Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences

Intercultural communication apprehension as a determinant of conflict mode

Handini Trisasanti[a],*, Wanchai Dhammasaccakarn[a,†], Idsaratt Rinthaisong[b], Banthita Limpradit[a]

[a] *Human and Social Development, Department of Educational Foundation, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Songkhla 90110, Thailand*
[b] *Public Administration, Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Songkhla 90110, Thailand*

Article Info

Abstract

Successful communication skills are vital for the support of work and academic activities. However, people with different cultural backgrounds can experience communication difficulties that may lead to conflict and a reduction in work output. This study investigated intercultural communication apprehension (ICA) as a determinant of conflict mode (CM) and aimed to explore its effect on conflict resolution in multicultural offices. The study employed a mixed-methods approach with a quasi-mixed design. A total of 130 employees of the embassies to the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in Jakarta, Indonesia, participated in the research. Following discriminant analysis and reversed one-way analysis of variance, the quantitative analysis revealed that ICA has discriminating ability over CM, resulting in how different ICA levels can lead to different conflict modes (χ^2 23.55, $p < .001$), with the majority of cooperating mode. Following thematic analysis, qualitative data indicated that lower ICA levels resulted in better conflict resolution in multicultural environments. This study contributes to improving communication in multicultural offices in ASEAN region by presenting the benefits of lower ICA levels to reduce conflicts between colleagues with different cultural backgrounds.

Introduction

Communication skills are recognized as one of the most fundamental soft skills to support the success of academic and work activities. The ability to convey and express ideas in a proper way is necessary to minimize confusion that may occur during social interaction; however, some individuals may experience communication difficulties, particularly with people from different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, to promote academic and work activities in a multicultural environment, it is important to examine one of the obstacles to successful communication, namely intercultural communication apprehension (ICA). Different levels of anxiety affect individuals' psychological motivation to start or maintain intercultural communication. ICA has been defined as the fear or anxiety which resulted from real or anticipated interaction with people from different

cultural backgrounds or ethnic groups (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). According to this concept, individuals with high ICA levels tend to avoid interaction with others from different groups.

Differences in communication style are developed by different cultural backgrounds, as culture affects the way individuals interact, interpret messages, and understand their surrounding (Samovar & Porter, 1991). Earlier studies reported that high ICA levels found in international students was affected by their cultural backgrounds (Martin, Valencic, & Heisel, 2002). This condition also applies to employees from different cultural backgrounds and their work activities in multicultural offices; to complete their tasks successfully, employees working in multicultural environments need to cross the cultural boundaries during their daily interaction (Dowling & Welch, 2004) and lower their levels of ICA.

In social interaction among individuals from different cultural backgrounds, conflict arises due to diversity, as it produces different expectations, norms, attitude, beliefs, and ways of performing tasks and work (O'Reilly, Phillips, & Barsade 1998). Maintaining good relationships with colleagues will benefit employees minimizing any future conflicts that may occur in a multicultural workplace, since successful conflict resolution is greatly influenced by the quality of existing relationships among team members (Glaser, 2010). Colleagues with positive interrelationships will likely undertake greater efforts in resolving conflicts with each other. Earlier study reported that high ICA individuals were less involved in conversations with their surroundings, which certainly affected their communication skills (Nelson & Webster, 1991).

Meanwhile, appropriate skills in communicating conflicts are required to effectively deal with intercultural conflicts (Martin & Nakayama, 2010). Difference in cultural backgrounds influences the way individuals handle conflict (Martin & Nakayama, 2010). Every individual has different strategies to deal with different conflict, there are five types of conflict mode (CM), or specific styles of managing conflicts (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974): competing, cooperating, compromising, accommodating, and avoiding. Cooperating is seen as the most appropriate style to deal with most conflicts, as it shows empathy, objectivity, collaboration, feelings, and creativity recognition even though it needs a lot of time and energy (Folger, Poole, & Stutman, 1993).

The lack of theoretical development of this concept is mainly due to geographical limitations (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1989). The majority of the studies were conducted in Europe, North America, and East Asia, therefore, further study in various cultural environments

is suggested to benefit this field (Kim, 2001). In addition, most studies of ICA have focused on students as participants, neglecting other multicultural spaces such as workplaces. Several studies have shown that ICA is associated with conflict (Rahmani & Croucher, 2017), however, information concerning ICA as a determinant of CM has not yet been reported.

