

T.C
DOKUZ EYLUL UNIVERSITY
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MASTER’S THESIS

**THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURE AND CONTEXT ON CONFLICT
MANAGEMENT PREFERENCES OF ACADEMICS
IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS**

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IZMIR -2019

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this doctoral thesis titled as “The Influence of Culture and Context on Conflict Management Preferences of Academics in Higher Education Institutions” has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

..... /...../ 2019

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ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

The Influence of Culture and Context on Conflict Management Preferences of Academics in Higher Education Institutions

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This study investigated how the conflict management process preferences of academics changed in five different conflict scenarios, namely value, relationship, structural, interest, and data conflicts, and explored how these preferences were related to participants' cultural values such as Horizontal Individualism, Vertical Individualism, Horizontal Collectivism and Vertical Collectivism. In this way, it is aimed to contribute to the management and resolution of the conflicts experienced by academics and to the implementation and development of effective and efficient conflict management systems in higher education institutions.

Participants were 1925 (1017 females and 902 males) academics with salient collectivistic tendencies working in 199 universities from 79 different cities in Turkey. Through an online questionnaire the cultural values of academics were collected. Then, they rated to what extent each of the ten different conflict management processes were proper in management of the five different types of conflicts given in the scenarios.

The results indicated that horizontal collectivism was positively related to the appropriateness scores of interest-based processes, namely negotiation, transformative mediation, peer mediation, evaluative mediation, interest-based mediation and ombuds. On the other hand, the vertical individualism was positively related to appropriateness scores of rights-based processes, namely litigation, arbitration, internal grievance and external grievance. Ombuds and arbitration were found to be mixed-motive processes since they were related to more than one dimension of culture.

The scores given for appropriateness of the processes changed significantly with the change of the conflict scenario. Mean scores of conflict management processes followed certain traits with respect to conflict type. Litigation and external grievance scores followed similar traits. Similarly, transformative mediation, negotiation, peer mediation and evaluative mediation mean scores followed similar traits. However the traits of change for interest-based and rights-based processes were quite different from each other.

Transformative mediation emerged as the most appropriate process for management of all of the conflicts given in scenarios and this was followed by peer mediation. On the other hand, lowest scores were obtained for external grievance and litigation indicating that these methods were perceived to be inefficient by academics in management of the interpersonal conflicts given in the scenarios.

Keywords: Integrated Conflict Management Systems, Horizontal Collectivism, Vertical Collectivism, Horizontal Individualism, Vertical Individualism, Negotiation, Mediation, Ombudsman, Arbitration, Grievance, Litigation.

ÖZET
Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Kültür ve Bağlamın Yüksek Öğretim Kurumlarında Çalışan
Akademisyenlerin Çatışma Yönetimi Tercihlerine Etkisi
Davut AKBULUT

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Bu çalışma, akademisyenlerin çatışma yönetimi süreci tercihlerinin değer, ilişki, yapısal, menfaat ve veri çatışmaları gibi beş farklı çatışma senaryosunda nasıl değiştiğini ve bu tercihlerin katılımcıların Yatay Bireycilik, Dikey Bireycilik, Yatay Kolektivizm ve Dikey Kolektivizm gibi kültürel değerleriyle nasıl ilişkili olduğunu incelemektedir. Bu şekilde araştırmanın akademisyenlerin yaşadığı çatışmaların yönetimine ve yükseköğretim kurumlarında etkin ve verimli çatışma yönetimi sistemlerinin tasarımına ve geliştirilmesine katkıda bulunması amaçlanmıştır.

Katılımcılar Türkiye'nin 79 farklı kentinden 199 üniversitede çalışan ve belirgin kolektivist eğilimleri olan 1925 (1017 kadın ve 902 erkek) akademisyendir. Çalışmada çevrimiçi bir anket aracılığıyla öncelikle akademisyenlerin kültürel değerleri toplanmıştır. Akademisyenler daha sonra, on farklı çatışma yönetimi sürecinin her birinin, senaryolarda verilen beş farklı çatışma tipinin yönetiminde ne derece uygun olduğunu belirlemişlerdir.

Sonuçlar, yatay kolektivizmin, müzakere, dönüştürücü arabuluculuk, akran arabuluculuk, değerlendirici arabuluculuk, menfaat-temelli arabuluculuk ve ombuds gibi menfaat-temelli süreçlerin ortalama puanlarıyla pozitif ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Öte yandan, dikey bireycilik puanlarıyla, hak-temelli tahkim, mahkeme, kurum içine şikayet ve kurum dışına şikayet gibi süreçlerin ortalama puanları arasında da pozitif bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür. Ombuds ve tahkim, süreçlerinin ortalama puanlarının ise birden fazla kültür boyutuyla ilişkili oldukları ve bu yönüyle karma süreçler olarak değerlendirilebilecekleri görülmüştür.

Çalışmada, çatışma senaryosunun değişmesiyle süreçlerin uygunluğuna verilen puanların önemli ölçüde değiştiği de gözlenmiştir. Çatışma yönetimi süreçlerinin ortalama puanları, çatışma türüne göre belli bir eğilim takip etmektedir. Dava ve dış şikayet puanlarındaki değişim benzer bir eğilime sahiptir. Benzer şekilde, dönüştürücü arabuluculuk, müzakere, akran arabuluculuk ve değerlendirici arabuluculuk puanlarının anlaşmazlık çeşidine bağlı olarak değişimleri de benzer bir eğilime sahiptir. Ancak, menfaat-temelli ve hak temelli süreçlerdeki değişimin birbirlerinden farklı olduğu gözlenmiştir.

Bu çalışmada dönüştürücü arabuluculuk, senaryolarda verilen tüm çatışmaların yönetimi için en uygun süreç olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. İkinci en uygun yöntem de akran arabuluculuğu olmuştur. Öte yandan, dış şikayet ve dava yoluyla anlaşmazlıkların çözümü için verilen puanlar çok düşüktür çıkmıştır. Bu da bu süreçlerin akademisyenler tarafından senaryolarda verilen kişilerarası çatışmaların yönetiminde etkili yöntemler olarak algılanmadığına işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bütünleşik Çatışma Yönetimi Sistemleri, Yatay Kolektivizm, Dikey Kolektivizm, Yatay Bireycilik, Dikey Bireycilik, Müzakere, Arabuluculuk, Ombudsmanlık, Tahkim, Şikayet, Dava.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
CMS	Conflict Management Systems
ICMS	Integrated Conflict Management Systems
IC	Individualism-Collectivism
IDV	Individualism
PD	Power Distance
HI	Horizontal Individualism
VI	Vertical Individualism
HC	Horizontal Collectivism
VC	Vertical Collectivism

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INTRODUCTION

A conflict free workplace has never existed. Conflicts are just unavoidable and an integral part of life and organizations. Some people have a negative view of conflict, while some others think that conflict is just natural and may have positive as well as negative consequences on both individuals and organizations. In this view, what makes a conflict functional or dysfunctional is not the conflict itself but the reaction given to the conflict. A well-managed conflict leads to positive outcomes while a poorly managed conflict leads to negative outcomes. Coping efficiently and effectively with conflicts is one of the most important aspects of the organizational management.

Three approaches may be employed to manage conflicts, namely power-based approach, rights-based approach and interest-based approaches. Right-based and power-based strategies tended to produce adversarial relationships and increases both economical and psychological cost of the conflict, while reconciling interests costs less and yields more satisfactory results than determining who is right, which in turn costs less and satisfies more than determining who is more powerful (Ury, Brett, & Goldberg, 1988). A fourth and a more comprehensive approach, Integrated Conflict Management System (ICMS), emerges as all the options for conflict resolution available in interest-based, rights-based and power-based processes and some other preventive and corrective conflict management mechanisms are combined together.

The way people deal with conflict is closely related to their orientation towards conflict, and to how conflict is defined. If someone thinks that conflict is necessarily dysfunctional and have always negative consequences, then he/she will probably try to avoid the conflict. If someone has a perception that although conflict is dysfunctional it is inevitable then she/he will likely try to resolve it as soon as possible. If she thinks that conflict is natural and may have positive as well as negative consequences then she follows a contingency approach where some sort of conflicts are effectively managed, while some others are either avoided or resolved as soon as possible. If someone has a view that conflict is necessary in some situations, she would probably ignore or even encourage the conflict, rather than avoiding it, or trying to resolve it at the lowest possible level. When conflict is perceived and defined as a struggle over scarce resources, competition over these resources is inevitable, and people can take a dominating or a compromising stance. In contrast, when it is defined

as a crisis in human interaction it is necessary to focus on the relationship rather than on the substantive outcome and take an obliging or an integrating stance.

Much of the research on organizational conflict management is related to conflict management styles, namely avoiding, obliging, dominating, compromising, and integrating (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Deutsch, 1949; Follett, 2003; Pruitt, 1983; M. A. Rahim, 1983). There is also a large body of research on the factors affecting these conflict management styles (Brewer, Mitchell, & Weber, 2002; Holt & DeVore, 2005; Kim, Yamaguchi, Kim, & Miyahara, 2014; Thomas, Thomas, & Schaubhut, 2008; Ting-Toomey, Oetzel, & Yee-Jung, 2001). In these studies, one of the major objectives of managing organizational conflicts is to enhance organizational learning that will influence long-term effectiveness (Rahim, 2001, p. 63) of organizations by giving the priority to integrating or problem-solving style. According to Rahim, both managers and employees should be trained to enable them select and use the most appropriate style for managing their interpersonal conflicts in various conflict situations (Rahim, 2002). After a successful training, the responsibility should be delegated to the organizational members so that they can manage their own conflict by themselves. This process intervention requires support from the top management and a collaborative organizational culture that supports learning (French & Bell, 1995). Structural intervention, that is, attaining and maintaining a moderate amount of substantive conflict and reducing the incidence of affective conflict by altering the sources of these conflicts (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979) is another effective and proactive way of managing interpersonal conflict in organizations.

The above-mentioned process and structural interventions have a great value in management of organizational conflicts. However, they fall short in responding to the needs of disputants in culturally diverse workplaces. I to handle their interpersonal conflicts effectively. Training the organizational members about the conflict management styles so as to enable them solve their differences for themselves is a good idea, however assuming that the conflicting parties can manage all of their conflicts on their own is problematic. It is clear that this approach ignored the role of the third parties in management of workplace conflicts and the question ‘What will happen when the negotiation between the conflicting parties fail?’ remained unanswered. However, in many conflict situations, the third party assistance is necessary and without the assistance of third parties, many workplace conflicts cannot be managed effectively and efficiently. Previous research indicated that cultural values

such as individualism and collectivism may have an effect on conflict management preferences and conflict management styles approach which is a rather individualistic approach that may not work well for organizational members with salient collectivistic values.

Responding to the needs of organizational members with different cultural values and in many different conflict situations is a big challenge. Providing a wide range of formal rights-based and interest-based conflict management processes such as mediation, arbitration, grievance, and ombuds is one of the best ways to respond to the needs of organizational members. Thus, conflicting parties holding different cultural values can select any of the processes that best suits their needs in different conflict situations. An even better way is to integrate those processes to the day-to-day organizational management.

According to Rahim (2001, p. 65) existing conflict resolution strategies that emphasize negotiation, mediation, and arbitration processes within the existing structure of an organization fall short in management of organizational conflicts effectively, since they do not involve significant changes in the functioning of the organizations and maintain status quo. I do not agree on that, however, since this argument misses the role of organizational ombudsmen as a change agent (Bloch & Erbe, 2010; Wagner, 2000). As it is discussed in Chapter 2 of this study in detail, the ombudsman is ideally situated within the organization to make recommendations to the top management for systemic change, based on patterns of complaint brought to their office (Bloch & Erbe, 2010). In addition, the ombudsman has an obligation to act to prevent recurrence of dysfunctional future conflicts and to help individuals improve their conflict management skills (Rowe et al, 2014; Rowe, 2012). Nonetheless, Rahim (2001) recognized integrated conflict management systems where right-based, and interest-based processes are combined into innovative systems and integrated to day-to-day management of organizations for prevention, management, and resolution of organizational conflicts, and cited such systems in Motorola, General Electric, Xerox and Honda as effective means of organizational conflict management.

Integrated conflict management systems can be designed in a top-down fashion by the management or in a bottom-up fashion in collaboration with organizational members. The design process is very important, and the designed system should meet the needs of organizational members. Otherwise, it is not going to be used or its use is going to be limited. It is not possible to design an effective conflict management

program unless the problems of defensive reactions and routines are recognized and confronted (Rahim, 2001). In case of a top-down design the management would need to know the personal and cultural characteristics of individuals and what kind of conflict management processes are compatible with these features. On the other hand, in a bottom-up design organizational members inform the management about what kind of processes best suits their needs. The method used in this study contribute to both kinds of design.

Either combined in a system or used separately, the conflict management processes are the tools in hand for management of workplace conflicts. In this study, ten different conflict management processes were identified. These are negotiation, transformative mediation, peer mediation, interest-based mediation, evaluative mediation, ombuds, arbitration, internal (in-house) grievance, external grievance and litigation. Then the appropriateness of these processes for managing value, relationship, structural, interest and data conflict was rated by academics in Turkey. As can be seen from the classification of conflict management processes, in this study, it is assumed that the mediation practice is not monolithic and there will be a difference between different kinds of mediations, since they have different worldviews. Similarly, a difference between external-internal grievance processes is also assumed. This constitutes an important difference of this study from the existing literature on organizational conflict management.

This study mainly aims to explore on how cultural values, namely individualism and collectivism along horizontal and vertical dimensions are related to conflict management processes, and how appropriateness of these conflict management processes change in different situational contexts (different kinds of conflicts). This way the study provide the information needed by the top management and it contributes to an effective top-down design of conflict management systems. On the other hand, by identifying the most appropriate conflict management processes in value, relationship, structural, interest and data conflicts (Moore, 1996; 2003) it also contributes to a collaborative, bottom-up design of effective conflict management systems that suit the needs of Turkish academicians. This way the author aims to contribute to design and implementation of effective and efficient conflict management programs in higher education institutions of Turkey.

CHAPTER ONE

CONFLICT AND ITS MANAGEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

Conflict is an integral part of all our lives; yet only few of us have the skills to recognize, confront, manage, resolve conflict and if possible, transform it from a painful destructive process into a dynamic, constructive, and peaceful process of cultural, social, economic or political change (Reardon, 2001, pp. 103–104).

In this chapter, the first section starts with several definitions of the conflict and then it summarizes some of its negative and positive consequences. The second section is about the conflict management in organizations. It summarizes theories of conflict and the three main conflict management approaches, namely power-based, right-based, and interest-based approaches. The third section is about the integrated conflict management systems (ICMS). ICMS combines power-based, right-based, and interest-based processes in a system and integrate them to day-to-day management of organizations for prevention, management, and resolution of conflicts in organizations.

1.1 WHAT IS CONFLICT?

There are many ways to define conflict. It is very important how one defines conflict, since the way you define the conflict, directly affects the way you deal with it. In the current literature, one can find many different definitions of conflict. Conflict is an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (M. Afzalur Rahim, 2017, p. 16). Conflict is a real or perceived divergence of interests (Lebow, Pruitt, & Rubin, 1986; Pondy, 1967; Dean G. Pruitt & Warr, 1981), a crisis in human relationship or interaction (Pope, Bush, 2000) incompatible activities (Deutsch, 1969; Tjosvold & van de Vliert, 1994). Conflict is a struggle over values and claims to scarce resources, status, and power in which the aim is to neutralize, injure or eliminate the rivals (Coser, 1956). Conflict can be best understood as a dynamic process (Pondy, 1967) and it begins when one party makes a claim or demand on another who rejects it (Ury et al., 1988). The claim may arise from a perceived injury or from a need or aspiration. According to the researcher, conflict is an interactive, dynamic process revealed as result of incompatible differences between two entities and leads to constructive, destructive or neutral outcomes depending on the way it is managed.

For a long time, conflict was viewed from a negative perspective. Most people have never considered the positive aspects of conflict. The intellectual atmosphere prevalent during the period when social psychology began to emerge contributed to viewing conflict from the perspective of competition (Deutsch, Coleman, & Marcus, 2014, p. xxx). Darwin's "competitive struggle for existence" and "survival of the fittest", Marx's "class struggle", and Freud's struggle between "id and the superego" all contributed to this negative view of conflict. From this competitive "win-lose" perspective of the conflict, it is clear that conflicts will have negative consequences. Competitive processes in which the conflicting parties struggle to determine who wins and who loses, usually ends up with lose-lose outcomes. Not only competitive conflict processes but also conflict avoidance leads to destructive outcomes. An unaddressed conflict is likely to escalate (D. G. Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Parties in an escalated conflict use contentious tactics to try to win. When these tactics become increasingly negative and harmful, conflicts have devastating effects on the organization as well as employees (De Dreu, 2008). Table 1 shows some of the destructive outcomes of conflict (Butts, 2016).

Table 1. Possible destructive outcomes of conflict	
<i>Possible effects on a personal level</i>	<i>Possible effects on an organizational level</i>
Anxiety, irritation	Decreased participation
Fear	Poor leadership
Depression	Solving the wrong problem
Difficulty focusing	Not solving the problem
Detachment	Absenteeism
Physical and psychosomatic ailments	Declining revenue
Apathy, burnout	Increased employee turn-over rate
Loss of commitment to job	Increased human resources costs
Loss in interest in job	Costs of training new employees
Loss of commitment to organization	Tension
Increasing frustration	Distracted leaders
Increasingly poorer communication	Absorbs energy
Feelings of isolation	Energy diverted to conflict
Loss of self-esteem	Decreased attention to positive activity
Distraction from work objectives	Decreased creativity
Decrease in personal work performance	Low morale
Decrease in creativity	Power struggles
Decrease in productivity	Decreased trust and increased distrust
Stress	Decreased communication

Source: Taken from Butts, T. (2016). Manager as mediator: Attitude, technique, and process in constructive conflict resolution in the workplace. In *Advancing workplace mediation through integration of theory and practice* (pp. 189–217).

On the other hand, there are many other approaches suggesting that the disputes are not necessarily destructive, and can lead to positive outcomes when properly managed. For example, a cooperative or win-win orientation to resolving a conflict enormously facilitates constructive resolution (Deutsch et al., 2014, p. 15). This shows that conflict is not necessarily dysfunctional and has both positive and negative consequences. What makes a conflict destructive or constructive is the reaction given to the conflict. In most cases the way one deals with the conflict, rather than the conflict itself, determines outcomes of that conflict. Conflict in an organization can actually be positive in the following ways (Berthold, Avila, & Miller, 2009, p. 314; M A Rahim, 2005, p. 7):

- 1) People are forced to search for new approaches and hence conflict stimulate creativity, innovation, positive change, transformation and growth and leads to synergistic solutions to common problems.*
- 2) Organizational decision making may be improved, and alternative solutions to a problem may be found*
- 3) Conflict may enhance working relationships, individual and group performance and the cohesiveness of work teams.*
- 4) Conflict brings important issues to light, resulting in issue clarification, clarification of positions and interests of groups and individuals.*
- 5) Conflict deepens employee engagement and morale. The participants begin to have ownership in the outcome.*
- 6) Conflict promotes new understandings of self, others, and working relationships*
- 7) Results in better-quality services for clients and communities*

1.2 MANAGING CONFLICT IN ORGANIZATIONS

1.2.1. Views of Conflict in Organizations

If a social system or an organization wants to take advantage of the conflict, the negative effects of the conflict should be minimized and its positive effects should be maximized. In order to manage and resolve conflicts, people have tried to develop effective and efficient processes to satisfy their interests, to build better relationships or to change the existing relationships, to minimize suffering and to control the unnecessary expenditure of emotional and physical energy or material resources (Moore, 2014, p. 20).

Managing conflicts in organizations in a constructive way is a big challenge (van de Vliert, Euwema, & Huismans, 1995). This makes conflict management in organizations an essential component of organizational practices. Leaders and managers spend a great deal of their time to prevent, contain, manage or intervene in various kinds of conflicts in the workplace.

The classical organization theorists Taylor, Fayol, Weber, and Mayo implicitly assumed that conflict was detrimental to organizations. Therefore, they intended to reduce conflict for enhancing the organizational efficiency by following different routes. Taylor, Fayol, and Weber attempted to reduce conflict by altering the technical–structural system of the organization, whereas Mayo attempted to accomplish this by altering its social system (Rahim, 2017, p. 9). The neo-classical or human relations theorists also considered conflict to be dysfunctional, but they tried to eliminate it by improving the social system of the organization. In its modern view, conflict is a natural outcome of human interaction, and hence inevitable. It has both productive and destructive potentials, and it is not necessarily dysfunctional for organizations (Coser, 1957; De Dreu, 1997; Deutsch, 1969; Rahim, 2017, p. 13).

Affected by Kurt Lewin's *field theory*, Deutsch's *theory of competition and cooperation* (Deutsch, 1949) predicts what can lead to constructive or destructive conflict processes. According to this theory, people cooperate when they feel that they can achieve their goals only if the others with which they are cooperating also achieve their goals. This is a positive interdependence where collaborators tend to promote each other's efforts to achieve their own goals. On the other hand, they will probably prefer competition in case the others with whom they are competing cannot achieve their goals. This is a negative interdependence where individuals block the rivals' attempts to achieve their goals. Because doing so makes it easier for them to achieve their own goals. Positive interdependence promotes openness, cooperative relations, and integrative problem solving. Negative interdependence on the other hand, gives rise to more distance, less openness, and promotes competitive behavior, resulting in distributive bargaining (Tjosvold, Wong, & Feng Chen, 2014). Cooperative and competitive interdependence have a dramatic effect on the dynamics and consequences of conflict (Deutsch et al., 2014).

Dual-Concern Model (Blake & Mouton, 1964; M. A. Rahim, 1983; Thomas, 1992) indicates that the way in which disputants manage conflicts can be described, and is defined by two concerns. These concerns are concern for self and concern for

others. Problem solving, compromising, accommodating, avoiding, and forcing emerges as five conflict management strategies from these two concerns (De Dreu, Evers, Beersma, Kluwer, & Nauta, 2001). The model is describing under what condition what conflict management strategy is used best (van de Vliert et al., 1995). However, it also promotes the idea that *problem solving* or *integrating* is the most valuable strategy to manage conflicts, specifically to reach a common agreement that suits the needs of both parties and to preserve their long term relationships (De Dreu et al., 2001; Tjosvold & Chia, 1989; Tjosvold & Morishima, 1999; Tjosvold et al., 2014).

Conglomerate Conflict Behavior Theory (van de Vliert et al., 1995) states that most conflicts and negotiation situations are complex and mixed motive. Therefore, the combination of different conflict management strategies is most common, and can be beneficial. That is, cooperation–competition–forcing strategies and avoiding–problem solving strategies are combined sequentially or simultaneously, or both to obtain the best outcome.

According to Burton a dispute is a short-term and easy to resolve disagreement; involving issues that are negotiable. In contrast, the long-term conflict is difficult to resolve and involves deeply rooted “non-negotiable” issues (Kriesberg & Burton, 1991) stemming from basic human needs (Maslow, 1943). According to Merchant and Costantino, conflict is a fundamental disagreement between two parties whereas a dispute is only one possible outcome of the conflict among other outcomes such as conciliation, conflict avoidance, or capitulation (Costantino & Merchant, 1996, pp. 4–5). Nevertheless, in the literature the terms *dispute* and *conflict* are usually used interchangeably. Similarly, the terms *dispute resolution* and *conflict management* are also used interchangeably. However according to Rahim, what we need is conflict management and not dispute resolution. Conflict management does not necessarily imply avoidance, reduction, or termination of conflict. It involves designing effective macro-level strategies to minimize the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive functions of conflict in order to enhance learning and effectiveness in an organization (Rahim, 2002). Lynch’s preference is also conflict management but she thinks that management of conflict includes resolution plus such other initiatives as prevention and containment (Lynch, 2001) of the dysfunctional conflict.

1.2.2 Traditional Conflict Management Approaches in Workplace

In order to resolve or manage a workplace conflicts, three traditional approaches, namely a power-based approach, a right-based approach or an interest-based approach may be employed. Right-based and power-based strategies tended to produce adversarial relationships and continued workplace dissatisfaction. In general, reconciling interests costs less and yields more satisfactory results than determining who is right, which in turn costs less and satisfies more than determining who is more powerful (Ury et al., 1988). Despite these traditional approaches a fourth approach Integrated Conflict Management System (ICMS) is a more comprehensive approach that combines all the options for conflict resolution available in interest-based, rights-based and power-based processes as well as some other tools to manage the conflict more efficiently and resolve it at the lowest possible level (Bingham, Lipsky, Seeber, & Fincher, 2004; Costantino & Merchant, 1996; Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; Rowe, 1997; Seeber, Fincher, & Lipsky, 2003; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998; Smith & Martinez, 2009; Teague, Roche, Currie, & Gormley, 2017; Ury et al., 1988). This approach will be separately discussed after giving a brief descriptions of traditional approaches.

1.2.2.1 Power-Based Approach

Power-based approaches are characterized by the use of power, the ability to coerce someone into something he/she would not otherwise do. They frequently involve an exchange of threats or acts of aggression. Power-based *negotiations* typified by an exchange of threats, fight, strike, lockout, voting, war and power contest are all examples of power-based processes. Power is ultimately a matter of perceptions. Despite objective indicators of power, such as financial resources, parties' perceptions and calculations of their own and each other's power often do not coincide. Therefore, when parties take competitive actions to determine who will prevail, the result is usually a potentially destructive power contest (Ury et al., 1988). Most organizations have no established organizational conflict management processes and they simply turn to a local supervisor or the chain of management to make a decision, failing to develop, or even encourage, any other method for resolving conflicts (Rowe, 1997). Lacking avenues to effectively resolve problems, disgruntled employees solve their problems by making unilateral decisions based on power alone. Some leave the

organizations while others continue to work, but with little enthusiasm, and sometimes with a conscious desire to sabotage the organization (Gosline et al., 2001).

1.2.2.2 Rights-Based Approach

Another way to resolve conflicts is to determine who is right according to a standard of legitimacy or justice. Laws, contracts, employer policy, collective agreements and social norms such as reciprocity and precedent are all potential rights standards. In right-based processes there is a difficulty in choosing a standard and then determining what it implies with respect to the conflict (Brett, Goldberg, & Ury, 1990). Formal, right-based processes result in a decision concerning claims over rights stem from statutes, individual or collective agreements, and policies. In these rights-based processes, to receive a compensation, claimants must register a grievance, a written complaint or a notice of proposed legal action with the employer. The process leads to intervention of a third-party decision maker who decides on rights arising from laws, regulations policy, and contract, unless the conflict is settled or the case is abandoned. Most institutions have introduced such rights-based grievance processes to manage conflicts (Gosline et al., 2001). *Rights-based negotiation, grievance processes, internal adjudication, investigation, arbitration, litigation*, are all examples of rights-based processes. With their win-lose outcome, right-based processes are adversarial in their nature and the conflicting parties have no control on either the outcome or the process.

1.2.2.3 Interest-Based Approach

Interest-based processes like negotiation and mediation enables conflicting parties to use problem-solving techniques that best suits their needs. Organizations started using interest-based processes as well as rights-based processes since the 1920s. These processes permit and encourage parties to manage their own conflict, by attempting to satisfy parties legitimate workplace needs. In interest-based processes the conflicting parties have more control over the outcome of their conflict and sometimes they are even able to design their own conflict resolution processes. Given the choice, disputants often select interest-based processes over rights-based processes because the former are perceived as less adversarial, faster, more flexible, and less costly both in economic and non-economic terms (Gosline et al., 2001). Using interest-

based processes may lower the likelihood of reprisal, offer freedom for the complainant from the demands of evidence, and offer more control over, and greater comfort with, the process of problem resolution (Rowe, 1997, p. 89). *Interest-based negotiation, mediation and ombudsperson* are examples of interest-based processes.

1.2.3 Integrated Conflict Management Systems (ICMS)

In organizations, right-based grievance processes and most interest-based mediation programs are not available to address many kinds of interpersonal conflicts and they address only the symptoms of the conflict, rather than its sources and root causes. Besides, many people in the workplace are unwilling to use these processes due to various reasons. Integrated conflict management systems (ICMS) are designed to overcome these difficulties and to create conflict competent organizations.

The term integrated conflict management system (ICMS) is used to describe the structures and the values supporting these structures that are developed in an organization to facilitate processing conflict in the workplace (Conbere, 2001). An integrated conflict management system (ICMS) can be defined as a consciously institutionalized and interconnected set of mechanisms designed to help manage the conditions that give rise to conflicts and the resolution of these conflicts (Yarn, 2014).

The idea of designing conflict management systems has its roots in integrative negotiation (M. P. Follett, 1918) and interest-based negotiation (Fisher & Ury, 1992; Fisher, Patton & Ury, 1981). According to Ury et al the costs of conflicts can be reduced by creating *interests-based* conflict management systems (Brett et al., 1990; Ury et al., 1988; Ury, Brett, & Goldberg, 1989). They used this system approach in the coal mining industry to resolve conflicts arising from *collective bargaining*. The following six principles proposed by Ury et al. for designing conflict management systems are guidelines for cutting the costs of conflict and realizing its benefits:

- 1) *Build in consultation before and feedback after* the dispute resolution process is completed.
- 2) *Put the focus on interests* and use interest-based negotiation and mediation first.
- 3) *Build in Loop-Backs* to less costly processes such as negotiation and mediation to avoid power contests.
- 4) *Provide low cost rights and power processes* in case the mediation fails: Use low-cost arbitration and voting instead of high-cost litigation and fight.

- 5) *Arrange processes in a low-to-high-cost sequence* (negotiation – mediation – arbitration – litigation – strike or lockout) to keep both the financial and psychological costs as low as possible.
- 6) *Provide disputants with the necessary motivation, negotiation skills, resources, and environment* to understand and use the process that best suits their needs.

Building on experience in the field and inspired by organizational development, practitioners from the public sector (Costantino & Merchant, 1996; Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; Rowe, 1997) and from the private sectors (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998) proposed and implemented conflict management system (CMS) models for organizations in the public and private sectors including Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, World Bank, Royal Canadian Mounted Police, Canada Customs and Revenue Agency, Halliburton, Shell and General Electric.

Smith and Martinez proposed an analytic framework for organizing and guiding the analysis and design/redesign of conflict management systems and used the framework in series of case studies including eBay and General Electric (Smith & Martinez, 2009). The analytical framework emphasizes five essential elements (Figure 1). Later context and culture was added as a sixth element to the framework (Amsler, Martinez, & Smith, 2015). Using the framework conflict management system design is extended to law and courts (Rogers, Bordone, Sander, & McEwen, 2013) and private and public systems (Amsler & Sherrod, 2017). This framework provides a way to look at many new contexts within which designing conflict management systems finds application beyond employment or consumer disputes within organizations such as governance, transitional justice and international arena (Amsler, 2017).

ICMS can take variety of forms. They may include a single-step binding arbitration design as well as multi-step procedures. A multi-step design may include mediation, arbitration, ombudspersons processes, which in turn enables conflicting parties to select the process that best suits their needs (Blomgren Bigham, 2008). Most effective dispute systems have at least one alternative dispute resolution (ADR) process option, with mediation generally being the preferred choice (Nabatchi & Bingham, 2010).

Figure 1. Analytic Framework for Dispute System Design
1. Goals
a) What do the system's decision maker(s) seek to accomplish? b) Which types of conflicts does the system seek to address?
2. Stakeholders
a) Who are the stakeholders? b) What is their relative power? c) What are their interests and how are their interests represented in the system?
3. Context and Culture
a) How does the context of the DSD affect its viability and success? b) What aspects of culture (organizational, social, national, or other) affect the workings of the system? c) What are the norms for communication and conflict management?
4. Processes and Structure
a) Which processes are used to prevent, manage, and resolve disputes? b) If there is more than one process, are they linked or integrated? c) What are the incentives and disincentives for using the system? d) What is the system's interaction with the formal legal system?
5. Resources
a) What financial resources support the system? b) What human resources support the system?
6. Success, Accountability, and Learning
a) How transparent is the system? b) Does the system include monitoring, learning, and evaluation components? c) Is the system successful?

Source: Amsler, L. B. (2017). The Dispute Resolver's Role within a Dispute System Design: Justice, Accountability, and Impact. *St. Thomas L.J.*, 13(2), 173.

An ICMS includes all the options for conflict resolution available in interest-based, rights-based and power-based processes. It provides *problem-solving* options based on the interests of the disputants, and *justice* options based on rights and power of the disputants (Rowe, 1997, p. 84). In addition to interest-based and right-based processes, a comprehensive ICMS introduces and focuses on some other preventive

and corrective conflict management mechanisms such as listening, referring, coaching, mentoring, informal problem-solving, direct negotiation, informal shuttle diplomacy, generic solutions, systems change, anonymous problem identification and consultation (Gosline et al., 2001). Given the choice, most employees would prefer to use these processes in order to prevent unnecessary conflicts and resolve inevitable conflicts at the lowest possible level before they escalate.

1.2.3.1 Designing Effective Integrated Conflict Management Systems

When implemented effectively, integrated conflict management systems decrease the highly visible costs of conflict such as government investigations, legal costs and time lost in defending against charges and lawsuits. They also address many less visible costs of unaddressed conflict such as loss of valuable employees due to transfers, movement to a competitor, early retirement, stress leave, loss of productivity, petty sabotage, waste, theft of intellectual property, increased health insurance claims, and the loss of public confidence when organizations are accused of allowing discrimination, harassment, unsafe working conditions, fraud, or other unacceptable behavior (Gosline et al., 2001).

