



A COMPARISON OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION CONFLICT
MANAGEMENT STYLES AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL
CULTURE BETWEEN CHINESE AND THAI IT WORKERS

ZHI JUAN WU

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The present study primarily aimed to examine the relationship between communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture between Chinese and Thai IT workers.

APPROVED:

VORAPOT RUCKTHUM, Ph.D.

Chairperson

CHANCHA SUVANATHAT, Ed.D.

Member

MARIA BELLA BAMFORTH, Ph.D.

Advisor

CARL H. CASTORE, Ph.D.

Member

HOLLY DUGAN, Ph.D.

Member

ABSTRACT

This correlational-comparative study was conducted primarily to analyze the relationship between communication conflict management and perceived organizational culture in IT workers in China and Thailand. It also aimed to examine differences in communication conflict management between IT workers in China and Thailand as a function of certain demographic variables. The study also attempted to determine if perceived organizational culture is related to communication conflict management style between Chinese and Thai IT workers. The total number of respondents in this study was 314; this consisted of 173 Chinese IT workers in China and 141 Thai IT workers in Thailand. The web-based survey questionnaire employed included a Personal Data Questionnaire, the Organization Communication Conflict Instrument or OCCI, and the Organizational Culture Inventory or OCI.

The results of this study showed that both Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers mainly use solution-orientation conflict management style; that Chinese IT workers use nonconfrontation less than Thai IT workers, and use control more than Thai IT workers. It was also confirmed that demographic data played a role in the preference of conflict management style, for instance: gender, type of work, position level, and years in current organization; however, the results showed that age, education level, and size of the company did not factor in communication conflict management style. Finally, it was also revealed that perceived organizational culture plays a role in the usage of conflict management style in the working place. Certain organizational cultures boost or block the usage of certain communication conflict management styles.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Effective communication is the lifeblood of a successful organization. It reinforces the organization's vision, connects employees to the business, fosters process improvement, facilitates change and drives business results by changing employee behavior (Wyatt, 2007). Wyatt's investigations on communication in organization revealed that companies that communicate effectively have a 19.4 percent higher market premium than companies that do not; that shareholder returns for organizations with the most effective communication were over 57 percent higher over the last five years (2000-2004) than were returns for firms with less effective communication; that communication effectiveness is a leading indicator of financial performance; firms that communicate effectively are 4.5 times more likely to report high levels of employee engagement versus firms that communicate less effectively; and companies that are highly effective communicators are 20 percent more likely to report lower turnover rates than their peers.

A critical area of research that has received a great deal of attention in the last decades from industrial/organizational psychologists is *organizational communication*. Wyatt and many other academic researchers and practitioners have put long-lasting efforts on this subject. Harris (2002) similarly asserted that communication is one of the most essential and important variables in organizations and argued that communication is important not only to the organization, but also to its leaders, and to the individual worker. However, communication is never an easy thing, according to Fisher and Ury (1985). There are a number of barriers that diminish the usefulness of a company's organizational communications (Dessler, 2001). Not only do barriers exist during the

communication, it may emerge beforehand because of different goals and interests or structure of organization (Robbins, 1998). All kinds of barriers bring potential disagreements or *communication conflicts*. No matter if conflict occurs before communication or during the communication, people use communicative behaviors, both verbal and nonverbal, to handle conflict. Disagreement and conflict exist in organization life inevitably. Conflict is significant for organizational communication; on the other hand, communication is a critical variable in the manifest stage of conflict as well (Putnam & Wilson, 1982).

As the natural result, there are booming training programs and coaching workshops on communication along with the increasing awareness on the importance of communication on conflict-solving and organization success. Being aware of self preference of communication, understanding others' style, how to conduct effective communication among different styles, attract I/O psychologists as well as the management practitioners and behavioral researchers.

Nowadays, the trend of informatization or technologization has brought communication into another stage which is more complex than before. The traditional communication like face-to-face and even telecommunication has been changed into multiple communicating options which include e-mail, online communication tools like MSN – typing or voice talking, video-talking, etcetera. *Information Technology* or *IT* is used to such an extent that it becomes the dominant force in commanding economic, political, social, and cultural development (Wang, 1994). As manifested in the business area, the Internet keeps expanding as a business platform. Electronic-commerce websites enjoy their greatest popularity, and almost every company is looking to exploit the Internet for all its worth (Dessler, 2001). Unfortunately, meanwhile, the electronic communication has come with some costs which include the missing of nonverbal

communication component (Robbins, 1998). According to Pace and Faules (1994, as cited in Dessler, 2001), the verbal aspect of a message accounts for less than 5% of the meaning, whereas the nonverbal aspect of a message accounts for 95% of the meaning. The huge part losses of communication information increase the potential for misunderstanding and conflict.

On the other hand, Information Technology (IT) developed very fast and has a short life cycle (Computing Research Association, 1999) which also demands that *IT workers* respond to technological change in their workplace quickly, more than other conventional workers. Today, communication conflict seems more critical and urgent for them to meet the demand of change.

In addition to the informatization, another eye-attracting term is globalization. It has also had a profound impact upon industries (Friedman, 1999). More and more *international companies* occur and involve a huge number of communications among different ethnicities. Every ethnic group has its own ways to express and get information under its culture and religion; this brings communication to a more complicated situation and makes it inevitable to face the differences and conflicts of sending and receiving as well as interpreting information in different ways or even in opposite ways not only for personal difference but also for culture difference. In the present study, the two ethnic groups involved in the study are *Chinese and Thai IT workers in international companies*.

