps, the respondents with higher level of commitment would be more likely to suppress their personal needs and emotions arousing from the self-face threats in the context of partner's sexual infidelity. Nevertheless, the correlation between both types of commitment and self-face concern was low—complicated by the fact that there was no existing literature to examine face-concern and commitment. Future studies could be conducted to further explore the association between face concerns and other-face concerns.

Research Question 3: Moderating Effect of Face Concern

Some research scholars (Guerreo & Bachman; 2008; 2010; Weiser & Weigel, 2014) argued that relationship between commitment and conflict styles only exist in less severe of infidelity such as kissing and flirting. Nevertheless, the current study found the relationship between commitment and conflict styles in the context of sexual infidelity. Sexual infidelity was associated with face concerns (Afifi et al., 2001; Hui & Bond, 2009). The current study provided

an insight on how face concerns may affect the relationship between commitment and conflict styles. H3 stated that face concerns would moderate the relationship between commitment and conflict styles in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Moderator explains "when" the relationship between two variables would exist (Frazier et al., 2004). In other words, face concerns would inform "when" the relationship between commitment and conflict style would exist in the current study. H3 was supported by the current findings. In particular, self-face concern moderated the effect of constraint commitment and personal dedication on avoidant style and integrative style. The other-face concern moderated the effect of both types of commitment on avoidant style and dominant style. It is worth noting that other-face concern only moderated the effect of personal dedication on integrative style. In the following, I summarized the findings according to types of the conflict. Then, I would provide the interpretations of the current findings.

Avoidant Style

The current study revealed the relationship of commitment and avoidant style only exist with low self-face concern and both high self-face and other-face concerns in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. This finding was partially consistent with face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2014). Consistent with face-negotiation theory, respondents who perceived higher self-face threat were less likely to use avoidant style in the current study. Inconsistent with face negotiation theory, the respondents who perceived high other-face threat also used less avoidant style in the context of sexual infidelity. Unlike other face-negotiation research (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel; Zhang et al., 2016), the current study did not find the similar relationship between other-face concern and avoidant

style because of the level of commitment. In the present study, the level of commitment was the key predictor of avoidant style when controlling the level of face concerns.

In general, avoidant style refers to passively wait for the relationship to get better or deteriorated (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Weiser & Weigel, 2014; Zhang et al., 2012) . When perceiving high level of face concerns, the respondents with high level of commitment were less likely to use avoidant style in comparison to the respondents with lower level of commitment in the current study. Consistent with Dillow et al. (2011), high level of personal dedication and constraint commitment were associated with less avoidant style. With high level of personal dedication, the respondents may not find alternative relationship to replace their satisfaction and quality of relationship in the current relationship (Dillow et al., 2011; 2012;Stanley & Markmen, 1992). They may perceive high benefit of continuing the relationship, thus, they would be less likely to use avoidant style (Dillow et al., 2011;2012). On the other hand, respondents with high level of constraint commitment had invested many resources in their current relationship, so they may perceive the cost of leaving relationship may be high (Rhodes et al., 2010). Using avoidant style may have the chance to deteriorate the current relationship (Guerreo & Bachman, 2010). Thus, respondents with higher level of personal dedication or constraint commitment may take active coping strategies such as problem-solving or positive communications for post- sexual infidelity (Guerreo & Bachman, 2008;2010; Weiser & Weigel).

Of course, respondents who perceived high self-face threat may take active but destructive coping strategies (e.g. dominant behaviors, retaliation or ending relationship) instead of avoidant style (Hui & Bond, 2009; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Zhang et al., 2014). Yet, when perceiving low self-face threat in the context of sexual infidelity, respondents with higher constraint commitment were more likely to use avoidant style in the current study. Similar to

other scholars (Guerreo & Bachman, 2010; Weiser & Weigel 2014), respondents who invested great amount of resources in their current relationship may perceive higher cost of confronting their partner with less severe threats post-sexual infidelity in the current study.

Integrative Style

Although some scholars (e.g. Vallad & Dillow, 2014) did not find the associations between personal dedication (i.e. quality of relationship) and constructive behaviors in the context of sexual infidelity, the current findings revealed the association between personal dedication and constructive behaviors. In particular, the current findings discovered that only when perceiving low self-face threat or high other-face threat from the partner's sexual infidelity, respondents with high level of personal dedication would be more likely to use integrative style—such as problem solving or compromising. In addition, respondents with high level of constraint commitment would be more likely to use integrative style, when they perceive low self-face threat from partner's sexual infidelity in the current study. Consistent with face-negotiation literature (Hui & Bond, 2009; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2014), the current study suggests that low self-face or high other-face concerns are associated with higher integrative style. In accordance with face-negotiation theory, when respondents perceived low self-face or high other-face threat after discovering their partner's sexual infidelity, they were more likely to work on maintaining the harmony of the relationship (Zhang et al., 2014).

