AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title: Different Conflict-Resolution Strategies between Americans and Lebanese: A

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Abstract approved: _____

In this study, I investigated the differences between a Western and a Middle Eastern

sample of employees in their supervisory conflict handling styles. I also examined

employees' intention for organizational exit, tenure, age and size of organization.

Statistical findings validate that supervisory conflict is positively related to employee

turnover intention and that integrative conflict management styles such as problem-

solving and compromise are preferred over other strategies in both nations. Finally, this

study also found a noticeable difference between the amount of conflict experienced by

the two groups and their differing preferences for the use of "forcing" in concession.

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DIFFERENT CONFLICT-RESOLUTION STRATEGIES BETWEEN AMERICANS

AND LEBANESE: A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON

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CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In our globalized business world, exploring multicultural teams and finding out ways that facilitate multicultural communication has become inevitable. Effective communication strategies that take cultural differences into consideration and that find common grounds between them can enhance international cooperation, conflict resolution and leadership (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Najafbagy, 2009; Silverthorne, 2005). People from various cultures have different perceptual constructs of reality, possess different behavioral norms in social settings and accept authority and hierarchy in differing manners (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010). These variations have a great impact on conflict resolution strategies incorporated in the workplace, and these strategies themselves have a great impact on organizational outcomes and employee satisfaction.

This research project explores the supervisory conflict management strategies of Middle-Eastern employees and compares them to those of Americans. The research also studies the effect of conflict on employees' intention for turnover. De Dreu, Weingart and Seungwoo (2000) commented that evidence pertaining to interpersonal conflict primarily comes from nations where individual freedom and growth are the values that underlie the social structures. When exploring the Arab world, Lebanon included, The Hofstede Center (2013) found that the Arab culture is considered a collectivistic one, emphasizing loyalty and close long-term commitment to family, extended family, or extended relationships. Thus, this study follows De Dreu, Weingart and Seungwoo's (2000) suggestion for future research of exploring cultures with different national values

than the individualistic ones. They opine that "quite a different picture might emerge in collectivistic cultures with a stronger emphasis on harmony and interpersonal relations" (De Dreu, Weingart, & Seungwoo, 2000, p. 903).

What Is Conflict?

There is no single definition of conflict (Silverthorne, 2005). For example, according to Thomas (1992) conflict arises due to aggressive purposes such as intentionally impeding other people's goals. Kolb and Putnam (1992), on the other hand, explain that conflict happens when real or perceived discrepancies occur in specific situations and provoke an unpleasant emotion. Runde and Flanagan (2007) emphasized that although there are various definitions, the underlying dynamic of conflict is the presence of differences. Mismatched goals, deep differences in values and perceptions of goal attainment, insufficient resources, changes in technology and power, political turmoil, financial insecurity, indefinite rules, and poor communication can be the foundation of conflict (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010; Runde & Flanagan, 2007). A general definition of conflict that can be adopted is "disagreement regarding interest or ideas whether it is within oneself, between two people or within an organization" (Silverthorne, 2005, p. 195).

Conflict can be a hot or a cold experience (Lawson & Shen, 1998). A person involved in a cold conflict engages in discrete thought processes that aim for resolving conflict by searching for information, appraising alternatives, and finally making an optimal decision and taking the most constructive and beneficial route. This kind of conflict can be considered as mainly consisting of cognitive processes and can be considered the adult-like conflict resolution. Hot conflicts, in contrast, are more

destructive and consist of both cognitive and emotional experiences, which are founded on anger, sadness and frustration and are usually expressed in full-fledged hostile assaults. This pinpoints the importance of stress reduction in the workplace and the importance of proper conflict management, which includes a wide range of activities, such as communication, problem solving, dealing with emotion, and understanding each conflicting party's position (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008). Such conflict management behaviors can be viewed as stable character traits or behavioral orientations of individuals to approach conflicts from an avoiding, compromising, accommodating, competing or problem solving standpoint. Identifying the effect of culture and national origin on these orientations would help companies incorporate multicultural differences into training employees who must resolve international conflicts.

For the purpose of this paper, the terms "negotiation" and "conflict management" will be used interchangeably. McShane and Von Glinow (2010) defined negotiation as "the process whereby two or more conflicting parties attempt to resolve their divergent goals by redefining the terms of their interdependence" (p. 342). It can be deduced from the definition that negotiation is based on the following notions: differences between individuals, their interdependence, and their willingness to reach a solution by allocating resources. These components are similar to conflict management: intentions and actual actions to reach a solution to a conflict which is the outcome of disagreement (De Dreu, Everes, Beersman, Kluwer, & Nauta, 2001; Silverthorne, 2005). Negotiation has inevitable elements of conflict behavior, which is why negotiation and conflict management are be considered as synonyms and studies incorporating both terms are included in the literature review.

The Impact of Conflict

Conflict is a double-edged sword in the sense that it can have negative or positive outcomes. On the individual level, when conflict leads to cautious self-assessments, it can be a constructive tool that leads to personal growth. On the organizational level, it can be used as a source of creativity in decision-making and strategy development. Management skills that use conflict as a source of innovation are obviously more effective and are sought for in modern managers (Rahim, Antonioni, & Psenicka, 2001).

Poorly managed conflict leads to various disparaging organizational outcomes such as stress, lower performance, distorted information, wasted time, high absenteeism, high turnover, violence, dissatisfaction and financial losses due to lawsuits from disgruntled employees (Runde & Flanagan, 2007; Silverthorne, 2005). For example, the desire to move to a new company was strongly correlated to interpersonal conflict in Hispanic and American workers, and the quality of work deteriorated as conflict increased (Aveiga, Valverde, Jaselskis, & Strong, 2011).

Job satisfaction is portrayed by employees when they report positive attributions to their work environment and positive on-the-job emotional experiences (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010). Job satisfaction is beneficial to organizations because it increases employees' commitment and decreases turnover rates, curbing a company's expenses on hiring and training new employees. Furthermore, a factor that has profound effect on job satisfaction is stress, which could be the outcome of poor social relationships (interpersonal conflicts), especially with supervisors. For example, Liu, Spector, Liu, and Shi (2011) found significant correlations between supervisory conflict and depression (r (541) = .39, $p < .01$), frustration (r (561) = .21, $p < .01$), anxiety (r (575) =.29, $p < .01$)

and fear (r (567) = .29, $p < .01$). They also found that about 54% and 42% of supervisory conflict was due to employees' lack of control (i.e., lack of autonomy and decision-making) in the USA and China, respectively. This is similar to what Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, and Johnson (2011) termed as role stressors. As Eatough et al. (2011) explained, employees can experience job strain when expectations are ambiguous and in contradiction with each other. Their meta-analysis found that such job strains led to the decrease in employee organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): role conflict elicited negative emotions and stress that reduced employees' intention for cooperation and engagement; two action tendencies that are pro-social and organizationally beneficial. It can be concluded that supervisory conflict, due to role ambiguity, increases job strain and on employees' job strain deteriorates employee productivity and cooperation.

Based on the previous discussion, it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between successful supervisory-conflict management and OCB and that such positive relationship between OCB and constructive conflict management is attributed to perceived justice. Organizational justice has three components: distributive justice, interpersonal justice and procedural justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Distributive justice is usually attained when the outcomes of decisions and the distribution of resources (e.g., pay and praise) are fairly allocated. Interpersonal justice refers to perceived respect and appropriate treatment while procedural justice is the perceived fairness, accuracy and transparency of decision-making procedures. When employees perceive organizational justice in their workplace, they render more loyal to their organization. Such affective commitment may be demonstrated by engaging altruistic behavior. In support, a study conducted by Rahim, Magner, Antonioni, &

Rahman, (2001) revealed that perceived organizational justice predicted both organizational commitment and turnover intention of a group of American business managers. Regression analysis showed that organizational justice predicted 32% of US manager's turnover intention and 29% of their commitment; the former pertained to the participants' voluntary plan to exit their organization of employment and the latter to their emotional attachment to the organization. Interestingly, only interactional justice was related to turnover intention for this group. This kind of justice can be considered parallel to the previously mentioned interpersonal justice and can be tied to supervisory conflict; the authors defined it to be "fair interpersonal treatment by decision-makers" (Rahim et al., 2001, p. 333). Thus, if decision-makers did not treat those managers properly (i.e., supervisory conflict), they contributed to their turnover intention. This can be explained from the social exchange theory standpoint introduced by Blau (1964). This theory explains that social behavior is an exchange of both material and non-material goods (i.e., tangible resources such as money and intangible goods such as proper treatment and praise). When a supervisor mistreats his/her subordinates, he or she breaches the psychological contract leading to dysfunctional relationships, dissatisfaction and even organizational exit. For example, in their regression analysis Liu, Yan, and Nauta (2013) found that procedural injustice significantly predicted or accounted for supervisory conflict ($R^2 = 0.13$) when examining the relationship between the two factors.

The positive implications of appropriate/successful conflict resolution are noticeable and obvious, but that is not always the case and conflicts render as threats to the individual's wellbeing. Threatening situations and stress not only have negative implications to mental health and the previously discussed OCBs, but also to the physical

health and welfare of employees. There are physiological components to stress: increased heart-rate, tightening of muscles, release of adrenaline, sharpening of senses and the weakening of the immune systems (McShane et al., 2010). High and chronic levels of stress, anger and hostility predict increased physical illnesses (asthma, arthritis, and liver disease), weak immune systems (especially after conflict), lower pain tolerance, higher cholesterol levels, higher cardiovascular diseases (coronary artery blockage), and thus fatal effects (Burger, 2008).