The American-Chinese novelist Amy Tan (1992) describes the culture difference between America and China with such an example: An American business executive may say, "Let's make a deal," and the Chinese manager may reply, "Is your son interested in learning about your widget business?" The consequence of this conversation is easy to imagine; the American may feel confused "why does this

Chinese businessman ask about my son's interest?" If the American avoids the family-topic, the Chinese may talk silently, "Does this American have a misery marriage or broken family? Will this influence our cooperation?" Obviously, the Chinese is more strategic in manner and focuses on relationship by talking about family, whereas the American representing his culture tends to be more direct. This has been tested many times by many researchers, according to Chen (2000).

As to the Thais, Cooper and Cooper (2005) described that they will turn work into a party whenever it is possible, which is reflected by *ngan*, the word in Thai which means both "work" and "party". They would like to cooperate; however, face-to-face criticism is seen as a form of violence and a totally negative concept. They avoid public confrontation at all costs and even though they respect authority, asserting one's authority nearly always pays.

In order to improve the productivity of organizations, for stronger competence in the fast-developing globalization situation, organizations need to be aware of employees' communication preference with different personality and cultural diversity to conduct effective communication in teams/groups.

Another factor critical to organizational success is *organizational culture*. Brown (1998) considered it as a key asset of organization. In the early 1980s, organizational culture had become a business phenomenon (Baker, 2002). The noted bestseller 'In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies,' from Peters and Waterman (1982) indicated the full blossoming of awareness of the importance of organizational culture. Through analyzing super successful corporate giants, this book brought out a concept that "strong culture" (defined as those institutions which have a widely held common purpose, values, and assumptions) was a key component of organizational success.

So far, organizational culture has kept drawing concerns from not only industrial/organizational psychologists but also business management practitioners. Youngblood (1979, as cited in Du Toit, 2002) emphasized the significance of organizational culture by asserting that virtually every long-lived and highly successful company attributes the primary source of its prosperity to its culture – not its smart leaders, not its technology, not its superior strategies, but its culture. This is true for General Electric, Hewlett-Packard, Southwest Airlines, Cisco Systems, Disney, Starbucks, and countless others. Organizational culture is important because it is the source from which the organization operates. Culture involves every aspect of the organization: how it is designed, how people relate to one another, what is considered to be true, what is deemed important, the criteria to use for decisions, how to treat customers, and a myriad other factors (Du Toit, 2002).

In today's open and globalized economy, in order to compete successfully companies need to be well-equipped; in other words, they need to have the characteristics of a world-class company. One of the characteristics of a world-class company is its sound organizational culture. Thus, for a company to become world-class, it is necessary that it properly understands and manages its culture.

Background of the Study

As earlier indicated, communication is one of the most essential and important variables for a successful organization. However, barriers exist during the communication due to individuals' and groups' differing goals and interests which may result in communication conflicts. Another factor critical to organizational success is organizational culture.

In the light of their being key components in the success of organizations, the current researcher was interested in exploring organizational culture and effective communication, particularly the aspect of communication conflict and its management. Furthermore, the researcher, a Chinese graduate student of psychology in an international university in Thailand and, having worked in the field of Information Technology (IT), was likewise interested in examining the relationship between communication conflict management and organizational culture among IT workers in China and their counterparts in Thailand.

Statement of the Problem

There are many previous studies that investigated the difference between Eastern and Western style. They considered East Asia as a broad group under the long-term influence of Confucianism and Buddhism. As a result, people in this geographical area tend to be nonconfrontational and indirect in order to keep harmony in society. The current researcher wanted to examine differences based on the aspect of 'harmony' between the two East Asia groups in terms of interpersonal communication management. Therefore, a corresponding question was examined in this study:

1. Are there differences in communication conflict management strategies among Chinese and Thais?

In addition, the researcher wanted to know differences in the workers' communication conflict management style in relation to gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, and size of company. Hence, the question was set as thus:

2. Are there significant differences in conflict management strategies in

relation to gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, and size of company?

It has been concluded in many studies, as earlier indicated, that organizational culture has a huge influence on organizational behavior. In this light, the researcher was interested in examining how individual communication conflict management style is related to or influenced by organizational culture. In the meantime, as a young developing technology, IT has been so widely used and has become an important part of organization life today. In an extensive review of literature, there appeared to be limited information and studies on IT workers' communication conflict management styles. This limitation extends to studies on the association between communication conflict management styles and organizational culture. In effect, the researcher attempted to fill this knowledge gap by focusing on IT workers with a view to examine the relationship between perceived organizational culture and the IT workers' communication conflict management style. For this intention, the following research question was generated:

3. Is there a significant relationship between communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture among IT workers in China and Thailand?

Purpose of the Study

The present study was primarily conducted to examine the relationship between communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture among Chinese and Thai IT workers. The secondary purpose of this study was to examine differences in communication conflict management styles among Chinese and Thai IT workers. Furthermore, the study aimed to examine differences in communication conflict management style in relation to gender, age, education level, type of work,

position level, years in current organization, and size of company.

Research Hypotheses

In this study, the following hypotheses were tested:

H1o: There are no significant differences between the cultures in communication conflict management style.

H1a: There are significant differences between the cultures in communication conflict management style.

H2o: There is no significant relationship between demographic variables and communication conflict management style.

H2a: There is a significant relationship between demographic variables and communication conflict management style.