To address the gaps in current ICA research with respect to case selection, subjects, and explanatory factors, we considered ICA as a variable that influences CM of employees in the multicultural office setting in Southeast Asia. One of the biggest international organizations in Southeast Asia is Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), which is headquartered in Jakarta, Indonesia. The development of ASEAN continues to grow rapidly, therefore, this study offers an insight to strengthen the communication in multicultural workplace setting among the citizens of ASEAN countries.

Literature Review

The Relation of Intercultural Communication Apprehension and Conflict Mode

During intercultural communication encounters, higher uncertainty of individuals caused increased anxiety (Neuliep, 2012), resulting in higher ICA levels and reduced willingness to engage in intercultural communications (Lin & Rancer, 2003). This can lead to decreased tolerance and increased disrespect toward individuals with different cultures. Therefore, increasing individual's willingness to communicate with people from different cultures is achieved by reducing ICA levels (Neuliep, 2012). Additionally, Pritchard and Skinner (2002) identified a significant positive corelation between ICA and difficulty in cognitive and behavioral adaptation.

Aside from ICA, the selection of conflict mode demonstrates individual's ability to adapt in a new cultural setting (Earley & Ang, 2003). There are five types of CM (Rahim, 1986): (1) Competing, very high self-interest and low interest for the other individuals; (2) Cooperating, high interest for self and other individuals. This style proposes an open and actual discussion to accomplish a proper solution for both sides, thus seen as the most appropriate style to deal with most conflicts (Folger et al., 1993); (3) Compromising, moderate interest for self and opposite party; (4) Accommodating, which occurs when individuals in the conflict resolve the disagreement and differences and highlight similarities that meet another individual's benefit; and (5) Avoiding,

which has low interest for self and another individual. Based on research suggesting that ICA is conceptually associated with conflict mode, we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis$_1$: ICA is a determinant of CM

To explore a possible connection between the cumulative effects of ICA and CM of employees in multicultural offices, a theoretical proposition was adopted:

TP$_1$: Lower ICA levels lead to better conflict resolution mode in multicultural environment.

Methodology

Context of the Embassies to ASEAN (Permanent Mission Offices)

ASEAN is a regional organization that promotes economic, security, and political cooperation among its members (Albert, 2017). ASEAN was founded in 1967 by Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Brunei Darussalam, Vietnam, Laos, Myanmar, and Cambodia later joined, constituting the ten current members of ASEAN.

The urgency of human resource development in the ASEAN region caused each member of ASEAN as well as ten other countries to create mission offices to strengthen their cooperation with ASEAN; these mission offices function as embassies to ASEAN, separate from bilateral embassies. These embassies to ASEAN, which are discussed in this study, include 20 embassies exclusively delegated to the ASEAN organization and, consist of ten permanent representatives' offices for the ten ASEAN countries, as well as ten dialogue partner offices. ASEAN's dialogue partners are Japan, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the European Union, the United States, Korea, India, China, and Russia.

Research Design

This study used a quasi-mixed design approach, which differs from a mixed-methods approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). Quasi-mixed designs collect both quantitative and qualitative data, with little or no integration of the two types in a study's finding or inferences. Here, quantitative data constituted the focus of the study, while qualitative data were not integrated when assessing the research question. This design can yield anecdotal evidence, but such information is peripheral to the analysis (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Since surveys should be conducted first to create generalization of the results, with research then continuing with detailed qualitative data collection to gather specific views from participants (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003), we first collected and analyzed quantitative data and then used qualitative data to add further insight to the discussion and interpretation phases.

Participants

A total of 130 out of 175 employees of the embassies to ASEAN in Jakarta, Indonesia participated. Stratified random sampling was used to select participants to represent not only the overall population, but also key subgroups of the population, especially smaller minority groups.

Data Collection

Data were collected from April to June 2018. Three experts in applied behavioral science in Thailand reviewed the questionnaire and semi-structured interview using the item-objective congruence (IOC) index. Then, the questionnaire and interview were trialed and piloted with 30 participants to ensure participants' understanding of the questions and evaluate the questionnaire design, and to measure the reliability of the questions. English was used throughout all data collection processes.