There is no ideal integrated conflict management system that will fit all organizations. Each organization must design a system tailored to its specific needs and culture. On the other hand, an effective ICMS should have the following characteristics:

- 1) *Collaborative Design*: It is created through participative, bottom-up, interest-based design processes that hold the greatest potential for durable, usable, and effective methods to resolve disputes on a systemic, rather than a case-by-case basis (Costantino, 1996; Rowe, 1997). Stakeholder involvement is a way to ensure that the designed CMS responds to the interests of all stakeholders (Lynch, 2001) and to reduce the resistance of the users who do not believe in the value of interest-based processes (Gosline et al, 2000).
- 2) *Multiple Processes*: has interest-based, right-based processes (Costantino & Merchant, 1996; Gosline et al, 2000; M. Rowe, 2000; Lynch, 2001; Rowe, 1997; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998) as well as power-based processes when necessary (Lynch, 2001; M. Rowe, 1997; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998) and focused on prevention of dysfunctional conflicts and conflict escalation (Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; M. Rowe, 1997; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998).

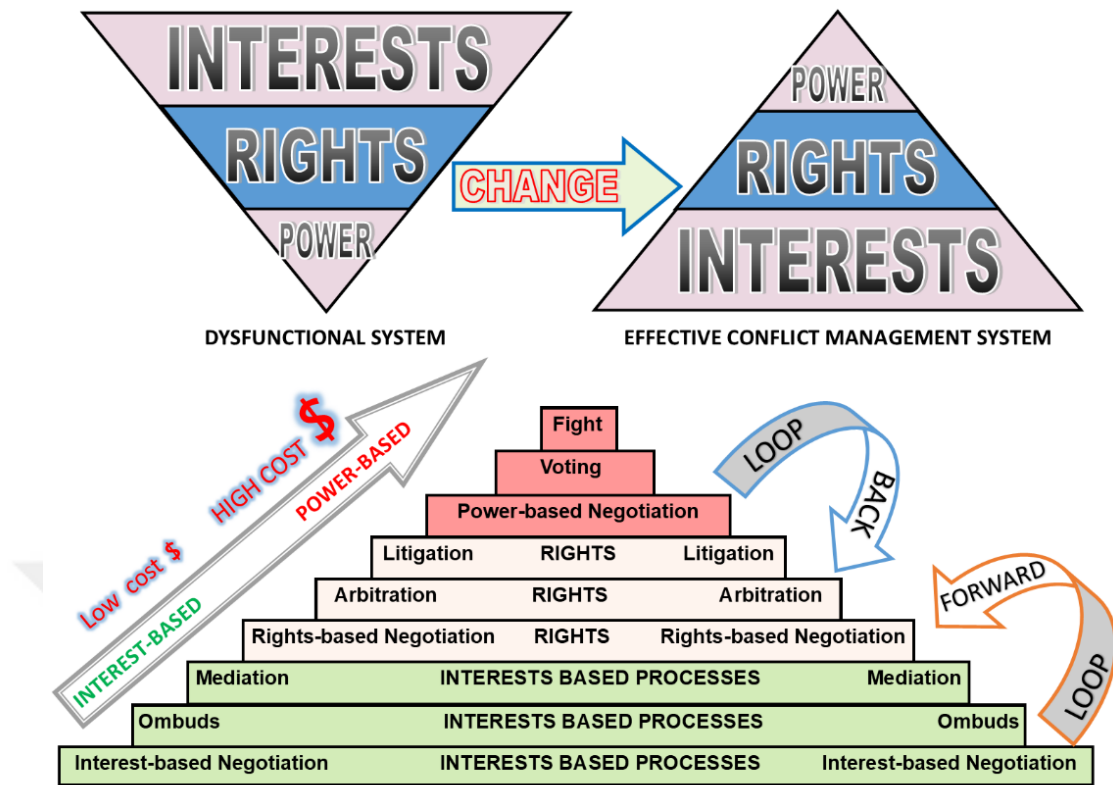
- 3) *Non-linear Design* : It has a nonlinear design and provides loopbacks to interest-based and right-based processes (Gosline et al., 2001; M. Rowe, 1997; Ury et al., 1988) loops forward and backward between right-based and interest-based options (Lynch, 2001) loop backwards or forwards between interest-based, right-based and power-based processes (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998) to cut the cost and to open the deadlocks.
- 4) *Support for disputants*: It provides support for disputants in form of consultation and feedback (Ury et al., 1988), coaching (Lynch, 2001; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998) or by including an ombudsperson or other independent confidential neutral in the system (Gosline et al, 2000; Rowe, 1997).
- 5) *Conflict prevention*: It supports all employees by providing motivation skills and resources (Ury et al., 1988), training about skills and how to use the system (Costantino & Merchant, 1996; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998), multiple access points (Gosline et al, 2000; Rowe, 1997; Ury, 2000), assistance for choosing the best process (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998), critical mass training for everyone in a leadership role and those who play a role in the conflict chain (Gosline et al, M. Rowe, 2000; Lynch, 2001), a coordinator and process advisors to help select the best option (Lynch, 2001)
- 6) *Cost reduction*: It reduces the financial and emotional cost of the conflict by ordering the processes from low to high cost (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998; Ury et al., 1988) providing low-cost rights and power backups (Ury et al., 1988), building in preventive methods of alternative dispute resolution (Costantino & Merchant, 1996), encourage prevention and early intervention (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998), promoting resolution at the lowest level (Lynch, 2001), providing incentives to managers and employees to deal with conflict early and effectively (Gosline et al., 2001).
- 7) *Multi access points*: It provides multi-option conflict management processes and gives disputants maximum control over selection of these processes (Costantino & Merchant, 1996; Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998).
- 8) *Integration to organization*: reflects organization's important values; promotes organizational mission; aligns internal culture with external services; aligns system with procedures such as hiring, performance measurement, and policies (Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001). Incentives are institutionalized and conflict

management is included in performance appraisals (Gosline et al, 2000). The ICM is integrated into HR strategy; and it is used by all organizational members (Rowe, 1997).

- 9) *Values*: It is committed to freedom from reprisal and retaliation (M. Rowe, 1997). It should foster a culture that welcomes good-faith dissent (Gosline et al., 2001). It is friendly, flexible, fast and fair and perceived as fair (Lynch, 2001; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998). Voluntariness, protection of privacy and confidentiality, of neutrals, qualifications and impartiality of neutrals, diversity and accessibility, respect for the role of collective bargaining agents, and non-preclusion of statutory and workplace rights are critical to the fairness of processes (Gosline et al., 2001).
- 10) *Support from top management*: It is supported by senior managers, and union leaders (Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; M. Rowe, 1997)
- 11) *Wide Scope*: It has a wide scope and provides options for all types of problems and all people in the workplace, including employees, supervisors, professionals, and managers
- 12) *Evaluation*: It is evaluated by an oversight committee to identify strengths and weaknesses of design and foster continuous improvement. The oversight committee coordinate and support the multiple access points and multiple options and integrate effective conflict management into the organization's daily operations (Gosline et al., 2001; Lynch, 2001; M. Rowe, 1997; Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998). The system would ideally be supervised by an ombudsperson or administrator outside the usual management hierarchy, but with a direct link to upper management (Amsler et al., 2015)

Figure 2 shows how a dysfunctional system is changed into an effective conflict management system by giving priority to the less expensive interest-based processes where parties have more control. Besides, it also shows how the separate processes are aligned and how loop backs and loop forwards take place between these processes to reduce the cost and open the deadlocks.

Figure 2. Conflict Management Systems



2.2.2.3 Integrated Conflict Management Systems in Practice

The emergence of ICMS in organizations is a significant development in the USA. However, this innovation is a case of *American exceptionalism* and it is not occurring in other Anglo-American countries. The institutional context in the USA creates uniquely strong incentives for organizations to adopt ICMS practices at the workplace. In the absence of strong institutional incentives, organizations are unlikely to move radically away from established conflict management methods (Teague et al., 2017).

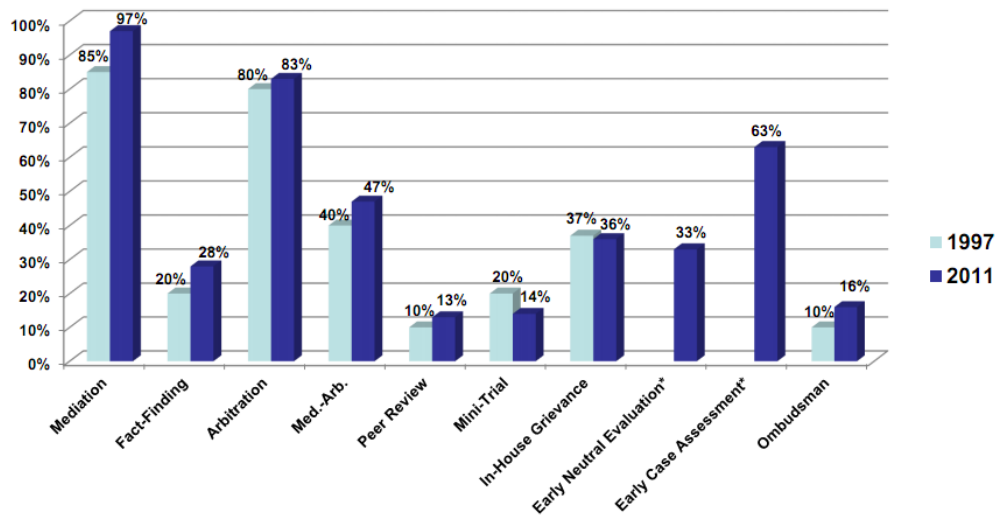
Many large corporations in USA have embraced the concept of ICMS design in order to avoid the expenses and destructiveness of individual conflict litigation, and because they realize that improved communication and conflict handling are key to the development of high performance organizations (Robinson, Pearlstein, & Mayer, 2005). Organizations with a more developed conflict management infrastructure may be better positioned to minimize the cost of conflict (Avgar, Neuman, & Chung, 2016). Most of CMS designs are in non-unionized sector (Slaikeu & Hasson, 1998).

Large US corporations with more than 5,000 employees, are more likely than smaller corporations to adopt conflict management systems (Lipsky, Avgar, & Lamare,

2016). Smaller firms have less formal processes for managing conflict, and this reflects an approach to employment relations that necessarily tends to be less formal when compared to larger firms (Urwin, P., & Buscha, 2012). Another reason is larger corporations have the resources to invest money and staff in the operation of an ICMS program while for many smaller employers, a major investment in ICMS is not warranted by the minimal cost of litigation (Lipsky et al., 2016).

Lipsky et al (2016) report that the corporate surveys conducted in 2011 and 2013, revealed considerable variation in the use of integrated conflict management systems by Fortune 1000 companies. One-third of these companies used a form of a conflict management system, while 40 % of these corporations rarely used any alternative dispute resolution (ADR) techniques and continued to rely on litigation to resolve workplace conflicts. Many US corporations have gone beyond seeing the CMS as a means of addressing litigation challenges and threats, and have come to recognize organizational benefits associated with the internal management of conflict. Nowadays many US corporations select from a full range of options that include both internal and external conflict management processes with both interest-based and rights-based options rather than just resorting to external mediation or arbitration (Lipsky et al., 2016). Major US corporations that rely on ADR, have adopted a wide range of ADR techniques available for managing workplace complaints such as so-called hotlines, open door policies, conflict coaching conflict mentoring, early neutral evaluation, and early case assessment (Stipanowich & Lamare, 2013). The diversity of ADR techniques and conflict management strategies used by US corporations has apparently grown (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Fortune 1000 use of forms of ADR in prior three years (1997, 2011)



Source: Thomas J. Stipanowich and J. Ryan Lamare *Living with ADR: Evolving Perceptions and Use of Mediation, Arbitration, and Conflict Management in Fortune 1000 Corporations* p.41

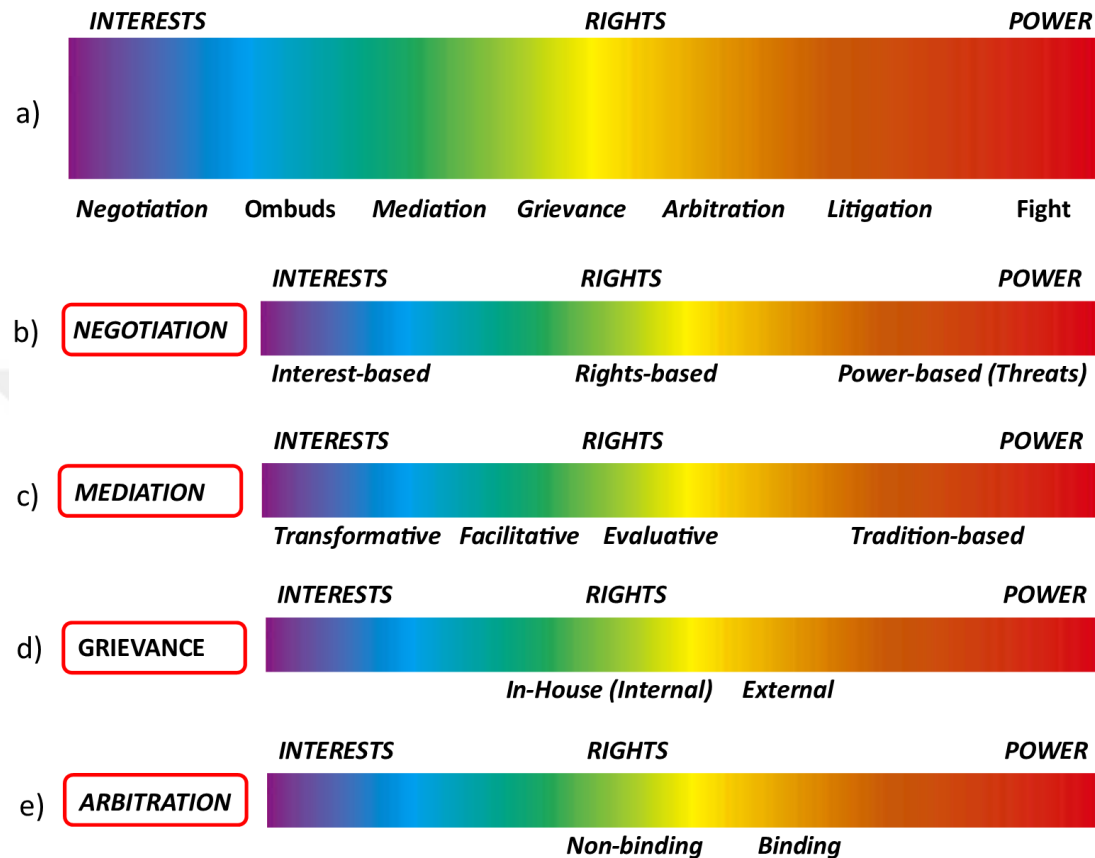
1.3 CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

Negotiation, mediation, ombudsperson, grievance, arbitration, and litigation are the means for managing and resolving conflicts. They can either be used separately or they can be combined together to form a comprehensive integrated conflict management system. In an ICMS, they can be accessed separately and simultaneously as the tools in a toolbox or used one at a time as the components of a Swiss army knife. These processes are not monolithic and have different forms. There are many different forms of mediation (evaluative, facilitative and transformative), arbitration (binding and non-binding), and grievance (external and internal or in-house). There are even multi-door courts (Sander, 1979). This variation within the processes shows that there is no ‘one size fits all’ process for managing all types of conflicts in different contexts and cultures. A process that fits well with a certain conflict may not be appropriate for another conflict or even the same conflict in a different context.

The above mentioned conflict management processes fall on a spectrum, ranging from the informal negotiation to the most formal litigation. This spectrum is a continuous spectrum rather than a line spectrum and is quite complex when compared with the light spectrum in the physical world. Figure 4 is an attempt to explain this complexity. In the existence of the other processes, each process occupies a certain space, a bandwidth, on a full spectrum (Figure 4a). In contrast, in the absence of the other

processes, each process is stretched like a rubber band by the practitioners to fill the gap, and occupy a more space on the spectrum (Figure 4b,c,d,e).

Figure 4. Spectrum of Conflict Management Processes



1.3.1 Negotiation

Negotiation is a back-and-forth communication designed to reach an agreement when parties have some interests that are shared and others that are opposed (Fisher & Ury, 1992). Negotiation is a fact of life. People negotiate something every day even when they don't think of themselves as doing so. It can be verbal or nonverbal, oral or written, by letter or e-mail, explicit or implicit, direct or through intermediaries, face-to-face, ear-to-ear. Parties in a conflict usually use negotiation as a first step to resolve their conflicts. In the absence of negotiation skills most people resort to threats and counter threats (Haynes, Haynes, & Fong, 2004, p. 15). The negotiation can be either a *positional bargaining* or a *principled negotiation*.

When negotiators bargain over positions, they tend to lock themselves into those positions. The more they clarify their position and defend it against attack, the

more committed they become to it. The more they try to persuade the other side, the more difficult it becomes to change their opening position. The positional bargaining with a win-lose goal, usually turns into a chicken game with an inevitable lose-lose outcome.

Fisher and Ury (1992) suggested that negotiators don't have to choose between either waging a strictly competitive, win-lose negotiation battle (*hard bargaining*) or caving in to avoid conflict (*soft bargaining*). Rather, they negotiators can and should look for negotiation strategies that can help both parties get more of what they want (*principled negotiation*). Negotiators can find ways of *getting to yes* that reduce the need to rely on hard-bargaining tactics and unnecessary concessions by treating each other fairly, listening closely to each other, and jointly exploring options to increase value,

Principled negotiation (negotiation on the merits) suggested by Fisher and Ury stresses that, in order to be successful, negotiators need to recognize each other's interest and to realize that their interests are interconnected. *Principled negotiation* can be boiled down to four basic points: 1) Separate the people from the problem: Be soft on the people, and hard on the problem. 2) Focus on interests, not positions, 3) Invent multiple options looking for mutual gains before deciding what to do and 4) Insist that the result be based on some objective standard. Focusing on basic interests, mutually satisfying options, and fair standards typically results in a wise agreement. The principled negotiation process permits negotiators to reach a gradual consensus on a joint decision efficiently without all the transactional costs of digging in to positions. Separating the people from the problem allows you to deal directly and empathetically with the other negotiator as a human being, thus making possible an amicable agreement (Fisher & Ury, 1992, p. 14). Principled negotiation is contrasted with hard and soft positional bargaining in the table below, which shows the four basic points of the method in boldface type (Fisher & Ury, 1992, p. 13) . Table 2 gives a comparison of positional bargaining and principled negotiation.

Table 2 Positional Bargaining vs Principled Negotiation		
Problem		Solution
Positional Bargaining: Which Game Should You Play?		Change the Game—Negotiate on the Merits
Soft Participants are friends. The goal is agreement.	Hard Participants are adversaries. The goal is victory.	Principled Participants are problem-solvers. The goal is a wise outcome reached efficiently and amicably.
Make concessions to cultivate the relationship. Be soft on the people and the problem. Trust others.	Demand concessions as a condition of the relationship. Be hard on the problem and the people. Distrust others.	Separate the people from the problem. Be soft on the people, hard on the problem. Proceed independent of trust.
Change your position easily. Make offers. Disclose your bottom line.	Dig in to your position. Make threats. Mislead as to your bottom line.	Focus on interests, not positions. Explore interests. Avoid having a bottom line.
Accept one-sided losses to reach agreement. Search for the single answer: the one <i>they</i> will accept.	Demand one-sided gains as the price of agreement. Search for the single answer: the one <i>you</i> will accept.	Invent options for mutual gain. Develop multiple options to choose from; decide later.
Insist on agreement. Try to avoid a contest of will. Yield to pressure.	Insist on your position. Try to win a contest of will. Apply pressure.	Insist on using objective criteria. Try to reach a result based on standards independent of will. Reason and be open to reason; yield to principle, not pressure.
Source: Fisher, R., & Ury, W. L. (1992). <i>Getting to Yes: Negotiating Agreement Without Giving In</i> . (B. Patton, Ed.) (second edition). Penguin Books.		

1.3.2 Mediation

Haynes et al (2004) defines mediation as the management of other peoples' negotiations. Moore gives a more comprehensive definition: mediation is a conflict resolution process in which a mutually acceptable third party, who has no authority to make binding decisions for disputants, intervenes in a conflict or dispute to assist involved parties to improve their relationships, enhance communications, and use effective problem-solving and negotiation processes to reach voluntary and mutually acceptable understandings or agreements on contested issues (Moore, 2014, p. 25).

Mediation can also be defined as an assisted negotiation which is usually initiated after a failed negotiation.

In general, there are three broad types of mediators, defined by the relationship the mediator has with involved parties: 1) authoritative mediators, 2) social network mediators, and 3) independent mediators (Moore, 2014, p. 40). Mediators vary significantly in the way they see their role and involvement in promoting successful negotiations. The differences are rooted in *parties' expectations for the kinds of assistance* they want or expect their intermediary to provide, *the third party's relationship to the parties*, *the mediator's perception of what parties want and need* from them, *the third party's areas of expertise and training* and the intermediary's judgments about how much they should *focus on process, substance, or relationships* (Moore, 2014, p. 46).

Mediation practitioners have different philosophy, thought, orientations, goals, focus, and styles (Moore, 2014, p. 51) and hence, there are various types of mediations. *Facilitative Mediation* is process-focused, *Therapeutic Mediation*, *Transformative Mediation*, *Narrative Mediation*, *Restorative Justice and Victim - Offender Mediation* are relationship-focused and *Advisory Mediation*, *Evaluative mediation* are substantively focused (Moore, 2014, pp. 51–57) .

Mediator orientations are closely related to Mayer's seven paradoxes that frame how we make sense of conflict. These paradoxes are: 1) Competition and cooperation, 2) Optimism and realism, 3) Avoidance and engagement, 4) Principle and compromise, 5) Emotions and logic, 6) Neutrality and advocacy, and 7) Community and autonomy. Each paradox poses an essential dilemma for how we approach conflict, how we think about it, and how we can move forward in a productive way (Mayer, 2015).

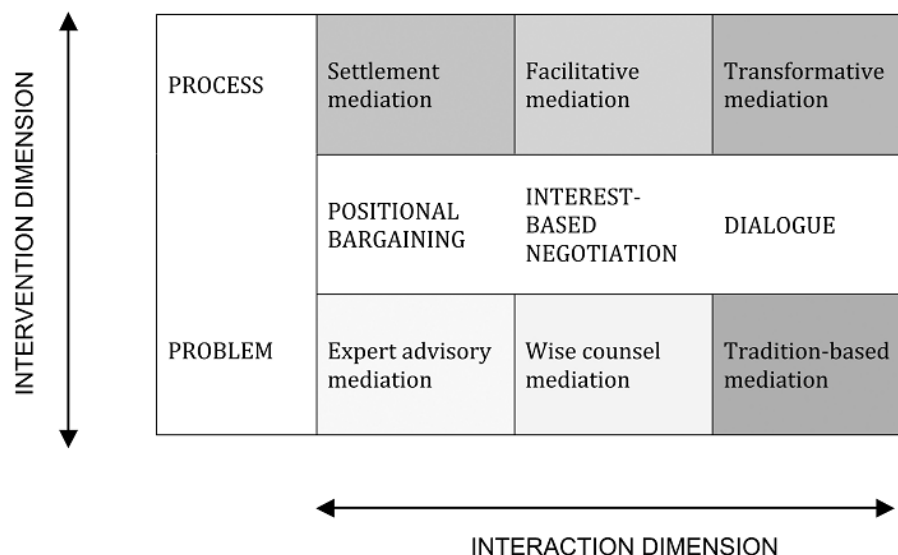
Riskin identifies two intersecting dimensions in mediation: the role of the mediator and how the problem is defined. The role of mediator can be *evaluative or facilitative* while the problem definition can be *narrow or broad* (L Riskin, 1996). Later he replaces *evaluative–facilitative* with the terms *directive–elicitive* to capture a wider range of behavior. The mediator either *directs* the process or the participants toward a particular procedure, perspective, or outcome, or alternatively *elicits* the parties' perspectives and preferences (Riskin, 2003).

Bush and Folger have identified three practice models of mediation differentiated according to their ideologies: *problem-solving*, *relational*, and *harmony*

mediation. Problem-solving mediation is based on an *individualist worldview* and a *psychological-economic* view of conflict. Transformative mediation is based on a *relational ideology* and a *social-communicative* view of human conflict. Harmony mediation is based on *organic ideology* and a *collectivist* view of the world (Bush and Folger, 1994).

Depending on the *intervention* and *interaction* dimensions, Alexander represented six contemporary practice models of mediation in her mediation meta-model (Alexander, 2008, 2011): 1) Expert advisory mediation, 2) Settlement mediation, 3) Facilitative mediation, 4) Wise counsel mediation, 5) Tradition-based mediation and 6) Transformative mediation (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Mediation Meta-model



Source: Alexander, N. (2008). The mediation metamodel: Understanding practice. *Conflict Resolution Quarterly*, 26(1), 97–123.

In the current study, I believe that there is a room for the following mediation processes to manage workplace conflicts in higher education institutions:

- 1) Evaluative Mediation: It is a subtype of the problem solving approach based on an *individualist worldview*: It is a directive form of mediation that uses positional bargaining to settle the disputes. The outcome of evaluative mediation usually fall within the range of outcomes that a court could have ordered.

- 2) Interest-Based (Facilitative) Mediation: Like evaluative mediation, interest-based mediation is a subtype of the problem solving approach based on an *individualist worldview*. Different from evaluative mediation using positional bargaining, it uses interest-based negotiation to reach an agreement that suits the interests and the needs of the parties in conflict.
- 3) Transformative Mediation: It is basically a dialogue process based on a *relational ideology*. The goal of transformative mediation is empowerment of both parties for recognition of the other party's perspective and not necessarily settlement of the dispute.
- 4) Peer Mediation: It is usually practiced in schools in transformative and facilitative forms. However there is evidence that regular employees serve as mediators for conflicts among their fellow employees (D. Lipsky & Seeber, 2003) with an aim to maintain and restore the *harmony* in the workplace.

1.3.2.1 Evaluative Mediation

The evaluative mediation is the efficiency model of mediation with a problem solving approach. The objectives of evaluative mediation are service delivery and access to justice. Evaluative mediators assess the strengths and weaknesses of each side's case, predict outcomes of court or other processes, propose position-based compromise agreements, urge or push the parties to settle or accept a particular settlement proposal (Riskin, 1996, 2003). They rely on their expertise and experience to assess situations and reach conclusions about the relative merits of the arguments that are being presented to them. They are concerned with the legal rights of the parties rather than needs and interests, and evaluate based on legal concepts of fairness. They structure the process, and directly influences the outcome of mediation (Zumeta, 2000). The process is similar to a court process, without the formality, and that is why some refer to evaluative mediation as non-binding arbitration. Since the mediator does not facilitate, but rather judges, it is criticized as not being *true* mediation (Stitt, 2004).

Since evaluative mediation emerged in court-connected mediation, there is an assumption that the evaluative mediator has substantive expertise or legal expertise in the substantive area of the dispute. Therefore, most of evaluative mediators are often retired judges or politicians, senior lawyers or accountants, or people who are

respected and have a lot of experience in a particular field such as computers, engineering, accounting or sports (Stitt, 2004).

Evaluative mediators prefer and use limited joint sessions, extensive separate private sessions with each party, and shuttling between them. The joint session in the beginning the mediation process is to provide the parties with an opportunity to share their views on the dispute, present the merits of their cases, to ask questions and obtain preliminary answers, and sometimes to propose options for agreement or settlement (Moore, 2014, pp. 58–59).

The evaluative mediator's implicit assumption is that the primary obstacle to settlement is the parties' unrealistic confidence in the validity of their respective positions. Then a primary job of the mediator is to provide the parties with a more balanced and realistic positional assessment (Deutsch et al., 2014, p. 833).

Supporters of evaluative mediation say that parties in conflict want a fair answer if they cannot reach agreement. According to the supporters, the ever-increasing numbers of clients for evaluative mediation is an evidence to show that the market supports evaluative mediation more than others. On the other hand, the detractors who criticize evaluative mediation as being coercive, top-down, heavy-handed and not impartial say that its popularity is due to the myopia of attorneys who choose evaluative mediation due to their familiarity with the process (Zumeta, 2000). If given enough information to make a choice, the parties would not choose evaluative mediation. Evaluative mediation may be useful in the following situations (Alexander, 2008, 2011):

- 1) When parties prefer positional bargaining over interest-based bargaining and the negotiation is over a *fixed pie* rather than *expanding the pie*
- 2) When the relationship is less important than the outcome, or the parties will have no future relationship.
- 3) When the parties themselves do not attend the mediation and the mediation is conducted between their legal representatives.
- 4) In single-issue or small claim disputes
- 5) Where parties have a complex technical conflict and they need the assistance of a technical person in order to resolve the conflict.

1.3.2.2 Interest-Based (Facilitative) Mediation

Facilitative mediation is a process of identifiable steps or stages where the mediator controls the process and the clients must control the content. It is an exercise in problem solving with the goal being an agreement negotiated by the participants that satisfies the needs of all involved (Haynes et al., 2004, p. 3). It is a subtype of problem solving approach (Deutsch et al., 2014) and the most widely practiced style of mediation. The facilitative mediator help the parties generate their own proposals, exchange and evaluate these proposals, understand their underlying interests, and develop broad interest-based settlement options (L Riskin, 1996; Leonard Riskin, 2003).

Facilitative mediators are experts in the process of negotiation and not necessarily the substance of what is being discussed. Assuming that few people come to mediation with good negotiating skills, the mediator, as a negotiation expert, help disputants overcome obstacles in negotiation that they may not be able to overcome themselves (Haynes et al., 2004, p. 15). The mediator keeps the clients talking with each other, and draws them out to make decisions that meet their *interests* rather than their respective *positions* through reflective questions. Since they believe that the parties are often better informed about the substantive issues in dispute than any third party could ever be (Moore, 2014, p. 52), mediators direct the process of the negotiations, while the clients have control over the content and the outcome. Therefore the mediator's perception of what is right and what is fair will not play a major role in the process. The mediator facilitates the discussion even when she or he believes that the option being discussed is unfair. A facilitative mediator tries to enable the disputants to reach consensus on what they think is a fair outcome, while an evaluative mediator tries to lead the disputants to his or her own assessment of what is fair (Stitt, 2004, p. 4). This is an important difference between a facilitative mediator and an evaluative mediator that both share the same problem solving approach.

The mediator uses some generic strategies such as *mutualizing*, *normalizing*, *maintaining a future focus* with an additional focus on what the clients want rather than what they do not want, and *summarizing* to help the clients arrive at a common *definition of the problem* (Haynes et al., 2004, p. 6). This is usually done by summarizing back the useful information, and ignoring the unuseful data. The strategy of summarizing allows the mediator to focus on the goal of the mutual problem

definition and lets the central issue emerge out of the hypothesis testing. Such a summarizing strategy has a potential to influence the content and the outcome of the mediation and it is criticized as being directive by transformative mediators. By focusing on one aspect of the conflict and ignoring others, the mediator does control the content (Haynes et al., 2004, p. 20).

Facilitative mediators perform well in controlling and structuring the process, identifying parties' underlying needs and interests, emphasizing common ground and areas of agreement, deemphasizing disagreement, steering parties to focus their discussions on the future and to disregard the past, as well as discouraging and limiting expression of negative emotions. Facilitative mediation may be useful in the following situations (Alexander, 2008, 2011):

- 1) When the parties have continuing relationship.
- 2) When the parties have the capacity to negotiate, but have a difficulty in starting the process or reached an impasse in negotiations.
- 3) When there are opportunities for creative and future-focused solutions to address the needs and interests of the parties.

1.3.2.3 Transformative Mediation

From the perspective of transformative theory, mediation's value goes beyond the dimension of helping parties reach agreement on disputed issues. People in conflict, experience a sense of their own powerlessness, diminishment, disregard, and victimization, leading to a sense of hostility, suspicion, and anger toward the other party. With or without the achievement of agreement, the help parties most want, involves helping them end the vicious circle of disempowerment, disconnection, and demonization-alienation from both self and other. Because without ending or changing that cycle, the parties cannot move beyond the negative interaction that has entrapped them and cannot escape its crippling effects (Folger & Bush, 2004, pp. 50–53)

In a transformative mediation, the process of trying to reach a result is as important as the result itself. The unique promise of mediation lies in its capacity to transform the quality of conflict interaction itself, so that conflicts can actually strengthen both the parties themselves and the society they are part of (Folger & Bush, 2004, p. 13). A significant amount of the mediation focuses on the relationship between the disputants. Private meetings (caucuses) are rare and the mediator spends

a significant amount of time facilitating communication between or among disputants (Stitt, 2004, p. 5). In transformative mediation the mediator's role is to create an environment in which the parties can engage in a transformative dialogue - one through which the parties are empowered to articulate their own feelings, needs, and interests and to recognize and acknowledge those of the other party (Alexander, 2008, 2011).

The objective of transformative mediators is to create a context that allows and helps the parties to (1) clarify their own goals, resources, options, and preferences and make clear decisions for themselves about their situation (*empowerment*); and (2) consider and better understand the perspective of the other party (*recognition*) (Folger & Bush, 1996b).