Regarding to the commitment theory, individuals with higher personal dedication level may perceive that the reward of continuing their relationship with their partner is greater than the cost of bearing the hurt feelings from the partner's sexual infidelity (Guerrero & Bachman, 2008; 2010). For instance, respondents with higher level of personal dedication may value the quality of relationship with their partners before discovering partner's sexual infidelity. They may also

think that their partner is unique and irreplaceable (Dillow et al., 2012). Therefore, they may perceive the benefit of maintaining relationship outweigh than the cost from partner's infidelity. Further, when individuals perceive higher other-face threat from partner's infidelity, they are more relationship oriented (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003). On the other hand, when individuals perceive lower self-face from partner's infidelity, they are less likely to prioritize in protecting themselves (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel). Thus, individuals with higher level of personal dedication may use constructive coping strategies in the context of partner's sexual infidelity, when they prioritize protecting their partner's face than their own face (Dillow et al., 2011). When respondent perceive low self-face threat from partner's sexual infidelity, the cost from the partner's sexual infidelity may be relatively smaller than the cost of leaving the relationship (Guerrero & Bachman, 2010). When self-face was mild in the context of partner's sexual infidelity, respondents may continue to work on their relationship after considering the time and money they have invested in their relationship (Rhodes et al., 2010; Weiser & Weigel, 2014).

Dominant Style

Dominant style include behaviors such as competitive, passive aggression and emotional expression in the current study. The current findings discovered that respondents with high level of personal dedication or constraint commitment were less likely to use dominant style when they perceive medium to high other-face threat from the partner's sexual infidelity. Consistent with commitment literature (Guerrero & Bachman, 2008; Rusbult et al., 1993; Vallad & Dillow, 2014), the findings in the current study suggests that a higher level of commitment are associated with less dominant behavior in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Moreover, consistent with face-negotiation literature (Hui & Bond, 2009; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2014), other-face concern was negatively associated with dominant

behaviors, because respondents with high other-face concern valued the harmony of the relationship and the importance of protecting their partner's self-image or reputation. Further, Zhang et al. (2014) stated that individuals with higher other-face concern often have compassion toward the other person. Perhaps, respondents with higher other-face concern may be more likely to have compassion toward their partner after discovering their partner's infidelity in the current study. Many scholars (e.g. Parker & Pattenden, 2009; Zhang et al., 2016) supported the compassion would help individuals to provide empathy to their partner within the context of infidelity. Taken together, the current study suggests that when respondents perceive middle to high other-face concern in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity, respondents with high commitment level may be more motivated in maintaining their relationship. Therefore, they would be less likely to use dominant style.

However, if the respondents only perceive low other-face threats from discovering their partner's sexual infidelity, their high commitment level would not reduce their use of dominant behaviors. Surprisingly, self-face concern did not present any moderating effect on either types of commitment. Consistent with face-negotiation research (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2003; Zhang et al., 2014), respondents with higher self-face concern would have higher dominant style. Perhaps, when the self-face concern was high from partner's sexual infidelity, the cost of losing own self-face outweigh the cost of leaving the relationship and the benefit of maintaining the relationship (Afifi et al., 2001; Gurrero & Bachman, 2010). The self-face concern did not present any moderating effect on the relationship between commitment and dominant styles.

In summary, respondents with low self-face concern in the context of sexual infidelity are less likely to prioritize in protecting their own self-image and reputation. With low self-face concern, respondents with high constraint commitment may perceive high cost of leaving their

current relationship and may be more likely to adopt avoidant style toward their partner's sexual infidelity. With low-self-face concern or high other-face concern which values protecting the partner's self-image and group harmony, respondents with high personal dedication commitment may still perceive the benefit of maintaining the relationship. So, they might be more likely to use integrative style toward their partner. When respondents who tend to protect other-face for their partner, respondents with either high personal dedication or commitment constraint may perceive the benefit of maintaining the relationship or the cost of leaving the relationship. Thus, they might be more likely to use dominant behaviors toward their partners in the context of sexual infidelity.

Limitations and Future Directions

There were several limitations to the current study. In this section, I will discuss both the limitations and the future directions for this line of inquiry.