The primary ethical issues in this study focused on informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, and the rights to withdraw or skip some questions. The questionnaire was only distributed to participants who had agreed to, signed, and returned a written consent form. The consent form stated that participants' confidentiality would remain secure and the researchers would protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions. Researchers provided participants with internet-connected devices to complete the questionnaire and assisted them through the process.

After the quantitative data collection was completed, eight participants who demonstrated highest and lowest score from each category were selected to attend to semi-structured interview. Interviews ended when the information which could be collected from the interviewee had reached saturation point, became repetitive, and no new themes were generated (Reid, 1996; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002).

Measures

The Personal Report of Intercultural Communication Apprehension (PRICA) was utilized to measure ICA in this study (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). This instrument consists of 14 questions, each measured by a five-point

Likert scale; (1 = "strongly disagree"; 5 = "strongly agree"). The scores range from 14 to 72: a score of above 52 indicates a high level of ICA, while a score below 32 denotes a low level of ICA. Moderate scores fall between 32 and 52. Previous research has reported that PRICA was stable and consistent, with estimated alpha reliability above .90 when it was completed by a native English speaker.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI) was used to measure CM (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974). The instrument consisted of 30 pairs of statements on possible alternative choices of behavior in an interpersonal conflict situation. The reliability of TKI was tested with test-retest reliability, internal consistency, and convergent test validity, which showed that TKI was correlated across all five modes ($p \le .05$), stable and consistent (Thomas & Kilmann, 1974).

Data Analysis

A software package was used to employ discriminant analysis to test the association between ICA and CM. In this study, polytomous discriminant analysis (PDA) was used to classify or predicate subjects' membership into one of several groups (Stevens, 2012). Then, reversed one-way analysis of variance was used to analyze the difference of ICA in CM. To assist in interpreting and explaining the quantitative data, qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis.

Results

Quantitative Analysis Findings

There were 130 participants in this study with a ratio of 52.3 percent ($n = 68$) male and 47.7 percent ($n = 62$) female. The participants' countries of origin were mostly Indonesia ($n = 44$, 33.8%), followed by USA ($n = 10$, 7.7%), Japan ($n = 9$, 6.9%), China ($n = 8$, 6.2%), Malaysia ($n = 7$, 5.4%), and Philippines ($n = 6$, 4.6%). Cambodia,

Myanmar, Singapore, and Thailand represented 3.8 percent ($n = 5$) across the total number of participants. It was followed by participants from Australia, Korea, India, Canada, Laos, Brunei, the European Union, New Zealand, and Russia, which altogether made up less than 21 percent ($n = 26$).

In this study, discrimination analysis was used to seek ICA's discrimination ability over CM. Then, it was followed by reversed one-way ANOVA to test the differences between groups. Next, post-hoc test was conducted and Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) was performed to compare the mean of the five groups of CM.

Table 1 presents the summary of the group statistics of CM. There are only four groups presented on the table as no participant was categorized into competing mode. The cooperating group had the lowest ICA scores, meanwhile, the compromising group showed the highest ICA scores.

Table 2 shows the result of the hypothesis, that is, ICA has discrimination ability over CM. The outcome variable of the ICA score was significant at $p < .001$.

Table 3 displays the percentage of variance explained in the dependent variable. The canonical correlation is .412 with an explained variance of the correlation of 17%. Therefore, the discriminant function obtained from the analysis was classifiable, and this number can be verified by noting the sum of Wilks' Lambda.

Table 4 shows the Wilks' Lambda calculation to test the discriminant function. Wilks' Lambda is multivariate statistic which is a product of the values of (1 - canonical correlation²). The associated chi-square tests the canonical correlation of the function is equal to zero. It evaluates the null hypothesis that all the following functions do not entitle to discriminating ability (Bruin, 2006). The *p*-value presented in Table 4 is linked to chi-square in the given test. The significant chi-square 23.55, $p < .001$ rejects the null hypothesis that all smaller canonical correlations and a given function's canonical correlation are equal to zero. Therefore, it is accepted that the discriminant function was statistically significant.