Transformative mediators reject feelings of responsibility for generating agreements, solving the parties' conflicts, healing the parties, or bringing about reconciliation between them. They refuse to be judgmental about the parties' views on and decisions about their situation and each other. They are consistently positive in their view of the disputants' fundamental competence, their ability to deal with their own situation on their own terms. They believe that *there are facts in the feelings*. Therefore, they expect, allow and be responsive to parties' expression of *emotions*. They view the expression of emotions, anger, hurt, frustration, and so on as an integral part of the conflict process. Accepting that *clarity emerges from confusion*, they allow for and explore parties' uncertainty. Sometimes they even encourage the parties to explore the sources of their confusion and uncertainty, since this presents important opportunities for empowerment. Since they believe that *the action is in the room*, they remain focused on the *here and now* of the conflict interaction. *Discussing the past has value to the present* and that because transformative mediators are responsive to parties' statements about past events. They not only allow but even encourage disputants to talk about past events and the history of the conflict because doing so is often a very good way to achieve the goals of *empowerment* and *recognition*. Transformative mediators realize that conflict can be a *long-term process* and that mediation is one intervention in a longer sequence of conflict interactions. In transformative mediation even *small steps count*. Transformative mediators feel and express a sense of success when *empowerment* and *recognition* occur, even in small degrees. They do not see a lack of settlement as a *failure* (Folger & Bush, 1996b). Transformative mediation may be useful (Alexander, 2008, 2011):

- 1) where the dispute is a (recurring) symptom of an underlying conflict and the parties are prepared to address it before making decisions about the dispute itself
- 2) in conflicts about the parties' personal, professional or business relationship
- 3) where significant emotional and/or behavioral issues are at stake
- 4) where parties are arguing on the basis of values and principles
- 5) where parties may benefit from opportunities for personal development

Supporters say that transformative mediation empower parties, and help the parties take responsibility for their own disputes and the resolution of the disputes. Detractors say that transformative mediation can take significantly longer than evaluative or facilitative mediations, and too often ends without agreement. They worry that outcomes can be contrary to standards of fairness and that mediators in these approaches cannot protect the weaker party (Zumeta, 2000).

1.3.2.4 Peer Mediation

Peer mediators are employees who continue to perform their original job, but also serve as mediators. Often peer mediation programs in the workplace are limited to addressing particular types of mistreatment that do not generally have statutory implications (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2009, p. 98). In a workplace setting the mediator is usually a line manager, a respected senior employee or an elder who is familiar with the parties and the issues, the values and ideals that conflicting parties and the community wish to uphold (Saxon, 2017, pp. 24–25). As an insider-partial, the mediator has a personal obligation to the parties to assist them as a friend or associate, and a desire to help them maintain smooth interpersonal relationships (Moore, 2014). Tradition-based mediation has a long history of practice in collectivist cultures and I believe that peer mediation in a collectivist environment will be a form of tradition-based mediation. The hallmark of tradition-based mediation (harmony approach) is the restoration of harmonious relationships that support the values of the community at large (Folger, 2008). In tradition-based mediation carried out by fellow employees, maintaining social order, corporate values, stability and harmony in the workplace may sometimes have a precedence over the needs or interests of conflicting parties (Moore, 2014, p. 358).

Mediators' personal relationships with the parties, their connection with the community, their knowledge of the norms and values, and their whole investment with

the community are the source of the legitimacy and the trust placed upon the mediators (Saxon, 2017, p. 25). In contrast to the outsider-impartial North American style of mediators, insider-partial peer mediators are usually preferred because of their wisdom, status, and persuasion skills rather than their technical expertise (Alexander, 2011).

Mediators' behavior such as relying on separate party meetings; actively establishing a conciliatory climate; containing parties' conflict interaction; advising the direction and nature of the conflict; and encouraging forgiveness, apologies, and face-saving are all aligned with the underlying ideological premises of a harmony orientation to conflict (Folger, 2008). Interdependence is valued over independence. Freedom of choice is possible but only within well-defined limits.

Many restorative justice programs aiming at repairing damage and healing pain in a future oriented manner, rather than punishing and looking backwards are closely aligned with the core values of the tradition-based mediation (Folger, 2008) where a peer or a respected insider is the mediator.

The mediation is usually informal and it is conducted by an insider-partial in the presence of and with the participation of members of the group. Therefore confidentiality (Alexander, 2011) and impartiality can play a less significant role in tradition-based mediation compared with other models. Tradition-based mediation can be useful in the workplace in collectivist cultures where group norms are more influential than legal norms.

1.3.3 Arbitration

Arbitration is a process in which a private and impartial third party makes a binding decision on how to resolve the conflict between the parties after they present their views about the conflict. The arbitrator has limited jurisdiction that is strictly determined by the arbitration agreement, statute or regulation.

As in mediation it is voluntary and confidential and the arbitral proceedings may not be used as evidence in a subsequent trial. Arbitration is an adjudicative process and it can be thought as a private court with much less formality where the hearing takes place in a private conference room rather than in a public courtroom. Rules of evidence and procedures are more relaxed than the rules of court. Unlike court proceedings arbitration hearings are not public. There are no public filings, no public hearings and no public decision at the end of arbitration. Arbitration usually cost less than litigation and it is much more flexible and faster than litigation.

During the hearing, parties presents witnesses and other evidence, and the arbitrator ask questions to clarify the evidence. The arbitrator hears closing statements and allows the parties to submit post-hearing briefs that summarize each party's main arguments. Finally, the arbitrator issues a written award with an accompanying opinion, within the time limit set by the parties or within a few weeks after the hearing (Cole & Blankley, 2005).

In the arbitration parties have some control over the process but no control over the outcome. They can choose their arbitrator and this is usually a person with some subject matter expertise about the issue of conflict. Non-binding arbitration exists but it is less common. Most of the time the decision from the arbitrator on the outcome of the conflict is final and binding. Unlike in traditional litigation, the arbitrator's decision generally cannot be appealed.

Arbitration is a useful process for resolution of a diverse variety of disputes including, but not limited to, employment, labor, consumer, commercial, and construction. Arbitration's flexibility enables parties to tailor a dispute resolution mechanism that suits their underlying needs and interests. Its speed, confidentiality, finality and being less adversarial and cheaper than litigation enables parties to preserve their existing relationship and protect their reputation within a particular industry (Cole & Blankley, 2005).

1.3.4. Litigation

Litigation is the formal court process through which one party attempts to enforce or defend its legal rights against another party in a lawsuit. Litigation is the default process for resolution of disputes recognized by law. All other alternative dispute resolution (ADR) processes such as negotiation, mediation and arbitration occur in the shadow of litigation (Mnookin & Kornhauser, 1979). Compared to other ADR processes, litigation is a highly structured, formalized, and lengthy adversarial dispute resolution process.

The litigation process begins when the plaintiff files a written formal complaint with the trial court that have jurisdiction over the subject matter the dispute and serves it on the defendant. The parties gather evidence from each other and from third parties, determine what they will testify at trial, identify witnesses, develop legal theories that support their positions, develop a trial strategy and interact with the judge through conferences and hearings on motions to focus the claims, issues, and evidence to be

considered during the trial. The litigation is a highly adversarial process. Parties' attorneys express their own partisan perspectives regarding the facts and the outcome required by applicable law. Each side presents its case and the other attempts to discredit that case through cross-examination of witnesses and other techniques intended to undermine evidence presented by the other side (Seul, 2005). After the parties make their closing arguments, the judge, as a fact finder, takes the evidence under consideration and renders a decision which does not become final unless the opportunities for appeal are exhausted.

In litigation the parties have no control on the outcome and the key aspects of litigation. Lawyers rather than the parties dominate the process. Litigation's adversarial nature tends to encourage competitive, rather than cooperative, behavior. It is usually more expensive and it takes more time than other ADR processes. The litigation process and its outcome are usually public. This is an advantage in some cases but a disadvantage in some others. In litigation the legal norms dictate the outcome. The outcome of a lawsuit is binding, enforceable and final. Lawsuits create legal norms that apply to subsequent similar disputes for many other parties. Judicial precedents create rights and other types of legal endowments that may affect how people deal with each other in the future (Mnookin & Kornhauser, 1979). This is one of the biggest advantage of litigation over other ADR processes. Another advantage of litigation is the ability to compel others to respond to your grievances. However, although you can compel others to appear in a court trial, you cannot always keep others out and prevent them from participating in the court trial. It make sense to litigate a case in any of the following circumstances (Seul, 2005):

- 1) When other disputants are uncooperative and unwilling to negotiate in good faith toward a mutually beneficial resolution of the dispute and the parties do not expect or desire an ongoing relationship.
- 2) When it is necessary to file a lawsuit to bring the other party to the negotiation or mediation table.
- 3) When a party subjected to multiple, dubious claims wants to establish a reputation for toughness that may deter some potential claimants from asserting their claims.
- 4) When at least one of the parties want to attract the public's attention and or when the public access or participation is desirable.

- 5) When a judicial precedent is needed to govern similar cases in the future, and establishment of the norm through legislation is impractical and impossible due to political, economic, or other factors.
- 6) When the constitutional validity of an act or law is challenged.
- 7) When people who are not parties to the dispute might be prejudiced by the outcome
- 8) When an issue of law, public policy or interpretation needs to be clarified on the record.

1.3.5 Ombudsman

The ombudsman concept is originated in Scandinavian countries. In that context the ombudsperson is a public official appointed by statute as a guardian of the rights of citizens. The ombudsman hears citizen complaints and conducts independent fact-finding investigation, with the goal of protecting public against abuse, bias, unfairness and other improper treatment of public administration.

The organizational ombudsman (OO), on the other hand, is considered a neutral member of the organizational structure, located outside the normal managerial chain of command and reporting directly to the CEO or president of the organization. The ombudsman's job is to help resolve workplace disputes through informal counseling, mediation, or recommendations to management (Goldberg, Sander, Rogers, & Cole, 2014) and has no decision-making power. Recently, ombudsman has been increasingly used in institutions of higher education (Rahim, 2005, p. 141).

The ombudsman office in an organization works as a *zero barrier* office to encourage people to discuss questions, suggestions, concerns, disagreements, problems, complaints, conflicts, grievances, and whistle-blowing (Rowe, 2009). According to Brian Bloch, the ombudsman is ideally situated within the organization to make recommendations to the top management for systemic change, based on patterns of complaint brought to their office. In addition, the ombudsman has an obligation to act to prevent recurrence of future conflicts and should participate in designing, evaluating, coordinating and improving CMS for the organization, and relevant training (Bloch & Erbe, 2010).

Independence, confidentiality, neutrality (impartiality) and informality are recognized as pillars of organizational ombudsman practice. Ombuds are independent from other organizational entities. Ombudspeople resist to testify in any formal process

inside or outside the organization since the practice is based on confidentiality (Rowe, 1997). Confidentiality serves a fundamental purpose and is of utmost importance in the effectiveness of ombuds work (Sen, 2011). The only exception to this privilege of confidentiality is where there appears to be imminent risk of serious harm, and where there is no other reasonable option (Miller, 2011). In order to maintain his/her neutrality, the ombudsman must remain independent of ordinary line and management structures and serve no additional role in the organization (Rowe, 1997). Ombuds remain informal and off-the record resource of conflict management. Without informality independence, confidentiality, and neutrality will not function and managers would find organizational ombuds (OO) to be interfering with their authority. Informality permits OOs to offer a very wide variety of informal options, to all cohorts, and across all organizational boundaries (Rowe, 2012).

Activities and functions most frequently undertaken by an ombudsman (Roche, Teague, Colvin, Rowe, & Gadlin, 2014; Rowe, 2012) include, but are not limited to:

- 1) Active listening, providing and receiving unfiltered information, identifying and reframing issues, generating a range of responsible options, and engaging in informal third-party intervention.
- 2) Guiding, coaching or referring individuals to management, relevant support services to solve their own problems themselves through the use of formal conflict resolution resources of the organization.
- 3) Helping individuals improve their skill and their confidence in giving voice to their concerns directly, assisting in surfacing issues to formal resolution channels when an individual is unable or unwilling to surface a concern directly, and creating an awareness of the issue among appropriate decision-makers in the organization.
- 4) Offering shuttle diplomacy for parties in conflict, offering mediation inside the organization, looking into a problem informally, facilitating a generic approach to an individual problem.
- 5) Providing early warning of issues that are new and potentially disruptive to the organization, identifying and communicating about new issues and opportunities for systemic change for the organization, following up on a case with relevant stakeholders, and following up on recommendations made by the OO, helping informally, and often invisibly, to connect and coordinate all the elements of the conflict.

1.3.5 Grievance

Grievance is the formal expression of a conflict in the form of a complaint by one or more of the parties. Grievance is usually the first step in a right-based process and is usually followed by arbitration and litigation when the conflict is not resolved. Formal grievance-filing are embedded in, and legitimized by, longstanding traditions in labor-management exchanges, nationwide judicial arrangements, and perhaps national or regional culture (De Dreu & Gelfand, 2012, p. 39).

Issues that may lead to the raising of a grievance include but are not limited to terms and conditions of employment, health and safety, work relations, working practices, working environment, organizational change, equal opportunities, discrimination, harassment, bullying, abuse, violence, and serious threats of violence.

Employees usually raise any conflict they have in the workplace informally with their immediate manager. This is fine when there is a power balance between the parties and the conflict is between two employees or two managers rather than between a manager and an employee. If informal discussion does not resolve the issue, then the matter will move to a more formal level with the grievance being referred upward in the management chain in order to seek a resolution. If the grievance is against a line manager, or regarding sexual or racial discrimination, bullying or victimization of any nature, then the employee should contact, or write to a more senior manager, bypassing the junior ranks of management involved in any standard grievance process (Hunt, 2005). In many cases the organizations allow subordinates to go to a higher-level executive to discuss their grievances (Rahim, 2005, p. 121). According to Rahim (2005), many other organizations allow the lower-level employees to take their problems to grievance committees where formal grievance and disciplinary hearings took place in an adversarial manner.

In a power game the grievance is a tool in the hands of the employees to counter-balance managerial attempts to impose greater control over the labor through disciplinary action. If workers challenge attempts by managers to exert control and discipline over the labor process, they simply file a formal grievance (Saundry, 2016). Such a competitive process usually leads to a spiral of hostility and retaliation that increases both the emotional-psychological and economical cost of the conflict.

When the employee considers that the grievance has not been satisfactorily resolved, he/she appeal against the employer's decision. The appeal is made to a higher

authority. This can be a senior manager in the organization or an external agent. An external grievance process is more likely when there is a power imbalance between the parties and there exists a perception of unfair treatment.

The adversarial nature of the grievance limits its benefits and to overcome this problem some organizations including US postal service implemented grievance mediation in their workplaces (Bingham, 1997; Nabatchi, Bingham, & Moon, 2010; Richard Saundry & Wibberley, 2015; Wood, Saundry, & Latreille, 2017) to maximize its benefits.



CHAPTER 2

CULTURE AND CONFLICT TYPE

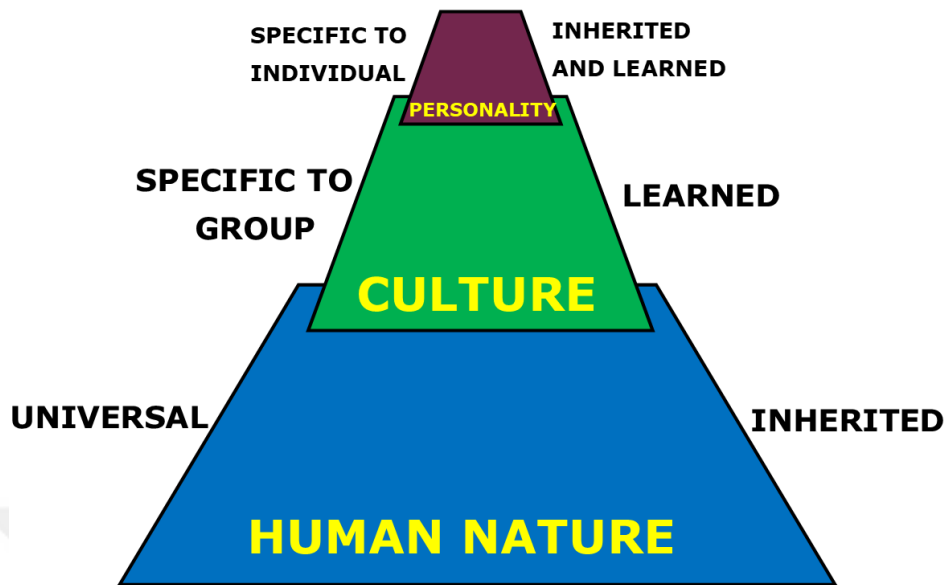
This chapter starts with some key concepts of culture. This is followed by several cultural syndromes as well as their consequences. It then proceeds with the definitions of five different conflict types as situational contexts and some useful strategies to manage these conflicts effectively.

2.1 CULTURE

Culture is a shared system of meanings that dictates what we pay attention to, how we act and what we value (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998, p. 13). It is both a dynamic phenomenon surrounding us, being constantly created by our interactions with others and shaped by leadership behavior, and a set of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behavior (Schein, 2008, p. 1). It is collective programming of the mind, unwritten rules of the social game (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, p. 6), shared systems of values, assumptions, beliefs, norms and behaviors (Aycan, Kanungo and Mendonca, 2014) that differentiate one group from the others. Culture contains many observable and invisible elements such as tools, words, shared beliefs, worldviews, attitudes, norms, roles, values, and unstated assumptions (Triandis, 2018, p. 4), all filtered from past experience of the society. Culture is networks of knowledge, consisting of learned routines of thinking, feeling, and interacting with other people, as well as a corpus of substantive assertions and ideas about aspects of the world (Hong, 2009, p. 4). Culture is a unique meaning and information system, shared by members of a group and transmitted across generations, that allows the group to meet basic needs of survival, pursue happiness and well-being, and derive meaning from life (D. Matsumoto & Juang, 2013, p. 15) .

The human nature is inherited within our genes but culture is learned, and not inherited. The personality is based on traits that are partly inherited within our genes and partly learned through personal experience and influence of culture. Thus it is easy to distinguish the culture from the totally inherited universal human nature on one hand and individual personality that is both learned and inherited on the other (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 7) , (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Three levels of uniqueness in human mental programming

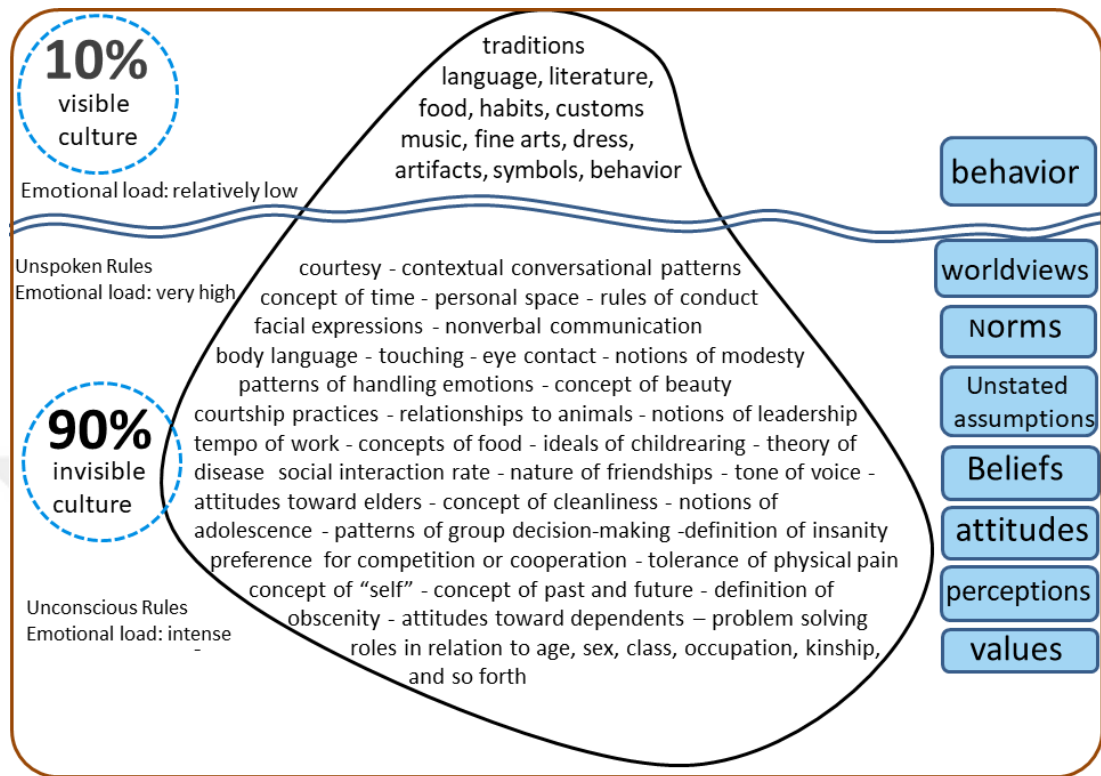


Source: Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and Organizations: SOFTWARE OF THE MIND Intercultural Cooperation and Its Importance for Survival* (3rd Editio) p.7. McGraw-Hill.

A culture is to a society as the memory is to a person (Opler, Kroeber, & Kluckhohn, 1953, p. 114). It is shared among interconnected members of the society; externalized by rich symbols, artifacts, social constructions, and social institutions; used to form the common ground for communication among members; transmitted from one generation to the next undergoing continuous modifications and may be falsified or deemed not applicable by newer social order and reality (Hong, 2009, p.4).

The visible aspects of culture such as artifacts, symbols, traditions, language, literature, food, habits, customs, music, fine arts, and dress, are very easy to identify, however the culture itself, as a whole, is quite complex. Hall's iceberg analogy of culture (Hall, 1959, 1976) indicates various visible and invisible aspects of culture. In this analogy, a small portion of a culture (10%) is on the surface of the water. However, the non-material subjective culture that constitutes 90% of the cultural iceberg is below the surface of the water and hence invisible. Cultural aspects such as values, attitudes, beliefs, unstated assumptions, norms, perceptions, and worldviews are usually invisible and hence difficult to identify. Weaver used the same iceberg analogy (Weaver, 1993, p. 157) to explain the many layers of culture in detail (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Iceberg Model of Culture



Weaver, G. R. (1993). Understanding and coping with cross-cultural adjustment stress. In R. M. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (Vol. 2, pp. 137–167). University Press of America.

2.1.1 The Subjective Elements of Culture

Psychological processes such as attitudes, norms, values, and beliefs as well as worldviews (unstated assumptions) are subjective elements of a culture. These subjective elements form the invisible part of the cultural iceberg. Table 3 gives some examples for (D. Matsumoto & Juang, 2013, p. 23).

Table 3. The Subjective Elements of Culture	
Elements	Examples
Values	• Individualism vs. Collectivism • Egalitarianism vs. Hierarchy • Sacred values
Beliefs	• Dynamic externality • Societal cynicism • Religions
Norms	• Etiquette and politeness • Expressive behavior • Tightness vs. looseness,
Attitudes	• Opinions • Stereotypes • Prejudice
Worldviews	• Self-concepts • Cultural worldviews • Attributions

Source: Adapted from Matsumoto, D., & Juang, L. (2013). An Introduction to the Study of Culture and Psychology. In *Culture and Psychology* (p. 23).

2.1.1.1 Values

Values are guidelines, ideals, cultural standards that refer to desirable goals that motivate behavior. People use values to determine what is good or bad, and what is right or wrong. Personal and cultural values define the moral, political, social, economic, esthetic, or spiritual ethics of a person or group of people (Matsumoto & Juang, 2013, p. 22). These values can be either personal values that represent transitional desirable goals and serve as guiding principles in individuals' lives, or cultural values representing abstract ideas about what the collective views as good, right, and desirable. Values can also be categorized as terminal and instrumental values (Rokeach, 1973). Terminal values refer to desirable end-states of existence, the goals that a person would like to achieve during his or her lifetime. Instrumental values, on the other hand, refer to preferable modes of behavior and are the means of achieving terminal values (Table 4).

Table 4 Rokeach Values	
Terminal Values	Instrumental Values
True Friendship	Cheerfulness
Mature Love	Ambition
Self-Respect	Love
Happiness	Cleanliness
Inner Harmony	Self-Control
Equality	Capability
Freedom	Courage
Pleasure	Politeness
Social Recognition	Honesty
Wisdom	Imagination
Salvation	Independence
Family Security	Intellect
National Security	Broad-Mindedness
A Sense of Accomplishment	Logic
A World of Beauty	Obedience
A World at Peace	Helpfulness
A Comfortable Life	Responsibility
An Exciting Life	Forgiveness

Some values are negotiable, while some other values are not. Life defining sacred values (Atran & Axelrod, 2008) that incorporate moral beliefs are non-negotiable, while day-to-day values and economic values are usually negotiable. There exists cultural differences on values even within national cultural groups. These differences in values lead to different characterizations of cultures such as honor, joy and achievement cultures (Basáñez & Inglehart, 2016).

Values were studied by many researchers from different disciplines (Fox, Kluckhohn, & Strodbeck, 1963; Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1992; Triandis & Suh, 2002; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). These studies revealed striking value differences between different cultures. Hofstede suggests that there are six value dimensions that differentiate cultures (Hofstede, 2011), while Schwartz measured values in many countries and has identified ten basic values according to their motivational goals (Schwartz et al., 2012) and seven other values that differentiate cultures (Schwartz, 2011). Similarly, Trompenaars identified seven basic assumptions (values) and tried to structure them in in three main areas, namely human relationship, time and nature. Triandis, on the other hand, has mainly focused on individualism-collectivism and power distance value dimensions of culture. Table 5 is a summary of the above mentioned studies on cultural values.

Table 5. Summary of Research on Cultural Values	
<i>HOFSTEDE (2010)</i>	
Power Distance	related to the different solutions to the basic problem of human inequality
Uncertainty Avoidance	related to the level of stress in a society in the face of an unknown future
Individualism-Collectivism	related to the integration of individuals into primary groups
Masculinity-Femininity	related to the division of emotional roles between women and men
Long Term-Short Term Orientation	related to the choice of focus for people's efforts: the future or the present & past.
Indulgence - Restraint	related to the gratification versus control of basic human desires related to enjoying life
<i>TROMPENAARS (2012)</i>	
Universalism vs particularism	applying general rules and standards - taking particular relationships into account going around the rules or having flexible rules
Individualism-communitarianism	Self-orientation - group-orientation
Neutral vs emotional	restraint of emotions vs expressing emotions
Specific vs diffuse	limiting relations with others to specific spheres- no prior limitations in relations with others
Achievement vs ascription	judging people by who they are - judging people by what they do
Attitudes to time	short-term vs long-term & past-present-future orientation & synchronic vs sequential (monochronic vs polychronic)
Attitudes to the environment	controlling the nature vs being controlled by the nature
<i>KLUCKHOHN & STRODTBECK (1961 & 1963)</i>	
An evaluation of human nature (evil - mixed - good)	
The relationship of man to the natural environment (subjugation-harmony - mastery)	
The orientation in time (toward past - present - future)	
The orientation toward activity (being - being in becoming - doing)	
Relationships among people (linearity, i.e., hierarchically ordered positions–collaterality, i.e., group relationships–individualism)	
<i>SCHWARTZ (2011)</i>	
EGALITARIANISM	Social Justice - Equality - Helpful - Honest - Responsible - Loyal
HIERARCHY	Authority - Humble - Wealth - Social Power
MASTERY	Ambitious - Daring - Capable - Successful - Influential - Independent - Social Recognition - Choosing Own Goal
INTELLECTUAL AUTONOMY	Broadmindedness - Curiosity - Freedom - Creativity
EMBEDDEDNESS	Social Order - Obedience - Respect for Tradition - Forgiving - Moderate - Politeness National Security - Honoring Elders - Family Security - Preserving my Public-Image-Self Discipline - Devout - Clean
AFFECTIVE AUTONOMY	Pleasure - Exciting Life - Self Indulgent - Varied Life - Enjoying Life
HARMONY	Unity with Nature - World at Peace - Protect Environment - World of Beauty - Accept my Portion in Life - World of Beauty
<i>TRIANDIS (1994)</i>	
HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM	The conception of an autonomous individual and emphasis on equality.
VERTICAL INDIVIDUALISM	The conception of an autonomous individual and acceptance of inequality
HORIZONTAL COLLECTIVISM	Perceiving the self as part of a collective of equal members
VERTICAL COLLECTIVISM	Perceiving the self as a part of a collective and accepting inequalities within that collective.

As can be seen from Table 3.3, so far the individualism-collectivism dimension has been studied more than any other dimension of culture although sometimes given different names such as individualism-communitarianism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998) or affective autonomy-embeddedness (Schwartz, 2011).

2.1.1.2 Beliefs

A belief is a proposition that is regarded as true (Matsumoto & Juang, 2013), or what people consider as true or false. Beliefs, by contrast, are more explicit than values and people of different cultures have different beliefs. People's beliefs about how the world functions, generalized beliefs (social axioms) about oneself, the social and physical environment, or the spiritual world are likely to relate to social behaviors across contexts, actors, targets, and time (Leung et al., 2002). Hence, adding general beliefs to trans-situational values can increase the predictive power of values with respect to behavior. Leung et al. (2002) study identified five factors of social axioms on the individual level:

- 1) *Social cynicism* represents a negative view of human nature and social events. In this view, life produces unhappiness, people exploit others and social institutions should not be trusted. It is distinct from the major cultural dimensions of value identified in previous studies. (e.g. 'Powerful people tend to exploit others', 'No good deed goes unpunished').
- 2) *Reward for application* refers to the position that the effort, knowledge and careful planning will lead to positive outcomes (e.g. 'Persistence can change failure into extraordinary achievement').
- 3) *Social complexity* refers to the view that there are multiple solutions to social issues, and the outcome of events is uncertain. So human behavior is variable across situations (e.g. 'People may have different behaviors on different occasions').
- 4) *Fate control* refers to the general belief that social events are influenced by impersonal, external forces (e.g. 'Individual characteristics, such as appearance and birthday, affect one's fate').
- 5) *Religiosity (Spirituality)* refers to the view that spiritual forces influence the human world and that religious institutions exert a positive effect on social outcomes (e.g. 'Religious faith contributes to good mental health').

The cultural-level analyses conducted on Leung et al. (2002) data demonstrated that two social axiom dimensions existed on the cultural level (Bond et al., 2004):

- 1) *Societal Cynicism*: Societal Cynicism relates to a lower emphasis on striving for high performance, a sensible outcome if there is a general suspicion of the social system, and a general expectation of negative outcome. It is related to more disagreement within in-groups and it is distinct from the major cultural dimensions of value identified in previous studies.
- 2) *Dynamic Externality*: This dimension represents an outward-oriented, simplistic grappling with external forces that are construed to include fate and a supreme being. Although it contains some items from fate control, and social complexity, it is primarily defined by items from reward for application and religiosity. Dynamic externality contains some distinctive features not captured in previous culture-level studies, but generally overlaps with value-based cultural dimensions such as collectivism, conservatism, and power distance (Leung & Bond, 2006).

2.1.1.3 Norms

Minkov (2011) defined *norms* as values that people prescribe to others. They differ from values and in the sense that they are about other people; what other people do or what they want you to do (Van De Vijver, Chasiotis, & Breugelmans, 2011, p. 152). So values are not necessarily the same as norms, because when respondents are asked what they value for themselves or in others, they may not give the same answer (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011, p. 6). A culture is relatively stable when the norms reflect the values of the group (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998, p. 22). According to Matsumoto and Juang (2013, p. 27) norms are generally accepted standards of behavior or guidelines that members of a culture have defined as the most appropriate behavior in a given situation. A norm simply relates to what we think is normal or whether something is either culturally accepted or not.

Etiquette is a social norm in many cultures, although cultures often differ in what is polite, and what kinds of behaviors are deemed polite, and appropriate (D. Matsumoto & Juang, 2013). Tightness-looseness (Chan, Gelfand, Triandis, & Tzeng, 1996; Pelto, 1968; Triandis, 1989) that is defined as strength of social norms and degree of sanctioning when a member's behavior deviates from a society's social

norms is another example of norms. In loose culture there are few norms, and people tolerate deviation from these norms, while in tight culture there are more number of norms, rules, or laws and even a small deviation from the norms is severely punished (Triandis, 2009, pp. 198–219). Cultural values such as individualism or power distance, may have different properties in the context of a loose or a tight culture.

Even in tight cultures different types of norms are enforced in different ways. Some norms are not strictly enforced (folkways) while some are believed to be essential to core values (mores) and some others (taboos) are crucial to a society's moral center (James M Henslin, 2013, p. 51). We usually expect people to follow folkways but if they violate a folkway, others are unlikely to take a serious corrective action. If you stand facing the back wall instead of the door in an elevator, you probably will not get in trouble, but people are going to give you some weird looks. Waiting in lines and raising hand to get a permission to speak can be given as other examples for folkways. *Mores* are norms that, are widely adhered to and have great moral or social significance. They are the fixed and morally binding customs of a society. A man will probably get fired if he comes to workplace with a beach suit, because there are strict rules about what kinds of clothing are appropriate for the workplace. A person who steals, rapes, or kills has violated some of society's most important mores. *Taboos* are the norms that involve behaviors that are always negatively and severely sanctioned. Usually the violator of the taboo is considered unfit to live in that society. Cannibalism, incest and child molestation are common examples of taboos. Nevertheless, a taboo in one culture can be a normal behavior in another. Eating pork is a taboo for Muslims but not forbidden in Christianity. For an Albanian Muslim man, marriage with his uncle's daughter is a taboo, but this is customary for a Kurdish Muslim men from South-Eastern Turkey.