Interpersonal conflict can be viewed as one of the primary sources of such distress which leads to both health and mental problems. For instance, Liu, Spector, Liu, and Shi (2011) found noteworthy correlations between supervisor conflicts and employee job strain and dissatisfaction in both China and the US. Additionally, in their meta-analysis, Robbins, Ford, and Tetrick (2012) found that perceived unfairness and the breach of the psychological contract between supervisors and their subordinates led to remarkable declines in both the physical and mental health of employees (e.g., job strain, unhealthy behavior, burnout and absenteeism).

In extreme cases, conflict may lead to fatal outcomes such as homicide in the workplace. For example, as cited in Lawson and Shen (1998), a survey carried out by the American Management Association between the years 1990 and 1994 revealed that one fourth of 311 American organizations had a minimum of one employee attacked or killed on the job and that murder was the number one cause of death in the workplace in 1992. Proper relationships between employees and subordinates can lead to a decrease in such aggression.
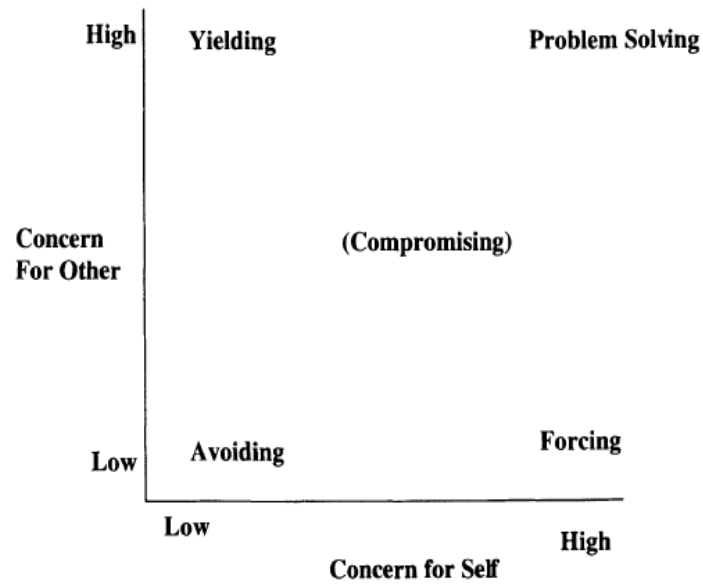
The Dual Concern Theory: Model of Conflict Management

The Dual Concern Theory (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986) has been the basic framework of research pertaining to conflict management, problem solving and negotiation. This theory explains two strategies or orientations for handling conflicts: a win-win orientation or a win-lose orientation. The former elaborates on the tendency of conflicting parties to be cooperative; to find reciprocally advantageous solutions to their disagreements, whereas the latter elaborates on the tendency to resort to more discrepant solutions and competitive tendencies.

The Dual Concern theory is the basis of a five-category conflict management model. The categories are the function of two factors or axes (each ranging from weak to strong): The concern for self that is directed to please one's own interest (assertiveness), and the concern for others which is directed towards satisfying the other party's welfare (cooperativeness) (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010). Falling on different ends or positions on these two axes lead to five conflict management strategies: problem-solving (win-win orientation), forcing (win-lose orientation), avoiding, yielding, and compromising. People who resort to problem solving usually have high cooperativeness and high assertiveness, and thus utilize creative solutions where both parties benefit. On the other hand, people who are not cooperative and highly assertive resort to forcing strategies that benefit their own needs and disregard the other party's benefits (win-lose orientation). People who are neither assertive nor cooperative ignore and suppress conflicts all together, whereas individuals who are highly cooperative and unassertive resort to yielding conflict management strategies where they do not put any value on their own interests and entirely submit to the other party's demands. The fifth strategy is compromising and is

usually used by people who are moderate on both assertiveness and cooperativeness. This strategy involves finding a middle ground or suboptimal resolutions and unconfirmed promises and threats between the two conflicting parties. The model is depicted in Figure1.

Each strategy leads to different outcomes. Research conducted by Behfar et al. (2008) examined various conflict management strategies in 65 teams of MBA students. The effect of strategies on group performance and satisfaction (group outcomes) were collected quantitatively and qualitatively. Team outcomes measures were grades earned on team projects and team member satisfaction was measured by the affective appraisal of the group work experience. Seven main categories of conflict were expressed by the various teams. Statements such as "we recognized that it was time to agree or disagree and then voted" were categorized into the "voting" strategy. Statements such as "we talked about our schedules and then compromised" and "one member gave up a weekend, another agreed to get up early one morning" were categorized into compromise or consensus conflict management. "Making sure everyone had a chance to fully explain their views and then went through a logical process of discussion to pick the most convincing argument" is a sample statement of what was categorized as a discussion or debate strategy. Other groups used open communication (incorporation of everyone's ideas, and using open discussions), idiosyncratic solutions (creating rules and punishments and referring to mediators), avoidance, and finally the rotation of responsibilities.

Theoretical representation of the five conflict management strategies as a function of concern for self and concern for other

Figure 1: Conflict Management Styles as a Function of the Dual Concern Theory

Retrieved from "A Theory-based Measure of Conflict Management Strategies in the Workplace,' by C.K.W. De Dreu, A. Everes, B. Beersma, E.S. Kluwer, and A. Nauta, 2001, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, p. 646.

Teams with consistently high or increasing performance and satisfaction relied on a mix of accommodation, collaboration, and compromising through incorporating everyone's ideas, taking the best of each member's unique perspective, and proactively preventing troubles. On the other hand, high levels of perplexity, ambiguity, role confusion and trouble led to constantly low or decreasing group outcomes. Such consistently decreasing performance was the outcome of competitiveness and the use of forcing and/or avoiding strategies; "we arranged work so angry people could avoid each other" (Behfar et al., 2008 p. 178), which rendered communication at a high cost which led to confusion and ambiguity of roles. It was also noted that the use of stringent rules expressed by statements such as "if you were late you have to buy everyone Coke" (p. 178), and a mix of competing, forcing and compromising conflict resolution orientations deteriorated satisfaction but enhanced performance. Finally, "avoidant" strategies of ignoring conflict preserved interpersonal harmony (increased satisfaction) on the expense of performance.

A key assumption to the dual concern theory is that social motives or cooperativeness and resistance to yielding or assertiveness are independent and orthogonal, which leads to the assumption that factors that manipulate assertiveness do not necessarily influence cooperativeness and vice versa (De Dreu, Weigngart, & Kwoon, 2000). Support for this postulation has been found when a non-significant correlation between the two measures ($r = -0.06$) was found by Butler (1994).

The Theory of Cooperation and Competition (Deutsch, 1973) proposes that negotiators have diverse motives, which could be either egoistic or prosocial. Negotiators with the former motive develop distrust, are competitive and hostile, and tend to exploit

others in efforts of increasing their own outcomes. On the other hand, negotiators with a prosocial motive perceive the other party as a partner and tend to develop trust, exchange information constructively, and maximize mutual benefits in settlements. Such motives are usually learned and could be anchored to individual differences such as an individual's social value orientation or contextual factors such as the particular situation.

De Dreu and his colleagues conducted a meta-analysis in 2000 to test the validity of the Dual Concern Theory and to compare it with the Theory of Cooperation and Competition. Furthermore, it was suggested that the impact of social motives on bargaining outcomes could be only due to different research methodology, which further increased the support of a meta analytic technique. Two major psychology databases were used along with recent unpublished issues. Twenty-eight studies were included for meeting the criteria of measuring: prosocial versus egoistic motives, joint outcome or negotiation behavior, used a negotiation task that could be scored, allowed verbal communication, and provided the necessary statistical information to compute effect sizes. For the Cooperation and Competition theory, it was found that negotiators with a prosocial intention engaged in more problem-solving behavior, fewer arguments, and were more perceptive of integrative behavior than negotiators with an egoistic motive. However, it was noted that the significant values revealed inconsistent effect sizes and thus should be considered with carefulness.

It was pointed out that the Dual Concern theory predicted that individuals with prosocial motives (a) engage in more problem-solving behavior, (b) show less arguable behavior, and (c) reach more amalgamated agreements than individuals with an egoistic motive, but only when individuals have high rather than low resistance to yielding (De

Dreu, Weigngart, & Kwoon, 2000). Thus, De Deu and his colleagues (2000) considered resistance to yielding as a moderator. Negotiators with prosocial motives engaged more in problem-solving than negotiators with egoistic motives, but only when they have high rather than low resistance to yielding. Conversely, negotiators with prosocial motives engaged in less contentious behavior than negotiators with egoistic motives only when they had high rather than low resistance to yielding; and finally, negotiators with prosocial motives reached more assimilated agreements than negotiators with egoistic motives only when they had high rather than low resistance to yielding. Thus the Dual Concern theory gained empirical support over the Cooperation and Competition theory and was suggested to offer a variety of strategies to improve negotiator effectiveness.