H3o: There is no significant relationship between perceived organizational culture and communication conflict management style among IT workers in China and Thailand.

H3a: There is a significant relationship between perceived organizational culture and communication conflict management style among IT workers in China and Thailand.

Significance of the Study

This study aimed to describe the communication conflict management style of Chinese and Thai workers in the IT field as well as test the relationship between organizational culture and communication conflict management style. It is anticipated that this study would benefit certain individuals and groups in the following ways:

Firstly, the present study would help employers understand how organizational culture might influence communication conflict management style and, in the process,

encourage employers to examine the organization's culture and change certain aspects of organizational culture to bring out necessary conflict management strategies among employees in order to improve organizational effectiveness and performance. Furthermore, this study would also help employers and investors of companies who have interests in investing in China or Thailand to understand workers' communication conflict management preference and consequently develop or adjust corresponding organizational culture changes and interventions to advance organizational performance.

Secondly, from the employees' perspective, this study would benefit those who work alongside IT workers from China or Thailand by understanding their conflict management preference under a certain organizational culture and therefore avoid misreading the other party's intention which may potentially bring conflict escalation.

Thirdly, the study will serve the people in coaching/training service-providing companies as well as career counselors and I/O psychologists by providing additional specific knowledge of communication conflict management style used by IT workers in China and Thailand with a view to better understand and provide more effective guidance to IT workers on how best to adjust their communication conflict management style to communicate more effectively with others.

Finally, it is expected that the review of related literature and findings of this study would serve as valuable reference material and database for other behavioral researchers who are interested in the same variables or who intend to pursue the same phenomena in a broader context or with a different population.

Definition of Terms

Communication Conflict

'Communication conflict' refers to the interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, aims, and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realization of these goals (Putnam & Wilson, 1982). According to these authors, communication conflict between an individual and another party or working group may come from disagreements because of semantic quibbles or surface misinterpretations, or may also come from deeper underlying differences including personality, the nature of the conflict, the relationship between participants, organizational structure, environmental factors, and other incompatibilities.

Communication Conflict Management

'Communication conflict management' refers to communication conflict strategies which are those communicative behaviors, both verbal and nonverbal, that provide a means for handling conflict. Conflict involves strategic or planned interaction; that is, participants make choices about alternative behaviors by considering their own goals and anticipated goals of the other person (Putnam & Wilson, 1982).

For the purposes of this study, communication conflict management was measured by means of the Organization Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI), developed by Putnam and Wilson (1982) to assess choices about strategies in the management of conflict across organizational contexts. The instrument designers pointed out that the OCCI consists of three subscales: Control – direct communication about the disagreement; arguing persistently for one's position, taking control of the interaction, and advocating one's position; Nonconfrontation – indirect strategies for

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handling a conflict; choices to avoid or withdraw from a disagreement; such communicative behaviors as silence, glossing over differences, and concealing ill feelings; and Solution-orientation – direct communication about the conflict; behaviors that aim to find a solution, to integrate the needs of both parties, and to give in or compromise on issues.

Information Technology (IT)

‘Information Technology’ or IT is defined as the study, design, development, implementation, support or management of computer-based information systems, particularly software applications and computer hardware (Information Technology Association of America [ITAA]).

IT Worker

An IT worker is any skilled worker who performs any function related to information technology, as defined by the ITAA. In this study, IT workers consisted of Chinese and Thai IT workers in international companies in China and Thailand, respectively.

Organizational Culture

‘Organizational culture’ is a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1992).

As used in this study, organizational culture was measured by means of the

Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) by Cooke and Lafferty (1983), an instrument that measures what individuals and groups within a company regard as expected of them and will be reinforced and rewarded. According to the progenitors, the OCI measures three general types of cultures: *Aggressive/defensive culture* – culture that encourages or drives members to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security; *Constructive organizational culture* – culture that encourages members to interact with people and approach tasks in ways that will help them to meet their higher-order satisfaction needs; and *Passive/defensive organizational culture* – culture that encourages or implicitly requires members to interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own personal security.



CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

This study focuses on communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture among Chinese and Thai IT workers in international companies in China and Thailand, respectively. The review of related literature includes theoretical perspectives and models on communication in organizations, conflict in organizations, organizational culture, and related studies.

Communication in Organizations

Theoretical Perspectives

Communication is one of the basic functions of management in any organization and its importance can hardly be overemphasized. It is a process of transmitting information, ideas, thoughts, opinions and plans between various parts of an organization (Thomson, 2007).

Carrel, Jennings, and Heavrin (1997) designed a communication model in organizations which included five basic aspects to communicating. The sender puts a message in understandable terms and then transmits it via a communication channel (for example, face to face).