Table 1 Group Statistics of Variables

$n = 130$

CM		n	Mean	SD
Cooperating	ICA_Score	10	29.00	6.83
Accommodating	ICA_Score	15	32.47	7.84
Avoiding	ICA_Score	54	35.43	7.84
Compromising	ICA_Score	51	39.86	7.08
Total	ICA_Score	130	36.33	8.11

Table 2   Tests of Equality of Group Means

Variable	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	p
ICA_Score	.83	8.59	3	126	.000

Table 3   Eigen Values

Function	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	100.0	.412

Note: a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Table 4   Wilks' Lambda

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	χ^2	df	p
1	.83	23.55	3	.000

Next, reversed one-way analysis of variance was used to test the differences between CM groups. In this analysis, CM becomes an independent variable. Table 5 reports the outcome of CM as independent variable; ANOVA (F (3,126) = 8.593, p = .000).

Overall significant test of ANOVA requires post-hoc test to control the wise error rate with alpha = .05. Table 6 shows the multiple comparisons between groups. A LSD test with 95% CI and bootstrap set at 5000 was performed to compare the mean of the groups. The result indicates significant differences among the groups ($p < .05, p < .001$), except cooperating and accommodating groups.

Qualitative Analysis Findings

Six phases of thematic analysis were employed: familiarization with the data, coding, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and writing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The qualitative results are presented in four themes to address the research questions.

This study found that participants with different ICA scores responded differently to conflict management style in a multicultural environment. To support this result, participants with different CMs were requested to share their experience and perspective in managing conflict while working with individuals from various cultural backgrounds.

Cooperating mode

Participants pointed out that collaboration on solving the problem is crucial. Individuals need to have the initiative to open the discussion regarding conflict resolution. Conflict resolution requires effort from both parties, it is important to create the possibility to exchange ideas and expectation.

"*I don't like to have an enemy, so if I have a problem, I have to confront them and try to find a solution together, and then the problem is solved. I try to be a problem solver.*" (Participant 3)

"*I tried to give better understanding regarding what I expect, while also trying to listen to what their views are about my expectation, in working.*" (Participant 6)

Table 5   Reversed ANOVA: ICA as Dependent Variable

ICA Score	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	1441.80	3	480.60	8.59	.000
Within Groups	7046.98	126	55.93		
Total	8488.78	129			

Table 6   Multiple Comparisons: ICA as Dependent Variable

Conflict Mode	1	2	3	4
	Cooperating	Accommodating	Avoiding	Compromising
Mean	29.00	32.47	35.43	39.86
Cooperating	-	-	-	-
Accommodating	3.47	-	-	-
Avoiding	6.43*	2.96	-	-
Compromising	10.86***	7.40*	4.44***	-

Note: *$p < .05$; ***$p < .001$.

Compromising mode

A participant claimed to raise a complaint regarding his colleague's behavior and reached settlement. The participant decided to involve a third party, their supervisor, to settle the conflict in the working place.

"*I didn't confront them directly. I went to the supervisor. I wrote an email and I raised my point. The supervisor wrote back to me and said sorry. I don't know, maybe they had been talking to each other, and he asked him not to do that again.*" (Participant 4)

Accommodating mode

Participants pointed out that during conflict, understanding others' point of view is crucial. The participant also added that, generally, minor conflict will be solved over time.

"*Maybe because my conflict is a minor thing, it is not a big problem. Usually as time goes by, the conflict solves itself. Sometimes, I try to understand them better and have discussion with my peers to solve the conflict.*" (Participant 5)

Avoiding mode

A participant claimed to just avoid conflict when it happened. The participant showed agreement towards the other party to minimize argumentation and stated that he/she would voice his/her opinion another day after the situation had calmed down.

"*I try to understand them [and] to avoid conflict because that is just not me. So, I will just say "okay, yeah, okay" but then I don't do it, to be honest. Yeah, and maybe the next day or after sometime, I will try to explain to them.*" (Participant 1)

Discussion

Intercultural Communication Apprehension as Determinant of ICA

In this study, ICA was found to be a determinant of CM, that different levels of ICA lead to different conflict modes. Furthermore, the theoretical proposition was supported. The results of this study are theoretically consistent with the notion that ICA is correlated with conflict (Rahmani & Croucher, 2017). This is consistent with previous study stating that successful conflict resolution is greatly influenced by the quality of existing relationships among team members (Glaser, 2010).