Negotiation and Conflict-Handling Methods across Cultures

Conflict management is inevitable for leaders and is one of the most challenging tasks in which they have to engage (Runde & Flanagan, 2007). It is also one of the most time-consuming responsibilities of managers. For example, (as cited in De Dreu, et al, 2001), it has been reported by Thomas (1992) that managers spend about 20% of their time resolving conflict. Furthermore, ineffective conflict resolution is one of the main contributors (more than half) to people's resignation and high turnover (Dana, 2005). It is only expected for such difficulties and problems to increase dramatically in the context of globalization. More conflicts can surface when people with very different national origins, value systems, and communication styles are called to work in the same company and teams. This is where the understanding of the communication origins and styles of people from various places in the globe comes in handy (Silverthorne, 2005). Without such an understanding, management would be over-occupied with resolving problems

between displeased employees and less time would be dedicated for strategic planning and organizational success.

There are some broad differences between cultures that impact conflict resolution tactics. Silverthorne (2005) identified the following variables: culture similarity, relative power, and relationship age. Cultural similarity (i.e., similar attitudes, norms and behaviors) may promote more cooperative approaches to conflict management and may ease the process of problem solving. On the other hand, it would be less likely for people and organizations to openly and trustingly communicate and exchange information when high discrepancy is perceived in people's value systems. The second variable that was discussed was relative power. The more a party brings to the table, the more likely that it will have the ability to influence the other. Thus the greater power discrepancy between the two cultures, the more likely the conflict management strategy will be coercive and less integrative. Finally, with respect to relationship age, it was explained that longer relationships give parties more prospects of interaction which smoothes the progress of constructive conflict management strategies such as problem solving. According to Bazerman, Curhan, Moore, and Valley (2000), the most researched and applicable findings of cultural psychology to negotiation are collectivism-individualism, power distance, communication context, and conception of time. Research pertaining to cultural differences will be explored further.

Individualistic people place high significance on independence, individuality and distinctiveness, whereas individuals belonging to collectivist cultures place high significance on interdependence and tend to work on achieving cooperative goals (e.g., Bazerman et al., 2000). These different cultural assembles affect negotiation styles in a

way that the former (such as citizens of the United States and Great Britain) emphasize on self-preservation while the latter (such as citizens of Columbia and Pakistan) prioritize the preservation of relationships and the collective good (Bazerman et al., 2000). In support, it has been evident that conflicts are treated directly and competitively in individualistic cultures, whereas conflicts are treated indirectly and in a manner that safeguards harmony in collective cultures (Adair, Okumura, & Brett, 2001). United States (U.S.) and Japanese negotiators relied on different behaviors in concession. Negotiators from the U.S. relied on direct information to learn about each other's inclinations and precedence and to integrate this information to create joint achievement. On the other hand, negotiators from Japan relied on indirect information and inferences about each other's preferences and priorities. Thus, culture was identified as a factor contributing to the frequency of using direct and indirect information-sharing in negotiation conduct. Additionally, Liu, Nauta, Spector, and Li (2008) found that Chinese significantly reported higher levels of direct conflict, sadness, anxiety and physiological symptoms than Americans while their U.S. sample reported more indirect conflict by self and others, and more anger than their Chinese comparison.

Furthermore, Brett, Gunia, Kambar, and Nankeolyar (2011) explored trust as a function of cultural tightness or cultural looseness. "Tight" cultures that have clear classifications of social norms (such as India), turned out to have less willingness to trust in negotiation than "loose" cultures such as the US. That lack of interpersonal trust in the former culture was attributed to various factors such as the absence of the need to be socially intelligent and to decipher who is trustworthy or not due to reassurance in institutions.

The second aspect of cultural differences that may contribute to various strategies of negotiation adopted by individuals from different cultures is power distance. When individuals have perceptions of high power distance, they place a great value on hierarchy and on discrepant authority between individuals (Liu et al., 2013). In contrast, individuals who have perceptions of low power distance place great value on equality and assign authority and power to individuals in a less discrepant and a more egalitarian fashion. In support, Japanese negotiators were more likely to use authority and control while U.S. negotiators avoided power tactics. This behavioral difference confirms the existence of hierarchical and egalitarian cultural differences in negotiation (Adair, et al., 2001). Furthermore, it has been revealed that individuals of high-power-distance customs face less conflicts with individuals on the higher spectrum of hierarchy (such as their supervisors) and tend to turn to those individuals for guidance and support more frequently than individuals of low-power-distance customs (Liu et al., 2008).

In a qualitative study conducted by Liu, Spector, Liu and Shi (2011), supervisor conflict was 23% and 4% due to lack of job autonomy for American and Chinese employees, respectively. Thus, it was evident that Chinese accept more control from their supervisors. Furthermore, supervisor conflict was more related to depression symptoms such as sadness, anxiety, and helplessness in China. That was contributed to the fact that a good relationship with one's supervisor in the Chinese sample meant the promise of more promotions, career development, and job security (due to the perceived high power of supervisors). Another relevant finding is related to job autonomy (greater independence). The more autonomous employees were in China, the more fear and depression increased. That could also be explained by the high perceived power distance:

when employees have job autonomy, supervisors feel threatened. Thus, low autonomy enhances perceived loyalty to supervisors.

A third contributing factor to negotiation that varies across cultures was suggested to be the differing communication context (Bazerman et al., 2000). Individuals who belong to low communication context cultures use unambiguous and expressive language, whereas, on the opposite side of the spectrum, individuals belonging to high communication context cultures refer to more indirect language and obtain information by using cues derived from the context of what is being said. For instance, Chua and Gudykunst (1987) found supporting evidence when it was revealed that individuals from Japan, Korea, China and Vietnam (high-context-cultures) depicted more indirect communication strategies than individuals from the United States, Germany and Scandinavia (low-context cultures).

Another underlying contributing factor in different negotiation strategies between cultures is the conception of time (Bazerman et al., 2000). This is based on the idea that different individuals belonging to different cultures perceive time to be either monochromatic or polychromatic. In polychromatic cultures individuals emphasize time limitation; they allocate specific time slots for particular projects, follow tight schedules and value punctuality. Such a perception of time is more common in low-context cultures. On the other hand, polychromatic cultures perceive time as abundant and ever flowing; past events continue to progress and intervene with the present. Such individuals tend to be more flexible with their time and follow loose schedules. Foster (1992) found that people from North America and Western Europe who culturally have a monochromatic notion of time deal with issues one at a time and in a more sequential and

organized manner. On the other hand, individuals from the Middle East, South America and various Asian countries holding a polychromatic notion of time revealed greater incidents of interruptions when negotiating, disregarded turn-taking and tried to process various issues inconsequentially and simultaneously.

A National Comparison of the Arab World and the United States

Professor Geert Hofstede conducted one of the most inclusive studies that explored how culture influences values in the workplace (The Hofstede Center, 2013). He was initially able to collect data from 40 different countries using employees working for IBM at various countries as his participants. His analysis led to four dimensions of national culture: Power Distance (PDI), Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS), and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI). A fifth dimension, Long-Term Orientation (LTO), was later developed in 1991 and the model explored values of an extensive number of nations. It also has many practical applications such as leadership, intercultural management, and organizational culture and change. Hofstede's dimensions have also been used as an assessment tool by consulting companies. For example, The Values Survey Module (VS08) is an assessment tool used by *Itim International*, a culture and management consultancy agency to compare culturally bound values of individuals from at least two different countries (Hofstede et al., 2008). In the following section, a comparison between the United States and the Arab World will be provided based on Hofstede's five cultural dimensions: Power Distance, Individualism versus Collectivism, Masculanity versus Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Long Term versus Short Term orientation. It should be noted that the range of scores for all four dimensions is from zero to 100.

Power Distance (PDI) refers to the inequality that exists and is embraced by a culture. Data collected from an aggregate of Arab countries (Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, and Saudi Arabia) report a high PDI score of 80, suggesting that the Arab society has high tolerance to unequal distribution of power, strong hierarchies, centralization, large discrepancies in compensation, and high emphasis on authority and respect (The Hofstede Center, 2013). It was suggested when resolving problems; people with higher power may need to be consulted. On the other hand, the United States scored low (40) on this dimension which was suggested to be rooted in the American assertion of "liberty and justice for all". Such a culture sets the floor for flatter organizations, equality between supervisors and employees, more participative decision making, and frequent informal communication.

The second dimension is Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), referring to the strength of interpersonal ties and interdependence within a group of people (The Hofstede Center, 2013). Individuals in such cultures with a high score on this dimension value privacy, individual freedom, acknowledgement of accomplishments, and self-expression. The United States fits this category for it obtained a score of 91. This is manifested by the individuality of Americans and their high concern about self and the merit-based expectancy of compensation and promotion. On the other hand, the Arab culture scored low (38) on this dimension, indicating that this group of individuals is highly cohesive and has elevated levels of respect for members of the group (concern for others). This could be contributed to the Arabic cultures' high affiliation and dedication to familial bonds and extended social commitments. In such a society, members avoid confrontation, have a great respect for traditions, and place great emphasis on group

harmony at the expense of their own individual satisfaction, for the workplace is perceived as a familial link.

The third dimension is Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS) or the extent to which a society conforms and values traditional gender roles (The Hofstede Center, 2013). In highly masculine cultures, men are expected to be sturdy, assertive and avoidant of revealing their emotions. Women, on the other hand, are perceived and expected to be sensitive and have distinctive professions from men. Diversely, cultures with low MAS scores have a high regard for successful and powerful women, and treat men and women equally. The Arab world has a masculine norm, with a score of 52 on this dimension. In such masculine countries, individuals emphasize justice and competition and resolve conflicts by combat and argumentation. Similarly, the United States scored 62 on this dimension and is, thus, also a "masculine" society. It was suggested that behavior in interpersonal interactions are based on the shared values that people should "strive to be the best they can be" and that "the winner takes all". Usually, Americans "live to work" and strive to earn monetary rewards and accomplish higher status based on their merit. Thus, conflicts are expected to be resolved at the individual level and the aim is to win.