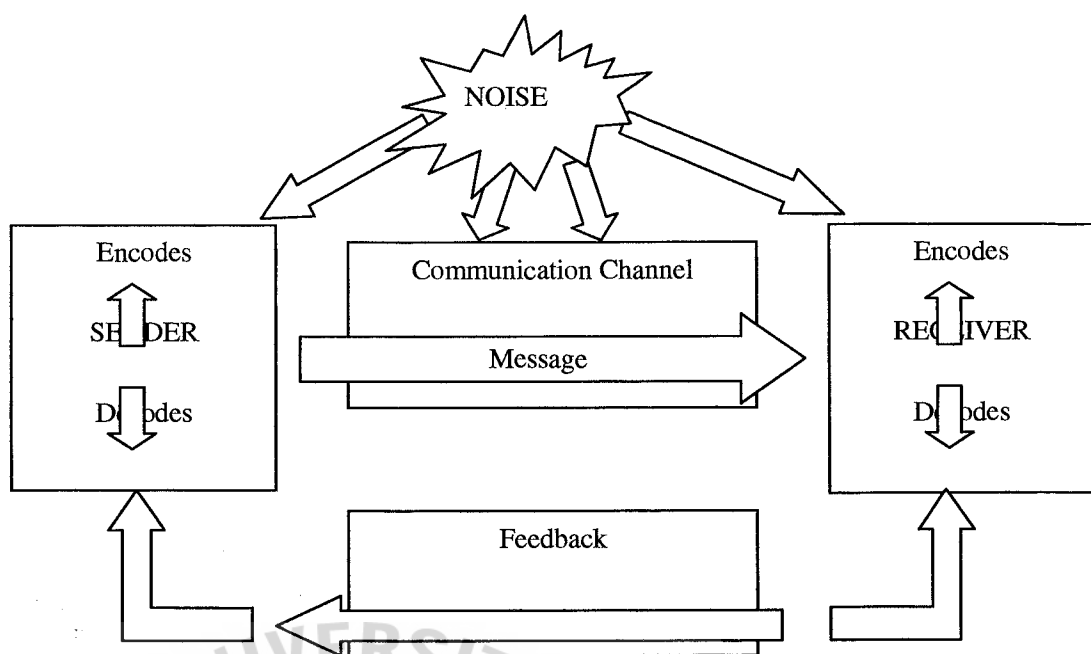


Figure 1. Communication model.

Foulger (2004) observed that, like all models, this is a minimalist abstraction of the reality it attempts to reproduce. The reality of most communication systems is more complex. Most information sources (and destinations) act as both sources and destinations. Senders, receivers, channels, and even messages are often layered both serially and in parallel such that there are multiple signals transmitted and received, even when they are converged into a common signal stream and a common channel. Many other elaborations can be readily described. It remains, however, that the communication model is a useful abstraction that identifies the most important components of communication and their general relationship to one another.

Communication and Conflict in Organizations

Referring to the communication model, errors can occur at any one part of the communication loop: sender, communication channel, noise, receiver, and feedback; and, therefore, conflict emerges (Robbins, 1998; Putnam & Wilson, 1982). Conflict is

managed or dealt with within the communication process (Fisher & Ury, 1985; Putnam & Wilson, 1982).

The role of communication in organizational conflict had been ignored by some researchers; hence the link between communication and conflict was rarely clarified (Putnam & Wilson, 1982). However, Putnam and Wilson also stated that conflict styles were actually communicative behaviors; meanwhile, some noted conflict theorists treat communication as the critical variable in the manifest stage of conflict (Thomas, 1976; Pondy, 1967, as cited in Putnam & Wilson, 1982).

Conflict in Organizations

Conflict is inevitable in organizations (Putnam & Wilson, 1982; Conrad & Poole, 1998); it is part of the practical reality of organizational life. For a better understanding of organizational conflict management style, a certain theory about conflict needs to be clarified. According to Robbins (1998), there are three forms of conflicts identified within the organization:

1. *Individual Conflict* – This type of conflict relates to conflict of orders that an individual may receive. This is called ‘role conflict.’ The individual is faced with two conflicting orders such that compliance to one would make it difficult to comply with the other. Individuals in this situation may feel divided loyalties to those initiating the orders and may suffer a reprimand for the orders not complied with.
2. *Interpersonal Conflict* – This type of conflict occurs between individuals or between individuals and groups. This area of conflict can prove to be highly emotive as conflicts may be personally based. With this type of conflict, individuals may believe that their principles are being encroached on, leading to a higher possibility of aggression in the

dispute.

3. *Intergroup Organizational Conflict* – This form of conflict means disagreement between organizational units such as production and sales departments or between line and staff units.

In the present study, the researcher focused on ‘interpersonal conflict’ but which may also result from individual conflict. According to Putnam and Wilson (1982), conflict between individual and another party or working group may come from disagreements because of semantic quibbles or surface misinterpretations; furthermore, it may come from deeper underlying differences: personality, the nature of the conflict, the relationship between participants, organizational structure, environmental factors and whatever other incompatibilities. The causes of conflict, however, will not be covered in this study.

Conflict Stages Model

Conflict is a process (Pondy, 1976, as cited in Putnam & Wilson, 1982; Robbins, 1998) and can be considered stage by stage. According to Robbins (1998), there are five stages, as follows:

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4	Stage 5
Potential Opposition or Incompatibility	Cognition and Personalisation	Intentions	Behaviour	Outcomes

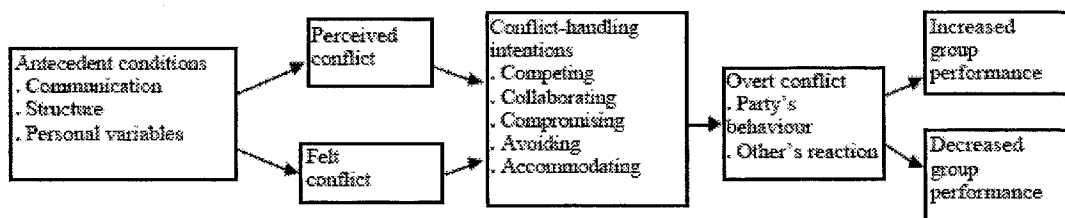


Figure 2. Conflict stages model.