2.1.1.4 Attitudes

Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity (object, person, idea, place, thing, event or situation) with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1). It is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols (Hogg & Vaughan, 2005, p. 150). Attitudes are composed of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Ajzen prefer using the terms instrumental (harmful–beneficial) and experiential (painful–

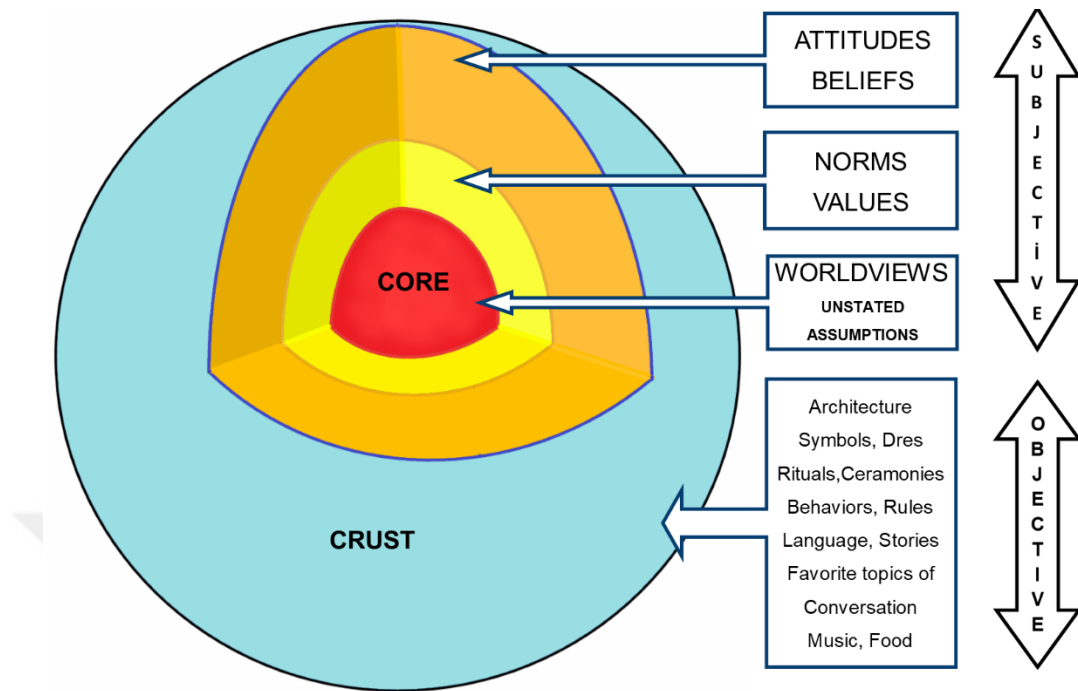
enjoyable) instead of the terms cognitive and affective (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 83). Attitudes can be influenced by and can influence beliefs, affect, and behavior in relation to the attitude object (Matsumoto, 2009, p. 59). One might form a positive attitude toward a certain brand of mobile phone based on her mood at the time or her beliefs that the mobile phone is light, fast and user-friendly. According to Matsumoto (2009) since attitudes entail a cognitive evaluation they are distinguished from affective feelings. Similarly, attitudes can also be distinguished from beliefs since beliefs can be verified or falsified with some objective criteria.

2.1.1.5 Worldviews

Kluckhohn denoted worldview as a cultural orientation, value orientation or an unconscious systems of meaning. A worldview is a set of assumptions about social and physical reality that may have powerful effects on cognition and behavior (Koltko-Rivera, 2004). A given worldview encompasses assumptions including but not limited to the understanding of the universe, the meaning and nature of life, the human nature (Matsumoto & Juang, 2013, p. 26) and the interaction between human and nature. A worldview is a way of understanding the world, other people, oneself and the place of human in the world (Matsumoto, 2009). Worldviews are constructed as part of the enculturation that is an unconscious learning and adaptation process. Worldview is a cultural orientation (Kluckhohn, 1950) a value orientation (Kluckhohn, 1962) and an often unconscious systems of meanings that form the core of a culture.

Culture comes in layers (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998) and in this study I propose a Layers of the Earth Model of Culture in which the objective and subjective elements of the culture are layered as shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8. The Layers of the Earth Model of Culture



2.1.2 Individual and Ecological Analysis of Culture

According to Gudykunst et al (1996), to some extent, culture exists in each and every individual as much as it exists as a social construct. Individual differences in culture can be observed among people in the degree to which they adopt and engage in the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that constitute their culture (Gudykunst et al., 1996). Culture is a derivative of individual experiences, something that is learned or created by individuals themselves or socially transmitted by contemporaries or ancestors (Avruch, 1998).

According to Hofstede culture is always associated with a social group. For a thing, an idea, or a behavior to be considered cultural, it must be shared by a social group or society. As almost everyone belongs to a number of different groups and categories of people at the same time, people unavoidably carry several layers of mental programming within themselves, corresponding to different levels of culture (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 18). Being simultaneously a member of several different cultural groups, individuals could be said to have multicultural membership and they are organized in many potentially different ways in a population, by many different (and cross-cutting) criteria (Avruch, 1998).

Hofstede's work on culture was on the ecological level and has identified four dimensions of national cultures and he rated countries on indices for each dimension ranging from 0 to 100 (Hofstede, 1980). These four dimensions of culture were power distance, collectivism vs. individualism, femininity vs. masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. In addition, he adapted a fifth dimension, long-term versus short-term orientation, based on Michael Bond's findings and a sixth dimension, indulgence versus restraint, based on Michael Minkov's findings (Hofstede, 2011).

Hofstede's framework for understanding national differences has been one of the most influential and widely used frameworks, however it has also become one of the most widely criticized. Detractors contend that 1) surveys are not a suitable way to measure cultural differences, 2) nations are not the best units for studying culture, 3) subcultures in a country can vary greatly in their values and beliefs, 4) studying the subsidiaries of one company (IBM) is not representative of national cultures and 5) six dimensions are not enough to represent the complexity of culture.

On the other hand, according to Triandis, a cultural syndrome is one of the best ways in which we can analyze cultures. A cultural syndrome is a pattern of beliefs, attitudes, norms, role definitions, and values organized around a theme. Triandis talk about a variety of cultural syndromes (Triandis, 2007; Triandis & Gelfand, 2012; Triandis, 2018; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a): 1) Simple versus complex cultures 2) Tight versus loose cultures 3) Collectivist versus individualist cultures and 4) Horizontal versus vertical cultures.

In Hofstede's ecological analysis of culture and Triandis' individual analysis of culture, Individualism-Collectivism (IC) is the common dimension, while Horizontal-Vertical and Power Distance dimensions are equivalent. As mentioned earlier IC is by far the most studied dimension of culture (Triandis, 2007) and it is highly (-.70) correlated with the power distance (Triandis, 2018, p. 30). I assume that individualism-collectivism across horizontal and vertical dimensions resonates well with conflict management preferences of disputants. Thus, in this study I will focus my attention to individualism-collectivism (IC) and power distance (PD) dimensions.

2.1.3 Individualism-Collectivism

According to Hofstede the individualism and collectivism are the opposite ends of the same stick. Hofstede simply measured the individualism (IDV) scores and used these scores as a measure for individualism-collectivism: Societies with high IDV scores are individualists and societies with low IDV scores are collectivists.

Hofstede's work on culture at the ecological or cultural level of analysis indicated that collectivism was the opposite of individualism. That conclusion is not obtained however when analyses is done at the individual level. The within-culture analyses show that individualism and collectivism are not polar opposites (Gelfand, Triandis, & Chan, 1996).

According to Triandis (2018) collectivism is a social pattern consisting of closely linked individuals who see themselves as parts of one or more collectives; are primarily motivated by the norms of, and duties imposed by those collectives; are willing to give priority to the goals of these collectives over their own personal goals; and emphasize their connectedness to members of these collectives. Individualism by contrast is a social pattern that consists of loosely linked individuals who view themselves as independent of collectives; are primarily motivated by their own preferences, needs, rights, and the contracts they have established with others; give priority to their personal goals over the goals of others; and emphasize rational analyses of the advantages and disadvantages to associating with others (Triandis, 2018, p. 2).

Collectivists place some collective (family, work group, country) in a central position regulating social life while individualists place the individual in the center of things. When there is a conflict between the goals of a collective and an individual, in collectivist cultures it is obvious that the collective should win, whereas in individualist cultures it is obvious that the individual should prevail. (Triandis, 2018, p. 213)

An individualist society is a society in which the ties between individuals are loose and everyone is expected to look after herself. The family is a nuclear family. A collectivist society, on the other hand, is a society in which individuals from birth onwards are part of strong in-groups where usually the family is an extended family, a village society or even a tribe (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 92).

According to Triandis the degree of individualism or collectivism in any given culture is influenced by certain factors, including two specific cultural syndromes: cultural tightness versus looseness, and cultural complexity versus simplicity. Individualism is most often a consequence of looseness and cultural complexity; collectivism is most often a consequence of tightness and cultural simplicity (Triandis, 2018, p. 52).

Different from Hofstede's view, Triandis states that in every culture, there are people who are called allocentrics, that believe, feel, and act like collectivists. There are also people who are called idiocentric, who believe, feel, and act like individualists (Triandis, 2018, p. 5). Allocentrics and idiocentrics exist in every culture but in different mixtures. In collectivist cultures, there are more allocentrics and in individualist cultures there are more idiocentrics. The fit between culture and personality is critical. Allocentrics in a collectivist culture fit well. Similarly idiocentrics in an individualist culture also fit well. However, idiocentrics in a collectivist culture or an allocentrics in an individualist culture will have conflicts.

Triandis and Hofstede et al identified the following differences between individualists and collectivists (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede et al., 2010; Triandis, 2018):

- In collectivist societies people have a "we" identity while in individualist societies people have an "I" identity.
- In the collectivist society, value standards differ for in-groups and out-groups (exclusionism) while in individualist societies, the same value standards are supposed to apply to everyone (universalism). In collectivist societies, people behave with self-sacrifice to the one in the in-group. However, they are harsh with the out-group. Individualists, in contrast, do not differentiate between in-group and out-group. Collectivists are very good at dealing with their relatives and their in-groups. However, when they enter a new group they are, kind of, shy and they do not know exactly what to do.
- The competition in a collectivist society is between groups, while in the individualist society the competition is between individuals.
- In the collectivist society, the personal relationship prevails over the task, whereas in the individualist society, the task is supposed to prevail over any personal relationships.

- In collectivist cultures, there is a tendency to pay attention to how something is said (the context), in individualist cultures, on the other hand, people pay attention to what is said (the content). In high context communication, many things are obvious from how things are being said so actually the communication can be short. On the other hand, in individualist societies what is being said is more important than how it is said, so everything must be specified and therefore the communications are more extensive.
- In collectivist cultures, there is more silence, synthesis, and ambiguity in communication. Collectivists put the most powerful argument at the end; emphasize what was agreed upon rather than what was said; and make decisions by consensus. Individualists, on the other hand, use confrontation, pay attention to the content, and put the best argument first.
- A key word in collectivist society is harmony. There should be harmony inside the in-group. Even if people disagree, they should maintain the superficial harmony and avoid conflicts. Otherwise the in-group will be weakened and fall apart. In an individualist society, confrontations and conflicts can do no harm, and they can be healthy and even necessary. In collectivist cultures, negative feelings are suppressed and are not expressed very easily since doing so may break the relationship with other members of the group. Collectivists are very careful on how they talk to people and very often they give indirect signals in their communications.
- In the collectivist society, friendships are predetermined, whereas in individualist society friendships are voluntary and should be fostered.
- Collectivists carry out their obligations and perform what is expected of them as specified by in-group norms; individualists do what is enjoyable and what is required by contracts they have established with others. In collectivist cultures, the group goals and the individual goals tend to be consistent whereas in individualist cultures, they are not necessarily consistent with each other. In collectivist societies, the norms are very important; in individualist cultures, on the other hand attitudes are more important than norms. The behavior is much more a function of external factors such as group norms whereas in individualist cultures behavior is much more a function of internal factors such as the kind of personality you have.

- Saving face is terribly important in collectivist cultures but not that much important in individualist cultures.
- In a collectivist cultures, the Self is defined by the roles that people have and it is easy to change and adapt into the group. However, in individualist cultures the Self is much steadier.
- The people who are more collectivist will stay in one job for a longer time than individualists do (Wasti, 2003). Collectivists maintain established relationships even if it is not in their best interests to do so. However, Individualists rationally analyze the advantages and disadvantages of maintaining and fostering relationships. Collectivists may also make such computations, but their threshold for forfeiting relationships is much higher.
- In collectivist cultures, failure is due to the Self, and not having tried hard enough. Therefore, persistence is very high in collectivist cultures. On the other hand, in individualist cultures, people do not blame themselves for the failure, but they blame the tasks.
- Socialization in collectivist cultures is emphasizing reliability, conformity, following traditions, and doing your duty. In individualist cultures, on the other hand, being creative, innovative, independent and self-reliant is much more important.
- Individualists may pursue their self-interest, regardless of its implications for the collective. Individualists always look for the best "deal" they can get. Collectivists are high in their consideration of the implications of their actions for others, tend to share material and nonmaterial resources, are more sensitive to social influence, are very concerned with their self-presentation and saving face, share their outcomes with others, and feel that their lives are involved in the lives of others (Hui & Triandis, 1986).

The factors given below increase the probability that people will become either collectivist or individualist (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede et al., 2010; Triandis, 2018).

- In most societies, women tend to be more collectivist than men are; the upper class, urban, younger and well-educated samples tend to be more individualist than the lower class, rural, older and less-educated samples.

- Changes in ecology (how people make a living), affluence, mobility (both social and geographic), and movement from rural to urban settings contribute to changes from collectivism to individualism.
- Traveling and living abroad increase the probability of having to decide on one's own lifestyle, and this leads to individualism. Exposure to other cultures also tends to make people individualists. Education generally leads to greater exposure to cultural diversity and tends toward individualism.
- Societies that are exposed to the mass media become more individualist because the mass media messages are designed to create pleasure rather than to inspire people to do their duty.
- When the family is large, a certain amount of regimentation and imposition of tightness, that is, collectivism, is inevitable to make life harmonious.
- Population density presses toward tightness, hence toward collectivism; an uninhabited open frontier presses toward looseness, hence individualism.
- Cultural homogeneity presses toward tightness, hence toward collectivism; cultural heterogeneity presses toward looseness and hence individualism.
- Stability of membership in the culture presses toward collectivism; instability presses toward individualism. External threat and having a salient common fate presses toward vertical collectivism; no threat permits horizontal individualism.
- When there is great time pressure for a required action, the situation presses toward vertical collectivism. When there is no time pressure, horizontal individualism is likely.
- Resource scarcity sometimes requires that authorities regulate who is to get what. This leads to vertical collectivism. If resources are abundant, there is pressure toward horizontal individualism.
- Religion increases the probability of the culture to become more collectivist.
- Strict upbringing of children increases collectivism. A child who did whatever his parents told him to do is most likely to become a collectivist. On the other hand, if the child is encouraged to be independent, self-reliant, exploratory, and he is told that it is okay to get into trouble, and parents would help to get him out of trouble, he is likely to become an individualist.

- Wealthier countries tend to be more individualist, while poorer countries tend to be more collectivist. The order of logic is that, wealth comes first and then the individualism follows.

2.1.4 Power Distance

Power distance is the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. Therefore, the power distance lies with the people at the bottom and not with the people at the top (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 61)

Hofstede identified the following differences between large power distance and small power distance societies (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede et al., 2010):

- In societies with large power distance, inequality is considered as a normal part of society. On the other hand, in a small power distance societies the inequality is something wrong and it should be reduced if possible.
- In large power distance societies, superiors are actually superior beings. They're a different kind of people. In small power distance societies hierarchies are somewhat the rules of the game. You need hierarchy to create order, but this doesn't mean that the superiors are really superior. Therefore, sometimes the roles are changed.
- In large power distance societies, power comes first and good and evil comes afterwards. You know who has the power first and then you decide what is good and what is evil. In the small power distance societies, power should be used legitimately. Everybody, on the top or on the bottom, is actually under the same rules of law.
- In large power distance societies in the education of children, respect is one of the most important things a child can learn. On the other hand, on the small power distance societies, independence is one of the most important things a child can learn.
- In large power distance societies, organizations are centralized, while in small power distance societies, organizations are decentralized.
- In large power distance societies, subordinates simply assume and expect that they will be told what to do, while in a small power distance society subordinates expect to be consulted when it relates to their work.

- In large power distance countries, business executives tend to be older. If people are in power they stay in power longer time, usually until they're retired, whereas in the small power distance societies business executives tends to be younger.
- In high power distance societies innovations come about only when they are supported by the hierarchy, whereas in the low power distance societies we have spontaneous innovations where people come about with rich ideas. Therefore, innovations are more frequent in low power distance societies.
- Countries with lower power distance are more often individualist and countries with a higher power distance are more often collectivist.
- In all societies, there is a gradual shift towards smaller power distance across generations; however, this is not a very big shift.

According to Markus and Kitayama, there are four kinds of self: independent or interdependent and same or different (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The definition of the self is 'interdependent' in collectivism and 'independent' in individualism. In horizontal (low power distance) cultures, you have the emphasis on equality, whereas in vertical (high power distance) cultures you have the emphasis on hierarchy. In both individualist and collectivist cultures, the vertical dimension accepts inequality, and rank has its privileges. Vertical dimension is reflective of the "different self" and in contrast, the horizontal dimension emphasizes that people should be similar on most attributes, especially status and is reflective of the "same self" (Triandis, 2018, p. 44).

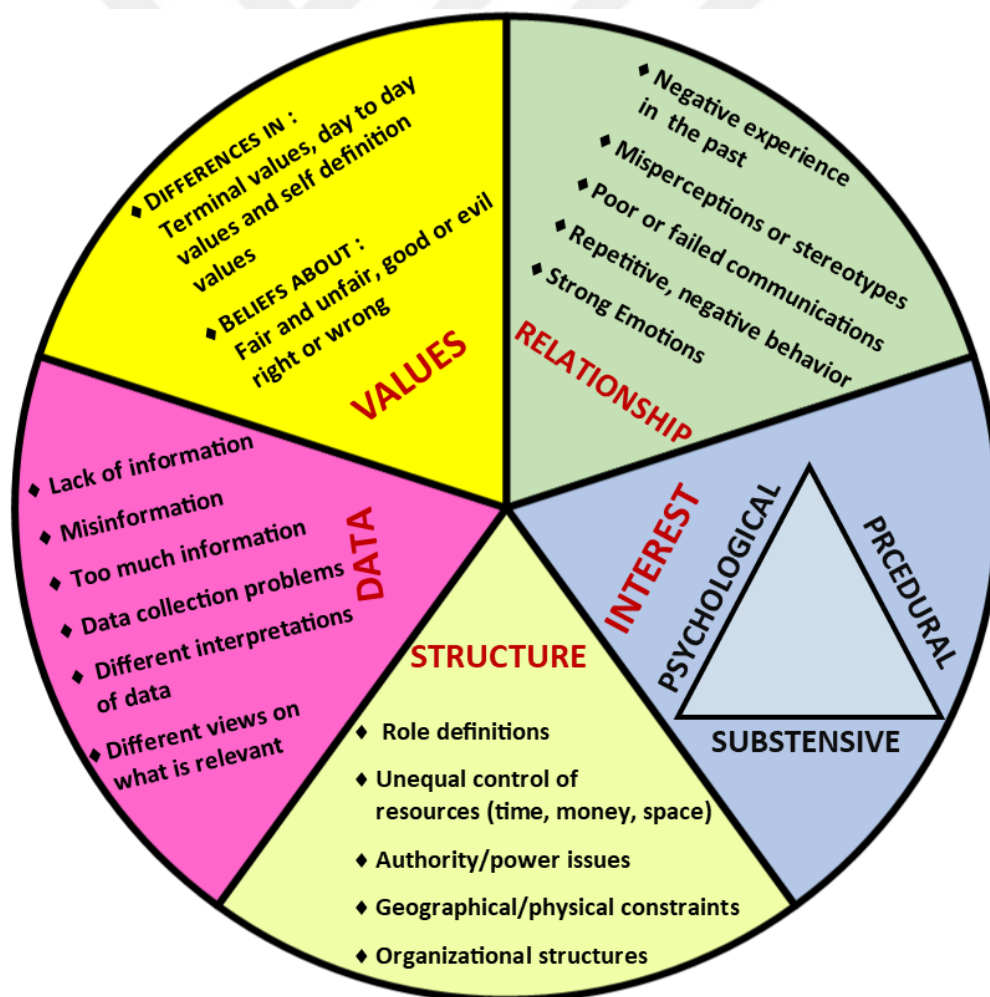
When the individualism-collectivism dimension is combined with the power distance dimension, four different constructs emerge: Vertical collectivism (VC), horizontal collectivism (HC), vertical individualism (VI) and horizontal individualism (HI). Horizontal collectivism would appear to imply collectivism and equality; vertical collectivism implies collectivism and hierarchy; horizontal individualism seems to correspond to individualism and equality; and vertical individualism to individualism and hierarchy.

We can expect horizontal individualism or collectivism to favor an interpersonal orientation toward cooperation with fellow employees, whereas vertical individualism will not require this orientation (Triandis, 2018, p. 131)

2.2 THE CONFLICT TYPE AS A SITUATIONAL CONTEXT

Different contexts require different interventions for managing or resolving conflicts. No single conflict resolution process is always suitable in all contexts. Although context has a broad meaning, in this study the word ‘context’ is used with its narrow meaning ‘situational context’ that corresponds to different types of conflicts identified by Moore (1996,2003). Moore’s Circle of Conflict (Moore, 2003) is a model that categorizes and analyzes conflicts in five broad categories with respect to their underlying causes (drivers) of the conflict situation. These are Value, relationship, structure, interest, and data conflicts (Figure 9). The Circle of Conflict is useful in analyzing the underlying causes of conflict as well as developing strategies to manage, address and resolve these conflicts (Furlong, 2010; Moore, 2014).

Figure 9. The Circle of Conflict



Source: Adapted from Moore, The Mediation Process: Practical Strategies for Resolving Conflict; 2nd edition, 1996, pp. 60-61. & 3rd edition, 2003, pp. 64-65.

Moore and Furlong defined data, relationship, interest, value and structural conflicts and described some useful strategies for dealing with these conflicts (Furlong, 2010; Moore, 2003)

2.2.1 Data Conflict

Data conflict is the easiest type of conflict to spot and the most straightforward to address though it may take a lot of work to resolve. Data conflicts can arise from lack of information, misinformation, too much information, feeling overwhelmed with technical information, information withheld, manipulation of data, mistrust of data, different interpretations of data, different ways of collecting data, and different views about its relevance.

Parties of a conflict can address data conflicts by bringing up data challenges, naming the differences in how people define, use and interpret data, encouraging the use of the best available data and working together to develop better data, and identifying any gaps of data and discussing how they should be addressed (Moore, 2003).

2.2.2 Relationship Conflicts

The relationship conflicts are also easy to spot but a little more difficult to deal with. Choosing where to sit to avoid someone, awkward silences and meaningful glances in response to who is speaking, tension seemingly unrelated to the substantive topic are symptoms of relationship conflicts. Negative experience from the past, strong emotions or feelings, misperceptions, miscommunication or poor communication, distrust, stereotyping or prejudice, irritating habits, blaming or accusations and repetitive negative behaviors are possible causes of relationship conflicts.

Changing the settings of interactions or establishing mutually acceptable ground rules for interactions, exchanging and talking about perceptions, agreeing to "wall off history" and move forward into the future, using "I messages" when talking rather than criticizing or blaming others, developing behavioral contracts, clarifying what people wanted in the past or what they expect in the future, recognizing negative impacts of past attitudes or actions, giving an apology, and offering reparations for the parties harmed in the past are some useful and effective strategies for managing or resolving relationship conflicts (Moore, 2014).

2.2.3 Interest Conflicts

Interest conflicts can stem from totally incompatible and mutually exclusive substantive, psychological or procedural interests, as well as total unacceptability or perceived legitimacy of one or another party's interests.

People can manage and resolve interest conflicts effectively (Fisher & Ury, 1992; Fisher Patton and Ury, 1981):

- separating the people from the problem, being hard on the problem and soft on the people.
- focusing on interests that are being expressed and generating multiple options to address those interests,
- generating options and deciding which options will best create a win-win solution.
- recognizing at least some of the interests of the other party, if not all.
- accommodating the other party's interests even if you do not agree with them.
- clarifying the interests of each party and why they are important for them.
- clearly presenting and articulating interests (substantive, procedural and psychological/relationship).
- identifying the goal to be achieved or the problem to be solved in terms of meeting all parties' interests to the greatest extent possible.
- striving to satisfy relationship interests first, and then using this as a leverage to meet substantive interests of parties through fair and acceptable procedures
- meeting substantive interests and using this as a leverage to satisfy their relationship interest.
- developing fair processes to address interests of all parties.

2.2.4 Value Conflicts

Value conflicts often can arise from differences in terminal (life-defining) values, day-to-day (instrumental - operational) values or self-definition values. Extreme views and beliefs of what is right or wrong, fair or unfair, good or evil may result in value conflicts. Criticisms of personal or group beliefs of others, misunderstanding, mistrust strained and hostile communication, negative stereotyping, non-negotiability, distortion of other's values, imposing values on groups or preventing groups from upholding their value systems may also lead to value conflicts (Maiese,

2003). Value conflicts can stem from cultural experiences, political positions, religious affiliations, and ideological perspectives.

Values, especially the terminal values, are non-negotiable and value conflicts are intractable long-lasting conflicts (Burgess & Burgess, 2003). When dealing with value conflicts one should differentiate between day-to-day, operational and core values, and focus on interests that are often associated with day-to-day values. When dealing with value conflicts you should listen and try to understand, but not necessarily seek agreement. You should be ready to agree to disagree, and go separate ways. Looking for common values that may supersede value differences, searching for and developing super ordinate or overarching values that everyone share, and building stronger relationships that may overcome value differences can be cited as some other useful strategies for managing and resolving value conflicts (Moore, Jayasundere & Thirunavukarasu, n.d.).

2.2.5 Structural Conflicts

The most difficult structural conflicts can be invisible because they reflect the way things are set up. They are structural properties of the situation imposed on people. Structural conflicts are caused by 'oppressive' patterns of human relationships and may be external to those involved in the conflict. Structural conflicts are not necessarily caused by the individuals involved in the conflict, and people may be just trapped by structural conflicts against their will. Limited resources or authority, geographic constraints, time (too little or too much), the structure of the organization, or a lack of clear role descriptions can be cited as examples for sources of structural conflicts. Structural conflicts often happens when different departments have to work together but have divergent priorities for their perspective tasks.

The structural conflicts can be managed or resolved by defining and clarify roles, modifying external pressures, reallocating control of resources, changing time constraints, negotiating a ratification process if authority at the table is a problem, and negotiating who needs to be present to effectively resolve the issues (Moore, 1996, pp. 60–61). Nevertheless, structural conflicts are difficult to resolve, since there are inadequate or too little resources and no others are available, some resources are indivisible, role responsibilities or authorities are not possible to divide, and it is usually impossible to change physical constraints, time parameters or deadlines.

Although structural conflict is difficult to resolve, the following strategies are useful to deal with such conflicts (Moore, 2003; Moore, Ramani & Thirunavukarasu, n.d.):

- Beware that structural conflicts are not necessarily caused by the individuals involved. People may just be trapped by structural conflicts against their will.
- Acknowledge structural constraints and operate or reach agreements within them.
- Seek additional resources, try to expand the pie, negotiate reallocation of resources, or trade resources that are valued differently by different parties.
- Create new roles and responsibilities or change responsibilities.
- Move parties to create additional space between them or shift them closer together.
- Negotiate new time parameters to solve a problem or implement a solution
- Stop the clock or extend a deadline to allow more time to resolve an issue.
- Create an artificial deadline to push parties to reach a conclusion.
- Negotiate new rules, procedures, regulations or laws that may lower structural conflict.
- Agree that each party has her own "sphere of influence" where she has the primary decision making authority
- Consider redistribution of power and authority.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Today, finding an effective and efficient way of managing workplace conflicts in a timely manner and at the lowest possible level is of great importance. However, that is easier said than done. For many employees conflict has a bad reputation, and hence it is usually ignored and avoided rather than well managed. Finding a conflict competent organization where the conflict is welcomed and the employees are provided with a variety of interest-based and rights-based processes for managing their conflicts is another difficulty. The wide range of conflicts encountered in the workplace, and the cultural differences between conflicting parties also contributes to the difficulty of finding efficient and effective ways of managing workplace conflicts. One of the goals of this study is to uncover the relationship between horizontal and vertical forms of individualism-collectivism and conflict management processes. A second goal is to find whether the appropriateness of conflict management processes change across different situational contexts with the change of the conflict type. This way the researcher aims to contribute to a bottom up design of efficient conflict management systems that suits the needs of all organizational members holding different cultural values in a wide range of conflicts.

3.1. VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Conflicts neither take place in vacuum, nor can they be completely separated from the rest of the disputants' lives. Therefore, it is quite natural to expect the disputants holding different cultural values to give priority to different kinds of processes for managing their conflicts. Similarly, different kinds of conflict management processes are necessary in different situational contexts. According to Bendersky, disputants conflict behaviors can best be understood by considering both the characteristics of the individuals (ie. cultural values) and the conflict (type) they are facing. Disputants may choose to pursue particular conflict management processes depending on their own preferred style (which is greatly shaped by their values), and the characteristics (type) of the conflicts (Bendersky, 2005). Moreover, the way a certain conflict management process is conducted is strongly affected by the

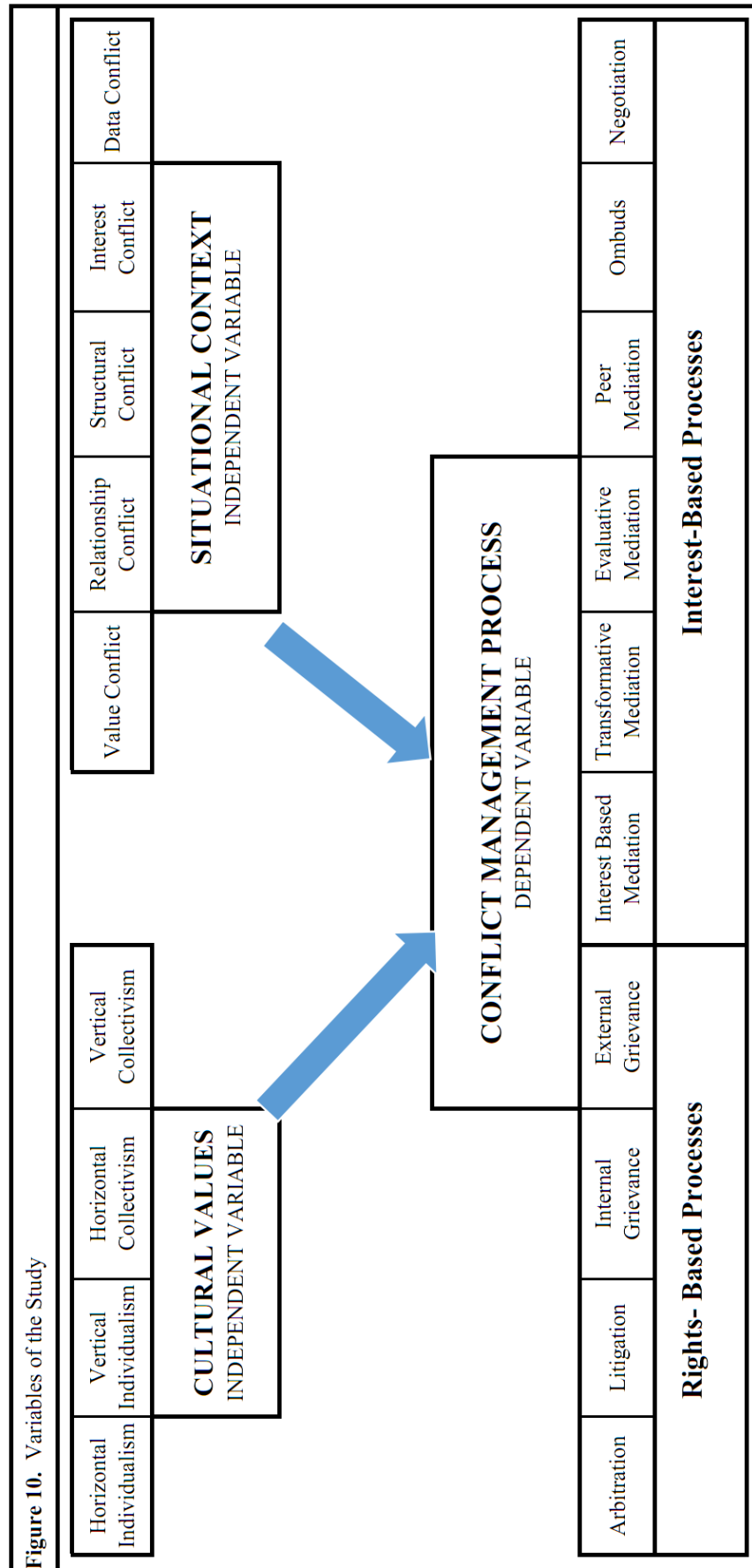
(situational) context (Welsh & Coleman, 2002) and the cultural orientation of the disputants.