The fourth dimension is Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) which relates to a society's tolerance or anxiety towards instability and ambiguous situations (The Hofstede Center, 2013). The Arab culture score is 68 on this dimension which indicates a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. It was explained that such countries have rigid systems of beliefs and performance and are intolerant of unconventional behavior and/or thought. In these cultures individuals are compelled towards stringent rules, hard work and order. On

the other hand, the US scored 46 on the UAI dimension, revealing relative uncertainty tolerance and reception. Low UAI signifies interest in novel situations, risk-taking, informality, minimal structure, and concern with long-term goals rather than daily tasks. Such a culture has few guiding rules and admires differences, new situations, and self-expression. Unlike the formal culture, Americans embrace novel experiences being new technology, ideas, management styles, etc., and also express lower emotionally driven decisions and interpersonal interactions.

The last dimension, Long Term Orientation (LTO), pertains to how much a society values long-term as opposed to short-term conventions and norms (The Hofstede Center, 2013). In other words, this dimension relates to the acceptance of novelty and creative expression. For societies with high LTO, a high value is placed on education and training, traditions are abided by and respected, men and older generations possess more authority than younger generations and women, and respect and sound reputation are highly valued. At the other end, low LTO cultures are highly individualistic; they value divergent thought, promote equality and are receptive to change. The United States scored 29 on this dimension and, thus, is a short-term leaning culture. As it has been expressed by Hofstede, the American culture focuses on fulfilling social duties, short-term basis performance, and strives for quick results within the work place. No value has been obtained on the Arab world and, therefore, a comparison on this dimension is not feasible. Table 1 depicts these cultural differences.

Table 1

Arab World in Comparison with the United States based on Hostede's Culture Dimensions (The Hofstede Center, 2013)

	Arab World	**United States**
Power Distance	80	40
Individualism versus Collectivism	38	91
Masculanity versus Femininity	52	62
Uncertainty Avoidance	68	46
Long Term versus Short term Orientation	Not found	29

Hypotheses

Individualistic people place high significance on independence, individuality and distinctiveness (The Hofstede Center, 2013) and thus it can be concluded that they have a high concern for self. On the other hand, as previously mentioned individuals who belong to collectivist cultures place high significance on interdependence and tend to work on achieving cooperative goals. These cultural differences thus affect conflict handling in a way that individualistic people (such as citizens of the United States and Great Britain) give emphasis to self-preservation while collectivistic people (such as citizens of Columbia and Pakistan) prioritize the preservation of relationships and the collective good (Bazerman et al., 2000).

According to Geert Hofstede's (The Hofstede Center, 2013) findings, the Arab culture scored low (38) on the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension, indicating that Arabs are highly interconnected and have high levels of concern for others. In such a culture, members avoid confrontation, have a great respect for traditions, and place great emphasis on group harmony on the expense of their own individual satisfaction. On the other hand, citizens of the United States scored 91 on the Individualism versus Collectivism dimension which means that these individuals value individuality and have a high concern about self. Based on such research, I came up with the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. Because Middle Easterners have collective values they will report that they use yielding conflict management styles more often than other styles because of a greater concern for others.

Hypothesis 2. Because Americans have individualistic values they will report that they use forcing conflict management styles more often than other styles because of a greater concern for self.

Hypothesis 3. Middle Easterners will be more yielding than Americans.

Hypothesis 4. Americans will be more forcing than Middle Easterners.

Hypothesis 5. I expect that the more supervisory conflict employees experience on their job, the higher their turnover intention will be.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

This research examines the supervisory conflict management strategies of Middle Eastern and American employees. The different conflict management strategies in the study were based on the dual concern theory. This research primarily aimed to investigate such conflict strategies in a cultural context by considering nationality as index of culture. Another factor that was explored was the frequency of supervisory conflict experienced by employees on their job along side with their turnover intention, tenure, age, and size of organization.

Participants

151 people completed the survey, but only 120 were working. The 31 people who were either unemployed or retired were not included in the analysis. Of the 120 participants, 73 were Americans, 35 were Lebanese, and the rest were citizens of other countries. Those from Western countries, such as Canada, France, and Belgium, were categorized as "American." Those from Middle-Eastern countries, such as Syria, Oman, Jordan, and Palestine, were categorized as "Lebanese." Breaking down the 120 participants, 77 were "American," 40 were "Lebanese," and three did not indicate where they were from. Among the "Americans," 35.5% were men and 64.5% were women. Among the "Lebanese," 50% were men and 50% were women. The average age of the "Americans" was 31 ($SD = 11.4$). The average age of the "Lebanese" was 26 ($SD = 3.3$). The average tenure of the "Americans" in their organizations was 45 months ($SD = 81.8$). The average tenure of the "Lebanese" in their organizations was 20 months ($SD = 19.6$). The average size of the organizations for which the "Americans" worked was 588

employees ($SD = 1,989.8$). The average size of the organizations for which the "Lebanese" worked was 5,564 employees ($SD = 22,303.8$).

Thus, it can be concluded that the two samples did not resemble one another in terms of sex, age, tenure, or organizational size. These differences might have influenced the results. It would be good to collect more data from Lebanon from older employees, especially women, with more tenure in smaller organizations.

Measures

Turnover intention. To measure employees' intention to quit their job, Colarelli's (1984) Intent to Quit Scale was used in which participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed to the three statement on a scale from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). The statements were "I frequently think of quitting my job at this organization," "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months," and "if I have my own way, I will not be working for this organization one year from now." The scale was reliable and consistent, yielding a coefficient alpha value of .88 (see Appendix A).

Supervisory conflict frequency. To measure this frequency of supervisory conflict, one question was created: "How much supervisory conflict do you experience at work?" Participants were requested to answer this question on a scale from one (daily) to four (yearly, if at all) (see Appendix B).

Conflict management styles. The instrument used was the Dutch Test for Conflict Handling (DUTCH) (De Dreu, Everes, Beersman, Kluwer, & Nauta, 2001). This instrument is based on the dual concern theory explored in my literature review and has five subscales measuring the five different conflict handling orientations: problem-

solving (win-win orientation), forcing (win-lose orientation), avoiding, yielding, and compromising (to view the detailed scales see table 2). According to De Dreu et al. (2001), this test was created by Dutch scholars, however, it is not strictly applicable to the Dutch culture. The authors translated the DUTCH to English and the subscales consisted statements that reveal the previously mentioned conflict management strategies.

De Dreu et al. (2001) explored the psychometrics of the translated questionnaire by conducting three studies with different samples: psychology students for study one, employees in a manufacturing firm for study two, and a large sample of higher educated professional for study three. In the first study, dyads of students completed a negotiation task that required concession. Post-negotiation, participants completed the DUTCH questionnaire to assess themselves and their opponents' conflict management strategies. It is of note to mention that the "lean" DUTCH was used in this study, a version of the questionnaire that excluded the compromise scale. Cronbach alphas were 0.83 for forcing, 0.73 for yielding, 0.82 for problem-solving and 0.73 for avoiding.

Self reported forcing was positive ($r = 0.72$) and significant at the $p < 0.01$ level with observer and opponent ratings of forcing, supporting this scale's convergent validity. A similar but weaker trend was found for problem-solving and yielding but not for avoiding. The authors explained that the poor convergent validity for yielding could be due to the difficulty of observing avoidance behavior in videotapes.

In their second study, De Dreu and his colleagues (2001) found support for the instrument's discriminant validity by correlating the subscales with each other. The highest correlation was between the yielding and avoiding subscales ($r = 0.33$). In the third study, the authors (2001) advocated that compromise should not be considered as a

"lazy form of a problem solving" (p. 656), and included the fifth scale this strategy. Cronbach alphas were 0.65 for yielding, 0.66 for compromising, 0.70 for forcing, 0.68 for problem solving and 0.73 for avoiding. The authors explained that the subscales were sufficiently internally consistent; "apparently the items fit well into their respective scales, and no unwanted overlap between items within a scale is detected" (De Dreu et al., 2001, p. 657). Confirmatory factor analyses supported the superiority of the five factor model over the four factor model traditionally identified in the Dual Concern Theory. Hierarchical level and gender of participants were also explored and were found invariant; these two variables did not intervene in the measure. In conclusion, the experiments conducted by the authors revealed that both convergent and divergent validity were good and that the psychometric findings provide indirect support of the Dual Concern theory. They also invited individuals to use the instrument for experimental and field research.

In my study, the subscales from De Dreu et. al (2001) were obtained and used to evaluate participants' styles in handling supervisory conflict. Each consisted of four statements that had to be rated from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). The statements can be found in Table 2. In the survey, statements from various subscales were presented in a systematically varied order (see Appendix C): items one, six, 11, and 16 measured "yielding"; items two, seven, 12, and 17 measured "compromising"; items three, eight, 13 and 18 measured forcing ; items four, nine, 14 and 19 measured problem-solving , and the remaining measured "avoiding" (see Appendix C). The internal consistencies for the scales can be judged sufficiently reliable and consistent, with the

Table 2

Scales for each of the Conflict-management Styles

Yielding	**Compromising**
I give in to the wishes of the other party.	I try to realize a middle-of-the-road solution.
I concur with the other party.	I emphasize that we have to find a compromise solution.
I try to accommodate the other party.	I insist we both give in a little.
I adapt to the other parties' goals and interests.	I strive whenever possible towards a fifty-fifty compromise
Forcing	**Problem solving**
I push my own point of view.	I examine issues until I find a solution that really satisfies me and the other party.
I search for gains.	
I fight for a good outcome for myself.	I stand for my own and other's goals and interests.
I do everything to win.	I examine ideas from both sides to find a mutually optimal solution.
Avoiding	
I avoid a confrontation about our differences.	I work out a solution that serves my own as well as other's interests as good as possible.
I avoid differences of opinion as much as possible.	
I try to make differences loom less severe.	
I try to avoid a confrontation with the other.	