1. *Stage 1* – Potential Opposition or Incompatibility: The potential oppositions or incompatibility relates to the conditions necessary for conflicts to arise. Communication, or rather the lack of it, is seen as one of the major obstacles, serving as an opposing force, which creates a level of misunderstanding. The structure of the organization is also viewed as a possible opposition block as conflicts evolve between departments. Personal variables are probably the most likely to cause conflict on an individual basis, as there are invariably clashes in personality types within an organization.

2. *Stage 2* – Cognition and Personalization: This relates to the personalization of the conflict. In this phase, the potential for conflict becomes actualized. Perceived conflict relates to the individual or group actually seeing the conflict arise and affect them. It creates the awareness of the problem. A ‘felt conflict’ arises when individuals become emotionally charged due to the conflict, creating hostility with the opposing party. It is in this phase that the conflict is defined and each party envisions what they believe to be the solution.

3. Stage 3 – Intentions: This identifies the intentions behind the conflict. This relates to the conscious decision made on how to act in a given way in a conflict situation. This area is of primary importance as it deals with the response of one party to the other party's behavior. In this phase, the individual infers the other's intent in order to know how to respond to that other's behavior. There are five primary conflict-handling intentions which will be described later as the Thomas conflict management model.

4. Stage 4 – Behavior: This refers to the actual communications that arise between the parties, such as statements and actions. The conflicting parties will 'test each other out' on the issues involved in the conflict and assess whether either party are devoted to their position in the conflict.

5. Stage 5 – Outcomes: The final stage relates to functional and dysfunctional outcomes to the conflict. As already identified, functional outcomes improve the performance of the organization and justify the place of controlled conflict. Dysfunctional outcomes are the negative effects of conflict on both the organization and the individuals involved.

Five typical orientation models.

As illustrated in the above figure, once conflict occurs and is perceived by involved parties in Stage 2, they then react to deal with the conflict situation in Stage 3. How do people react towards the conflict situation? To help answer this, the Five Typical Orientations model (Thomas, 1976, as cited in Robbins, 1998) was thus introduced:

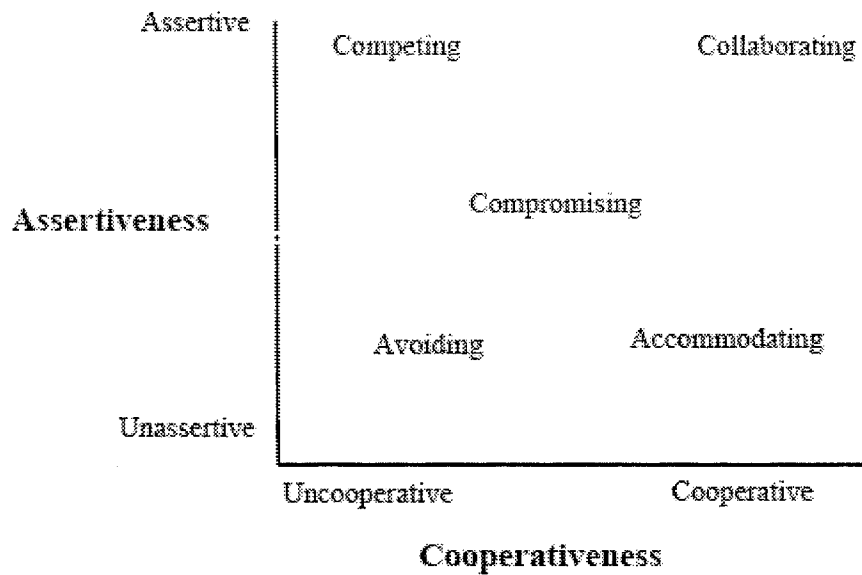


Figure 3. Five typical orientations model.

In this model, there are two dimensions: *cooperativeness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy the other party's concerns) and *assertiveness* (the degree to which one party attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns). Therefore, five conflict management intentions can be identified as: competing (assertive and uncooperative), collaborating (assertive and cooperative), avoiding (unassertive and uncooperative), accommodating (unassertive and cooperative), and compromising (midrange on both assertiveness and cooperativeness). For each of the type, detailed information, strengths, and weakness are given as follows:

1. *Competing* – This is a form of direct behavior when one person seeks to satisfy his or her own interests, regardless of the impact on the other parties to the conflict. It is most suitable when it is acceptable to have a winner and a loser, but this may leave traces of ill will between the competing parties for future projects. This is viewed as a 'win-lose' situation.

2. *Collaborating* – This is a situation where the parties to a conflict each desire to

satisfy fully the concerns of all parties. Neither party is completely satisfied but there are elements of a 'win-win' situation.

3. *Avoiding* – This is a situation where one of the conflicting agents may withdraw from the conflict, preferring to suppress the conflict rather than face it. This strategy may be used when it is thought better to let conflicting parties cool down before embarking on a resolve. This form of suppression can fester within an organization if not faced, causing more serious problems at a later date. This is viewed as a 'lose-lose' situation sometimes.

4. *Accommodating* – This style expresses the willingness of one party in a conflict to place the opponent's interests above his or her own. This method is often used when one of the parties realizes that they are outmatched as the conflict develops and therefore places the other party's interests before their own.

5. *Compromising* – This is a situation in which each party to a conflict is willing to give up something. In compromising, there is no clear winner or loser.