In this study the first independent variable is cultural values defined by Triandis (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995; Triandis, 1989; Triandis, Chen, & Chan, 1998) which is thought to be the best explaining cultural value typology regarding conflict process preferences when compared to Schwartz's (Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz et al., 2012) and Hofstede's (Hofstede, 1980) typology. Because, Triandis et al. are using an individual level analysis rather than a cultural level analysis, and treating cultural dimensions as different constructs (Gelfand et al., 1996) as opposed to Hofstede's view of culture. As mentioned in Chapter 3 Triandis's typology composes of four dimension: horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism. The second independent variable of the study is conflict types considered as a situational context. Regarding Moore's typology (Moore, 1996; 2003) defined in Chapter 3 five different conflict types are taken into account: value, relationship, structural, interests and data conflict. As it will be explained in detail in the following sections of this chapter, conflict type is imposed by the researcher with scenarios, which outlines a semi experimental design. The main objective of the study is to explain how conflict management preferences change due to the two above mentioned independent variables. Thus, conflict management process are the dependent variable of the study. The study examines changes in ten different conflict management process: negotiation, transformative mediation, peer mediation, interest-based mediation, evaluative mediation, ombuds, litigation, internal grievance, external grievance, and arbitration respectively. Figure 10 shows the variables of the study in detail.

3.1.1 Relationship between Variables

In section 3.1.1.1 a brief summary of Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) is given. Then in the light of the previous research arguments and Theory of Planned Behavior the relationship between cultural values and conflict management processes is discussed and hypotheses regarding this relationship are stated in section 3.1.1.2. Finally, in section 3.1.1.3 I presented the final hypothesis of this study on how conflict type as a situational context affect conflict management processes mean scores.

Figure 10. Variables of the study



3.1.1.1 Theory of Planned Behavior

Behavior is the manifest, observable response in a given situation with respect to a given target (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011). Behavioral observations can be aggregated across contexts and times to produce a more broadly representative measure of behavior. According to the theory of planned behavior, intentions that are best predictors of behaviors are a function of three basic determinants: 1) *Attitude toward behavior* which is personal in nature, 2) *Subjective norms* that are reflecting social influence, and 3) *Perceived behavioral control* which is the sense of self-efficacy or the ability to perform the behavior of interest (Icek Ajzen, 2005, pp. 117–118).

The *attitudes* relate to how a person thinks and feels about the behavior (enjoyable or unenjoyable) and reflects their expectations, and evaluations of the behavior (beneficial or harmful). According to Fishbein & Ajzen (2011), attitude toward a behavior is determined by accessible beliefs about the consequences of the behavior. If the behavior is perceived to result in more positive than negative outcomes, the attitude toward the behavior will be favorable (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 20).

The *subjective norms* which relates to the support given or not given by family friends or significant others, focuses on everything around the individual including his or her social network, cultural norms, unstated assumptions, group values, group beliefs and so on. Subjective norms are assumed to be a function of beliefs that specific individuals or groups encourage or disapprove of performing the behavior (injunctive norms); or that these social referents (friends, parents, spouse, coworkers) themselves engage or do not engage in it (descriptive norms) (Icek Ajzen, 2005, p. 124). If significant others are believed to approve than disapprove, and if the majority of important others perform the behavior, people are likely to perceive social pressure to engage in the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 20).

The *perceived behavioral control* relates to a person's perception on how easy or hard it is to display the target behavior, and the extent to which she feel capable and have confidence in her ability to execute the desired behavior. Perceived behavioral control is assumed to be a function of beliefs about the presence or absence of environmental or personal factors that facilitate or hinder performance of the behavior (Icek Ajzen, 2005, p. 125). The beliefs can be about internal control factors (capacity) or external control factors (autonomy). These beliefs may be influenced by individuals' own experiences, and experiences of acquaintances and friends, by second-hand

information about the behavior, and by other factors such as education and media that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing the behavior in question. If control beliefs identify more facilitating than inhibiting factors, perceived behavioral control should be high (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 21). The fewer obstacles individuals expect and the more resources and opportunities they think they have, the greater their perceived control over the behavior. On the other hand, *Actual behavioral control* refers to the extent to which a person has the skills, resources, and other prerequisites needed to perform the behavior in question. In many situations, it may be difficult or impossible to ascertain a person's level of actual control.

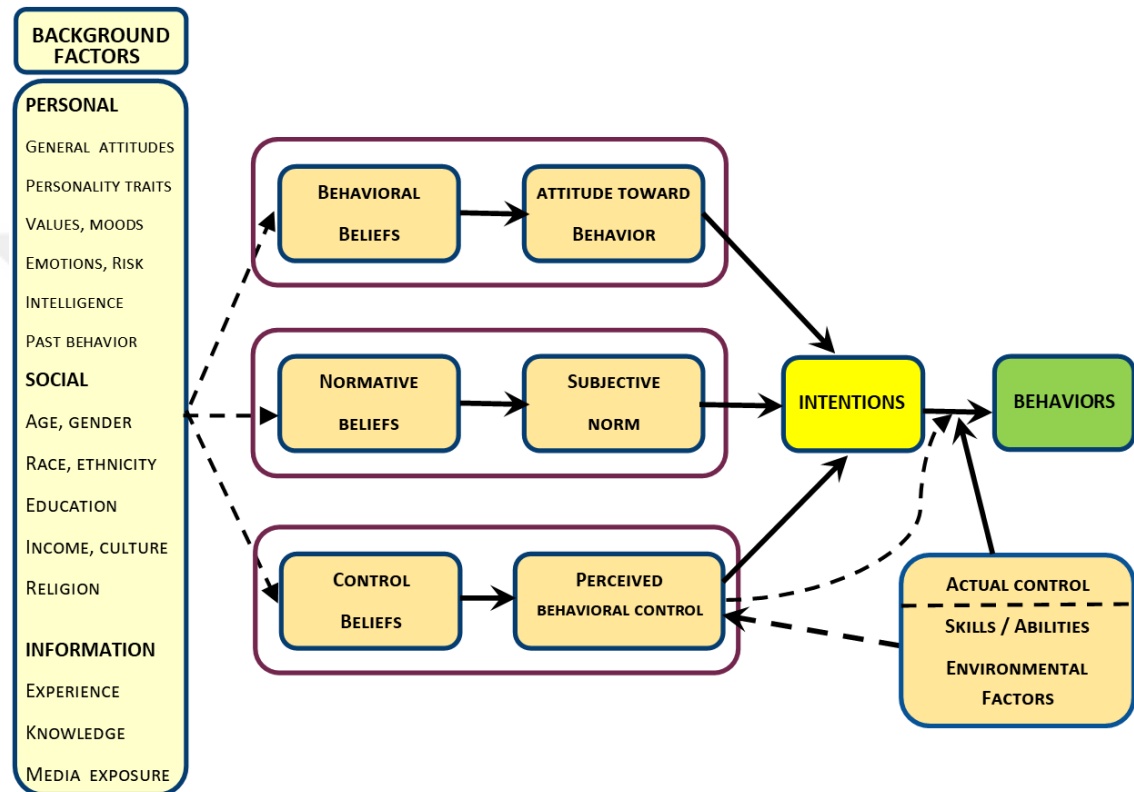
According to the theory of planned behavior, positive attitudes towards the act or behavior, favorable subjective norms, and a high level of perceived behavioral control (in combination) are the best predictors of a behavioral intention, which in turn is the best single predictor of a displayed behavior (Icek Ajzen, 1991). The relative importance or weight of attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control as the three determinants of intentions is expected to vary from one behavior to another and from one population to another (Icek Ajzen, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011).

In summary, the stronger the intention, the more likely it is that the behavior will be carried out. However, the influence of intention on behavior is moderated by actual behavioral control or perceived behavioral control as its proxy. Lack of necessary skills and abilities, or presence of environmental constraints, can prevent people from acting on their intentions. It is only when people do have control over behavioral performance that intention is expected to be a good predictor of behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 21). The schematic diagram given Figure 11 is a presentation of Theory of Planned Behavior.

As can be seen from the diagram in Figure 11, Theory of Planned Behavior recognizes the importance of attitude toward behavior, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control as well as personal, social, and informational background factors. According to the theory, background factors may indirectly affect behavioral, normative, or control beliefs and thus influence attitudes, norms, behavioral control, intention and behavior. General attitudes, personality traits, intelligence, emotions, values, stereotypes, mood, age, gender, race, ethnicity, education, income, culture, religion, experience, knowledge, exposure to media, group membership, past experiences, social support, intervention, conflict management skills can be given as

examples of these background factors (Icek Ajzen, 2005, p. 135; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2011, p. 22). Thus, I suppose that Triandis' Cultural dimensions (HI, VI, HC, and VC), as background factors can have an indirect and hence limited effect on participants' attitudes toward evaluation of the appropriateness of conflict management processes.

Figure 11. The schematic diagram for theory of planned behavior



Source: Adapted from Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2011). *Predicting and Changing Behavior: The Reasoned Action Approach*. Taylor & Francis p.13.

3.1.1.2 Cultural Values –Conflict Management Process Relationship

Although sometimes silent and invisible, culture plays an important role in determining how we behave and how we perceive the behavior of others (Matsumoto & Juang, 2003, p. 469). According to Matsumoto and Juang culture affects our perceptions, attitudes and behaviors, the structures of our organizations, our system of education, our government, and even our health. Culture influences the language we speak and the way we communicate with each other, and it affects our orientation towards conflict as well as the way we manage our conflicts.

Previous research has suggested that culture may affect the way people manage their conflict. For example Leung (1987) found that the collectivists preferred negotiation and mediation to a larger extent than did the individualists. Kozan and Ergin (1998) also found that collectivists were found to significantly prefer third party intermediaries, whereas individualists chose negotiation to manage their conflict. According to Gadling, power- and rights-based orientations reinforce competition, rivalry, and antagonism between people while interest-based, problem-solving orientations can lead to collaboration (Gadling, 2005). Individualists who are more self-face-oriented tend to use a direct, low-context conflict style to assert their rights in a conflict situation, while collectivists who are more other-face- or mutual-face-oriented tend to use an indirect, high-context conflict style to preserve relational harmony (Oetzel, Garcia, & Ting-Toomey, 2008). Therefore, Collectivists, prefer indirect and informal interest-based processes including a third party, to direct and formal rights-based processes. Individualists view the conflict from an independent-self conflict lens while collectivists view conflict from an interdependent-self conflict lens (Ting-Toomey & Chung, 2012, pp. 182–184). According to Ting-Toomey and Chung Individualists are outcome-focused, content goal-oriented, doing-centered and hence they usually prefer competitive right-based conflict management processes that emphasize tangible conflict issues rather than relationship issues. Grievance, arbitration, and litigation are the common examples of these win–lose rights-based conflict management processes. On the other hand, Collectivists are process-focused, relational goal-oriented and being-centered and hence they favor interest-based processes such as mediation, ombudsman and interest-based negotiation over the rights-based processes such as positional bargaining, grievance, arbitration, and litigation.

The mediation process is based on the equality of the parties and any decision for the outcome is taken by consensus. Mediators are neutral and impartial third parties and cannot make any binding decision on the outcome of the conflict. Therefore, there is no hierarchy in the mediation process. This corresponds to a low power distance, and makes the mediation process an egalitarian horizontal process. Therefore, for all kinds of mediations I assume that:

H1: The mean scores for all kinds of mediation processes are positively related with horizontal collectivism dimension scores.

In evaluative mediation, the mediator has more control over the process and can offer a solution to the parties, which in turn implies a naturally higher power distance and the existence of some hierarchy in the process. In the peer mediation defined in this study, one of the goals is to maintain corporate values and harmony in the institution. Because the outcomes of conflict need to be aligned with the core values of the community, in peer mediation process I assume that there is going to be some kind of invisible pressure on the parties from either the community or the mediator to reach a resolution. This, in turn, correspond to a high power distance. Therefore:

H2: The mean scores for evaluative mediation and peer mediation processes are positively related with vertical collectivism.

The formal adversarial rights-based processes such as litigation, internal grievance and external grievance are hierarchical in nature since the parties have no control on either the process or the outcome. In these processes, the disputants try to influence a third party that is going to make a binding decision on the outcome of the conflict between the parties. Therefore:

H3: The mean scores for litigation, external grievance and internal grievance are positively related with vertical individualism dimension of the culture.

Negotiation is often the first resort to a conflict. Although conducted in different forms, negotiation is usually considered as an interest-based process. Nevertheless, as mentioned earlier in this study, positional bargaining is mainly a rights-based process, while principled negotiations are interest-based processes. In a workplace environment where maintaining the relationship is important I assume that the negotiation process is going to be an interest-based process rather than a rights-based process. Hence I suppose that:

H4: The mean scores for negotiation process are positively related with horizontal collectivism dimension of the culture.

Arbitration is mainly an adversarial, right-based process. In arbitration the parties are given some freedom to select their arbitrator. However, since it is the

arbitrator that makes the binding decision, the parties have no control over the outcome of the process. The arbitrator can only be selected by consensus, so the parties, as equals, cooperate in the selection process. However, when it comes to convince the arbitrator to make a decision in their favor, parties compete with each other. The parties have equal influence in selection of the arbitrator, but the decision making process is hierarchical with a high power distance dimension. So, I suppose that the arbitration is a mixed motive process with both collectivism and individualism dimensions as well as egalitarianism and hierarchy dimensions. Here, the stress is on vertical individualism and horizontal collectivism is secondary. Hence:

H5: The mean scores for arbitration process are positively related with both vertical individualism and horizontal collectivism.

Just like mediation, organizational Ombudsman is also a non-adversarial interest-based process. Ombuds are not affiliated with the hierarchy of the institution and they work independently from the administration. They report systematic failures to senior management but their decisions are not binding on management. Ombuds sometimes act as a mediator. However, workplace ombuds serve many other functions such as providing confidential and informal assistance to disputants about their conflicts, and facilitating the communication between the conflicting parties. They also offer coaching and training services to conflict parties and sometimes offer solutions that contribute to reach a fair resolution. When they offer a resolution for the conflict, the process resembles a right-based process rather than an interest based process. So, ombuds can also be considered as a mixed motive process where the emphasis is on horizontal collectivism and vertical individualism dimensions is secondary. Hence:

H6: The mean scores for ombuds process are positively related with horizontal collectivism and vertical individualism dimensions of the culture.

3.1.1.3 Conflict Type as a Situational Context – Conflict Management Process Relationship

Conflict management processes are not a mathematics or physics formula that can be applied to all situations. In different situational contexts, conflict may require different interventions and no single conflict resolution process is always suitable for all types of conflicts. Therefore, it is quite natural to expect the disputants to prefer different processes in different contexts that corresponds to different types of conflicts. Disputants may choose to pursue particular conflict management processes depending on the characteristics (type) of the conflict (Bendersky, 2005). Hence I suppose that:

H7: The mean scores for a certain conflict management process are significantly different from each other in different situational contexts (different kinds of conflicts).

3.1.2 Constraints

In this study, conflict scenarios were used to understand the effect of situational context on conflict management process preferences of academics in higher education institutions. Using scenarios as a scholarly methodology, may have some important limitations, however. First of all, by using conflict scenarios the researcher tried to fix the situational context (conflict type), however factors other than conflict type such as the degree of escalation of the conflict, or the status of participants in the given conflict may also interfere and affect the choice of the participants. Second, the results obtained in the study are limited to the given scenarios and cannot be generalized to all conflicts situations. Third, many other background factors (Ajzen, 2011) such as participants' personality traits, intelligence, emotions, mood, age, gender, education, income, experience, group membership, past experiences, and conflict management skills may also affect conflict management processes mean scores.

In the beginning of this study, I aimed to reach both academics and administrative staff working in higher educational institutions of Turkey. However due to the difficulty in finding the contacts of the administrative staff and time limitations, the study was conducted with academics from 190 different universities in Turkey whose contacts were available in Council of Higher Education's webpage. This is another constraint.

3.2. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

3.2.1. Data Collection

To collect data a Google form was designed and an online survey was conducted. Starting in June 2018, 57819 mails were sent to the academics working in 12 different research domains and they are invited to answer the online questionnaire. It took the researcher three months to send the questionnaires and collect the responses. 1925 of the 57819 academics responded and answered the questionnaire given in Appendix B. The response rate of the survey was 3.33 %.

When collecting the data privacy was kept to the utmost and no personal information was recorded, including the participants' e-mail addresses. In the questionnaire, the questions on demographics of the participants are optional to encourage participation in the survey and to allow the participants answer the questions in a comfortable way. However, those who wish to obtain a detailed information about the results of the research may fill in the optional e-mail section given at the end of the survey. Table 6 shows the main parts of the questionnaire used in the current research.

Table 6. Structure of Questionnaire	
1	DEMOGRAPHICS: Title, Gender, Age, Position, Sector, Status, Research Domains, Work Experience, Work Experience in Current Organization, Educational Level
2	16-Item INDCOL Scale Turkish Version
3	WORKPLACE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT SURVEY 3.1 Conflict management preferences of academics for value conflict 3.5 Conflict management preferences of academics for data conflict 3.4 Conflict management preferences of academics for interest conflict 3.3 Conflict management preferences of academics for structural conflict 3.2 Conflict management preferences of academics for relationship conflict

In the first part demographic data such as title, gender, age, position, sector, status, research domains, work experience, work experience in current organization, educational level of participants was collected. The second part consisted of the 16-item INDCOL scale Turkish version used to measure individualism and collectivism along the horizontal and vertical dimensions. Finally, the third part aimed to collect

information on how respondents reacted to ten different conflict management processes in five different conflict scenarios, each representing a different type of conflict. First, a conflict scenario representing a specific conflict type was given. The respondents were asked to read the scenario and evaluate to what extent each of the following ten conflict management processes were suitable in managing the conflict given in the scenario. Then the same process was repeated for the other conflict scenarios.

3.2.2 Measurement Instruments

3.2.2.1 The 16-Item INDCOL Scale–Turkish Version

The INDCOL scale (Singelis et al., 1995; Harry C. Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a), is designed to measure individualism and collectivism at the individual level. The INDCOL scale consists of items designed to measure four dimensions of individualism and collectivism: 1) Horizontal Individualism (HI) – seeing the self as fully autonomous, and believing that equality between individuals is the ideal. 2) Vertical Individualism (VI) – seeing the self as fully autonomous, but recognizing that inequality will exist among individuals and that accepting this inequality. 3) Horizontal Collectivism (HC) – seeing the self as part of a collective but perceiving all the members of that collective as equal. 4) Vertical Collectivism (VC) – seeing the self as a part of a collective and being willing to accept hierarchy and inequality within that collective.

32-item INDCOL scale (Singelis et al., 1995) was shown to be reliable and valid. The scale's structure was shown to be sound by means of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the measure had reasonable Cronbach's alfa coefficients: HI (.67); VI (.74); HC (.74); VC (.68). (Singelis et al., 1995). Although the horizontal and vertical collectivism scales were strongly correlated (.39) the four-factor model provided a better fit than the three-factor model. The difficulty with individualism and collectivism is that because they are broad constructs (e.g., large bandwidth), high alphas have been difficult to obtain (Singelis et al., 1995). Nonetheless, measurement problems have clouded Singelis et al.'s (1995) results. That is, even though their study's findings supported the four-factor model, the scale developed by Singelis and colleagues has not proven to be particularly robust (Cozma, 2011).

INDCOL 95 was later modified and a scale with 27-items that had the highest factor loadings on the constructs is obtained (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a). The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients showed that the 27-item INCOL is a reliable scale. For the US sample the Cronbach's alpha coefficients: .81 (HI), .82 (VI), .80 (HC), .73 (VC); and factor loadings from .40 to .68 were reported (Harry C. Triandis & Gelfand, 1998b). However, although they used a 27-item scale Triandis & Gelfand reported the factor loadings for only 16 items (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998a, p. 120). The INCOL was translated to Turkish by Wasti and Erdil (2007). The validity of INCOL Turkish version was tested and it was found to be a reliable scale (Wasti & Erdil, 2007). This study uses the Turkish version of 16-item version of the INCOL scale translated by Wasti and Erdil (2007). However although the original Turkish version of 16-item INCOL scale is a 7-point Likert scale, I used a 5-point Likert scale with 1= Totally Disagree and 5= Totally Agree. This study also used the 16-item INCOL scale. With a 5-point scale, it is quite simple for the interviewer to read out the complete list of scale descriptors (Dawes, 2008) and this increases response rate and response quality along with reducing respondents' frustration level (Buttle, 1998). The scale contains 4-items for each component of individualism-collectivism: HI, VI, HC, and VC.

Referring to the Part-2 of the questionnaire in Appendix B 1) 4 Items (1-4) measure Horizontal Individualism (HI), 2) 4 Items (5-8) measure Vertical Individualism (VI), 3) 4 Items (9-12) measure Horizontal Collectivism (HC) and 4) 4 Items (13-16) measure Vertical Collectivism (VC)

In the current research, to test structural reliability of the 16-item INCOL scale, using the original sample (no different test sample was used) a Principal Components Analysis with Varimax rotation was conducted. Results showed that the assumption of independent sampling was met. The assumptions of normality, linear relationships between pairs of variables, and the variables being correlated at a moderate level were checked. Four components were rotated, based on the eigenvalues over 1 criterion and the scree plot. After rotation, the first component (Vertical Collectivism) accounted for 16.14 % of the variance with factor loadings from .861 to .598, the second component (Horizontal Individualism) accounted for 15.17% of the variance with factor loadings from .780 to .695, the third component (Horizontal Collectivism) accounted for 15.03% of the variance with factor loadings from .787 to .629 and the fourth component (Vertical Individualism) accounted for 13.27% of

the variance with factor loadings from .765 to .493. The total variance explained is 59.61%. Table 7 displays the items and component loadings for the rotated components, with loadings less than .30 omitted to improve clarity.

Table 7. Factor Analysis of INDCOL (Rotated Component Matrix)				
<i>INDCOL Items</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
	<i>VC</i>	<i>HI</i>	<i>HC</i>	<i>VI</i>
Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	0.861			
It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	0.838			
Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	0.763			
It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	0.598		0.381	
I would rather depend on myself than others.		0.780		
I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.		0.776		
I often do "my own thing."		0.733		
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.		0.695		
The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.			0.787	
If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.			0.760	
I feel good when I cooperate with others.			0.722	
To me, pleasure is spending time with others.			0.629	
Winning is everything.				0.765
When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.				0.762
Competition is the law of nature.				0.755
It is important that I do my job better than others.		0.326		0.493
<i>Cronbach Alpha</i>	0.806	0.760	0.724	0.698

* Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy=.780
 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity $\chi^2 = 9693.718$ - df=120 P=.0001
 Note: Factors < .30 are omitted

Results of reliability analysis using coefficient Alpha for inter item consistency showed that Cronbach's alpha for the Horizontal Individualism (HI) scale (.760), the Horizontal Collectivism (HC) scale (.724) and Vertical Collectivism (VC) scale (.806) indicated good internal consistency reliability, but the alpha for the Vertical Individualism (VI) scale (.698) which is slightly lower than desirable. According to Nunally (1994) a satisfactory level of reliability depends on how a measure is being used. In the early stages of predictive or construct validation research, time and energy

can be saved using instruments that have only modest reliability, e.g., .70 (Nunnally, 1994, pp. 264–265)

3.2.2.2 Conflict Type - Scenarios

As mentioned earlier the processes used to resolve or manage conflicts are closely related to the causes or sources of the conflict. Hence, to examine the relationship between conflict type as a situational context and conflict management process preferences of participants, five different scenarios were used each representing Christopher Moore's (2003) typology, namely values, relationships, structure, interests and data. After the content validation process, the scenarios are used in our Workplace Conflict Management Process Survey. Using five different conflict scenarios instead of a single one, will not only enable us to make a comparison between process preferences of participants in different situational contexts but also provide us a more comprehensive view for conflict management process preferences of academics in higher education institutions.

To determine whether the written conflicts scenarios has a content validity and are representative of the corresponding conflict types, an online Conflict Scenario Evaluation Questionnaire was prepared and sent to four referees. Referees are four professors at Dokuz Eylul University.

Scenarios were written taking Moore's (2003) definition into account. Then each scenario was test for content validity. The value scenario is about a value conflict taking place between two civil servants working in the same public institution. The relationship scenario is about a relationship conflict between two co-workers. The structure scenario is about a structural conflict between a secretary and two deputy directors of a private company. The interest scenario is about a conflict due to diverging interests and needs of two biology teachers working in the same public school. The data scenario is about a data conflict between an experienced employee and a corporate manager.

In the first part of this questionnaire a scenario representing a value conflict and the definition of the value conflict is given. Then on a 5-point Likert scale the referees are asked to evaluate whether the Value Conflict Scenario is a representative of the value conflict whose definition is given. If the conflict in the scenario is rated as 4 (suitable) or 5 (definitely suitable) by three or more of the referees, then it was accepted to be representative of a Value Conflict. In Part II, III, IV, and V the same

method was followed for relationship, structural, interest and data conflicts respectively.

Results of content analysis showed that scenarios for value conflict, relationship conflict, interest conflict and data conflict were found to be compatible with the respective conflict definitions. That is they all have a content validity. The structural conflict scenario, on the other hand, was regarded as not having content validity. Table 8 shows ratings of the referees for respective conflict scenarios.

Table 8. Scenario Content Analysis 1	REFEREE A	REFEREE B	REFEREE C	REFEREE D	RESULT
VALUE CONFLICT SCENARIO	5	4	5	4	Accepted
RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT SCENARIO	1	4	5	4	Accepted
STRUCTURAL CONFLICT SCENARIO	1	4	3	3	Rejected
INTEREST CONFLICT SCENARIO	4	4	5	4	Accepted
DATA CONFLICT SCENARIO	4	4	5	3	Accepted

(5) highly suitable, (4) suitable, (3) not sure (2) not suitable (1) not suitable at all

In the second phase, three other structural conflict scenarios were written and then sent to the same referees for further evaluation. The referees considered that all three scenarios were representative of a structural conflict. Finally, the structural conflict scenario with the highest rating (Scenario-3) was selected, and thus conflict scenario evaluation process for the ‘Workplace Conflict Management Survey’ has been completed. Table 9 shows ratings of the referees for respective structural conflict scenarios.

Table 9. Scenario Content Analysis 2	REFEREE 1	REFEREE 2	REFEREE 3	REFEREE 4	RESULT
STRUCTURAL CONFLICT SCENARIO-1	4	4	4	4	Accepted
STRUCTURAL CONFLICT SCENARIO-2	4	4	4	4	Accepted
STRUCTURAL CONFLICT SCENARIO-3	5	4	4	4	Accepted

(5) highly suitable, (4) suitable, (3) not sure (2) not suitable (1) not suitable at all

Scenarios used in the study are given in Appendix-A

4.2.2.3 Conflict Management Processes

To measure appropriateness of conflict management processes, participants were firstly introduced with definitions of ten different conflict management processes. These ten conflict management processes were: Negotiation, arbitration, litigation, internal grievance, external grievance, interest-based mediation, transformative

mediation, evaluative mediation, peer mediation and ombudsman (Folger & Bush, 1996a; Haynes et al., 2004; Moffitt & Bordone, 2005; Riskin, 2003; Rowe, 2015; Sander & Goldberg, 1994; Stulberg, 1993; Tjosvold & Morishima, 1999) and they are defined in Table 10. Following the value conflict scenario and definitions of conflict management processes participants are asked to rate to what extent each of the processes are appropriate for the management / resolution of the conflict given in the scenario using a 5 point Likert Scale. The same process is repeated in section 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5 for relationship, structure, interest and data conflict scenarios respectively.

Table 10. Conflict Management Processes
<i>Process 1- NEGOTIATION:</i> Face-to-face communication of parties to settle their differences.
<i>Process 2- ARBITRATION:</i> The parties select an arbitrator where the decision of the arbitrator is final and binding.
<i>Process 3- LITIGATION:</i> The parties apply to a court. The court's decision is binding on the parties.
<i>Process 4- INTERNAL GRIEVANCE:</i> The parties use the existing grievance mechanisms within the organization (Positive/Negative Feedback systems, submitting a complaint to the institution, etc.)
<i>Process 5- EXTERNAL GRIEVANCE:</i> Parties can refer their complaint to an external agency (BIMER, CIMER, etc.)
<i>Process 6- INTEREST-BASED MEDIATION:</i> It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to reach an agreement that suits the interests and needs of the parties. The mediator is controlling the process while the parties decide on the outcome.
<i>Process 7- TRANSFORMATIVE MEDIATION:</i> It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to improve the quality of communication of the parties to clarify their views (empowerment) and to help them understand one another (recognition). The control of the process and the outcome of the negotiation are left to the conflicting parties.
<i>Process 8- EVALUATIVE MEDIATION:</i> It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to assist the parties in reaching a resolution similar to the outcome that would be obtained in a court, in case the dispute goes to the court. If the parties fail to reach an agreement, the mediator offers a resolution. However, it is up to the parties to accept or reject the proposal brought by the mediator.
<i>Process 9- PEER MEDIATION:</i> It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The mediator is a friend or a manager who works in the same workplace. He/she helps the parties to reach a solution by negotiating their differences. The aim of the mediation is to help maintain corporate values and harmony in the institution and to maintain good relations between employees when conflicts arise.
<i>Process 10 - OMBUDS:</i> A practitioner of impartial dispute resolution, providing confidential and informal assistance to disputants about their conflicts. Ombuds are not affiliated with the hierarchy of the institution and they work independently from the administration. Ombuds facilitate the communication of the parties and contributes to a fair resolution of the conflict. They can offer coaching and training services to people who are in conflict and offer solutions. They report systematic failures to senior management but their decisions are not binding on management.

3.3 SAMPLE

The target population of the research was academics in higher education institutions in Turkey. As of September 2018 there are 160896 academics working in higher education institutions in Turkey, 89244 males and 71652 females (YOK, n.d.-a). The records of 94321 of these academics can be found in the Turkish Higher Education Council Academic Search page (YOK, n.d.-b). The up to date e-mail addresses of 57819 academics' can be obtained from these records which is defined as the sampling frame of this study. These academics constitute 35.94 % of the total academics in Turkey and they are working in 12 different research domains in 79 different cities and 199 different universities. Table 11 shows the response rate of the academics from different research domains.

Research Domains	Records	Mails Sent	Response	Response %
Education & Teacher Training	7,145	5,056	244	4.82
Mathematics and Science	10,211	7,069	137	1.93
Linguistics	2,996	1,772	48	2.71
Fine Arts	3,748	2,546	70	2.75
Law	1,521	587	16	2.73
Religion	2,325	1,437	44	3.06
Architecture, Design & Planning	2,146	1,172	51	4.35
Engineering	16,088	10,790	249	2.3
Medicine	23,772	14,272	437	3.06
Social Science	18,605	9,419	505	5.36
Sports	1,371	1,057	46	4.35
Agriculture Science	4,393	2,642	78	2.95
TOTAL	94,321	57,819	1925	3.33

As displayed in Table 12 the percentage of females and males in the sample were 53.0% and 47.0%, respectively. 34.9% of participants were in the age group 25-34, 34.7% of them were in the age group 35-44, 21.1% of them were in the age group 45-54 and 9.4% of them were 55 years old or older. The participants were from different levels of academy including Professors 14.3%, Associate or Assistant Professors 43.8%, Lecturers 17.5%, and Research Assistants 24.4%. 79.7% of

participants were in Non-Managerial positions, while 23.3% of them were managers. The great majority of the participants (96.7%) was from the public universities, while only 3.3 % of all participants were from private universities. 80.2% participants are employees while 18.8% are contracted employees. 15.2% of the respondents have a working experience of 0-5 years, while 23.6% of them have 6-10 years, 28.2% of them have 11-19 years and 33.0% of them have 20 or more years of working experience. The participants' research domains and their respective percentages are as follows: Social Science (26.2%), Medicine (22.7%), Engineering (12.9%), Education & Teacher Training (12.7%), Mathematics and Science (7.1%), Agriculture Science (4.1%), Fine Arts (3.6%), Architecture Design and Planning (2.6%), Linguistics (2.5%), Sports (2.4%), Religion (2.3%), and Law (0.8%). Table 12 gives descriptive statistics of the participants in detail.