Statements obtained from "A Theory-based Measure of Conflict Management Strategies in the Workplace,' by C.K.W. De Dreu, A. Everes, B. Beersma, E.S. Kluwer, and A. Nauta, 2001, *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*, p. 668.

possible exception of yielding; yielding (alpha = .66), avoiding (alpha = .74), forcing (alpha = .73), compromising (alpha = .75) and problem-solving (alpha = .77).

Demographic variables. Participants were asked to identify their sex (male or female), age, country of nationality, and country of nationality at birth, if different. Employment status (e.g., employed or unemployed) was also included in order to eliminate unemployed and retired individuals. Individuals also were required to report the number of employees who worked at their company in order to measure the size of the organization. Their tenure was measured by years of experience at their current organization. Demographic questions can be found in Appendix D.

Procedures

Prior to data collection, the instrument was reviewed by Emporia State's institutional review board (IRB) to ensure the ethical treatment of the human subjects under investigation (see Appendix E). A consent form (see Appendix F) which was also reviewed and approved by the IRB was provided with the questionnaire. The consent form ensured anonymity of participants and explicitly stated that they had the complete freedom to discontinue the study at any point .The data was collected during the summer and fall semesters of the year 2012 and the population consisted of employed individuals who worked under any kind of supervision.

The data were collected by the availability of participants. I collected data by giving out print copies of the survey in organizations like Emporia State University and the Flint Hills Community Center and to employed colleagues. For Employees at Emporia State, I went to the Library, Plumb Hall, Visser Hall and the Memorial Union, introduced myself and the project to employees, asked them if they worked under supervision, and if they were willing to take my survey. I gave participants an envelope with the questionnaire and the consent form; they could mail it to the Psychology Campus Box or fill it, place it in the envelope for confidentiality, and return it to me.

As for the Flint Hills Community Health Center; after the approval of the Chief Executive Officer, the Chief Operating Officer gave my survey to employees who worked under supervision and asked them to return them by the end of the day to a designated box in front of her office.

Another method that I used to increase the number of my participants was giving out the survey to peers in the Student Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology and requesting them to take it and give copies of it to friends and/or family who were employed and work under supervision. After a few days, many peers returned with a number of filed out surveys place in envelopes that were sealed and include a consent form.

Finally, the same survey was transformed into an electronic version that I have shared on social networks like Facebook and LinkedIn. This was helpful to obtain responses from participants in various locations in the United States and the Arab World.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Main Hypotheses

Because Middle Easterners have collective values and have high concern for others, I hypothesized that they would use yielding conflict management styles more often than other styles. However, this hypothesis was not supported. Problem-solving was the most commonly used conflict-management style for the Middle Easterner participants. The average use of problem-solving for the "Lebanese" was 5.08 ($SD =$ 0.67), which is more than their average use of yielding ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 0.86$) or avoiding ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 0.82$). The results for "Lebanese" and "Americans" can be seen in Table 3.

The second hypothesis was that Americans would report that they use the forcing conflict management style more often than the other styles because of their individualistic nature and high concern for self. However, this hypothesis was also not supported. Problem-solving was also the most commonly used conflict-management style by the "Americans" as well, with an average score of 4.67 ($SD = 0.60$), which was more than their average use of forcing ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.75$). Thus hypothesis two was not supported (see Table 3).

In my third hypothesis, I expected the "Lebanese" to be more yielding than the "Americans." Although they were more yielding, as seen in Table 3, the difference was not statistically significant ($t(96) = -0.63$, $p = .53$). Thus, the third hypothesis was not supported.

Table 3

Conflict Management Styles by Country

	USA			Lebanon		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Yield	68	4.13	0.72	30	4.23	0.86
Compromise	69	4.27	0.79	31	4.63	0.85
Force	68	3.75	0.75	30	4.58	0.83
Solve Problem	68	4.67	0.6	31	5.08	0.67
Avoid	69	3.93	0.82	32	3.944	1.11

In my fourth hypothesis I expected the "Americans" to be more forcing than the Middle Easterners. Not only was this hypothesis not supported, the "Lebanese" ($M =$ 4.58) had a higher forcing score than the "Americans" ($M = 3.75$), as can be seen in Table 3. If this had been a non-directional, two-tailed test, it would have been significant ($t(96)= - 4.881, p < . 01$).

For my fifth hypothesis, I expected that the more supervisory conflict employees experience on their job, the higher their turnover intention would be. This hypothesis was supported; there was a significant negative correlation between frequency of supervisory conflict and turnover intention, $r(113) = -0.48, p < .01$. The correlation is negative because a score of one on the frequency of supervisory conflict scale indicates daily conflict, while a score of four indicates very little conflict. Thus, low conflict scores (high conflict) were related to high turnover scores (employee intends to leave).

Exploratory Analyses

Additional differences in conflict management styles. In my main hypotheses, I only compared the two countries on yielding and forcing. When I examined the differences between the "Americans" and the "Lebanese" on the other three conflict management styles, I found no significant difference in compromising ($t(107) = -1.79, p$ = .08), although it was marginally significant. The "Lebanese" were somewhat more compromising. I found no difference in avoiding ($t(47.04) = -0.03, p > .05$). It should be noted that with the avoiding analysis Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F =$ 5.141, $p < .05$), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 99 to 47. However, I did find that the Lebanese ($M = 5.08$) reported using problem-solving more than the Americans ($M = 4.67$) ($t(97)= -3.09, p < .05$). An examination of Table 3 reveals that the Middle

Eastern participants reported higher levels of every type of conflict management style. Thus, it was either that the Middle Easterners inflated all of their responses or that the Americans slightly underreported their responses.

One way to control for response bias is to examine the relative strengths of each conflict management style within each group. If we do this, the strongest conflict management styles for the Westerners were Problem Solving, Compromise, Yielding, Avoiding, and Forcing. Thus, my second hypothesis was misguided. The "Americans" favor the forcing style the least. The strongest conflict management styles for the Middle Easterners were Problem Solving, Compromise, Forcing, Yielding, and Avoiding. Thus, my first hypothesis was also misguided. The "Lebanese" favor the avoiding style the least. I guess everybody likes to think that they problem solve or compromise the most, as these are the most effective and fair approaches, and no one likes to think they are avoidant. But between yielding and forcing, the results were directly opposite from my hypotheses.

Exploratory analyses were also run with predictor variables such a sex, age, tenure, and size of the organization and three criterion variables: turnover intention, conflict management styles, and conflict frequency.

Turnover Intention. There was a significant negative correlation between age and turnover intention, $r(114) = -0.30$, $p < .01$. Older participants had a less turnover intention. Similarly, there was a negative correlation between tenure and turnover intention, $r(113) = -0.20$, $p < .05$. The more years the participant spent at his/her organization, the less likely he/she intended to leave it. Finally, the size of the organization was not related to the participants' turnover intention, $r(111) = .03$, $p > .05$.

It was interesting to explore whether turnover intention was related to any of the conflict management strategies in particular. Turnover intention was not related to yielding, $r(99) = -0.13$, $p > .05$; compromise, $r(102)= -0.07$, $p > .05$; forcing , $r(99) = .11$, $p > .05$; problem solving , $r(100)= -0.16$, $p > .05$; or avoiding , $r(102)= -0.11$, $p > .05$. Thus, there was no relationship between turnover intention and any of the conflict management styles. It is worthy of note that that correlation coefficients between turnover and all styles of conflict management were negative except for forcing. This indicates that people who rely on force will be somewhat more likely to want to leave their organization. It appears to be the least effective style.

However, when the data were examined within culture, there was a significant correlation between turnover intention and problem solving ($r(71)= -0.29$, $p < .05$) for the "Americans." The other correlations were less than .20. For the "Lebanese," the correlation between turnover intention and problem solving ($r(33)= -0.32$, $p = .07$) was marginally significant, as was the correlation between turnover intention and compromising ($r(33)= -0.32$, $p = .07$). Thus, employees who report that they use the most effective styles of conflict management are less likely to want to leave their organization.

The relationships between turnover intention with sex and country were also explored. Participants from "America" ($M =2.91$, $SD = 1.65$) significantly reported lower turnover intention than participants from "Lebanon" ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 3.62$); $t(111) = -2.18$, $p < .05$. Men ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 1.79$) reported significantly higher turnover intention than women ($M=2.90$, $SD = 1.56$); $t(113) = 2.07$, $p < .05$.