It was also noted that lower levels of ICA were found in cooperating mode. Cooperating mode has been seen as the most effective style to deal with most conflict. Cooperating mode is referred to as integrated problem-solving mode as it requires information exchange between parties to increase cooperation. This mode demonstrates open discussion, preferences, and needs of the all parties and establishes a solution that mutually benefits all (Harinck & De Dreu, 2004).

The finding with respect to case selection of ASEAN region supported previous study reporting that individuals with collectivism culture were linked to cooperating mode (Caputo Ayoko, & Amoo, 2018). Collectivistic individuals tend to act in a favor of their group which is essential to establish an integrative conflict resolution (Cai, Wilson, & Drake, 2000; Caputo, 2016; Traavik, 2011).

The Distinction Between Individuals with Different Conflict Modes

Individuals must be able to identify cultural differences and adapt their conflict mode to surroundings in order to resolve conflict in a multicultural environment (Caputo, Ayoko, Amoo, & Menke, 2019). In this study, only four groups of CM were presented, as no participant was found to have competing mode. This finding supported the face negotiation theory, which explains that individuals from different cultures have different priorities of saving "face" (Bennett, 2015). Members of individualistic cultures, such as American, are concerned in saving their own face in conflict situations, therefore, they tend to use competing mode and notice this style as appropriate in many contexts (Speicher, 1994). On the contrary, members of collectivist societies, such as South Korea, China, Taiwan, and other Asian countries are concerned in saving the other person's face, hence they tend to use cooperating, accommodating, or avoiding mode to handle conflict (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003).

Participants from the cooperating group were found to possess the lowest ICA score. Cooperating mode involves open and actual exchange of ideas as an effort to achieve an appropriate solution for both parties. This tends to have fair and equal results; it shows empathy, objectivity, collaboration, feelings, and creativity recognition even though it needs a lot of time and energy (Folger et al., 1993). Participants stated that they tend to confront the opposing side to open a discussion of sharing and exchanging opinions in order to solve the conflict together. It supports earlier study that to deal with intercultural conflict effectively, it is important to communicate the conflict (Martin & Nakayama, 2010). AUM theory explained that in order to communicate with other cultural groups during conflict, lower levels of ICA is necessary (Gudykunst, 1995).

Meanwhile, the highest ICA score was found to be in the compromising group. A participant raised a complaint with a supervisor in the workplace to solve conflict with colleagues.

This finding also reflects AUM theory that high ICA individuals are less likely to approach intercultural strangers, thus delayed their reduction and management of anxiety and uncertainty further (Beom, 2003). Compromising mode has moderate interest for both sides, making it less effective than cooperating, as individuals feel that they are being pushed to give something they value, and so they have less commitment to the solution (Rahim & Magner, 1995). A study of conflict management style in Bulgaria reported that the majority of medical professionals who were found to have compromise mode showed moderate assertiveness (Raykova, Semerdjieva, & Tornyova, 2020).

Next, participants from the accommodating group argued that understanding the intention of the opposite party is vital in order to solve conflict. Participants made greater effort to accommodate others' interest in order to create a solution and maintain a good relationship. It supports previous findings that this style is preferred when individuals value the relationship more than the conflict, and generally occurred when one party had higher power or status than the other (Rahim & Magner, 1995).

Participants from the avoiding group tended to show low interest in the issue, which can be reflected in the choice to deny, evade, or pass through the conflict. This mode was identified with hesitation or inability to handle conflicting situations and tendency to leave them unresolved (Raykova et al., 2020). This mode was also found to indicate a lack of conflict competence (Pitsillidou, Farmakas, Noula, & Roupa, 2018). Individuals that use this strategy give more importance to relationship than the issue, and this style is appropriate if the issue is small or if the other individual can take care of the conflict better (Wilmot & Hocker, 2001).