Table 12. Descriptive Statistics of Participants

Gender	N	%	Research Domain	N	%
Female	1017	53	Education & Teacher Training	244	12.7
Male	902	47	Mathematics and Science	137	7.1
Total	1919	100	Linguistics	48	2.5
Missing	6		Fine Arts	70	3.6
Total	1925		Law	16	0.8
			Religion	44	2.3
			Architecture Design & Planning	51	2.6
Age Interval	N	%	Engineering	249	12.9
25-34	623	34.9	Medicine	437	22.7
35-44	619	34.7	Social Science	505	26.2
45-54	376	21.1	Sports	46	2.4
55 or older	168	9.4	Agriculture Science	78	4.1
Total	1786	100	Total	1925	100
Missing	139				
Total	1925				
Position	N	%	Total Work Experience	N	%
Manager	390	20.3	0-5 Year	292	15.2
Non-Manager	1528	79.7	6-10 Year	453	23.6
Total	1918	100	11-19 Year	540	28.2
Missing	7		20 or more	633	33
Total	1925		Total	1918	100
			Missing	7	
			Total	1925	
Titles	N	%	Work Experience in Current Organization	N	%
Professor	275	14.3	0-5 Year	703	37.78
Assoc/Asst Prof	843	43.8	6-10 Year	468	25.15
Lecturer	337	17.5	11-19 Year	334	17.95
Research Assistant	470	24.4	20 or more	356	19.13
Total	1925	100	Total	1861	100
			Missing	64	
			Total	1925	
Status	N	%			
Employee	1538	80.2			
Contracted Employee	379	19.8			
Total	1917	100			
Missing	8				
Total	1925				
Sector	N	%			
Public	1852	96.7			
Private	63	3.3			
Total	1915	100			
Missing	10				
Total	1925				

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND OVERVIEW OF DATA

This section is comprised of three parts. The first part starts with descriptive findings related to Culture dimensions. It gives the mean scores for cultural dimensions and then examines how these cultural values vary with demographic variables such as gender, position, title, age, research domain and experience in the current institution. The second part is about the conflict management preferences of participants in different conflict scenarios. It gives the mean scores for conflict management processes of participants for five different conflict scenarios. Then with the help of one-way repeated measures ANOVA the mean scores for ten different conflict management processes were compared and this process was repeated for five different conflict scenarios. Later, the one-way repeated-measures ANOVAs were conducted for interest-based processes, different types of mediations and rights-based processes to further analyze the difference between process preferences of participants. Finally, the last part focuses on how cultural values and conflict management processes are correlated in each conflict scenario.

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics and Overview of Culture Dimensions

Findings indicate that subjects in the sample have the highest cultural scores ($M=4.21$; $SD= 0.66$) in Vertical Collectivism (VC) dimension and the lowest cultural scores ($M=3.00$; $SD=0.76$) in Vertical Individualism (VI) dimension (Table 13). The One-Way Repeated-Measures ANNOVA revealed that the mean scores for culture dimensions were all significantly different from one another ($F= 1307.60$; $p<.001$). Horizontal Collectivism ($M=3.99$; $SD=0.60$) mean scores were higher than Horizontal Individualism mean scores ($M=3.64$; $SD=0.77$). Similarly, Vertical Collectivism ($M=4.21$; $SD= 0.66$) mean scores were greater than Vertical Individualism ($M=3.00$; $SD=0.76$) mean scores. This indicated that the collectivist values were more salient. The individualism scores increased with horizontality (equality) while collectivisms scores increased with verticality (hierarchy). The highest scores obtained in Vertical Collectivism showed that participants see themselves as members of a group

(collective) rather than independent, autonomous individuals and they accept inequalities and hierarchy within that collective.

Table 13. Means for Dimensions of Culture			
<i>Dimension</i>	N	M	SD
Horizontal Individualism	1925	3.64	0.77
Vertical Individualism	1925	3.00	0.76
Horizontal Collectivism	1925	3.99	0.60
Vertical Collectivism	1925	4.21	0.66
$F(2.65, 5102.1) = 1307.60; p < .001, \eta^2 = .405$			

The independent sample t-tests conducted revealed that the mean scores for culture dimensions were significantly different for Females and Males, and Managers and Non-Managers (Table 14). For gender, the differences were both in Vertical Collectivism and Horizontal Individualism dimensions. On the other hand, differences between Managers and Non-Managers were specific to Horizontal Individualism dimension only.

In Horizontal Individualism dimension where equality is stressed and people see themselves more independent and autonomous, Non-managers' mean scores ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 0.7$) were significantly higher than Managers' mean scores ($M = 3.40$; $SD = 0.8$), ($t(567) = 6.71, p < .001$) This difference is not observed, however, in Vertical Individualism dimension where hierarchy and independence are emphasized. The effect of vertical-horizontal orientation is distinct.

Table 14. Cultural Differences Between Groups								
Variable	Culture Dimension	Groups	N	M	SD	t	df	P
Position	Horizontal Individualism $t = 6.71, p < .001$	Non-Manager	1578	3.71	0.70	6.71	567	0.000
		Manager	399	3.4	0.80			
Gender	Horizontal Individualism $t = 3.04, p < .001$	Female	1050	3.7	0.70	3.04	1883	0.002
		Male	928	3.59	0.80			
	Vertical Collectivism $t = -4.96, p < .001$	Female	1050	4.14	0.70	-4.96	1976	0.000
		Male	928	4.29	0.60			

Female's mean scores ($M=3.70$; $SD=0.7$) for Horizontal Individualism are significantly higher than Male's mean scores ($M = 3.59$; $SD=0.8$), ($t(1883) = 3.04$, $p < .001$). This indicated that females more than males experience themselves as independent and autonomous equal individuals. For the Vertical Collectivism dimension of the culture, on the other hand, Female's mean scores ($M = 4.14$; $SD=0.7$) are significantly lower than Male's mean scores ($M = 4.29$; $SD=0.6$), $t(1976) = - 4.96$, $p < .001$). This result showed that Males were more likely than Females to endorse choices that characterize vertical forms of Collectivism. The increase in the individualism orientation of females in horizontal direction (HI), and the decrease of their collectivism mean scores in vertical direction (VC) is distinct and striking and hence should be noted.

A One-Way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of Research Domain on culture dimensions. Only five domains with comparable sample sizes were included in the analysis. These were Engineering ($N = 249$), Mathematics and Science ($N = 137$), Education & Teacher Training ($N=244$), Social Sciences ($N=505$), and Medicine ($N = 437$). The other seven domains with small samples sizes are not comparable and hence they are not included in the analysis. The One-Way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant effect of Research Domain on Horizontal Individualism and Horizontal Collectivism dimensions of culture at $p < .01$ level. The post hoc test with Bonferroni correction showed that Horizontal Individualism mean scores for Engineering ($M=3.53$; $SD=0.78$) were significantly lower than Horizontal Individualism mean scores for Education & Teacher Training ($M = 3.77$; $SD=0.76$), and Social Sciences ($M=3.71$; $SD=0.77$), ($F = 4.45$, $p < .01$). Similarly the post hoc test with Bonferroni correction showed that Horizontal Collectivism mean scores for Engineering ($M=3.90$; $SD=0.61$) were significantly lower than Horizontal Collectivism mean scores for Medicine ($M = 4.08$; $SD=0.54$), ($F= 3.93$, $p < .01$). Academics in engineering domain feel less autonomy and equality than academics in education and teacher training and social sciences domains. They also see themselves as less inter-dependent on a group of equals than academics in the medicine domain. Table 15 gives the means of Horizontal Individualism and Horizontal Collectivism means for academics in different research domains.

Table 15. Horizontal Individualism and Horizontal Collectivism Mean Scores for Academics in Different Research Domains				
<i>Culture Dimension</i>	<i>Research Domain</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Horizontal Individualism</i> <i>F (4,1572)=4.45, p< .01).</i>	<i>Education & Teacher Training</i>	244	3.77 ^a	0.76
	<i>Social Science</i>	505	3.71 ^a	0.77
	<i>Mathematics and Science</i>	137	3.62 ^{a,b}	0.75
	<i>Engineering</i>	249	3.53 ^b	0.78
	<i>Medicine</i>	437	3.61 ^{a,b}	0.77
	<i>Total</i>	1572	3.66 ^{a,b}	0.77
<i>Horizontal Collectivism</i> <i>F (4, 1572)= 3.93, p < .01</i>	<i>Education & Teacher Training</i>	244	3.97 ^{a,b}	0.66
	<i>Social Science</i>	505	3.99 ^{a,b}	0.55
	<i>Mathematics and Science</i>	137	3.97 ^{a,b}	0.63
	<i>Engineering</i>	249	3.90 ^a	0.61
	<i>Medicine</i>	437	4.08 ^b	0.54
	<i>Total</i>	1572	4.00 ^{a,b}	0.58
<i>a,b</i> represent differences between groups				

A one-way ANOVA to examine the effect of Title on HI, VI, HC, and VC mean scores was conducted. Since the assumption of homogeneity is violated, a Nonparametric test was run. The Kruskal-Wallis H-test showed that there was a statistically significant difference in HI scores between different groups, ($\chi^2(3)= 25.45$, $p \leq .001$), with a mean rank HI score of 1044 for Research Assistants, 974 for Lecturers, 955 for Associate/Assistant Professors and 834 for Professors. The Dunn-Bonferroni pairwise comparison showed that Professors' Horizontal Individualism (HI) mean rank scores were significantly different from all other groups' HI mean rank scores. There was also a significant difference in the mean rank scores of Vertical Collectivism (VC) dimension, ($\chi^2(3) = 9.52$, $p \leq .05$), with the only significant difference being between Lecturers (*mean rank* = 1028) and Professors (*mean rank* = 903). Table 16 gives the mean and mean rank scores of the HI and VC dimensions for academics with different titles.

Table 16. Horizontal Individualism and Vertical Collectivism Mean Scores Mean Rank Scores for Academics With Different Titles					
<i>Culture Dimension</i>	<i>Research Domain</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean Rank Score</i>
<i>Horizontal Individualism</i> $\chi^2 (3)=25.45, p \leq .001$	<i>Professor</i>	275	3.44	0.87	834 ^a
	<i>Associate/Assistant Professor</i>	843	3.64	0.77	955 ^b
	<i>Lecturer</i>	337	3.65	0.80	974 ^b
	<i>Research Assistant</i>	470	3.76	0.68	1044 ^b
	<i>Total</i>	1925	3.64	0.77	
<i>Vertical Collectivism</i> $\chi^2 (3) = 9.52, p \leq .05$	<i>Professor</i>	275	4.16	0.62	903 ^a
	<i>Associate/Assistant Professor</i>	843	4.22	0.65	973 ^{a,b}
	<i>Lecturer</i>	337	4.26	0.69	1028 ^b
	<i>Research Assistant</i>	470	4.18	0.64	934 ^{a,b}
	<i>Total</i>	1925	4.21	0.65	
^{a,b} represent differences between groups					

Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that there was a statistically significant difference in Horizontal Individualism (HI) scores of different age groups, ($\chi^2 (3) = 28.90, p \leq .001$) with mean rank HI scores of 977 for 24-34 years old, 873 for 35-44 years old, 811 for 45-55 years old and 844 for those older than 55 years old. The Dunn-Bonferroni pairwise comparison revealed that the HI mean rank scores for 24-34 years olds were significantly higher than HI mean rank scores of all other groups. There was also a significant difference in Vertical Individualism (VI) mean rank scores of different age groups, ($\chi^2 (3) = 10.43, p \leq .05$). Pairwise comparisons indicated that VI mean rank scores for 24-34 years olds were significantly higher than VI mean rank scores of all other groups. Table 17 gives the mean and mean rank scores of the HI and VI dimensions for different age groups.

Table 17. Horizontal Individualism and Vertical Individualism Mean Scores and Mean Rank Scores for Different Age Groups					
<i>Culture Dimension</i>	<i>Age Group</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>
<i>Horizontal Individualism</i> $\chi^2 (3) = 28.90, p \leq .001$	25-34	623	3.78	.81	977 ^a
	35-44	619	3.62	.79	873 ^b
	45-54	376	3.51	.83	811 ^b
	55 or older	168	3.55	.83	844 ^b
	Total	1786	3.64	.77	
<i>Vertical Individualism</i> $\chi^2 (3) = 10.43, p \leq .05$	25-34	623	3.08	.78	946 ^a
	35-44	619	2.95	.79	860 ^b
	45-54	376	2.94	.69	864 ^b
	55 or older	168	2.99	.73	892 ^b
	Total	1786	3.00	.76	
^{a,b} represent differences between groups					

Another Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted to assess how culture scores differ with the ‘‘experience in the current institution’’ variable. The test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in Horizontal Individualism (HI) mean rank scores across different groups, The Dunn-Bonferroni pairwise comparison indicated that, participants having an experience of 20 or more years in the same institution has significantly lower HI scores (*mean rank* = 836) than those having an experience of 0-5 years (*mean rank* = 978) or 6-10 years (*mean rank*=949). Table 18 gives the mean and mean rank scores of the HI dimensions for participants with different working experience in the current institution.

Table 18. Change of HI Mean Scores and Mean Rank Scores With Experience					
<i>Culture Dimension</i>	<i>Experience</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean Rank</i>
<i>Horizontal Individualism</i> $\chi^2 (3) = 17.77, p \leq .001$	0-5 Years	703	3.71	.75	978 ^a
	6-10 Years	468	3.69	.72	949 ^a
	11-19 Years	334	3.60	.81	910 ^{a,b}
	20 or more	356	3.50	.85	835 ^b
	Total	1861	3.64	.77	
^{a,b} represent differences between groups					

4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics and Overview of Conflict Management Processes

Descriptive statistics revealed that there was a clear distinction between low-scored Rights-Based and high-scored Interest-Based processes in all conflict scenarios (Table 19). The mean scores for interest-based processes were much higher than the mean scores of right-based processes and this trend could easily be observed in all of value, relationship, structural, interest, and data conflict scenarios. As can be seen from Table 19 participants saw Interest-Based Processes to be more appropriate than Rights-Based processes for managing the conflicts given in the scenarios. The highest scores were obtained for transformative mediation that had a relational worldview and peer mediation that had a collectivist worldview and the lowest scores were obtained for rights-based external conflict management processes, namely external grievance and litigation.

Table 19. Conflict Management Processes Means For Different Conflict Scenarios											
Process Type	N = 1925	Value Conflict		Relationship Conflict		Structural Conflict		Interest Conflict		Data Conflict	
	PROCESSES	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
INTEREST - BASED	Transformative Mediation	3.99	0.87	3.71	0.94	3.70	0.91	3.69	0.94	3.52	0.98
	Peer Mediation	3.82	0.92	3.68	0.97	3.64	0.98	3.62	1.01	3.46	1.06
	Interest-Based Mediation	3.61	0.99	3.40	1.00	3.50	0.98	3.59	0.99	3.33	1.03
	Evaluative Mediation	3.50	0.96	3.49	0.99	3.50	0.98	3.57	0.99	3.54	0.99
	Ombuds	3.63	0.97	3.55	1.03	3.54	1.04	3.49	1.07	3.59	1.05
	Negotiation	3.69	1.08	3.36	1.20	3.43	1.13	3.51	1.15	2.97	1.24
RIGHTS - BASED	Arbitration	3.06	1.12	3.06	1.12	3.13	1.11	3.20	1.13	2.97	1.16
	Internal Grievance	3.01	1.15	3.09	1.16	2.99	1.21	3.20	1.21	3.03	1.21
	External Grievance	2.33	1.09	2.24	1.05	2.12	1.03	2.35	1.18	2.47	1.17
	Litigation	2.63	1.21	2.44	1.15	2.26	1.08	2.38	1.18	2.61	1.18

To assess how the preference of participants for different conflict management process change in each conflict scenario a One-Way Repeated-Measures ANOVA was conducted. Since the assumption of the Sphericity was not met a Huynh-Feldt correction was applied in value conflict (Epsilon $>.75$) and a Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied in relationship, structural, interest, and data conflicts (Epsilon $<.75$). The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed that mean scores of processes in all of the value ($F(6.98, 13789.5) = 672.8, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .253$), relationship ($F(6.40, 12687.3) = 555.6, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .219$), structural ($F(6.40, 12698.8) = 733.6, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .270$), interest ($F(6.16, 12204.7) = 523.3, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .209$), and data ($F(6.07, 12027.6) = 331.9, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .143$) conflicts differed significantly. Post hoc test using Bonferroni correction revealed that:

- 1) The mean scores for all processes were significantly different from one another in all conflict scenarios at $p < .05$ level with only few exceptions.
- 2) The most significant difference was between rights-based and interest-based processes.
- 3) There was a significant and comparatively large difference between different kinds of rights-based processes and a significant and comparatively small difference between different kinds of interest-based processes.
- 4) Results for rights-based processes showed that arbitration and internal grievance mean scores were similar but all other processes' mean scores were significantly different from each other in all conflict scenarios.
- 5) The negotiation mean scores were significantly lower than mediation, and ombuds mean scores in all conflict scenarios with few exceptions in value and interest conflicts.
- 6) In value, relationship and structural conflicts there was a significant difference between different kinds of mediations scores. The only exception was transformative mediation-peer mediation scores in relationship conflict and interest based mediation-evaluative mediation scores in structural conflict. In data conflict there was a significant difference between mean scores of interest-based mediation and all other mediations, and there was a significant difference between evaluative and peer mediations scores.

4.1.3 Correlation between Culture and Conflict Management Processes

A Pearson Correlation analysis was conducted to examine how the culture variables (HI, VI, HC, VC) are related with the mean scores of conflict management processes in each conflict scenario. Even though, the analysis showed that the correlation was weak,

- 1) Overall, in all conflict scenarios the mean scores of interest-based processes (four types of mediations, ombuds and negotiation) were significantly and positively related with HC mean scores (Table 20). On the other hand, the mean scores of rights-based processes are positively related to VI mean scores.
- 2) The negotiation and peer mediation mean scores are positively related with VC mean scores in addition to HC mean scores.
- 3) The ombuds mean scores are positively related with VI mean scores in addition to HC mean scores.
- 4) The arbitration mean scores are positively related with HC mean scores in addition to VI mean scores.
- 5) The external and internal grievances mean scores are positively related with HI mean scores in addition to VI mean scores.

Table 20. Pearson Correlations for Culture and Conflict Management Processes

INTEREST - BASED METHODS		NEGOTIATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Collectivism	.147**	.084**	.103**	.095**	.073**
	Vertical Collectivism	.081**	.072**	.088**	.069**	.069**
		INTERSET- BASED MEDIATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Individualism	.048*	.011	.013	.003	.020
	Vertical Individualism	.049*	.022	.010	.000	.046*
	Horizontal Collectivism	.030	.052*	.049*	.061**	.046*
	Vertical Collectivism	.045*	.035	.019	.003	.047*
		TRANSFORMATIVE MEDIATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Collectivism	.141**	.109**	.090**	.084**	.075**
	Vertical Collectivism	.090**	.042	.040	.038	.027
		EVALUATIVE MEDIATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Vertical Individualism	.073**	.039	.034	.036	.027
	Horizontal Collectivism	.084**	.076**	.065**	.075**	.064**
		PEER MEDIATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Collectivism	.139**	.093**	.071**	.089**	.100**
	Vertical Collectivism	.127**	.071**	.052*	.052*	.046*
		OMBUDS				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Vertical Individualism	.073**	.062**	.054*	.073**	.047*
	Horizontal Collectivism	.076**	.091**	.085**	.114**	.085**
RIGHTS - BASED METHODS		ARBITRATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Vertical Individualism	.074**	.068**	.078**	.110**	.043
	Horizontal Collectivism	.040	.050*	.052*	.062**	.058**
		LITIGATION				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Individualism	.037	.044	.014	.037	.068**
	Vertical Individualism	.129**	.127**	.133**	.127**	.129**
		INTERNAL GRIEVANCE				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Individualism	.046*	.075**	.058**	.055*	.036
	Vertical Individualism	.136**	.117**	.137**	.114**	.131**
		EXTERNAL GRIEVANCE				
		Value	Relationship	Structural	Interest	Data
	Horizontal Individualism	.036	.049*	.022	.061**	.046*
	Vertical Individualism	.134**	.115**	.095**	.100**	.104**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.2. HYPOTHESES TESTING

4.2.1 Effect of Cultural Values on Conflict Management Processes

Stepwise multiple regression was conducted for each conflict type (situational context) to assess how culture dimensions affected change in conflict management processes mean scores. This way the hypotheses of the study were tested.

4.2.1.1 Effect of Cultural Values on Negotiation Mean Scores

Results for Negotiation mean scores indicated (Table 21) that in cases where the conflict was a value, relationship, interest and data conflict Horizontal Collectivism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in negotiation mean scores. In the case of value conflict HC explained .023($F=46.11$, $p<.001$) of changes in Negotiation mean scores. This finding presents that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=6.79$, $p<.001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate negotiation as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein but with much lower explaining percentages (R^2), HC explained .010($F=18.645$) of changes in Negotiation mean scores in interest conflict; .008($F=14.534$) of changes in Negotiation mean scores in relationship conflict and .005($F=10.425$, $p<.001$) of changes in Negotiation mean scores in data conflict. In the case where the conflict was a structural conflict both HC and VC significantly explained .013 of changes in Negotiation mean scores ($F=12.665$, $p<.0001$). Both HC ($t=3.22$, $p<.001$) and VC ($t=2.17$, $p<.03$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on these culture dimensions they had a higher tendency to find Negotiation as a more proper process for handling a structural conflict.

Table 21 Multiple Regression Results for Negotiation Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand.β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	HC	2.57	.28	15.63	0.153	6.79	.0001	0.023	46.11	.0001
Relationship	HC	2.67	.17	14.52	0.087	3.81	.0001	0.008	14.53	.0001
Structural	HC	2.42	.15	11.98	0.080	3.22	.001	0.013	12.67	.0001
	VC		.09		0.054	2.17	.030			
Interest	HC	2.77	.19	15.79	0.098	4.32	.0001	0.01	18.65	.0001
Data	HC	2.36	.15	12.49	0.073	3.23	.001	0.005	10.43	.001

4.2.1.2 Effect of Cultural Values on Interest-Based Mediation Mean Scores

Results for Interest-Based Mediation mean scores indicated (Table 22) that in the case where the conflict was a value conflict Vertical individualism was the only culture dimension that significantly explained .003 of changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores ($F=6.67$, $p \leq .01$). VI ($t=3.54$, $p \leq .001$) effect was positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on VI they had a higher tendency to find Interest-Based Mediation as a more proper process for managing a value conflict. In cases where the conflict was relationship, structural, and interest conflict Horizontal Collectivism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores. In the case of relationship conflict HC explained .003 ($F=5.06$, $p \leq .025$) of changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores. This finding shows that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=2.25$, $p \leq .025$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Evaluative Mediation as a more proper process to resolve the relationship conflict. In a similar vein and again with low explaining percentages (R^2), HC explained .002 ($F=4.59$, $p \leq .01$) of changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores in structural conflict; and .004 ($F=7.36$, $p \leq .01$) of changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores in interest conflict. In the case where the conflict was a data conflict Vertical Collectivism was the culture dimension that was able to explain .003 ($F=5.09$, $p \leq .02$) of changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores. Since the above-mentioned explaining percentages are extremely low, I can simply say that none of the cultural dimensions could explain the changes in Interest-Based Mediation mean scores.

Table 22. Multiple Regression Results for Interest-Based Mediation Process									
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R^2	F P
Value	VI	3.37	.08	36.46	.059	2.58	.010	.003	6.67 .010
Relationship	HC	3.05	.09	19.89	.051	2.25	.025	.003	5.06 .025
Structural	HC	3.18	.08	21.01	.049	2.14	.032	.002	4.59 .032
Interest	HC	3.18	.10	20.89	.062	2.712	.007	.004	7.36 .007
Data	VC	2.98	.08	19.49	.051	2.26	.024	.003	5.09 .024

4.2.1.3 Effect of Cultural Values on Evaluative Mediation Mean Scores

Results for Evaluative Mediation mean scores indicated (Table 23) that in the case where the conflict was a value conflict both HC and VI significantly explained .013 of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores ($F=12.42, p \leq .001$). Both HC ($t=3.58, p \leq .001$) and VI ($t=3.54, p \leq .001$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on these culture dimensions they had a higher tendency to find Evaluative Mediation as a more proper process for managing a value conflict. In cases where the conflict was relationship, structural, interest and data conflict Horizontal Collectivism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores, however the explaining percentages are very low. In the case of relationship conflict HC explained .006 ($F=11.742, p \leq .001$) of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores. This finding shows that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=3.43, p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Evaluative Mediation as a more proper process to resolve the relationship conflict. In a similar vein but with even lower explaining percentages (R^2), HC explained .005 ($F=8.93, p \leq .01$) of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores in structural conflict; .005 ($F=10.54, p \leq .001$) of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores in interest conflict and .004 ($F=7.654, p \leq .01$) of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores in data conflict.

Table 23. Multiple Regression Results for Evaluative Mediation Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	HC	2.49	.13	3.58	.081	3.58	.0001	.006	12.42	.0001
	VI	2.67	.10	3.54	.08	3.54	.0001	.013		.0001
Relationship	HC	2.96	.13	19.51	.078	3.43	.001	.006	11.74	.001
Structural	HC	3.04	.11	20.21	.068	2.99	.003	.005	8.93	.003
Interest	HC	3.08	.12	20.29	.074	3.25	.001	.005	10.54	.001
Data	HC	3.13	.10	23.69	.063	2.77	.006	.004	7.65	.006

4.2.1.4 Effect of Cultural Values on Transformative Mediation Mean Scores

Results for Transformative Mediation mean scores indicated (Table 24) that in all conflict scenarios Horizontal Collectivism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores. In the case of value conflict HC explained .020($F=39.20$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores. This finding presents that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=6.26$, $p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Transformative Mediation as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein but with lower explaining percentages (R^2), HC explained .012 ($F=22.69$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores in relationship conflict; .008($F=16.24$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores in structural conflict; .007($F=14.01$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores in interest conflict; and .005($F=10.05$, $p \leq .002$) of changes in Transformative Mediation mean scores in data conflict.

Table 24. Multiple Regression Results for Transformative Mediation Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	HC	3.16	.21	23.69	.1413	6.261	.0001	.02	39.20	.0001
Relationship	HC	3.029	.17	21.09	.108	4.763	.0001	.012	22.69	.0001
Structural	HC	3.138	.14	22.37	.092	4.03	.0001	.008	16.24	.0001
Interest	HC	3.146	.13	21.84	.085	3.743	.0001	.007	14.01	.0001
Data	HC	3.038	.12	20.15	.072	3.171	.0020	.005	10.05	.0020

4.2.1.5 Effect of Cultural Values on Peer Mediation Mean Scores

Results for Peer Mediation mean scores indicated (Table 25) that in the case where the conflict was a value conflict both HC and VC significantly explained .025 of changes in Evaluative Mediation mean scores ($F=25.04$, $p \leq .001$). Both VC ($t=3.58$, $p \leq .001$) and HC ($t=4.23$, $p \leq .001$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on these culture dimensions they had a higher tendency to find Peer Mediation as a more proper process for managing a value conflict. In cases where the conflict was relationship, structural, interest and data conflict Horizontal Collectivism

was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Peer Mediation mean scores, however the explaining percentages are low. In the case of relationship conflict HC explained .0009 ($F=17.28$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Peer Mediation mean scores. This finding shows that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=4.16$, $p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Peer Mediation as a more proper process to resolve the relationship conflict. In a similar vein HC explained .005($F=9.68$, $p \leq .002$) of changes in Peer Mediation mean scores in structural conflict; .008($F=14.87$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Peer Mediation mean scores in interest conflict and .009($F=17.41$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Peer Mediation mean scores in data conflict.

Table 25. Multiple Regression Results for Peer Mediation Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	HC		.16		.105	4.23	.0001	.025	25.04	.0001
	VC	2.67	.12	16.41	.084	3.38	.0010			
Relationship	HC	3.07	.15	20.70	.094	4.16	.0001	.009	17.28	.0001
Structural	HC	3.17	.12	20.99	.071	3.11	.0020	.005	9.68	.0020
Interest	HC	3.02	.15	19.55	.088	3.86	.0001	.008	14.87	.0001
Data	HC	2.79	.17	17.19	.095	4.17	.0001	.009	17.41	.0001

4.2.1.6 Effect of Cultural Values on Ombuds Mean Scores

Results for Ombuds mean scores indicated (Table 26) that in cases where the conflict was a value, relationship, interest and data conflict both Horizontal Collectivism and Vertical Individualism were the dimensions of culture that could explain changes in Ombuds mean scores. In the case where the conflict was an interest conflict both HC and VI explained .017($F=16.38$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Ombuds mean scores. This finding indicates that as respondents scored higher on HC ($t=4.97$, $p \leq .001$) and VI ($t=2.92$, $p \leq .003$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Ombuds as a more proper process to resolve the interest conflict. In a similar vein but with lower explaining percentages (R^2), HC and VI explained .010($F=9.56$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Ombuds mean scores in value conflict; .011($F=10.24$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Ombuds mean scores in relationship conflict and .009($F=8.99$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Ombuds mean scores in structural conflict. In the case where the conflict was a data

conflict HC was the only dimension of culture that significantly explained .008 of changes in Ombuds mean scores ($F=15.20, p \leq .001$). HC ($t=3.90, p \leq .001$) effect was positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on HC they had a higher tendency to find Ombuds as a more proper process for managing a data conflict.

Table 26. Multiple Regression Results for Ombuds Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	HC		.13		.08	3.41	.001	0.010	9.56	.0001
	VI	2.88	.08	16.59	.06	2.81	.005			
Relationship	HC		.15		.09	3.98	.0001	0.011	10.24	.0001
	VI	2.73	.07	14.86	.05	2.24	.025			
Structural	HC		.15		.08	3.72	.0001	0.009	8.99	.0001
	VI	2.76	.07	14.89	.05	2.11	.035			
Interest	HC		.20		.11	4.97	.0001	0.017	16.38	.0001
	VI	2.41	.09	12.65	.07	2.95	.003			
Data	HC	2.96	.16	18.4	.09	3.90	.0001	0.008	15.20	.0001

4.2.1.7 Effect of Cultural Values on Arbitration Mean Scores

Results for Arbitration mean scores indicated (Table 27) that in cases where the conflict was either a value, or a relationship conflict Vertical Individualism, Vertical Collectivism, and Horizontal Individualism were the dimensions of culture that could explain changes in Arbitration mean scores. In the case where the conflict was value conflict VI, VC and HI explained .016($F=10.40, p \leq .001$) of changes in Arbitration mean scores. This finding indicates that as respondents scored higher on VI ($t=3.82, p \leq .001$) and VC ($t=3.38, p \leq .001$) and lower in HI ($t= -3.05, p \leq .002$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Arbitration as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein but with lower explaining percentages (R^2), VI, VC and HI explained .013($F=8.25, p \leq .001$) of changes in Arbitration mean scores in relationship conflict. In cases where conflict was either an interest or data conflict both VI and HC explained .018($F=18.04, p \leq .001$) of changes in Arbitration mean scores in interest conflict. Both VI($t=5.32, p \leq .001$) and HC($t=2.89, p \leq .004$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on VI and HC they had a higher

tendency to find Arbitration as a more proper process for managing an interest conflict. In a similar vein but much lower explaining percentages (R^2), VI and HC explained .006($F=5.60, p \leq .004$) of changes in Arbitration mean scores in data conflict. In the case where the conflict was a structural conflict both VC and VI were able to significantly explain .14($F=13.94, p \leq .001$) of changes in Arbitration mean scores. Both VC ($t=3.77, p \leq .001$) and VI ($t=3.16, p \leq .002$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on VC and VI they had a higher tendency to find Arbitration as a more proper process for managing a structural conflict.

Table 27. Multiple Regression Results for Arbitration Process										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	VI		.13		.09	3.82	.000	.016	10.40	.0001
	VC	2.48	.13	12.45	.08	3.38	.001			
	HI		-.1		-.07	-3.05	.002			
Relationship	VI		.12		.08	3.47	.001	.013	8.25	.0001
	VC	2.47	.12	12.39	.07	3.08	.002			
	HI		-.08		-.06	-2.34	.020			
Structural	VC		.15		.86	3.77	.000	.014	13.94	.0020
	VI	2.20	.11	12.07	.72	3.16	.002			
Interest	VI		.18		.12	5.32	.000	.018	18.04	.0001
	HC	2.17	.12	10.76	.07	2.89	.004			
Data	HC		.12		.06	2.65	.008	.006	5.60	.004
	VI	2.29	.07	10.98	.05	2.10	.036			

4.2.1.8 Effect of Cultural Values on Internal Grievance Mean Scores

Results for Internal Grievance mean scores indicated (Table 28) that in cases where the conflict was a value, relationship, structural or interest conflict Vertical Individualism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Internal Grievance mean scores. In the case of value conflict VI explained .018($F=35.88, p \leq .001$) of changes in Internal Grievance mean scores. This finding presents that as respondents scored higher on VI ($t=5.99, p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Internal Grievance as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein VI explained .015($F=28.48, p \leq .001$) of changes in Internal Grievance

mean scores in relationship conflict; .018($F=36.08$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Internal Grievance mean scores in structural conflict; and .014($F=28.03$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Internal Grievance mean scores in interest conflict. In the case where the conflict was a data conflict both VI and HC explained .020($F=19.43$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Internal Grievance mean scores. Both VI ($t = 5.94$, $p \leq .001$) and HC ($t=2.00$, $p \leq .001$) effects were positive indicating that as respondents scored higher on these culture dimensions they had a higher tendency to find Internal Grievance as a more proper process for handling a data conflict.

Table 28. Multiple Regression Results for Internal Grievance										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	VI	2.39	.21	22,55	.14	5.99	.0001	0.018	35.88	.0001
Relationship	VI	2.54	.19	23,73	.12	5.34	.0001	0.015	28.48	.0001
Structural	VI	2.34	.22	21,04	.14	6.01	.0001	0.018	36.08	.0001
Interest	VI	2.63	.19	23,61	.12	5.29	.0001	0.014	28.03	.0001
Data	VI	2.02	.22	19,43	.13	5.94	.0001	0.020	19.43	.0001
	HC		.09		.05	2.00	.0001			

4.2.1.9 Effect of Cultural Values on External Grievance Mean Scores

Results for External Grievance mean scores indicated (Table 29) that in all conflict scenarios Vertical Individualism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in External Grievance mean scores. In the case the conflict was a value conflict VI explained .017($F=34.06$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in External Grievance mean scores. This finding presents that as respondents scored higher on VI ($t=5.84$, $p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate External Grievance as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein but with lower explaining percentages (R^2), VI explained .013($F=24.93$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in External Grievance mean scores in relationship conflict; .008($F=16.44$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in External Grievance mean scores in structural conflict; .010($F=20.16$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in External Grievance mean scores in interest conflict; and .011($F=21.62$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in External Grievance mean scores in data conflict.