Conflict management styles. The difference between women and men in using the various conflict-management strategies was explored. Women ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 0.87$)

reported using the avoiding conflict-management strategy significantly more than men ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 0.91$) when dealing with supervisory conflict; $t(101) = -2.65$, $p < .01$. On the other hand, men ($M = 4.2162$, $SD = 0.82$) reported using forcing as a supervisory conflict-management strategy marginally more than women ($M = 3.89$, $SD = 0.86$); $t(98) = 1.86$, $p = .07$. Men ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 0.87$) reported using the compromise conflict-handling strategy marginally less than women ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 0.81$) when dealing with supervisory conflict, $t(100) = -1.78$, $p = 0.08$. There was no reported difference between men and women on their amount of using problem-solving; $t(99) = -.47$, $p > .05$. Similarly, there was no reported difference between men and women on their amount of using yielding when dealing with supervisory conflict $t(96) = -0.82$, $p > .05$. For these results, refer to Table 4.

The "American" sample had a higher percentage of women (64.5%) than the "Lebanese" sample (50%). If men tend to use force more than women, this could explain why the "Americans" rated force at the bottom, while the "Lebanese" rated force as third. It may have more to do with gender differences than with cultural differences. But this was not the case. I found that the "American" men were much less likely to endorse force ($M = 3.93$. $SD = 0.66$) than the "Lebanese" men ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 0.82$), $t(38) = -3.04$, $p < .01$. Even the "Lebanese" women ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 0.88$) were more comfortable with using force than the "American" women ($M = 3.77$. $SD = 0.77$), $t(65) = -2.52$, $p < .05$.

Table 4

Conflict Management Styles by Sex

	Men			Women		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Yield	36	4.05	0.83	64	4.18	0.73
Compromise	37	4.16	0.87	65	4.46	0.81
Force	37	4.22	0.82	63	3.89	0.86
Solve Problem	38	4.73	0.68	63	4.79	0.65
Avoid	38	3.63	0.91	65	4.10	0.87

When exploring the relationship of tenure (years of experience at the organization) with the different conflict management strategies, I found a negative correlation between yielding and tenure, $r(99) = -0.25$, $p < .05$. Thus, the more years of experience employees had at their organization the less likely they were to engage in yielding when managing supervisory conflict. There was no relationship between tenure and compromise; $r(101) = -0.10$, $p > .05$; tenure and forcing, $r(99) = 0.09$, $p > .05$; tenure and problem-solving, $r(100) = -0.10$, $p > .05$; or tenure and avoiding, $r(102)=-0.02$, $p > .05$.

The relationship between age and the different conflict management strategies were also explored. A negative correlation between age and yielding was found, $r(99) = -0.26$, $p < .01$. Thus, similar to tenure, the older the participants were, the less likely they were to yield when dealing when with supervisory conflict. A negative correlation was found between forcing and age with a marginal statistical significance, $r(99) = -0.19$, $p = .054$. Thus, the older the participants were, the less likely they engaged in the forcing conflict management strategy when dealing with supervisors. Similarly, a negative correlation was found between age and avoiding with a marginal significance; $r(102) = -0.17$, $p = .08$. Thus, the older the participants were, the less likely they engaged in the avoiding conflict management strategy when dealing with supervisors. No relationship was found between age and compromise; $r(101) = -0.12$, $p > .05$, or between age problem-solving; $r(100) = -0.05$, $p > .05$.

The relationships between frequency of conflict and the types of conflict resolution strategies were explored. Remember, a low score on the frequency measure indicates greater conflict. I found that the more participants experienced conflict with

their supervisor (low score), the more they resorted to the forcing style (high score), $r(96)$ = -0.25, $p < .05$. Additionally, participants who reported low levels of supervisory conflict (high score), resorted more to the avoidance strategy of conflict management (high score), $r(99) = .17$, $p = .09$ (marginal significance). There were no relationships between the amount of conflict experienced with the participants' supervisors and yielding, $r(97) = .13$, $p > .05$, compromise, $r(98) = .03$, $p > .05$, or problem solving, $r(97) = -0.06$, $p > .05$.

The relationships between the size of the organization and its employees' conflict management styles were also explored. The larger the organization (i.e., more employees), the less its employees reported using yielding as a supervisory conflict management strategy; $r(97) = -0.20$, $p = .053$ (marginal significance). There were no relationships between the size of the organization and compromise, $r(99) = -0.10$, $p > .05$; forcing $r(97) = .04$, $p > .05$ problem solving $r(98) = .05$, $p > .05$ or avoiding $r(100) = -0.07$, $p > .05$.

To explore whether demographic variables interacted with each other to affect conflict management styles, analysis of variance was conducted. When exploring the avoidance conflict management strategy, analysis of variance showed a marginal interaction effect between sex and nationality on "avoiding"; $F(1, 96) = 2.88$, $p = .09$. Men from "America" ($M = 3.74$) resorted to avoiding more than men from "Lebanon" ($M = 3.47$), and women from "Lebanon" ($M = 4.41$) resorted to this strategy more than women from "America" ($M = 4.02$). On the other hand, sex and nationality did not interact to effect the problem solving conflict management strategy, $F(1, 94) = .40$, $p > .05$. There was no interaction effect between sex and nationality that affected forcing

when dealing with supervisory conflict, $F(1,93) = .01$, $p > .05$. There was no interaction between sex and nationality that affected compromise as a supervisory conflict management strategy, $F(1,95) = 1.619$, $p > .05$. Analysis of variance (between-subject effect) for the yielding supervisory conflict management strategy revealed no interaction effect between sex and nationality, $F(1,93) = .17$, $p > .05$.

Frequency of supervisory conflict. It was important to explore whether there was a difference in the amount of conflict experienced by men and women. It should be noted that, due to the nature of the scale used for measuring the frequency of supervisory conflict, the lower the score on conflict, the more frequently conflict was experienced with employees' supervisors. Thus, men ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .97$) reported significantly more conflict than women (M=3.36, SD = 0.91); $t(114) = -3.51$, $p < .01$.

When comparing the amount of conflict experienced by the two nations, participants from "Lebanon" ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 1.05$) experienced significantly more supervisory conflict than participants from "America" ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 0.92$); $t(113) = 2.401$, $p < .05$.

The relationship between conflict and age, tenure, and organization size were explored. The older the participants were, the less supervisory conflict they reported, $r(115) = .20$, $p < .05$. There was no relationship between the frequency of supervisory conflict that employees reported and their tenure with their organizations; $r(114) = .15$, $p > .05$. Similarly, there was no relationship between the frequency of supervisory conflict and the size of the organization, $r(112) = .11$, $p > .05$.

On a final note, between correlations, t-tests and F-tests, a total number of 51 statistics were found; 17 of these statistics were statistically significant ($p < .05$) and 12

were marginally statistical significant ($p < .10$). Thus, 33% of the results were significant and about 24% of the results were marginally significant. This suggests that the results are rather accurate and not merely due to chance (i.e., significant results are more than five percent of all the results).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Main Hypotheses

Both Hypothesis 1 and 2 were not supported; participants from both nations reported using problem-solving more than any other strategy when dealing with supervisory conflict. This could be contaminated by the participants' natural tendency to present oneself in a positive light. For example, when reading "I examine ideas from both sides to find a mutually optimal solution," a person could immediately perceive the desirability of such a problem-solving strategy and consequently report it as highly self-descriptive. This was supported by De Dreu et al. (2001) when they found evidence of self-serving bias pertaining to problem-solving, but not for forcing, yielding and avoiding. In defense of the instrument, the authors advocated that this confirmation of self-serving bias should not lead us to believe that the measure lacks convergent validity; individuals only tend to overestimate their use of problem-solving.

The rationale behind the third premise was that Middle Easterners have more collective values (a greater concern for others) than Americans (individualistic people) and thus "Lebanese" would report to be more yielding than the "Americans." This marginal significance can be ignored because when examining the strengths of the two nations' preferences, yielding was the third most preferred conflict management style for the American group and the fourth most preferred style for the Middle Eastern group. Thus this hypothesis was truly negated and its marginal support was merely due to the yielding scale's low internal consistency.

I expected in the fourth hypothesis "Americans" to be more forcing than "Lebanese," but the opposite was supported. As previously mentioned, according to The Hofstede Center (2013), masculine cultures are competitive and resolve conflict with combat and argument which is similar to the forcing style. However, it was also found that the United States was also masculine (refer to Table 1) and, therefore, the finding cannot be explained from this standpoint. Another basis to my hypothesis was that individuals with lower acceptance of power distance are more likely to experience offense towards unfair treatment from supervisors and, thus, are more likely to retaliate aggressively to procedural and interpersonal injustice (Liu et al., 2013). Still, the opposite was supported; the "Lebanese" were more forcing than Americans. Additionally, in my exploratory analysis, I found that American men were much less likely to endorse "forcing" than Middle Eastern men and Middle Eastern women were more comfortable with using forcing than their American counterpart. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, the "Lebanese" participants reported higher levels of all types of conflict management style, calling the need to examine the relative strengths of each conflict management styles within each group. Both samples had a primary preference for the interactive conflict management strategy of problem-solving and a secondary preference for compromise. Forcing was the least reported amongst Americans and was actually the third most reported for Lebanese. All these findings oppose my hypothesis.