First, the current study did not implement measurements for cultural values and gender roles. Using "nation" as the prototype for culture may not be a strong measure of culture values. In the current research, Taiwanese respondents did not reflect the characteristics of collective culture in terms of self-construal, however, Chinese culture values may still play a role in their conflict styles. Likewise, gender differences could be related to the cultural values toward gender roles. In order to accurately reflect cultural effect on conflict styles, I suggest that future research include culture measurement such as an individualism-collectivism survey (Singelis et al.,1995).

Second, the reliability of the survey was low for Taiwanese respondents. Even with a discussion of with concepts and the meaning of each survey question with the Taiwanese students, it is still possible that the translated survey did not establish conceptual or functional equivalences. For instance, Li and Hsiao (2008) point out that the function of avoidance in

Chinese culture may differ than the Western culture. As an example, for Chinese culture, avoidance may be inferred as tolerance (Li & Hsiao, 2008). Furthermore, the current study grouped the eight conflict styles into three groups: avoidance, integrative, and dominant. Thus, it is hard to distinguish if there was a true moderation effect of face concerns for each of the eight conflict styles. A future study should utilize exploratory factor analysis to ensure that each conflict style would fall into the same three categories (Klien, 2011).

Related to the equivalence of cross-cultural study, the current study did not collect samples with similar demographic features. As Fletcher et al. (2014) suggests, cross-cultural studies have a more precise comparison between samples with similar demographic features such as age, education level, and socioeconomic status... etc. For instance, the current study had samples with large age gaps, and yet age could affect coping styles toward infidelity (Lara, 2012). Future studies should try to collect samples with similar demographic features. .

Third, the current study did not assess the respondents' perception of severity of infidelity in the hypothetical scenario. It is therefore debatable whether or not the hypothetical infidelity may bring actual responses to infidelity. The self-reported conflict behaviors may not be the desired reaction, but not as accurate as an actual situation (Johnson, 2013). Moreover, Kato (2014) also found the gender differences in relational jealousy only when participants vividly imagined the scenario. Hence, to be more accurately examine the coping strategies toward sexual infidelity, future studies could assess how participants perceive the severity of each hypothetical scenario of sexual infidelity (Waldron & Kelley, 2005). Furthermore, the current study only examines the individual conflict styles instead of the dyadic responses toward the infidelity. The future studies could investigate conflict styles in the dyadic level in the context of sexual infidelity in order to capture a more comprehensive view.

Forth, the current research did not assess the emotional responses toward the hypothetical sexual infidelity scenario. As prior literature (e.g. Zhang et al., 2016) suggests, conflict styles may vary by different emotional responses toward sexual infidelity. Future research could also explore how emotional responses toward sexual infidelity may affect the relationship among face concerns, commitment, and conflict style. Fifth, the current study did not measure the level of commitment post-sexual infidelity. Vallad and Dillow (2014) suggested that the level of commitment might decrease after discovering the partner's infidelity. Respondents may choose coping strategies based on their post commitment instead of the level of commitment before discovering the partner's infidelity. Future studies may compare if the pre-commitment level and post-commitment would bring the same findings in the current study.

Last but not the least, the current study measured the moderating effects of self-face concern and other-face concern separately. Hayes (2012) proposes that there are different types of moderation model. The current study only examined a simple moderation model. Nevertheless, self-face concern and other-face concern may moderate the conflict style at the same time. In addition, the current study did not find the moderating effect of self-face concern in the relationship between commitment and dominant style. It is possible that commitment is the moderator for the relationship between self-face concern and dominant style. Future studies could explore the moderating effects of both self-face and other-face concern on the relationship between commitment and the conflict style. In addition, future studies could examine the moderating effect of commitment on the relationship between self-face concern and dominant style. Further, the current study did not examine the moderate effect in both nation. The future research could compare the moderating effect in both nation.

Conclusion

There are three prominent contributions from the current study. First, the current study demonstrates that nation may not be a good measurement for predicting conflict styles. At the same time, the current study replicated the current understanding of face-negotiation theory. Face concerns may be a more reliable measurement for conflict style in the context of discovering a partner's sexual infidelity. Second, the current study discovered that gender differences in conflict style appeared in the context of discovering infidelity. Unlike face-negotiation studies (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012; Oetzel et al., 2007), the current study shows that gender difference in face concerns and conflict styles may appear in the context of discovering sexual infidelity. Third, the current study integrated face-negotiation theory and the commitment theory to examine the coping strategies in the context of discovering the partner's sexual infidelity. More specifically, the current study sheds light on identifying the moderating effect of face concern on the relationship between commitment and conflict styles. The current study discovered that not all highly committed and married individuals would decide to continue their marital relationship. Rather, if the individuals perceive higher self-threat from the contexts of sexual infidelity, individuals may use more behaviors that are destructive.