Table 29. Multiple Regression Results for External Grievance										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	VI	1.76	.19	17.6	.132	5.84	.0001	.017	34.06	.0001
Relationship	VI	1.78	.16	18.3	.113	4.99	.0001	.013	24.93	.0001
Structural	VI	1.76	.12	18.5	.092	4.05	.0001	.008	16.44	.0001
Interest	VI	1.88	.16	17.24	.102	4.49	.0001	.010	20.16	.0001
Data	VI	1.99	.16	18.37	.105	4.65	.0001	.011	21.62	.0001

4.2.1.10 Effect of Cultural Values on Litigation Mean Scores

Results for Litigation mean scores indicated (Table 30) that in all conflict scenarios Vertical Individualism was the only dimension of culture that could explain changes in Litigation mean scores. In the case the conflict was a value conflict VI explained .018($F=34.80$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Litigation mean scores. This finding presents that as respondents scored higher on VI ($t=5.90$, $p \leq .001$) they had a higher tendency to evaluate Litigation as a more proper process to resolve the value conflict. In a similar vein VI explained .017($F=33.70$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Litigation mean scores in relationship conflict; .017($F=32.31$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Litigation mean scores in structural conflict; .017($F=33.66$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Litigation mean scores in interest conflict; and .018($F=34.79$, $p \leq .001$) of changes in Litigation mean scores in data conflict.

Table 30. Multiple Regression Results for Litigation										
Conflict Type	Predictor	Const.	B	t	Stand. β	t	P	R ²	F	P
Value	VI	2.00	.21	17.95	.133	5.90	.0001	.018	34.80	.0001
Relationship	VI	1.84	.20	17.48	.131	5.81	.0001	.017	33.70	.0001
Structural	VI	1.71	.18	17.1	.129	5.68	.0001	.017	32.31	.0001
Interest	VI	1.76	.21	16.17	.131	5.80	.0001	.017	33.66	.0001
Data	VI	2.00	.21	18.4	.133	5.90	.0001	.018	34.79	.0001

4.2.1.11 Summary of Hypothesis Testing for Culture – Conflict Management Process Relationship

The above mentioned results indicated that:

- 1) Hypothesis H1 (*The mean scores for all kinds of mediation processes are positively related with horizontal collectivism (HC) dimension scores*) was supported for transformative, peer, and evaluative mediations in all of the conflict situations. However, for interest-based mediation H1 hypothesis was only supported in relationship, structural and interest conflicts and rejected in value and data conflicts. Unexpectedly, interest-based mediation was positively related to VI dimension in value conflict and to VC dimension in data conflict.
- 2) Hypothesis H2 (*The mean scores for evaluative mediation and peer mediation processes are positively related with vertical collectivism (VC) dimension of the culture*) was supported for peer mediation but only in value conflict, and rejected for evaluative mediation. Unexpectedly, evaluative mediation mean scores were positively related to VI dimension rather than VC and again only in value conflict. Although unexpected, this result was not so surprising considering the individualistic worldview (Bush and Folger, 1994) of evaluative mediation.
- 3) Hypothesis H3 (*The mean scores for litigation, external grievance and internal grievance are positively related with vertical individualism (VI) dimension of the culture.*) was supported for all of litigation, internal grievance and external grievance processes and in all conflict scenarios.
- 4) Hypothesis H4 (*The mean scores for negotiation process are positively related with horizontal collectivism (HC) dimension of the culture.*) was supported in all conflict types. Interestingly, negotiation mean scores were also positively related to VC as well as HC in structural conflicts. This unexpected result is pointing to the high-power dimension in structural conflicts.
- 5) In interest and data conflict the H5 hypothesis (*The mean scores for arbitration process are positively related with both vertical individualism (VI) and horizontal collectivism (HC)*) was totally supported. However hypothesis H5 was only partially supported for value, relationship and structural conflicts. In these there conflict scenarios, arbitration scores were positively related to VI

and VC (rather than HC) dimensions. Interestingly, arbitration mean scores in value and relationship conflicts were also negatively related to HI, adding more emphasis to the hierarchical and individualistic nature of the arbitration.

- 6) Hypothesis H6 (*The mean scores for ombuds process are positively related with horizontal collectivism (HC) and vertical individualism (VI) dimensions of the culture.*) was supported in all conflict scenarios, with the data conflict being the only exception where ombuds mean scores were positively related to HC dimension but not related to VI dimension. Thus in data conflict hypothesis H6 was partially supported, while in all other conflict scenarios it was totally supported.
- 7) All interest-based processes' mean scores are positively related to HC dimension of culture and all rights-based processes' mean scores are positively related to VI dimension of culture.

4.3 THE EFFECT OF CONFLICT TYPE AS A SITUATIONAL CONTEXT ON CONFLICT MANAGEMENT PROCESSES

After reading the value conflict scenario, participants were asked to rate to what extent the negotiation process was appropriate for the management/resolution of value conflict using a 5-point Likert Scale. Then this step was repeated for the other nine conflict management processes, namely arbitration, court trial, internal grievance, external grievance, interest-based mediation, transformative mediation, evaluative mediation, peer mediation and ombudsman respectively. Finally, the whole process was repeated for the other conflict scenarios representing relationship, structural, interest, and data conflicts.

The results of the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA revealed that there was a significant within-subject effect of Conflict Type on the conflict management processes. The Mauchly's Test of Sphericity showed that the assumption of sphericity has been violated and the Greenhouse-Geisser Epsilon was bigger than .75 for all processes. Hence, a Huynh-Feldt correction was applied. The detailed results of one-way repeated measure ANOVAs for each process are given below starting from interest-based processes and going through the right-based processes.

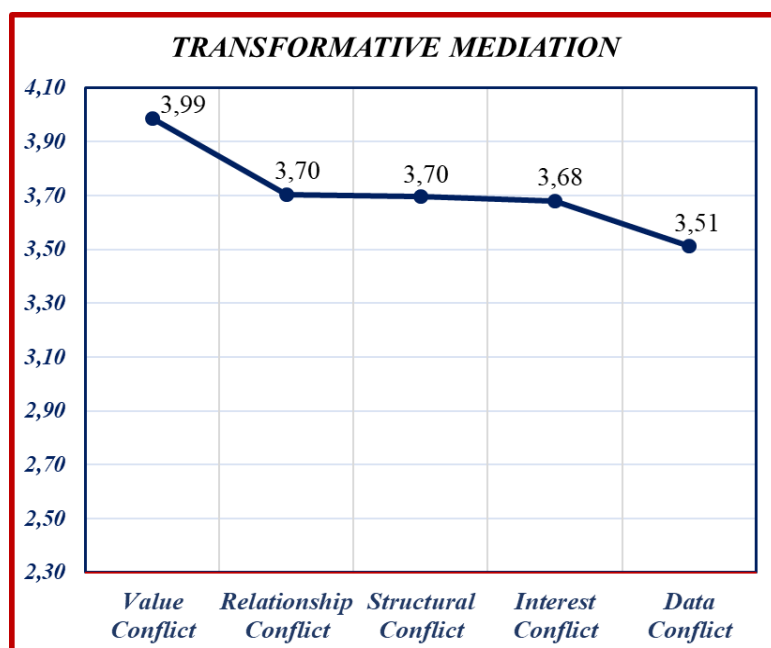
4.3.1 Transformative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA for Transformative Mediation revealed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Transformative Mediation mean scores ($F=119.35$, $p < .001$) as shown in Table 31.

Table 31. Transformative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.99 ^a	0.878	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.70 ^b	0.941	1925
Structural Conflict	3.70 ^b	0.918	1925
Interest Conflict	3.68 ^b	0.942	1925
Data Conflict	3.51 ^c	0.985	1925
$F(3.74, 7187.09) = 119.35$, $p < .001$; $\eta_p^2 = .058$ ^{a,b,c} indicates the differences between means			

Transformative Mediation's mean scores were the highest in Value Conflict ($M=3.99$, $SD=.878$) and the lowest in Data Conflict ($M=3.51$, $SD=.985$). The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction revealed that there was no difference in transformative mediation mean scores of participants in Relationship, Structural and Interest conflicts ($p > .05$) but all other means were found to be significantly different from each other as shown in Table 31 and Figure 12.

Figure 12. Transformative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences



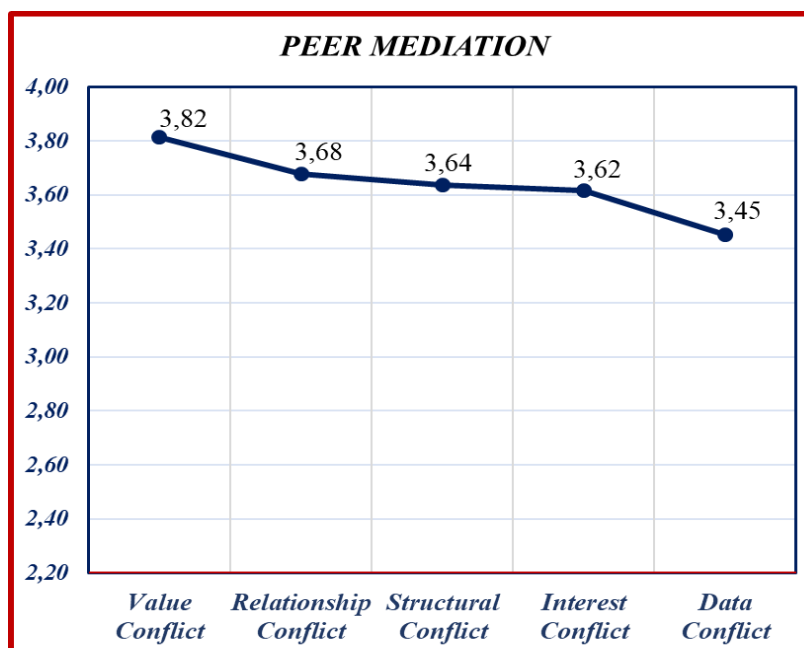
4.3.2 Peer Mediation - Conflict Type Differences

The results of one-way repeated-measures ANOVA for Peer Mediation showed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Peer Mediation mean scores, ($F = 68.08, p < 0.001$) as shown in Table 32.

Table 32. Peer Mediation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.82 ^a	0.922	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.68 ^b	0.970	1925
Structural Conflict	3.64 ^b	0.987	1925
Interest Conflict	3.62 ^b	1.012	1925
Data Conflict	3.45 ^c	1.061	1925
$F(3.691, 7101.794) = 68.077, p < .001; \eta p^2 = .034$ a,b,c indicates the differences between means			

Peer Mediation mean scores are maximum in Value Conflict scenario ($M=3.82$, $SD=.922$) and gradually decrease and has their minimum in Data Conflict scenario ($M=3.45$, $SD=1.061$). The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction showed that there was no difference in peer mediation mean scores in Relationship, Structural and Interest conflicts ($p > .05$) but all other means were found to be significantly different from each other as shown in Table 32 and Figure 13.

Figure 13. Peer Mediation - Conflict Type Differences



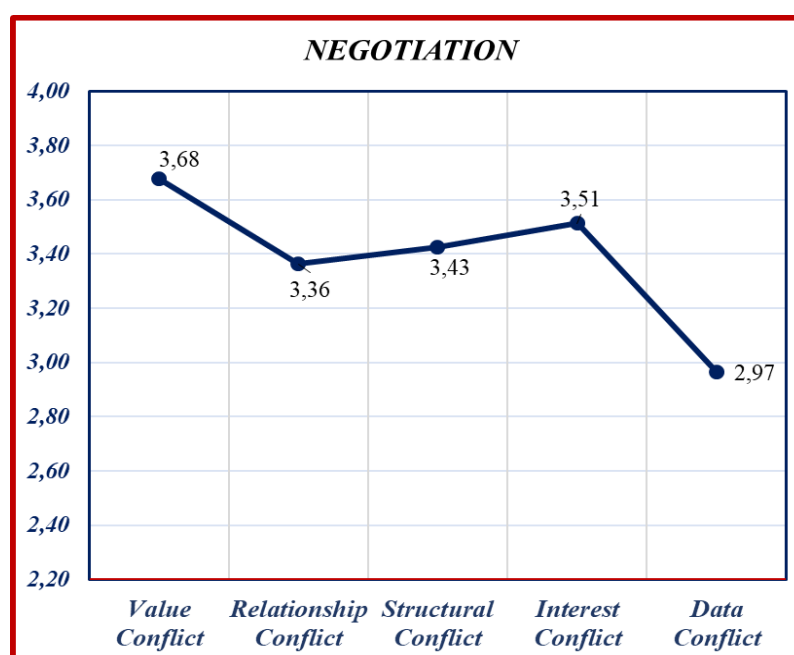
4.3.3 Negotiation - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with a Huynh-Feldt correction showed that negotiation means scores were significantly different for different types of conflicts ($F = 168.37, p < 0.001$).

Table 33. Negotiation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.679 ^a	1.081	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.363 ^b	1.203	1925
Structural Conflict	3.425 ^b	1.138	1925
Interest Conflict	3.514 ^c	1.148	1925
Data Conflict	2.965 ^d	1.236	1925
$F(3.901, 7502.04) = 168.366, p < 0.001; \eta_p^2 = .081$			
a,b,c,d indicates the differences between means			

As displayed in Table 33 and shown in Figure 14 negotiation has its highest mean scores in value conflict ($M = 3.68, SD = 1.08$), and its lowest mean scores in data conflict ($M = 2.97, SD = 1.24$). The results of Post hoc tests using a Bonferroni correction revealed that participants' mean scores for negotiation did not change for Relationship and Structural conflicts ($p > .05$), while all other means were significantly different from each other as shown in Table 33 and Figure 14.

Figure 14. Negotiation - Conflict Type Differences



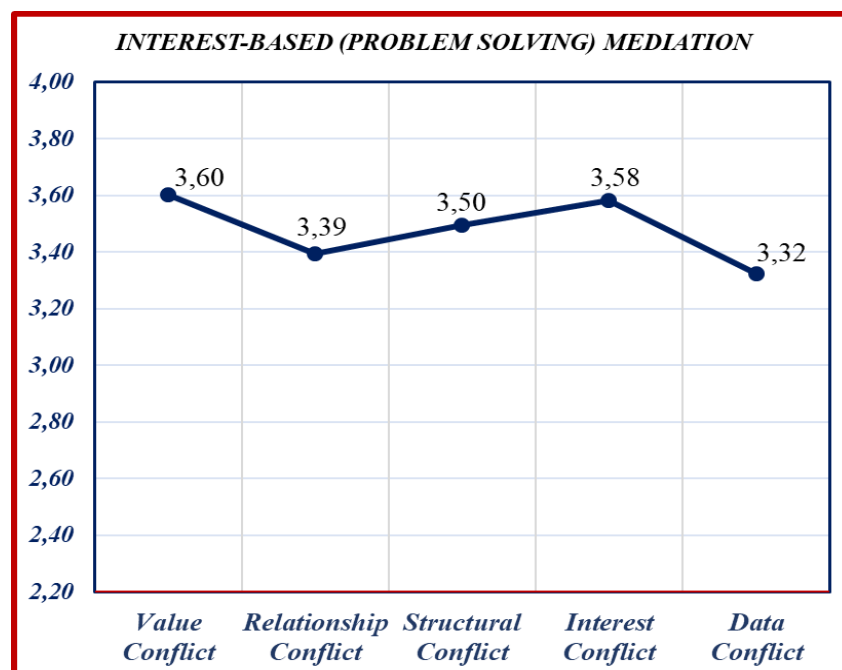
4.3.4 Interest-Based Mediation - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA for the Interest-Based Mediation revealed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Interest-Based Mediation mean scores ($F = 50.46, p < 0.001$) as shown in Table 34.

Table 34. Interest-Based Mediation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.60 ^a	0.998	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.39 ^b	1.001	1925
Structural Conflict	3.50 ^c	0.986	1925
Interest Conflict	3.58 ^a	0.992	1925
Data Conflict	3.32 ^b	1.03	1925
$F(3.829, 7367.021) = 50.464, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .026$ a,b,c indicates the differences between means			

Interest-Based Mediation had its maximum mean scores ($M=3.60, SD=.998$) in Value Conflict and its minimum mean scores ($M=3.32, SD=1.030$) in Data Conflict. The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction indicated that the mean scores for Interest-Based Mediation did not significantly differ in Value-Interest and Relationship-Data conflicts ($p > .05$) but all other means were found to be significantly different from each other as shown in Table 34 and Figure 15.

Figure 15. Interest-Based Mediation - Conflict Type Differences



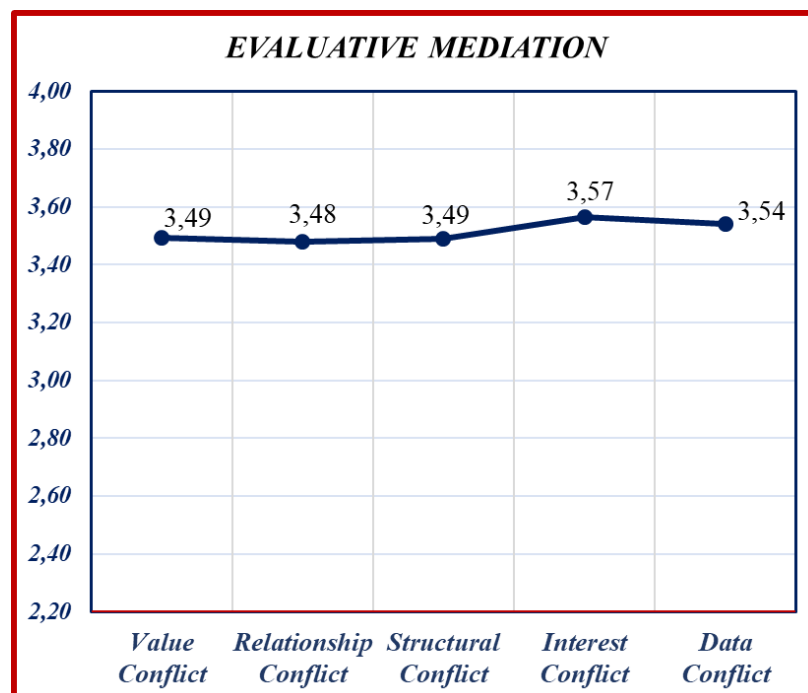
4.3.5 Evaluative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated measure ANOVA for the Evaluative Mediation revealed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Evaluative Mediation mean scores ($F = 5.46, p < .001$) as shown in Table 35. However, this effect is very small.

Table 35. Evaluative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.49 ^a	0.958	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.48 ^a	0.993	1925
Structural Conflict	3.49 ^a	0.984	1925
Interest Conflict	3.57 ^b	0.991	1925
Data Conflict	3.54 ^b	0.989	1925
$F(3.69, 7091.75) = 5.46, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .003$			
^{a,b} indicates the differences between means			

There is a very small difference between the minimum ($M=3.48, SD = .958$) and the maximum ($M=3.57, SD=.991$) mean scores of Evaluative Mediation. Although the post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction revealed that, there was a significant difference in the mean scores of Evaluative Mediation between Interest-Value, Interest-Structural, and Interest-Relationship conflicts as shown in Table 35 and Figure 16. However, the differences were very small and they can be neglected.

Figure 16. Evaluative Mediation - Conflict Type Differences



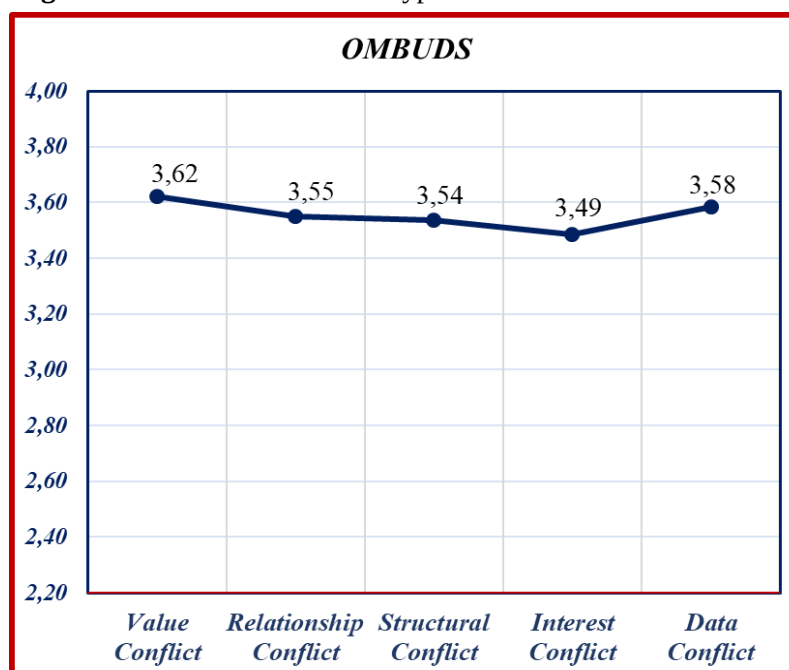
4.2.6 Ombuds - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA for the Ombuds revealed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Ombuds mean scores ($F = 11.08$, $p < .001$) as shown in Table 36.

Table 36. Ombuds - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3.62 ^a	0.971	1925
Relationship Conflict	3.55 ^b	1.027	1925
Structural Conflict	3.54 ^{b,a}	1.037	1925
Interest Conflict	3.49 ^b	1.069	1925
Data Conflict	3.58 ^a	1.054	1925
$F(3.687, 7094.418) = 11.083$, $p < .001$; $\eta_p^2 = .006$. ^{a,b} indicates the differences between means			

There is a small variation in Ombuds mean scores with conflict type. Ombuds mean scores are maximum in Value Conflict ($M = 3.62$, $SD = .971$) and minimum in Interest Conflict ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.07$). The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction revealed that there was a significant difference between ombuds mean scores for Value–Relationship, Value–Structural, Value–Interest, Interest–Relationship, and Interest–Data conflicts, however the variance was negligibly small as shown in Table 36 and Figure 17.

Figure 17. Ombuds - Conflict Type Differences



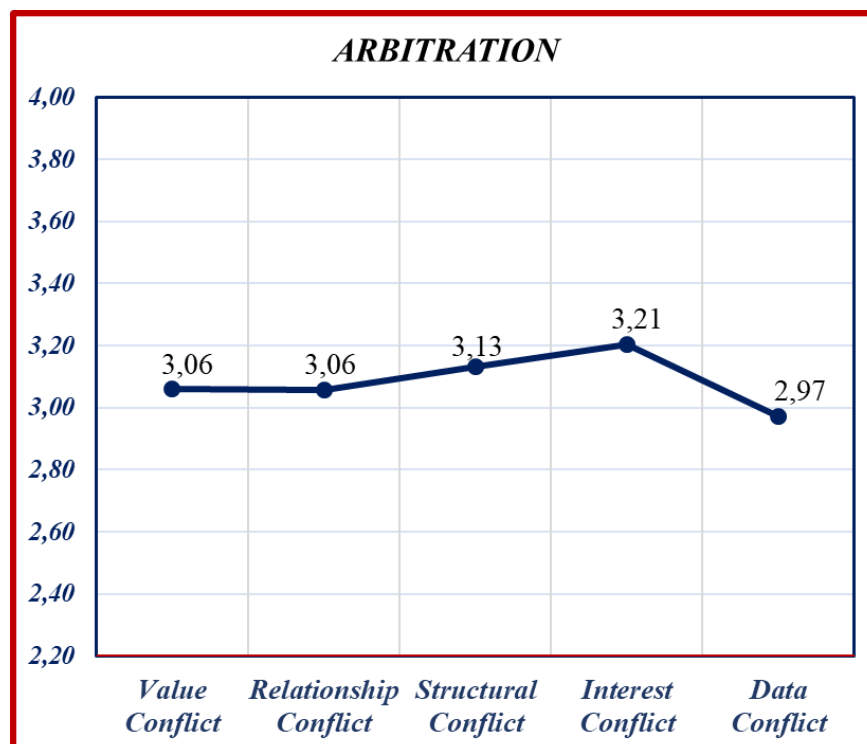
4.3.7 Arbitration - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA with a Huynh-Feldt correction showed that Arbitration mean scores change significantly by the change of the Conflict Type ($F = 21.671, p < .001$).

Table 37. Arbitration - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3,06 ^a	1,119	1925
Relationship Conflict	3,06 ^a	1,119	1925
Structural Conflict	3,13 ^a	1,111	1925
Interest Conflict	3,21 ^b	1,135	1925
Data Conflict	2,97 ^c	1,164	1925
$F(3.839, 7369.740) = 21.671, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .011.$			
a,b,c indicates the differences between means			

Arbitration mean scores were maximum ($M = 3.21, SD = 1.35$) in Interest Conflicts scenario and minimum ($M = 2.97, SD = 1.16$) in Data Conflict scenario. The Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that the mean scores for Arbitration did not significantly differ in Value-Relationship and Value-Structural conflicts ($p > .05$). However, all other means were significantly different from each other as shown in Figure 18 and Table 37.

Figure 18. Arbitration - Conflict Type Differences



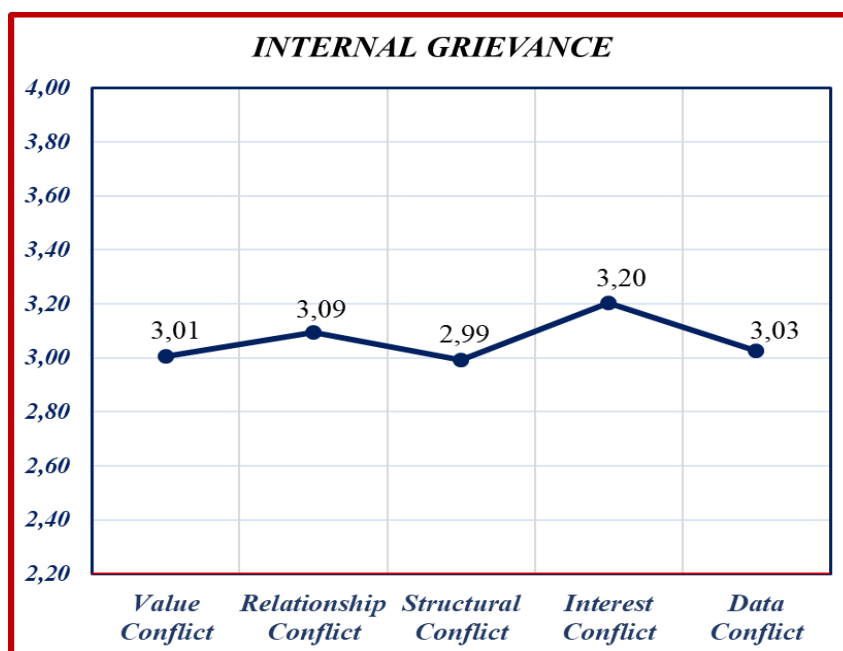
4.3.8 Internal Grievance - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA for the Internal Grievance showed that there was a significant effect of Conflict Type on the Internal Grievance mean scores ($F = 20.12, p < .001$).

Table 38. Internal Grievance - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	3,01 ^a	1,152	1925
Relationship Conflict	3,09 ^b	1,161	1925
Structural Conflict	2,99 ^a	1,210	1925
Interest Conflict	3,20 ^c	1,208	1925
Data Conflict	3,03 ^a	1,214	1925
$F(3.802, 7315.28) = 20.12, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .010$			
^{a,b,c} indicates the differences between means			

Internal Grievance mean scores were the highest ($M=3.20, SD=1.152$) in Interest Conflict scenario and the lowest ($M=2.99, SD=1.210$) in Structural Conflict scenario. The Bonferroni post hoc test revealed that the mean scores for Internal Grievance did not significantly change in Value-Structural, Value-Data, Relationship-Data and Relationship-Structural conflicts ($p > .05$) while all other means were significantly different from each other as shown in Table 38 and Figure 19.

Figure 19. Internal Grievance - Conflict Type Differences



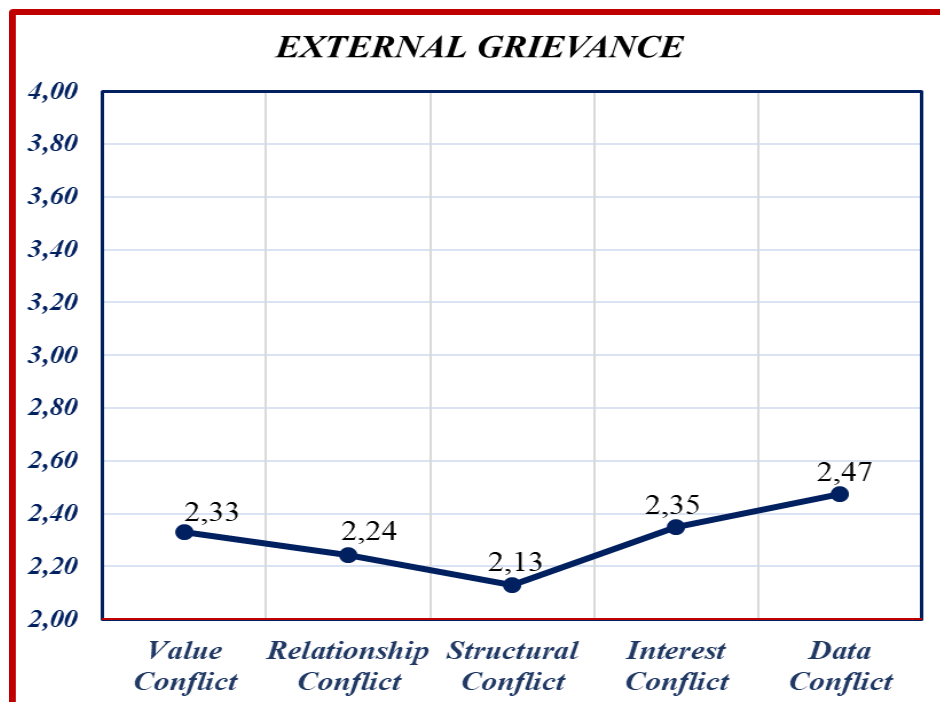
4.3.9 External Grievance - Conflict Type Differences

The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA results indicated that External Grievance mean scores were significantly different for different kinds of conflicts ($F = 54.07, p < .001$).

Table 39. External Grievance - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	2.33 ^a	1.089	1925
Relationship Conflict	2.24 ^b	1.051	1925
Structural Conflict	2.13 ^c	1.026	1925
Interest Conflict	2.35 ^a	1.179	1925
Data Conflict	2.47 ^d	1.171	1925
$F(3.63, 6987.89) = 54.07, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .027$ a,b,c,d indicates the differences between means			

External Grievance mean scores were maximum ($M = 2.47, SD = 1.17$) in Data Conflict and minimum ($M = 2.13, SD = 1.03$) in Structural Conflict. The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction revealed that the mean scores for External Grievance did not significantly change between Value and Interest conflicts ($p > .05$) however all other means were significantly different from each other (Table 39), (Figure 20).

Figure 20. External Grievance - Conflict Type Differences



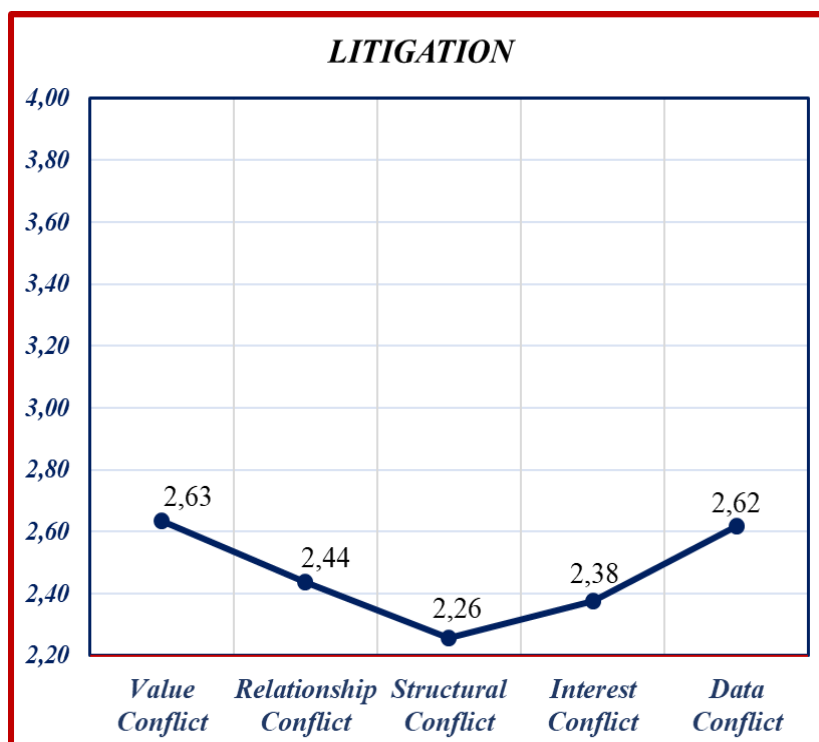
4.3.10 Litigation - Conflict Type Differences

According to one-way repeated-measures ANOVA results litigation means scores were significantly different for different types of conflicts ($F = 75.42, p < .001$)

Table 40. Litigation - Conflict Type Differences			
<i>Conflict Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Value Conflict	2.63 ^a	1.209	1925
Relationship Conflict	2.44 ^b	1.145	1925
Structural Conflict	2.26 ^c	1.084	1925
Interest Conflict	2.38 ^b	1.185	1925
Data Conflict	2.62 ^a	1.179	1925
$F(3.66, 7026.02) = 75.42, p < .001; \eta_p^2 = .038$			
^{a,b,c} indicates the differences between means			

Litigation mean scores were high in Value Conflict ($M = 2.63, SD = 1.21$) and Data Conflict ($M = 2.62, SD = 1.18$), and low in Structural Conflict ($M = 2.26, SD = 1.08$). The post hoc test using a Bonferroni correction at $p \leq .05$ showed that mean scores of participants for litigation were similar for Value and Data conflicts and Relationship and Interest conflicts. However, all other means were significantly different from each other (Table 5.27), (Figure 21).