Robbins (1998) posited that people have an underlying disposition to handle conflicts in certain ways. Specifically, individuals have preferences among the five conflict-handling intentions; these preferences tend to be relied upon quite consistently, and can be predicted rather well from a combination of intellectual and personality characteristics. Hence, it is more appropriate to view the conflict-handling intentions as relatively fixed rather than as a set of options from which individuals choose to fit an appropriate situation. However, Putnam and Wilson (1982) made opposite statements: the trait model may hold for some people; however, it may not be true for a majority of subjects. Then a contingency theory on conflict management appeared more suitable than a trait model.

As to the effectiveness of conflict management styles, Putnam and Wilson (1982)

also gave the comments that collaborating (also called confrontation or problem solving) emerged as the most constructive, most effective, and most important mode of handling conflict; accommodating (also called smoothing) was viewed as desirable but not necessarily effective, while competing (also called forcing) was viewed as effective but not desirable.

Organization communication conflict instrument.

The Organization Communication Conflict Instrument or OCCI by Putnam and Wilson (1982) was designed to assess an employee's use of communicative strategies across conflict situations. There are three underlying assumptions in this model: first, conflict strategies are communicative behaviors, both verbal and nonverbal, that provide a means for handling conflict; second, this model focuses on a particular phase of conflict – disagreements, which are generally content-oriented conflicts that may come from deeper underlying differences rather than surface misinterpretations or semantic quibbles; the final assumption is that the decision to use a particular conflict strategy is largely governed by situational rather than personality constraints.

Putnam and Wilson developed the OCCI questionnaire which depicts three general conflict management styles: nonconfrontation, control, and solution-oriented styles. The detailed description for each is as follows:

1. *Nonconfrontation* – is a passive conflict management style in which the group member avoids disagreements, downplays controversies, or approaches conflict indirectly; the person says nothing at all or quickly gives in to another member in a conflict situation.
2. *Control* – is a highly aggressive conflict management style in which one person manages conflict by arguing persistently for their position and using nonverbal messages to emphasize demands; they try to win at all costs.

3. *Solution Orientation* – is a cooperative and assertive conflict management style that encourages all conflicting parties to work together for a solution that meets everyone's needs as fully as possible.

As Putnam and Wilson (1982) claimed, each is appropriate under certain circumstances. Nonconfrontation is appropriate when the problem is unimportant, when the risks of making a poor decision are slight, or when the relationship is genuinely more important than the outcome. Control can cause hard feelings in a group, but it is appropriate when you believe strongly about something and you perceive your needs will not be acknowledged or accommodated with other approaches. Solution orientation is always appropriate but can take a lot of time. Solution-oriented outcomes often last because all members have their most important needs met. Sometimes members try to negotiate solutions that fully meet everyone's needs but are unable to arrive at such ideal solutions, in those cases, they may have to compromise, and each member gives up something. However, compromise can be an effective outcome when members feel that what they have given up is fair in comparison to what others have given up.

Related Studies on Conflict and Conflict Management

For many years, researchers and managers viewed organizational conflict as a contagious disease that should be eliminated from an organization (Putnam & Wilson, 1982). Conflicts revealed a weakness in the organization, a flaw in its design, operation, or communication (Thomas, 1976, as cited in Robbins, 1998). Jehn (1995) pointed out in her study that relationship and task conflicts were negatively associated with individuals' satisfaction, liking of other group members, and intent to remain in the group. Relationship conflicts caused distress and resentment among members,

encouraging withdrawal. In groups performing routine tasks, Jehn analyzed that disagreements about the content of the task were generally detrimental to group functioning, because task-related conflicts interfered with the routine and standardized processes and distracted employees from their 'real' work. Guerra, Martinez, Munduate, and Medina (2005) also proved that relationship conflict was negatively related to job satisfaction and affective well-being of members in organization. Task conflict had dysfunctional effect on employees in private organization, too.

However, Putnam and Wilson (1982) pointed out that conflict was potentially constructive – if it was managed effectively. This has also been tested true by some communication experts and conflict researchers in their studies. Simons and Peterson (2000) stated task conflict was usually associated with effective decision-making in managers. Task conflict could stimulate creative thinking and improve group performance especially for non-routine tasks (Jehn, 1995). Practically, there are organizations hiring consultants to help maintain a certain level of conflict to encourage employees to express personal beliefs and opinions as well as openly question and disagree with others' ideas (Robbins, 1998).

Meanwhile, some studies failed to prove the positive consequence of conflict management. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) got opposite result from their hypothesis and found that there was strong and negative (instead of the predicted positive) correlations between task conflict, team performance, and team member satisfaction. In Jehn's (1995) study, task conflict also decreased members' satisfaction and encouraged members to withdraw from the conflict situation, whether in routine task group or non-routine task group. From the same study, task conflict would only benefit group performance, and only in non-routine tasks group. Therefore, conclusions about the functional or dysfunctional consequences of conflicts are not conclusive. Further

research emphasizing on how team members manage their task and relationship conflicts had been recommended (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

Many previous theorists and researchers on communication conflict had concluded that conflict management style is quite consistent individually, and predisposed with a certain style (Mortensen, 1997; Robbins, 1998). Researchers examined the relationship between personal characteristics and conflict management styles. For instance, Baron (1989) found that individuals with a Type A personality report a higher frequency of conflict with subordinates than do Type B's; self-attitude has been found having impact on personal conflict management style (Broome, 2004); Earnest, McCaslin and Jones (1993) got a consistent result that personality traits predicate individuals' conflict management style; for instance, intuitive persons were more apt to use the integrative conflict management styles when confronted with a conflict situation; sensing persons tended to handle conflict situations using avoiding or compromising conflict management styles. In Urbantke's (2006) research, it was stated that, when younger supervisors handled conflict with older subordinates, they tended to use Avoiding style; however, organizational supportiveness would increase the likelihood that younger supervisors prefer the Collaborating style of managing conflict with older subordinates.