One factor that can be considered to explain this discrepancy between my expectation and the empirical evidence is the factor of job autonomy. Job autonomy is the amount of discretion or control, independence and freedom an individual has over various job activities such as scheduling and decision making (Parker, Axtell, & Turner,

2001; Vansteenkiste, Zhou, Lens, & Soenens, 2005). As it was clarified by Vansteenkiste et al. (2005) job autonomy should not be confused with independence; the former is an experience of internal self-control (intrapersonal) while the latter reflects one's dependence on others (interpersonal control). Feelings of job autonomy are associated with organizational commitment, safety, adaptive behavior, satisfaction, better performance and organizational commitment (Parker et al., 2001; Vansteenkiste et al., 2005). Individuals from all cultures have a natural preference for control and autonomy (Vansteenkiste et al, 2005). While the Lebanese group have high tolerance for power discrepancy and acceptance to external regulation, their perceptions and needs of autonomy may be violated. This lack of control may lead to their frustration and counterproductive tendency of using "forcing" when dealing with supervisory conflict. Another explanation for such a relative preference for the forcing style in the "Lebanese" group is that individuals perceive organizational injustice due to high levels of corruption in the workplace. According to the Central Intelligence Agency (2013), the investment climate of Lebanon bears a lot of red tape corruption, capricious licensing decisions and weak intellectual property rights. Such fraud may lead to Lebanese individuals' perceptions of organizational injustice. For example, if an employee's supervisor is not qualified to fill such a position and was hired mainly due to political reasons; employees may feel the need to impose their own point (force) rather than give in (yield) to the wishes of their supervisors. Additionally, perhaps in Western organizations there are more procedures for dealing with conflict, giving supervisors the proper tools for conflict resolution and contributing to their subordinates' willingness to yield rather than force. It would be interesting to put such assumptions into empirical testing. For instance it would

be interesting to give a questionnaire to Lebanese individuals on their perceptions of their supervisors and correlate these scores to their conflict resolution tendencies with that party. Another future direction would be to explore whether Lebanese and other Middle-Eastern organizations have less disciplinary and conflict resolution procedures than American or Western organizations.

The fifth hypothesis was supported and consistent with previous literature (e.g., Trudel, 2009); the more supervisory conflict employees experience on their job, the higher their turnover intention. This can be due to increased job strain on the job which is heightened due to frequent disagreement with supervisors. The work strain produced by conflict contributes to employees' exhaustion, strain, absenteeism, and turnover intention (Giebels & Janssen, 2005). Additionally, it would be interesting to study whether employees' turnover intention is related to their affective commitment (desire to remain with the organization), continuance commitment (perceived need to continue with the organization), and their normative commitment (perceived obligation to remain in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Findings pertaining to turnover intention could be affected by numerous factors such as employment need and opportunity.

Exploratory Findings

Correlation between tenure and turnover intention suggests that the more years employees spend at an organization, the less their turnover intention. This could be due to the relationship age between the two parties; longer relationships give parties more prospects of interaction which smoothes the progress of constructive conflict management strategies (Silverthorn, 2005). Thus with more interaction, conflict is managed more constructively, decreasing job strain and turnover intention. Similarly,

older employees reported less turnover intention. In my study, older individuals reported less supervisory conflict than younger individuals which indirectly provides us with supporting evidence that supervisory conflict has a negative effect on employee turnover intention. Another explanation pertaining to facing less conflict with age is that older folks would have developed feelings of attachment and loyalty to their organizations due to acquired benefits, higher positions, and appealing retirement plans (Trudel, 2009).

Another factor that was explored was the size of the organization and its relation to employees' turnover intention. No relationship was found. When handing the questionnaire face-to-face, some participants asked me whether they were to report the number of employees in their department or organization as a whole. This confusion could have been common to all participants. It would be interesting in the future to explore whether larger organizations have more formal rules than smaller organizations that regulate conflict management and affect individuals' behavior during concession.

Turnover intention was not related to any conflict styles in particular, however, as previously mentioned it is noteworthy that the only positive correlation was between forcing and turnover intention. This provides us with evidence of the destructive effect of using forcing as a conflict management strategy. When individuals are concerned with achieving personal goals and ignoring others' wishes (i.e., their supervisors'), they may render as targets of incivility themselves (Trudel, 2009). This increases their dissatisfaction which may contribute to their intention to exit their organization. In the same token, this would be the reason why participants in the "American" group significantly reported lower turnover intention than the "Lebanese" group. As previously mentioned when discussing the hypotheses, Middle Eastern participants preferred or

reported the use of "forcing" more than Americans, which contributed to their turnover intention. Exploratory findings also revealed that the Lebanese population experienced significantly more supervisory conflict than the Americans, which may contribute to their higher intent to exit the organization. Thus, again, this asserts the destructive effect of conflict, particularly when resolving it with a "forcing" tendency.

Furthermore, when the data were examined within each culture, the "American" group significantly reported a negative correlation between turnover intention and problem solving. Similarly, though marginally significant, in the "Lebanese" group, there was a negative correlation between turnover intention and "problem-solving" and a similar relation between the former and "compromising". Hence, it can be concluded that the mismanagement of conflict in both samples leads to employee dissatisfaction and lack of long-term commitment of employees. For example, Trudel (2009) found that the integrating style (i.e., problem solving) was the only conflict management style that predicted organizational commitment and job performance, while the forcing style was the main contributor to lack of organizational commitment and engagement in incivility. Thus, this study handed more support to the premise that forcing is the least effective style for managing conflict.

When studying the relationship between sex and turnover intention, men reported significantly higher turnover intention than women. Statistical findings also revealed that men significantly experienced more supervisory conflict than women which explains the former results. This can also be related to men's preference to the use of forcing (though this finding was marginally supported). A third factor that was not studied in this research would be the difference between men and women on their uncertainty avoidance

tendencies. For instance, it could be assumed that women seek stability and are more fearful of ambiguity than males; making them less prone to leaving a familiar organization and affecting their scores on turnover intention.

Women and men differed on their preference towards avoiding and compromise, but not problem solving or yielding. Women used significantly more avoiding and marginally more compromise than men. This could be due to gender roles and is in congruence with previous research. For instance; Brewer, Mitchell, and Weber (2002) found that masculine individuals scored highest on the dominating (i.e., forcing) conflict management style while feminine individuals scored highest on the avoiding style. The marginal interaction effect between sex and nationality on the avoiding style is rather interesting: men from the U.S.A. used avoiding more than Middle Eastern men while Middle Eastern women used this style more than women from the U.S.A. This could be due to the participants' organizational status; individuals in higher positions tend to resort to integrating (i.e., problem solving) for resolving conflict more than employees of lower status, while the latter resort more to the avoiding style (Brewer et al., 2002). This could also be the explanation to why older individuals were less avoiding than younger individuals.

The only conflict management strategy that was related to tenure was yielding. An opposite relation between the two was evident; the more years an employee spent at an organization, the less likely that individual yielded to their supervisor's wishes. The case could be that with tenure individuals get promoted to higher positions, gaining more confidence and power and not needing to yield to others' wishes. A similar explanation

could be used to clarify why older individuals were less yielding and less forcing than younger participants.

I found that the more participants experienced conflict with their supervisor, the more they resorted to the forcing style. Conversely, participants who reported low levels of supervisory conflict resorted more to the avoidance strategy of conflict management. Thus, avoidance and forcing were in the opposite direction. This lends further support to the dual-concern model which explains that these two strategies are on the opposite poles of the "concern" for self spectrum. Individuals who experience very little conflict may decide to let disagreements pass and avoid confrontation. Although this may be an effective way to resolve problems in the short term, the problem may not be resolved and may resurface in the future. A final exploration about conflict management styles revealed that in larger organizations, employees use less yielding. Perhaps it is because bigger organizations have more formal rules to protect employees while small organizations are more ruled by their owner's whims.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Based on the arguments made while discussing the findings, future research should investigate gender differences as to why women have a less tendency to engage in forcing with supervisors. This research explored cultural differences by considering different nations. However, gender can be a considered as a culture of its own. It is true that masculine individuals tend to be more "assertive" and force their own point of view, but even Lebanese women had higher tolerance for forcing. Is it that Lebanese working women are more masculine than American women?

Another direction could be in the legal perspective. Americans are protected by the American Constitution to express their opinion, but they are employed "at-will" and thus are more fearful of upsetting their supervisor who may have the power to fire them. Is the case different in Lebanon because of the high amount of corruption in the workplace? Do individuals not fear consequences because their social and political connections protect them from being fired?

Another future direction would be exploring the different procedural manuals of both Middle Eastern and Western organizations of various sizes to see whether there are any differences in their policies of handling conflict and whether such policies affect employees' conflict management styles. Additionally, future research should explore the mediating effect of individualism/collectivism on autonomy and perceptions of organizational justice. As previously mentioned, the different constructs of autonomy and independence are different, yet they could affect each other. They can be considered as two forces pulling in opposite directions; Lebanese accept more power discrepancy but does that affect their perceptions of autonomy, organizational injustice and work satisfaction? Finally, it would be interesting to experimentally explore supervisor-subordinate interactions between individuals from different culture and explore if there are differences in conflict management styles when the two parties are of the same culture or not.

This study is not free of limitations; the main limitation is that my two samples under investigation did not resemble one another in terms of sex, age, tenure, or organizational size. These differences might have influenced the results. More data should have been collected from Lebanon, older employees, especially women, with

more tenure in smaller organizations. A good strategy would be to collect data from employees working in the same industry to increase the validity of the study. Furthermore, the yielding scale had low internal reliability which may affect the validity of any findings pertaining to this conflict management style.

The "Lebanese" group was in English. English-speaking employees are more likely to be working in multi-national companies and be affected by "Western" styles of working environment which renders the sample under study unrepresentative of the entire Lebanese/ Middle Eastern workforce. It would be interesting to develop an Arabic version of the questionnaire. As for the American sample, most of the data collected was from the Midwest which does not generalize to other areas in the United States. Additionally, both groups included participants from either other Middle Eastern and Western countries. Thus the "American" sample was neither representative of the United States or the "West". Similarly, the "Lebanese" sample was neither representative of Lebanon or the Middle-East.