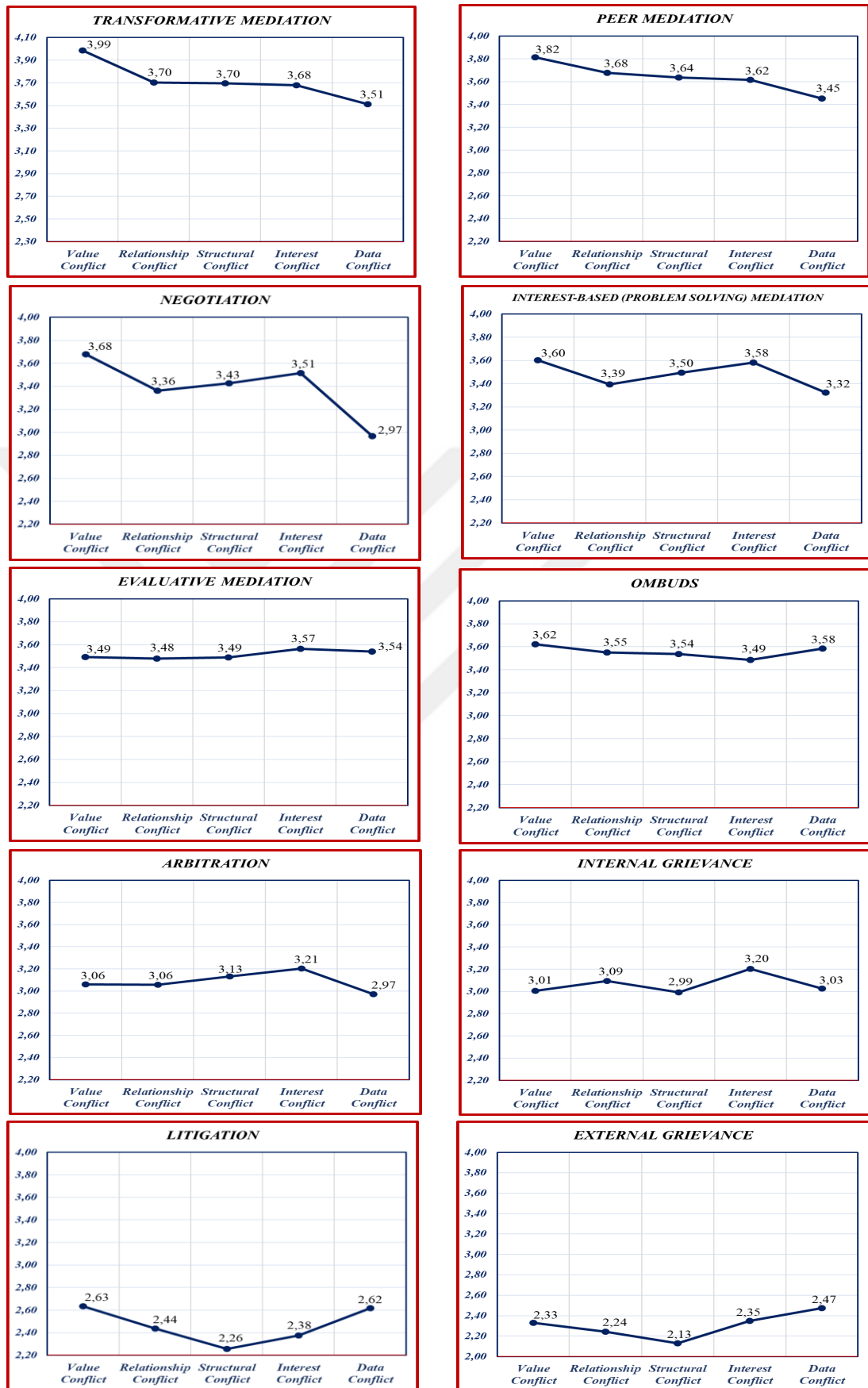
Figure 21. Litigation -Conflict Type Differences



In summary, results of one-way repeated measure ANOVA revealed that (Figure 22):

- 1) There was a significant within-subject effect of Conflict Type on the process mean scores. This effect was more salient in Negotiation, Transformative Mediation, Peer Mediation and Litigation.
- 2) The variance in process mean scores with respect to conflict type follows a certain pattern and the pattern is quite different in interest-based and right-based processes.
- 3) The variance in the mean scores of rights-based external conflict management processes (litigation and external grievance) with respect to conflict type follows quite similar patterns.
- 4) Similarly, the variation in process mean scores with respect to conflict type for the following interest-based processes also follows similar patterns:
 - a) Transformative Mediation and Peer Mediation
 - b) Interest-Based Mediation and Negotiation
 - c) Evaluative Mediation and Ombuds
- 5) The variance in interest-based evaluative mediation and right-based arbitration with respect to conflict type shows similar trends but the arbitration has lower means.

Figure 22. Summary of Process - Conflict Type Differences



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

In this study high mean scores for Horizontal Collectivism, and Vertical Collectivism, and low mean scores for Horizontal Individualism and Vertical Individualism, were obtained. These results showed that for academics in Turkey collectivistic tendencies are more salient than individualistic tendencies, suggesting previous research findings (Hofstede, 1980; Oishi, Diener, Lucas, & Suh, 1999; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). Besides, the results indicated that the mean scores for these cultural dimensions change significantly with age, gender, work experience, position, title, and research domain of the academics. I must also note that among all dimensions of culture, for academics in Turkey Horizontal Individualism (HI) was the most sensitive value dimension to change with demographic variables.

Results revealed that younger samples (25-34 years old) scored higher than older samples (all other age groups) in both vertical and horizontal individualism dimensions. This finding is in tandem with the arguments that younger samples tend to be more individualist than elder samples (Triandis, 2018, p. 17). Females tended to be more individualist and less collectivist than males. They scored higher in horizontal individualism (HI) dimension and lower in vertical collectivism (VC) dimension when compared with males. This result is inconsistent with and does not support Triandis' arguments that women tended to be more collectivist than men (Triandis, 2018, p. 17). This result provide further evidence that the commonly endorsed *individualistic man* and *collectivistic woman* stereotypes may not be universal, and are moderated by cultural values (Cuddy et al., 2015). In their study, Cuddy et al (2015) showed that in a collectivistic (Korean) culture, men are seen as more collectivistic than women and women are seen as more individualistic than men. This being said, I should also note that female academics are not representative of the woman population in Turkey. Only one out of three woman is working in Turkey. Great majorities of women are homemakers and they have a salient maternal role, which in turn may contribute to collectivistic values. That is, female academics may constitute a more individualistic sample when compared with the general woman population in Turkey.

Horizontal individualism average scores for non-managers were significantly higher than those of managers', indicating that non-managers tended to be more individualist than managers were. According to Triandis, those having a managerial role and power, favor the tendency of group members to do what the organization wants them to do, and because they benefit from such behavior, managers tend to be more collectivist than non-managers (Triandis, 2018, p. 45). However, my findings does not support the argument that managers tend to be more collectivist, but shows they are less individualist. This result supports the previous research findings that, individualism and collectivism were not polar opposites as proposed by Hofstede (1980), but they were two independent constructs (Li & Aksoy, 2007).

In the present study, research assistants tended to be more individualist than all of lecturers, associate-assistant professors, and professors and they scored higher in horizontal individualism dimension. This may be due to the age effect since almost all of research assistants are in the 25-34 years old age group. Lecturers scored higher in both horizontal individualism and vertical collectivism dimensions when compared to professors, supporting the idea that individualism and collectivism were two independent constructs (Li & Aksoy, 2007).

Participants in Engineering domain were found to be less collectivists than participants in Medicine domain, and they scored lower in horizontal collectivism dimension. They were also found to be less individualists than participants in the Education & Teacher Training, and Social Sciences, and scored lower in horizontal individualism dimension.

According to Wasti (2003), the people who are more collectivists will stay in the same job for a longer time than individualists do. On the other hand, this study revealed that academics having more working experience in the same institution were less individualist, but not more collectivists and their horizontal individualism scores were lower than those having less experience in the same institution.

The mean scores of the less contentious interest-based processes, namely negotiation, interest-based mediation, transformative mediation, evaluative mediation, peer mediation and ombuds were all positively related to Horizontal Collectivism in all conflict scenarios. On the other hand, the mean scores of the relatively more contentious conflict management processes, namely litigation, arbitration, internal grievance and external grievance were positively related to the Vertical Individualism in all conflict scenarios. This finding is in a close agreement with Leung' arguments

that collectivists prefer conflict management processes such as mediation that do not destroy relationship, whereas the individualists want to go court to settle their conflicts (Leung, 1997).

The study revealed that the ombuds which is mainly an interest-based process, and arbitration which is mainly a rights-based process were mixed-motive processes and they were related to two or more cultural dimension rather than a single one. Ombuds mean scores were positively related to both Horizontal Collectivism and Vertical Individualism in all of value, relationship, structural, and interest conflicts. Arbitration mean scores were positively related to both Vertical Individualism and Vertical Collectivism dimensions in value, relationship and structural conflicts, negatively related to Horizontal Individualism in value and relationship conflicts, and positively related to both Vertical Individualism and Horizontal Collectivism in interest and data conflicts.

This study also revealed the mean scores of conflict management processes had significantly changed with the change of the conflict type, indicating that a process can be more proper for managing a conflict of certain type and less proper for managing a conflict of another type. Hence, the conflict type is an important determinant of the average scores given for suitability of conflict management processes. This finding highlights the importance of the situational context in selection of the appropriate conflict management process. Moreover, the variation of process mean scores with respect to conflict types follows certain patterns. The patterns of change for interest-based processes such as negotiation, interest-based mediation, transformative mediation and peer mediation were quite similar. Similarly, the patterns for changes in mean scores of rights-based processes such as external grievance and litigation were also quite similar to each other and quite different from the patterns obtained for interest-based processes.

In all of the conflict scenarios, the participants scored higher in interest-based conflict management processes and much lower in rights-based conflict management processes. These findings indicated that participants found the interest-based processes as more proper processes for managing the conflict in the given scenarios. Taking into account that in this study collectivistic values' mean scores were higher than individualistic values' mean scores, these results are in tandem with previous research findings that the collectivists subjects preferred negotiation and mediation to a larger extent than did the individualistic subjects (Leung, 1987).

The negotiation mean scores were lower than both mediations' and ombuds' mean scores. Academics regarded all types of mediations and ombuds as better processes of conflict management than negotiation in all conflict scenarios except the value conflict. In the management of value conflict negotiation was found to be a more suitable process than ombuds, interest-based mediation and evaluative mediation but less appropriate than transformative and peer mediations. This supports the previous research findings that Turkish participants prefer the less confrontational conflict management processes and use third party intermediaries rather than negotiating with their adversary directly (Kozan & Ergin, 1998).

Distinguishing between different kinds of mediations is an important contribution of this study to the current literature, since previous research on conflict management processes and their relation to cultural values did not distinguish between different kinds of mediations. This study, revealed that, in all of the value, relationship, structural, interest, and data conflicts, transformative mediation that has a relational worldview was the most appropriate conflict management process for academics in higher education institutions. In addition, peer mediation (as defined in this study) having a collectivist worldview, has emerged as the second most proper process for managing the conflicts. The mean scores for transformative and peer mediations were higher than the mean scores of evaluative and problem-solving mediations both that have individualist worldviews in all conflict scenarios. This imply that individualistic Western modes of mediations may prove to be less proper for management and resolution of the conflicts in a collectivistic setting.

Similarly, results indicated that there were significant differences between the mean scores of different kinds of rights-based processes. The mean scores for rights-based conflict management processes such as arbitration and internal grievance where the parties have some control over the process were significantly higher than the mean scores of external conflict management processes such as litigation and external grievance that the parties have no control either on the process or the outcome. This result together with even higher scores obtained for interest-based processes points to the importance of giving priority to low-cost (both financial and psychological) interest-based based processes (Ury, Brett, & Goldberg, 1989) such as negotiation, mediation and ombuds, and to low-cost rights based processes such as arbitration and internal grievance in design of integrated conflict management systems.

The differences between mean scores of interest-based processes are relatively low when compared with the difference between the mean scores of rights-based processes. On the other hand, the most significant difference was between the mean scores of interest-based and rights-based processes. For example, in the value conflict scenario the difference between the average scores of transformative mediation and evaluative mediation is relatively low (.49), the difference between the average scores of arbitration and external grievance is higher (.73), and the difference between the average scores of transformative mediation and external grievance was the highest (1.66). Here I should also note that the type of the process was the best determinant of the scores given by participants to determine the appropriateness of processes for management of conflicts given in each scenario. In this study, the difference between the average scores of the different conflict management processes was partially explained by the cultural values and the type of conflict variables. However, these factors explained only a small portion of the change and further research is needed to uncover the factors behind the large difference between processes' mean scores.

5.2 IMPLICATIONS

In this study, it is clear that academics consider interest-based processes such as negotiation, mediation and ombuds to be more appropriate processes of conflict management than rights-based processes such as arbitration, grievance and litigation. Unfortunately as far as investigated there are few formal interest-based processes available in Turkish workplaces if any. In my research I have seen that there were some successful peer mediation programs implemented in a number of high schools (Turnuklu, Kacmaz, Sunbul, & Ergul, 2009, 2010), and very few ombuds applications in hospitals (Tengilimoglu & Kisa, 2005). However, I did not encounter any mediation and ombuds programs in higher education institutions in Turkey. In the existing state, it seems that the conflict management processes available in universities have a rights-based rather than an interest-based character. The existing grievance and disciplinary procedures for higher educational institutions all emphasizes the adversarial rights-based processes. Of course, Academicians can always try to resolve their conflicts through negotiation. However, when the negotiation fails, the rights-based grievance seems to be the only formal alternative available to resort. There is evidence that managers (Kozan & Ilter, 1994) and peers can informally interfere and attempt to

reconcile the differences between conflicting parties, but I didn't encounter any formal interest-based processes in the literature about the management of conflicts in Turkish higher education institutions. Formal mediation and ombuds programs are just alien to Turkish universities. At this point, I think that it is urgent and necessary to implement official mediation and ombuds programs in universities. Taking into account the existing rights-based character of conflict management processes in Turkish universities, grievance mediation can be an easy first step that suits the needs of academics. Besides, the priority should be given to the transformative mediation that, in this study, emerged as the most appropriate process of conflict management for managing conflicts.

This study revealed that participants found the interest-based processes as more proper processes for managing workplace conflicts. Moreover, the average scores given for appropriateness of the conflict management processes were related to culture and changed across different conflict situations. All these findings showed that there is no one single conflict management process that could be applied to all conflict situations and that suits the needs of all people holding different cultural values and beliefs. That is, a range of rights-based and interest-based conflict management processes is needed to manage workplace conflicts. Here the priority should be given to interest-based processes, and this is followed by low-cost rights-based processes. All these arguments and findings point to the need for implementation of more comprehensive and holistic conflict management systems into workplaces. The implementation of such conflict management systems is of particular importance especially for culturally diverse workplaces such as multinational companies, universities, international subsidiaries and international banks.

Another implication of this study is related to the mediation practice. Practice of mediation is relatively new in Turkey. In Turkish law system, mediation is recognized and as an alternative dispute resolution process in civil cases since 2013, and it became a pre-condition for the claimant when initiating litigation in employment matters and commercial disputes since December 2018. In my opinion, there is a need and room for implementation of mediation and ombuds programs into workplaces such as schools, universities and hospitals as well as other public and private organizations. 'Why formal mediation and ombuds programs are still not available in Turkish workplace environment?' is an important question that should be addressed by future research.

As stated previously in this study, participants distinguished between different kinds of mediations. Participants identified the transformative and peer mediation as more appropriate processes of conflict management than evaluative and interest-based mediation. This in turn, has some other implications for practice of mediation. First, different kinds of mediations should be available for conflicting parties, so that they can select the one that best suits their needs. Second, conflicting parties should be informed about the type of the mediation before they enter the mediation process. Third, in Turkish universities the priority should be given to transformative and peer mediations. Finally, mediator-training programs should be made available for employees and managers to enable them act as mediators in workplace conflicts.

5.3 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As stated in Chapter 4, the study was conducted with academics only. Future research should be extended to include administrative staff to achieve more comprehensive results that determine cultural trends and conflict management process preferences of academics in higher education institutions. Since staff work in teams and view their fates and rewards more collectively rather than individually (Yarn, 2014), I suppose that there will be significant differences regarding cultural values and conflict management processes' mean scores between academic and administrative staff. I also suggest that, more elaborated research that extends this study to schools, hospitals and other public and private workplaces would be beneficial.

The academics in this study are all from Turkish universities with more salient collectivistic tendencies. Regarding cultural diversity, I think that, broadening the research by inclusion of academics from other countries would yield more salient and more comprehensive results and increase the explaining percentages (R^2) of cultural values on conflict management processes.

The third limitation is related to the complexity of the culture. Culture has many layers such as attitudes, beliefs, norms, values, and worldviews. The results obtained in this study revealed that average scores of interest-based conflict management processes were positively related to horizontal individualism, and average scores of rights-based process were positively related to vertical individualism. However, the explaining percentages were low. I think that, other value dimensions

such as uncertainty avoidance and long-time orientation can also have an impact on conflict management process preferences of academics in Turkish universities and should be included in future research to increase the predictive power of culture.

Kaushal and Kwantes (2006) studied the role of culture and personality on conflict management strategies and found that adding generalized beliefs (social axioms) to the values increased the predictive power of values. I suppose that adding both generalized beliefs and Big-Five personality traits to values will increase the explaining percentages in predicting the appropriateness of different conflict management processes in various conflict situations. This can give a more elaborated view regarding conflict management preferences of academics in higher education institutions.

Anaphor limitation is related to the difficulty in analysis of the collected data. In this study I used five different conflict scenarios and ten different conflict management processes and hence ($5 \times 10 = 50$) fifty dependent variables. Although I know that there is an interaction between cultural values and demographic factors, for the sake of parsimony I focused our attention to the relationship between culture-conflict management processes and conflict type-conflict management processes. For example, when studying the relationship between the cultural dimensions (independent variable) and conflict management processes (dependent variable) I avoided the interaction effect of the demographics or the conflict type since the large number of the dependent variables would make the analysis very complicated. The number of dependent variables should be reduced in order to overcome this difficulty and to examine the interaction effects as well as simple relationships. I recommend researchers to use three different conflict scenarios (task, process, relationship) instead of five and examine fewer number of conflict management processes in their future research.

There is a large body of research on conflict management styles but there exists very limited research about conflict management process preferences. At this point, it becomes very important to benefit from the existing large body of research on conflict management styles to predict the people's conflict management process preferences. The best way of doing this is to study the relation between conflict management styles and conflict management process preferences. I suppose that future research will largely benefit from examining this relationship.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A - CONFLICT SCENARIOS

SCENARIO 1: Deniz and Yaşar work as civil servants in the same public institution. They have different values and world views. They often have conflict in the workplace due to the difference in their values and world views. Their conflict leads to disruption of their work as well as disruption of the work of their colleagues working in the same office.

SCENARIO 2: Saffet and Güngör have been working in the same office for a long time. Saffet plans and does her/his works step by step, while Güngör usually leaves the work to the last minute. The last three months due to his/her health and family problems Güngör has often been on leave from the head of the department Hidayet. When Güngör is on leave, Hidayet often asks Saffet to do the works in Güngör's responsibility in order to prevent any interruption in the office. Saffet, being uncomfortable with the situation, asked Güngör to plan his/her work and not to leave it to the last minute. Güngör told Saffet that he/she would try to do the work on time and asked Saffet to give him/her some support in her difficult days. However there was no improvement in the situation. Thinking that Güngör has benefited from the situation, Saffet makes a complaint to Hidayet about Güngör's behavior. Güngör considered the complaint as a betrayal from a close friend and she/he got very angry with Saffet. One day when Saffet is late for work, Güngör also complains to Saffet about Hidayet. This was the straw that broke the camel's back and a violent conflict breaks in the office.

SCENARIO 3: Gunay is the secretary of Ismet, the deputy director of a private company. He/she also manages the company's incoming and outgoing paperwork. The company has recently reduced the number of employees for economic reasons. As a result, in addition to the above-mentioned works, Gunay will now be the secretary of Şenel, another deputy director of the company. Gunay cannot complete the works sometimes and does not know which job to give priority to. Therefore, he/she sometimes has problems with deputy principals. One day in the morning Ismet gives Gunay a job which he/she says is very important and asks him/her to complete the job on the same day. On the afternoon of the same day, Şenel asked him/her to do another job, which he/she said was urgent. Gunay, who had to finish Ismet's job, says that it is impossible for him/her to do both works on the same day and that Şenel should discuss the issue with Ismet. Although Şenel is a little nervous about this situation, he meets with Ismet. But Ismet says his work is more important and more urgent. Şenel has become more and more angry. The interview between the deputy directors soon turns into a fierce debate.

SCENARIO 4: Yüksel and Ümit work as biology teachers at the same high school. Yüksel is a teacher with 22 years of experience. On the other hand, Ümit is in his second year of teaching yet. The school has a total of 45 hours of biology lesson. Yüksel is more successful in his/her field and he/she is more admired by students. For this purpose, he/she wants 30 hours of the 45 hours to be given to him. If 30 hours are given to Yüksel, Ümit will be obliged to give 6 hours compulsory additional lessons in another school. That's why he/she wants a fair share and at least 21 hours of lessons. He/she also perceives the distribution of lesson hours as 30-15 as a mistrust and disrespect to himself/herself. She/he thinks such a distribution would undermine her/him in the eyes of the students and deteriorate her/him psychologically and this in turn will prevent her/him from doing his duty properly.

SCENARIO 5: Kamuran has been working as a director for a company that has 15 staff members for two years. The deputy director in the institution will retire after a week. Hikmet thinks that he will be appointed to the deputy director position since he is the most senior person working in this unit. Other employees expect Hikmet to be the deputy director. However, unexpectedly, Servet, who came to the company two years ago, is appointed as deputy director. Hikmet is disappointed and expects an explanation from Kamuran. However, Kamuran does not make any statement on the subject. In the WhatsApp group used by the employees it is often stated that Hikmet was wronged. It is constantly stated by employees that Servet does not know the organization well and that Hikmet is more qualified for the task. Some of the employees share the Facebook shares of Kamuran and Servet from WhatsApp to Hikmet. They say that as clearly seen from the sharings, Kamuran and Servet are very close friends and Kamuran favored Servet and appointed him to the position. One day Hikmet entered Kamuran's room and asked angrily why Servet was appointed to the position of deputy director although he had less experience than himself/himself. Kamuran says that Servet was appointed since he/she has a 2-year experience as a manager in the previous institution he/she worked. Taking into account the 2-year management experience of Servet, while ignoring his/her 12 years of experience in the company makes Hikmet crazy. He/she shouts at Kamuran, then leaves the room and slams the door. Servet, who is aware of the situation, is telling the employees that he had a previous managerial experience and he is more qualified than Hikmet. He also thinks that Hikmet is provoking other staff members to make him unsuccessful. Unrest in the institution is increasing day by day.

APPENDIX B – DATA COLLECTION TOOL

Horizontal/Vertical INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM (IND/COL Short Version)

1. I'd rather depend on myself than others.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
2. I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
3. I often do "my own thing."	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
4. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
5. It is important that I do my job better than others.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
6. Winning is everything.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
7. Competition is the law of nature.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
8. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
9. If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
10 . The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
11. To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
12. I feel good when I cooperate with others.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐

Horizontal/Vertical INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM

(IND/COL Short Version)

13. Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
14 . It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
15. Family members should stick together no matter what sacrifices are required.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐
16. It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	Strongly disagree ☐	Disagree ☐	Neither disagree nor agree ☐	Agree ☐	Strongly Agree ☐

SCENARIO 1: Deniz and Yaşar work as civil servants in the same public institution. They have different values and world views. They often have conflict in the workplace due to the difference in their values and world views. Their conflict leads to disruption of their work as well as disruption of the work of their colleagues working in the same office.

To what extent are the following methods appropriate for the management / resolution of this conflict?

NEGOTIATION: Back-and-forth communication of parties to settle their differences.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

ARBITRATION: The parties select the arbitrator and the decision of the arbitrator is binding.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

COURT: The parties apply to the court. The court's decision is binding on the parties.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

INTERNAL GRIEVANCE: The parties use the existing grievance mechanisms within the organization (Positive/Negative Feedback systems, submitting a complaint to the institution, etc.)

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

EXTERNAL GRIEVANCE: Parties can refer their complaint to an external agency (BIMER, CIMER, etc.)

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

INTEREST-BASED MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to reach an agreement that suits the interests and needs of the parties. The mediator is controlling the process while the parties decide on the outcome.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

TRANSFORMATIVE MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to improve the quality of communication of the parties to clarify their views (empowerment) and to help them understand one another (recognition). The control of the process and the outcome of the negotiation are both left to the conflicting parties.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

EVALUATIVE MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The aim of the mediator is to assist the parties in reaching a resolution similar to the outcome that would be obtained in case the dispute goes to the court. If the parties fail to reach an agreement, the mediator offers a resolution. However, it is up to the parties to accept or reject the proposal brought by the mediator.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PEER MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The mediator is a friend or a manager who works in the same workplace. He/she helps the parties to reach a solution by negotiating their differences. The aim of the mediation is to help maintain corporate values and harmony in the institution and to maintain good relations between employees when conflicts arise.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

OMBUDS: A practitioner of impartial dispute resolution, providing confidential and informal assistance to disputants about their conflicts. Ombuds are not affiliated with the hierarchy of the institution and they work independently from the administration. Ombuds facilitate the communication of the parties and contributes to a fair resolution of the conflict. They can offer coaching and training services to people who are in conflict and offer solutions. They report systematic failures to senior management but their decisions are not binding on management.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

SCENARIO 2: Saffet and Güngör have been working in the same office for a long time. Saffet plans and does her/his works step by step, while Güngör usually leaves the work to the last minute. The last three months due to his/her health and family problems Güngör has often been on leave from the head of the department Hidayet. When Güngör is on leave, Hidayet often asks Saffet to do the works in Güngör's responsibility in order to prevent any interruption in the office. Saffet, being uncomfortable with the situation, asked Güngör to plan his/her work and not to leave it to the last minute. Güngör told Saffet that he/she would try to do the work on time and asked Saffet to give him/her some support in her difficult days. However there was no improvement in the situation. Thinking that Güngör has benefited from the situation, Saffet makes a complaint to Hidayet about Güngör's behavior. Güngör considered the complaint as a betrayal from a close friend and she/he got very angry with Saffet. One day when Saffet is late for work, Güngör also complains to Saffet about Hidayet. This was the straw that broke the camel's back and a violent conflict breaks in the office.

To what extent are the following methods appropriate for the management / resolution of this conflict?

NEGOTIATION: Back-and-forth communication of parties to settle their differences.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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ARBITRATION: The parties select the arbitrator and the decision of the arbitrator is binding.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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COURT: The parties apply to the court. The court's decision is binding on the parties.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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INTERNAL GRIEVANCE: The parties use the existing grievance mechanisms within the organization (Positive/Negative Feedback systems, submitting a complaint to the institution, etc.)

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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EXTERNAL GRIEVANCE: Parties can refer their complaint to an external agency (BIMER, CIMER, etc.)

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INTEREST-BASED MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. **The aim of the mediator is to reach an agreement that suits the interests and needs of the parties.** The mediator is controlling the process while the parties decide on the outcome.

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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TRANSFORMATIVE MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. **The aim of the mediator is to improve the quality of communication of the parties to clarify their views (empowerment) and to help them understand one another (recognition).** The control of the process and the outcome of the negotiation are both left to the conflicting parties.

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EVALUATIVE MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. **The aim of the mediator is to assist the parties in reaching a resolution similar to the outcome that would be obtained in case the dispute goes to the court.** If the parties fail to reach an agreement, the mediator offers a resolution. However, it is up to the parties to accept or reject the proposal brought by the mediator.

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PEER MEDIATION: It is a tripartite negotiation process carried out by the parties with the assistance of a mediator, a neutral trained third party. The mediator is a friend or a manager who works in the same workplace. He/she helps the parties to reach a solution by negotiating their differences. **The aim of the mediation is to help maintain corporate values and harmony in the institution and to maintain good relations between employees when conflicts arise.**

Totally inappropriate inappropriate I am not sure appropriate Totally appropriate

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OMBUDS: A practitioner of impartial dispute resolution, providing confidential and informal assistance to disputants about their conflicts. Ombuds are not affiliated with the hierarchy of the institution and they work independently from the administration. Ombuds facilitate the communication of the parties and contributes to a fair resolution of the conflict. They can offer coaching and training services to people who are in conflict and offer solutions. They report systematic failures to senior management but their decisions are not binding on management.

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SCENARIO 3: Gunay is the secretary of Ismet, the deputy director of a private company. He/she also manages the company's incoming and outgoing paperwork. The company has recently reduced the number of employees for economic reasons. As a result, in addition to the above-mentioned works, Günay will now be the secretary of Şenel, another deputy director of the company. Gunay cannot complete the works sometimes and does not know which job to give priority to. Therefore, he/she sometimes has problems with deputy principals. One day in the morning Ismet gives Gunay a job which he/she says is very important and asks him/her to complete the job on the same day. On the afternoon of the same day, Senel asked him/her to do another job, which he/she said was urgent. Gunay, who had to finish Ismet's job, says that it is impossible for him/her to do both works on the same day and that Senel should discuss the issue with Ismet. Although Senel is a little nervous about this situation, he meets with Ismet. But Ismet says his work is more important and more urgent. Senel has become more and more angry. The interview between the deputy directors soon turns into a fierce debate.

To what extent are the following methods appropriate for the management / resolution of this conflict?

NEGOTIATION: Back-and-forth communication of parties to settle their differences.

Totally inappropriate	inappropriate	I am not sure	appropriate	Totally appropriate
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EXTERNAL GRIEVANCE: Parties can refer their *complaint* to an *external* agency (BIMER, CIMER, etc.)

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SCENARIO 4: Yüksel and Ümit work as biology teachers at the same high school. Yüksel is a teacher with 22 years of experience. On the other hand, Ümit is in his second year of teaching yet. The school has a total of 45 hours of biology lesson. Yüksel is more successful in his/her field and he/she is more admired by students. For this purpose, he/she wants 30 hours of the 45 hours to be given to him. If 30 hours are given to Yüksel, Ümit will be obliged to give 6 hours compulsory additional lessons in another school. That's why he/she wants a fair share and at least 21 hours of lessons. He/she also perceives the distribution of lesson hours as 30-15 as a mistrust and disrespect to himself/herself. She/he thinks such a distribution would undermine her/him in the eyes of the students and deteriorate her/him psychologically and this in turn will prevent her/him from doing his duty properly.

To what extent are the following methods appropriate for the management / resolution of this conflict?

NEGOTIATION: Back-and-forth communication of parties to settle their differences.

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SCENARIO 5: Kamuran has been working as a director for a company that has 15 staff members for two years. The deputy director in the institution will retire after a week. Hikmet thinks that he will be appointed to the deputy director position since he is the most senior person working in this unit. Other employees expect Hikmet to be the deputy director. However, unexpectedly, Servet, who came to the company two years ago, is appointed as deputy director. Hikmet is disappointed and expects an explanation from Kamuran. However, Kamuran does not make any statement on the subject. In the WhatsApp group used by the employees it is often stated that Hikmet was wronged. It is constantly stated by employees that Servet does not know the organization well and that Hikmet is more qualified for the task. Some of the employees share the Facebook shares of Kamuran and Servet from WhatsApp to Hikmet. They say that as clearly seen from the sharings, Kamuran and Servet are very close friends and Kamuran favored Servet and appointed him to the position. One day Hikmet entered Kamuran's room and asked angrily why Servet was appointed to the position of deputy director although he had less experience than herself/himself. Kamuran says that Servet was appointed since he/she has a 2-year experience as a manager in the previous institution he/she worked. Taking into account the 2-year management experience of Servet, while ignoring his/her 12 years of experience in the company makes Hikmet crazy. He/she shouts at Kamuran, then leaves the room and slams the door. Servet, who is aware of the situation, is telling the employees that he had a previous managerial experience and he is more qualified than Hikmet. He also thinks that Hikmet is provoking other staff members to make him unsuccessful. Unrest in the institution is increasing day by day.

To what extent are the following methods appropriate for the management / resolution of this conflict?

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