Conclusion

Former studies on ICA have mainly focused on student samples, majority groups, and limited geographical areas. This study aimed at filling this gap by investigating ICA as a determinant of CM in employees of the embassies to ASEAN countries in Jakarta, Indonesia. We proposed a theoretical relational model that describes the relationship among ICA and CM. ICA was found as a determinant of CM. Lower ICA level individuals were found to have cooperating mode, which is the recommended mode in managing conflict, while individuals with significantly higher ICA levels were found to have compromising mode.

Limitations and Recommendations

There are four limitations to this study. First, the study used a relatively small sample and was not representative of all employees working in multicultural offices in ASEAN. Second, the participants of the study worked in a specific industry and are regularly exposed to other cultures. A study in other key ASEAN industries, such as textiles, electronics, and telecommunications, would offer invaluable practical implications. Third, the sample was taken from an organization whose headquarters are located in Jakarta, Indonesia, one of ASEAN's permanent representatives. It is essential to investigate ASEAN citizens working in multicultural organizations outside ASEAN territories for extended geographic representativeness. Finally, the current gap in the cultural studies of various groups also requires a more diverse theoretical and methodological attitude to the understudied groups, such as ethnic minorities, younger children, and senior citizens. Special attention should be given to larger populations of participants in ASEAN countries, where this topic is understudied.

This study emphasized the need for a better understanding of ICA to improve conflict resolution in multicultural institutions. ICA awareness could benefit institutions to resolve unwanted workplace conflicts based on cultural differences. Educational and cultural plans may help to support employees in reducing their ICA. Therefore, schools and businesses are advised to offer programs to decrease ICA, such as training, seminars, short courses, or cultural programs. For example, one available ICA training is the theory-based adjustment training that is adapted from AUM theory. Employees in multicultural workplaces should be made aware of their responsibility in creating intellectual environments that embrace multi-nationals and intercultural sensitivity.

Acknowledgments

Conflict of Interest

There is no conflict of interest.

References

Albert, E. (2017). *ASEAN: The association of southeast asian nations*. Retrieved from https://www.cfr.org/backgrounder/asean-association-southeast-asian-nations

Bennett, J. M. (2015). *The SAGE encyclopedia of intercultural competence*. NewYork, NY: SAGE Publications.

Beom, K. (2003). The influence of internet use and intercultural communication apprehension on socio-cultural adaptatio*n. Annual meeting of the International Communication Association*. Marriott Hotel, San Diego, CA.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*, 77–101. Retrieved from https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1191/1478088706QP063OA

Bruin, J. (2006). *Newtest: Command to compute new test*. UCLA: Statistical Consulting Group. Retrieved from https://stats.idre.ucla.edu/stata/ado/analysis/

Cai, D. A., Wilson, S. R., & Drake, L. E. (2000). Culture in the context of intercultural negotiation: Individualism-collectivism and paths to integrative agreements. *Human Communication Research*, *26*(4), 591–617. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2958

Caputo, A. (2016). Overcoming judgmental biases in negotiations: A scenario-based survey analysis on third party direct intervention. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(10), 4304–4312. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.04.004

Caputo, A., Ayoko, O. B., & Amoo, N. (2018). The moderating role of cultural intelligence in the relationship between cultural orientations and conflict management styles. *Journal of Business Research*, *89*, 10–20. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.03.042

Caputo, A., Ayoko, O. B., Amoo, N., & Menke, C. (2019). The relationship between cultural values, cultural intelligence and negotiation styles. *Journal of Business Research*, *99*, 23–36. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.02.011

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 209–240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dowling, P. J., & Welch, D. E. (2004). *International human resource management: Managing people in a multinational environment*. London, UK: Thompson Learning.