Practical Implications

In conclusion, whenever any particular group (younger individuals, men, Lebanese) reported higher supervisory conflict, they also reported higher turnover intention, and whenever forcing was preferred, employees' turnover intention was high. The implication is clear: supervisory conflict may have an inevitable effect on individuals' loyalty and attachment to their organization. Mismanaged conflict does not only hinder innovation (Song, Dyer, & Thieme, 2006), but also has an insufferable effect on employee commitment. Supervisors should be trained on how to deal with "forcing" individuals and help subordinates engage in more participatory decision-making. For instance, both supervisors and employees can be trained by making them aware of the

different problem solving styles and their consequences through presentations and role-

play. This is particularly important when employees are of a Middle Eastern heritage.

They are predisposed to engage in forcing. Whether this predisposition is due to political

or economic reasons would be an interesting question to explore in future research.

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Appendix A
Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention

Indicate the extent to which you either agree or disagree with the following:

I frequently think of quitting my job at this organization.

Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Slightly Disagree   Slightly Agree   Agree   Strongly Agree

I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.

Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Slightly Disagree   Slightly Agree   Agree   Strongly Agree

If I have my own way, I will not be working for this organization one year from now.

Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Slightly Disagree   Slightly Agree   Agree   Strongly Agree

Appendix B
Supervisory Conflict Frequency

Supervisory Conflict Frequency

How much Supervisory conflict do you experience at work?

Daily   Weekly   Monthly   Yearly, if at all

Appendix C
Conflict Management Styles

Conflict Management Styles

Indicate how well the statement reflects the way you tend to act in a conflict with your SUPERVISOR

12. I give in to the wishes of the other party

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

13. I try to realize a middle-of-the-road solution

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

14. I push my own point of view

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

15. I examine issues until I find a solution that really satisfies me and the other party

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

16. I avoid confrontation about our differences

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

17. I concur with the other party

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

18. I emphasize that we have to find a compromise solution

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

19. I search for gains

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

20. I stand for my own and other's goals and interests

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

21. I avoid differences of opinion as much as possible

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

22. I try to accommodate the other party

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

23. I insist we both give in a little

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

24. I fight for a good outcome for myself

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

25. I examine ideas from both sides to find a mutually optimal solution

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

26. I try to make differences loom less severe

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

27. I adapt to the parties' goals and interests

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

28. I strive whenever possible towards a fifty-fifty compromise

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

29. I do everything to win

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

30. I work out a solution that serves my own as well as other's interests as good as possible

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

31. try to avoid a confrontation with the other party.

Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Slightly Agree | Agree | Strongly Agree

Appendix D
Demographic Variables

Demographic Variables

Are you male or female?

Male

Female

How old are you?

What is your country of nationality?

Country:

What was your nationality at birth (if different)?

Country:

Which of the following categories best describes your employment status?

Employed, working 1-39 hours per week

Employed, working 40 or more hours per week

Not employed, looking for work

Not employed, NOT looking for work

Retired

Disabled, not able to work

About how many employees work at your company?

 How long have you been working for your current employer? (Example: 3 years, or 4 months)

Appendix E
IRB Approval

APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL TO USE HUMAN SUBJECTS

For R&G Use Only Date approved _____   Approved by _____

Protocol No. _____   Full Review _____   Expedited Review

_____   Exempted Review _____

This application should be submitted, <u>along with the Informed Consent Document and supplemental material</u>, to the Institutional Review Board for Treatment of Human Subjects, Research and Grants Center, Plumb Hall 313F, Campus Box 4003.

This form must be typed. This form is available online at www.emporia.edu/research/docs/irbapp.doc.

1. Name of Principal Investigator(s) (<u>Individual(s) administering the procedures</u>):
Sarah N. Sleiman Haidar

2. Departmental Affiliation: Psychology

3. Person to whom notification should be sent: Sarah Sleiman Haidar
    Mailing Address: Emporia State , Psychology Dpt
    Telephone: 9179711900   Email address: ssleiman@g.empora.edu

4. Title of Project: Different Conflict-resolution Strategies between Americans and Lebanese: A Cross-cultural Comparison

5. Funding Agency (if applicable):

6. This is a: _____dissertation   _X_thesis   _____class project   _____other research study

7. Time period for which you are requesting approval (maximum one year): from ___, to _____. *If the research project extends past the end date requested, you will need to submit a request for a time extension or an annual update. This form is available at www.emporia.edu/research/docs/irbmod.doc.*

8. Project Purpose *(please be specific)*:
Investigate whether there are any significant differences in conflict resolution strategies between American and Lebanese University professors and between men and women

9. Describe the proposed subjects: (*age, sex, race, expected number of participants, or other special characteristics, such as students in a specific class, etc.*)

10. Describe how the subjects are to be selected. *If you are using archival information, you must submit documentation of authorization from applicable organization or entity.*

11. Describe **in detail** the proposed procedures and benefit(s) of the project. This must be clear and detailed enough so that the IRB can assure that the University policy relative to research with human subjects is appropriately implemented. Any proposed experimental activities that are included in evaluation, research, development, demonstration, instruction, study, treatments, debriefing, questionnaires, and similar projects must be described here. **Copies of questionnaires, survey instruments, or tests should be attached.** (*Use additional page if necessary*.)

12. Will questionnaires, tests, or related research instruments not explained in question #11 be used?

_____ Yes   __X__ No   (*If yes, attach a copy to this application*.)

13. Will electrical or mechanical devices be applied to the subjects? _____Yes   __X__ No (*If yes, attach a detailed description of the device(s) used and precautions and safeguards that will be taken.*)

14. Do the benefits of the research outweigh the risks to human subjects? __X__ Yes
No (*If no, this information should be outlined here*.)
15. Are there any possible emergencies which might arise in utilization of human subjects in this project?
_____ Yes __X__ No (*If yes, details of these emergencies should be provided here*.)
16. What provisions will you take for keeping research data private/secure? (*Be specific – refer to p. 3 of Guidelines.*)
17. **Attach a copy of the informed consent document, as it will be used for your subjects**.
INVESTIGATOR'S ASSURANCE: I certify that the information provided in this request is complete and accurate. I understand that as Principal Investigator I have ultimate responsibility for the protection of the rights and welfare of human subjects and the ethical conduct of this research protocol. I agree to comply with all of ESU's policies and procedures, as well as with all applicable federal, state, and local laws regarding the protection of human subjects in research, including, but not limited to, the following:

- The project will be performed by qualified personnel according to the research protocol,

- I will maintain a copy of all questionnaires, survey instruments, interview questions, data collection instruments, and information sheets for human subjects,

- I will promptly request approval from ESU's IRB if any changes are made to the research protocol,

- I will report any adverse events that occur during the course of conducting the research to the IRB within 10 working days of the date of occurrence.

_____   _____

_____
Signature of Principal Investigator   Date
FACULTY ADVISOR'S/INSTRUCTOR'S ASSURANCE: By my signature on this research application, I certify that the student investigator is knowledgeable about the regulations and policies governing research with human subjects and has sufficient training and experience to conduct this particular study in accord with the approved protocol. In addition,
- I agree to meet with the student investigator on a regular basis to monitor study progress,

- Should problems arise during the course of this study, I agree to be available, personally, to supervise the principal investigator in solving them,

- I understand that as the faculty advisor/instructor on this project, I will be responsible for the performance of this research project.

_____ Faculty advisor/instructor on project (if applicable) _____

      Date

Appendix F
Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent

The Department of Psychology at Emporia State University supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research and related activities. The following information is provided so that you can decide whether you wish to participate in the present study.

You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and that if you do withdraw from the study, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach. Likewise, if you choose not to participate, you will not be subjected to reprimand or any other form of reproach.

This research intends to identify whether nationality (being Lebanese versus being American) and gender (being male versus being female) have any effects on the individual's conflict management orientation. A 20-item questionnaire is to be answered by participants. It will take participants an approximate time of ten minutes to fill the survey, and they are free to discontinue their participation at any time.

There are no risks in participating in the study and the questions are general statements that are not expected to generate any discomforts to participants.

This study will help provide empirical evidence about the various conflict management strategies used amongst American and Lebanese professors and amongst men and women. Such findings can be used to enhance conflict resolution when such diverse individuals are expected to work together and can provide guidelines for conflict-management training in the work-place.

This questionnaire will be anonymous: you are not required to disclose information about your name, only your gender and nationality.

For any inquiries concerning the procedures and an explanation of the research findings, please contact Sarah N. Sleiman Haidar by email on the following addresses: ssleiman@g.emporia.edu or slnhdr@gmail.com

"I have read the above statement and have been fully advised of the procedures to be used in this project. I have been given sufficient opportunity to ask any questions I had concerning the procedures and possible risks involved. I understand the potential risks involved and I assume them voluntarily. I likewise understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without being subjected to reproach."

_____   _____
Subject Signature   Date

I, Sarah Sleiman Haidar, hereby submit this thesis/report to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available to use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, digitizing or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching) and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author. I also agree to permit the Graduate School at Emporia State University to digitize and place this thesis in the ESU institutional repository.

_____
Signature of Author

_____
April 29, 2013
Date

Different Conflict-Resolution Strategies
between Americans and Lebanese: A Cross-Cultural Comparison
Title of Thesis

_____
Signature of Graduate School Staff

_____
Date Received