Meanwhile, others noted that conflict management style varies from situation to situation. Putnam and Wilson (1982) stated that a particular conflict strategy is largely governed by situational rather than personality constraints. Medina et al. (2004) also observed that people react to the conflict according to the other party's behavior and proved their hypotheses that people tend to use more patterns of complementarity in conflict. This means people are not constrained by their personal traits while responding to a conflict situation; they are influenced by the surrounding and other people's pattern

involved in the surrounding, too.

Sirisakdiorn (2005) did a study to examine the impact of conflict management style on team effectiveness and concluded that there was a strong positive relationship between collaborating conflict management style and team effectiveness, and moderate positive relationship between compromising conflict management style and team effectiveness. All together, conflicts can lead to either constructive or destructive consequence on individuals as well as groups, depending on the conflict management styles used by both parties, as well as the situation around.

The following study by Song (2004) is slightly similar to the present study in terms of its purpose and the research instrument used (OCCI). Song's study investigated how the conflict management strategies (non-confrontation, control, and solution) were influenced by culture (Korean and American), by work relationship and by tenure. The answers of 501 participants on the Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI) of Putnam and Wilson (1982) were analyzed. Both Koreans and Americans use the solution strategy most frequently in their conflict situations, followed by the control strategy. Both least use the non-confrontation strategy. Americans use the solution strategy more frequently than Koreans, while Koreans use the control strategy more frequently than Americans. As the tenure of Korean participants increases, the use of the control strategy also increases. As the tenure of American participants increases, on the contrary, the use of the control strategy decreases.

Conflict management style and demographic variables.

Researches have shown that gender, age, area of work, position level, education level, years in current organization are factors that influence individual conflict management (Earnest, McCaslin & Jones, 1993; Broome, 2004).

The relationship between *gender* and conflict management style has been proved by many researchers. In his research, Broome (2004) found that females tended to use avoiding style more than males while dealing with conflict. Vera, Shin, Montgomery, Mildner, and Speight (2004) did a research among urban adolescents and got the consistent result that 3% of the girls relied on aggression, compared to 14% of their male counterparts.

As to *age*, it has also been proven to relate with personal conflict management style. For example, Burks et al. (2003) reported that young workers tend to use compromise and collaboration or avoid to deal with conflict; however, older workers were more willing to control the situation under conflict.

For *areas of work* and *position level*, significant relationships between them and conflict management style have also been reported. According to Urbantke's (2006) study, managers tended to use controlling more than subordinates; meantime, sales are more willing to use an integrative approach involving solution-orientation management style and controlling to deal with conflict in organization.

Conflict management style has been linked with *education level*. According to Earnest, McCaslin and Jones (1993), a master's degree or less were more apt to use the obliging conflict management style than those who held a doctoral degree; however, in Broome's (2004) study, there was the other finding that respondents with higher education are more likely to use solution-orientation style.

As to *years in the organization*, Earnest, McCaslin and Jones (1993) found that the longer administrators remained in their current position, the more they tended to dominate the conflict situation; years as administrator predicted conflict management style preference.

Conflict management style and culture.

There was a trend to study the difference between western and eastern. Individuals in various societies value conflict very differently. Some, especially those in western cultures, view it as a part, perhaps even a beneficial part, of life. This researcher's own observation is that eastern cultures feel that conflict should be avoided and, consequently, are less apt to initiate conflict.

Chen (2000) examined the impact of harmony philosophy on Chinese conflict management and solution and summarized that the Chinese developed five rules for handling conflict: self-restraint and self-discipline; indirect expression of disapproval; saving or making face for counterparts; reciprocity; and the emphasis on particularistic relationship. Chen claimed that the Chinese are more likely to be nonconfrontational, avoiding, obliging, integrating, and authoritarian in the process of conflict resolution.

In the same light, Burks et al. (2003) did an empirical research comparing the difference of communication style between eastern and western and stated that the east Asian representing collectivism tend to be indirective in the workplace and more sensitive towards the other party's indirective information than European American representing individualism in the workplace.

Conflict management style used by Thais has been investigated by many researchers (Broome, 2004). According to Broome, Thais were in high and medium nonconfrontation orientation and lower solution orientation. Meanwhile, the result from Hofstede (1997) also showed that Chinese is rated higher than Thai in masculinity and lower in uncertainty avoidance index than Thai.

Organizational Culture

Theoretical Perspectives

Organizational culture has become a critical factor in organizations' success since the early 1980s. Many theorists, scholars, and practitioners put effort in this field by describing how organizational culture influences various aspects of organization. These various attentions from business, psychology, and sociology bring numerous definitions of organizational culture since they have different concerns and emphasis. Among the definitions, some of them have commonalities, some vary. There is no consensus about the definition so far (Hofstede, 1997).