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Folger, J. P., Poole, M. S., & Stutman, R. K. (1993). *Working through conflict: Strategies for relationships, groups, and organizations*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Glaser, E. (2010). Working in Multicultural Teams. In M. Guilherme, E. Glaser, & M. d. C. Mendez Garcia (Eds.), *The intercultural dynamics of multicultural working* (pp. 186–203). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gudykunst, W. B. (1995). Anxiety/uncertainty management theory: Current status. In R. Wiseman (Ed.), *Intercultural communication theory* (pp. 8–58). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gudykunst, W. B., & Nishida, T. (1989). Theoretical perspectives for studying intercultural communication. In M. K. Asante & W. B. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Handbook of international and intercultural communication* (pp. 17–46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Harinck, F., & De Dreu, C. K. (2004). Negotiating interests or values and reaching integrative agreements: The importance of time pressure and temporary impasses. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *34*(5), 595–611. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.218

Kim, Y. (2001). *Becoming intercultural*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lin, Y., & Rancer, A. S. (2003). Sex differences in intercultural communication apprehension, ethnocentrism, and intercultural willingness to communicate. *Psychological Reports*, *92*(1), 195–200. doi: 10.2466/pr0.2003.92.1.195.

Martin, J. N., & Nakayama, T. K. (2010). *Intercultural communication in contexts*. Boston, MS: McGraw-Hill.

Martin, M. M., Valencic, K. M., & Heisel, A. D. (2002). The relationship between students' communication apprehension and their motives for communicating with their instructors. *Communication Research Reports*, *19*(1), 1–7. doi: 10.1080/08824090209384826

Nelson, E. S., & Webster, S. (1991). Visualization and rational-emotive therapy as interventions for communication apprehension. *The Annual Carolinas Psychology Conference*, 1–36. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED350639

Neuliep, J. W., & McCroskey, J. C. (1997). The development of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension scales. *Communication Research Reports*, *14*(2), 145–156. doi: 10.1080/08824099709388656

O'Reilly, C. A., Phillips, K. W., & Barsade, S. (1998). Group demography and innovation: Does diversity help?. *Research in the Management of Groups and Teams*, *1*, 183–207.

Oetzel, J. G., & Ting-Toomey, S. (2003). Face concerns in interpersonal conflict: A cross-cultural empirical test of the face negotiation theory. *Communication research*, *30*(6), 599–624. doi: 10.1177%2F0093650203257841

Pitsillidou, M., Farmakas, A., Noula, M., & Roupa, Z. (2018). Conflict management among health professionals in hospitals of Cyprus. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *26*(8), 953–960. doi: 10.1111/jonm.12631

Pritchard, R. M., & Skinner, B. (2002). Cross-cultural partnerships between home and international students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *6*(4), 323–353. doi: 10.1177/102831502237639

Rahim, M. A. (1986). *Managing conflict in organizations*. New York, NY: Praeger.

Rahim, M. A., & Magner, N. R. (1995). Confirmatory factor analysis of the styles of handling interpersonal confl ict: First-order factor model and its invariance across groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *80*, 122–132. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.80.1.122

Rahmani, D., & Croucher, S. (2017). Minority groups and communication apprehension. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, *43*, 177–200. Retrieved from http://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi:jyu-201704101951

Raykova, E., Semerdjieva, M., & Tornyova, B. (2020). Conflict management style in the work of medical specialists in hospitals. *Journal of IMAB–Annual Proceeding Scientific Papers*, *26*(2), 3068–3072. doi: 10.5272/jimab.2020262.3068

Reid, A. J. (1996). What we want: qualitative research. Promising frontier for family medicine. *Canadian family physician*, *42*, 387–400. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2146303/

Sale, J. E., Lohfeld, L. H., & Brazil, K. (2002). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative debate: Implications for mixed-methods research. *Quality and quantity*, *36*(1), 43–53. Retrieved from https://link.springer.com/article/10.1023/A:1014301607592

Samovar, L. A., & Porter, R. E. (1991). *Communication Between Cultures*. Boston, MS: Wadsworth.

Speicher, B. L. (1994). Interethnic conflict: Attribution and cultural ignorance. *Howard Journal of Communications*, *5*, 195–213. doi: 10.1080/10646179509361663

Stevens, J. P. (2012). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2006). A general typology of research designs featuring mixed methods. *Research in the Schools*, *13*(1), 12–28. Retrieved from https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2007-09345-002

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thomas, K., & Kilmann, R. H. (1974). *Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode instrument*. Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

Traavik, L. E. (2011). Is bigger better? Dyadic and multiparty integrative negotiations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *22*(2), 190–210. doi: 10.1108/10444061111126701

Wilmot, W. W., & Hocker, J. L. (2001). *Interpersonal conflict*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.