As the increasing needs of serving diverse populations in marriage and family therapy field (McGoldrick et al., 2005), it is imperative to acknowledge that individuals may not necessarily develop their own self-identity or personal traits according to their cultural values. For instance, individuals from collectivistic culture may value group harmony, but they may also emphasized their own uniqueness. Likewise, individuals from individualistic culture may value their freedom of speech, but they could also emphasized on maintaining harmony of the relationship. In aspect of conflict style across nations, the findings of current study were not consistent with literatures regarding to cultural differences. Unlike previous literature (e.g. Shen,

2005) found, Taiwanese women are not more tolerate to their partners' sexual infidelity due to the cultural values. Instead, Taiwanese women use more dominant behaviors toward their partner's infidelity. The current findings suggest that individual behaviors may not exactly reflect cultural values. As I mentioned in the limitation, the national and gender differences in conflict style does not imply the causality. For instance, I could not conclude that U.S. women will be less likely to use constructive behaviors such as problem-solving behaviors in the context of discovering their partners' sexuality. Rather, it is possible that U.S. women may use coping behaviors that are out of the survey. It is also possible different coping style may be interpreted differently in different cultural values and the context of sexual infidelity (Zhang et al., 2012). Future studies may include qualitative research method to investigate the purpose and the meaning of coping strategies toward partners' sexual infidelity in different nations.

The current study cannot provide insight on dyadic level, but it may provide insight on individual level of coping strategies in the crisis stage of discovering the partner's infidelity As face-negotiation literature (e.g. Zhang et al., 2016) and commitment literature (Rusbult et al., 2002) indicate, constructive behaviors such as integrative behaviors may be associated with forgiveness process, but dominant behaviors may lead to destruction of the relationship in the context of betrayal. Additionally, avoidance may hinder the process of forgiveness (Chang, 2014). According to the past literature, higher commitment may associate with constrictive behaviors and less dominant behaviors (e.g. Rusbult et al., 2012 ; Rhodes et al., 2011). Nevertheless, not all individuals with high commitment level would present constructive behaviors in the context of sexual infidelity (Weiser & Weigel, 2014). The current study provides an overview on when the commitment may be associated with positive constructive behaviors.

The current study suggested how individuals perceive the face threats from their partners' sexual infidelity may be associated with individual coping strategies. The current study suggested individuals with high commitment may be more likely to use constructive behaviors and less destructive behaviors when perceive the low self-face threat or high other-face threat in the context of sexual infidelity. Even though the findings cannot provide specific implications in couple therapy, the current study suggests the importance of assessing individual perceptions on face threats in the context of sexual infidelity. . Forgiveness has been recognized as the most effective coping strategies toward a partner's sexual infidelity (Chi, 2011; Greensburg et al., 2010), but not all individuals are ready for the forgiveness process. While assessing the individual perception of face threat, the clinicians may have greater understanding on individual's coping strategies or may have a greater sense on whether forgiveness treatment would be a good fit for the individuals.

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Appendix A
Demographic Questions

1. What is your relationship status? (Please check all that apply)
 - Married
 - Widowed
 - Divorced
 - Separated
 - Engaged
 - Premarital cohabited
 - Single and never married
 - Other (Please specify) _____

2. What is your nationality?
 - The U.S.
 - Other _____

3. Your gender:
 - Male
 - Female
 - Other _____

4. Choose one or more races that you consider yourself to be:
 - White or European American
 - Black or African American
 - American Indian or Alaska Native
 - Asian
 - Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - Latino/ Hispanic
 - Middle Eastern
 - Other _____

5. What is your age? (Enter the number only)

6. What is the highest degree you have received?
 - Less than high school degree
 - High school graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED)
 - Some college but no degree
 - Associate degree in college (2-year)
 - Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)
 - Master's degree
 - Doctoral degree

7. If any, how many children do you have ?

8. How many years have you been married or dating with your partner?

Appendix B
Commitment Inventory

1. My friends would not mind if my partner and I broke up (or divorced).
2. I could not bear the pain it would cause my partner to leave him/her even if I really wanted to.
3. It would be relatively easy to take the steps needed to end this relationship.
4. I would have trouble finding a suitable partner if this relationship ended
5. I have put a number of valuable material resources into this relationship.
6. I would not have any problem with meeting my basic financial needs for food, shelter, and clothing without my partner.
7. The process of ending this relationship would require many difficult steps.
8. My family would not care if I ended this relationship.
9. I want this relationship to stay strong no matter what rough times we encounter.
10. I think a lot about what it would be like to be married to (or dating) someone other than my partner.
11. My career (or job, studies, etc.) is more important to me than my relationship with my partner.
12. I may not want to be with my partner a few years from now.
13. The steps I would need to take to divorce or end this relationship would require a great deal of time and effort.
14. If my partner and I divorced or ended this relationship, I would feel fine about my financial status.

15. It would be difficult for my friends to accept it if I got divorced or ended my relationship.
16. I would not have trouble supporting myself should this relationship end.
17. I believe there are many people who would be happy with me as their spouse or partner.
18. Though it might take a while, I could find another desirable partner if I wanted or needed to.
19. I have put very little money into this relationship.
20. If I really felt I had to leave this relationship, I would not be slowed down by concerns for how well my partner would do without me.
21. My relationship with my partner is more important to me than almost anything in my life.
22. I like to think of my partner and me more in terms of “us” and “we” than “me” and “him/her.”
23. My relationship with my partner is clearly part of my future life plans.
24. I do not want to have a strong identity as a couple with my partner.

Appendix C

Self-Construal Scale

Independent self-construal

1. It is important for me to be able to act as a free and independent person
2. I try not to depend on my partner.
3. I prefer to be self-reliant rather than depend on my partner.

Interdependent self-construal

4. I respect the decisions made by my partner.
5. My relationship with my partner is more important than winning arguments between us.
6. I sacrifice my self-interests for the benefits of our relationship.
7. I am sensitive to the wishes of my partner

Appendix D

Face Concern Scales

1. I would be concerned with the poise of my partner (e.g. not to make my partner feel embarrassed).
2. I would maintain a one-down position to preserve the relationship.
3. I would help to maintain my partner's pride.
4. I would be concerned with helping my partner maintain his/her credibility
5. I would maintain peace in our interactions.
6. I would try to be sensitive to my partner's self-worth.
7. I would be concerned with not bringing shame to myself.
8. I would be concerned with not appearing weak in front of my partners.
9. I would be concerned with protecting my personal pride.

Appendix E

Conflict Management Measurement Style Scale

Avoidance

1. I would usually bear my resentment in silence.
2. I would say nothing and wait for things to get better.
3. I would generally keep quiet and wait for things to improve.
4. I tried to downplay the importance of the disagreement.

Integration

1. I would work with the other person to reach a joint resolution to our conflict
2. I would try to get us to work together to settle our differences.
3. I would make sure my partner realized that resolving our differences was important.
4. I would tell the my partner that there were problems and suggest that we work them out

Third Party Help

1. I would ask a third party to make a decision about how to settle the dispute between my partner and myself.
2. I would rely on a third person/close friend to negotiate a resolution in this scenario.
3. I would typically go through a third party to settle our conflict.
4. I would ask another person to help negotiate a disagreement with my partner about his/her behavior

Neglect

1. Out of anger, I would say things to damage my partner's reputation.
2. I would say nasty things about the partner to other people.
3. I would say and do things out of anger to make my partner feel bad.

4. While in the presence of my partner, I would act as though he/she did not exist. .

Compromising

1. I would try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.
2. I would win some and lose some so that a compromise could be reached.
3. I would usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.
4. I would use a "give and take" so that a compromise could be made.

Dominating

1. I would use my authority to make a decision in my favor.
2. I would use my expertise to make a decision in my favor.
3. I would sometimes use my power to win conflicts in this scenario.
4. I would persuade my partner that my way was the best way

Emotional Expression

1. I would be emotionally expressive in the conflict situation.
2. I would prefer my partner to be emotionally expressive with me in the conflict situation.
3. I would use my feelings to determine what I should do in this scenario.
4. I would use my feelings to determine whether to trust my partner.

Obliging

1. I would try to satisfy the conflict expectations of my partner
2. I would give in to my partner's wishes
3. I would try to satisfy the need of my partner
4. I would go along with the suggestions of my partner

Appendix E

Cronbach's Alpha for Each Conflict Style

Cronbach's Alpha for Each Conflict Style		
	USA	Taiwan
Avoidance	0.88	0.76
Compromise	0.90	0.75
Dominant	0.66	0.63
Emotional	0.65	0.57
Integration	0.93	0.62
Oblige	0.91	0.82
Passive Aggression	0.83	0.83
Third Party	0.93	0.90