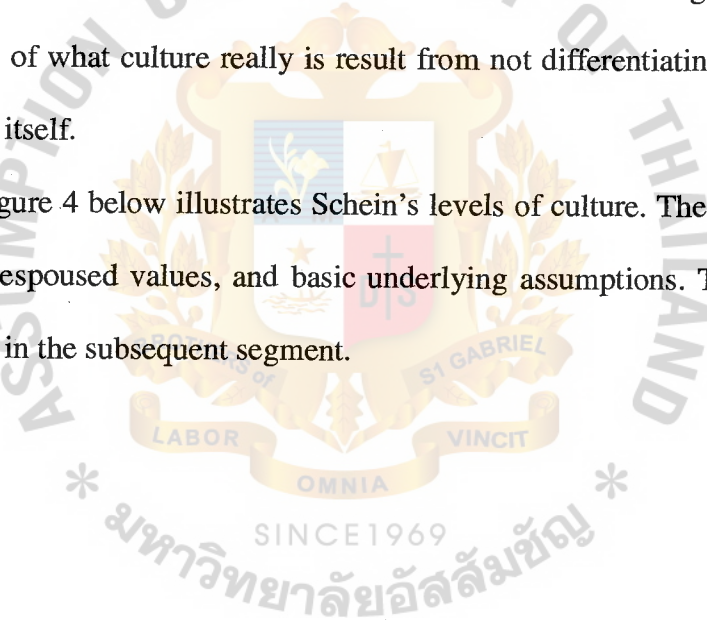
Ott (1989) presented an amalgamation of some of the more interesting definitions of organizational culture. For example, according to Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo (1983), organizational culture is "not just another piece of the puzzle, it is the puzzle; a culture is not something an organization has, a culture is something an organization is." (p. 126). Sergiovanni and Corbally's (1984, p.7) definition of culture would include "the system of values, symbols, and shared meanings of a group including the embodiment of these values, symbols, and meanings into material objects and ritualized practices. Culture governs what is of worth for a particular group and how group members should think, feel and behave." Similarly, Deal and Kennedy (1982) posited that "a strong culture is a system of informal rules that spells out how people are to behave most of the time" (p. 15). Siehl and Martin (1984) opined that organizational culture can be thought of as "the glue that holds an organization together through a sharing of patterns of meaning. Culture focuses on the values, beliefs, and expectations that members come to share" (p. 227).

The level model.

According to Schein (1992), organizational culture is a pattern of basic assumptions – invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

Schein's approach 'divides' culture into three levels. These levels range from the very tangible overt manifestations that one can see, to the deeply embedded, unconscious basic assumptions, the essence of culture. Level is the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer. Schein argued that some of the confusion of what culture really is result from not differentiating the levels at which it manifests itself.

Figure 4 below illustrates Schein's levels of culture. The three levels consist of: artefacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions. These levels are briefly explained in the subsequent segment.



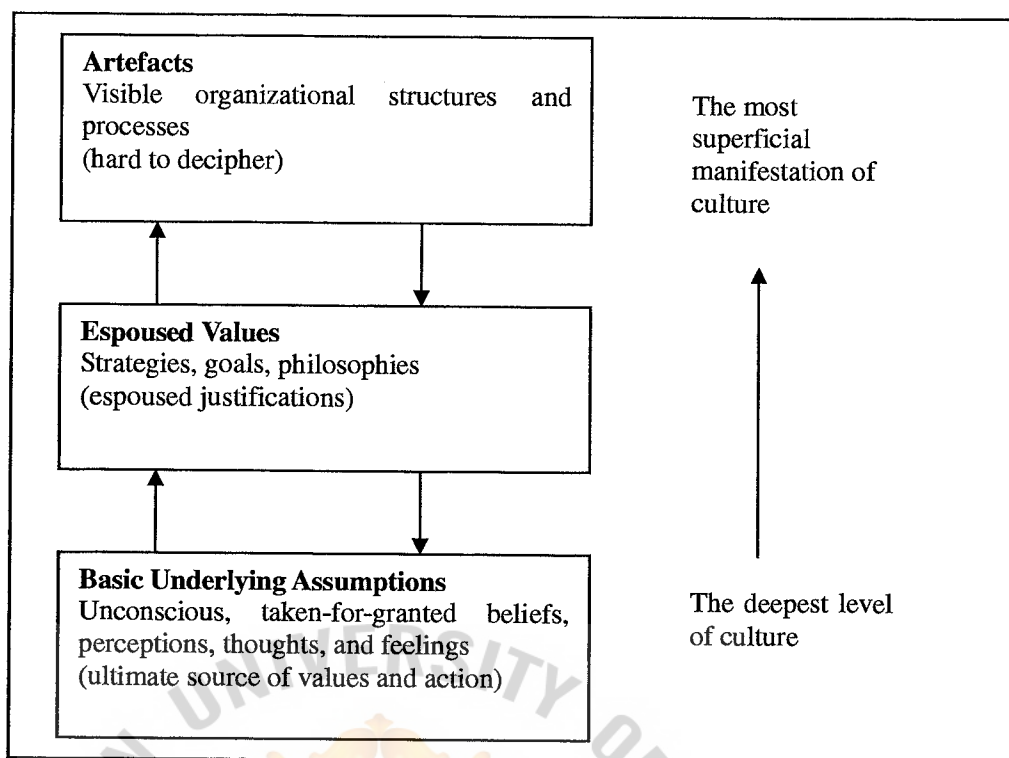


Figure 4. Levels of culture.

1. *Artefacts* – This level includes common or patterned physical artifacts that are visible or audible constituting the greatest level of awareness. Material objects, physical layouts, language, behavior patterns (rites and rituals), symbols, and norms of behavior (behavioral rules) are all included in this level.

2. *Espoused values* – This includes values, beliefs, and attitudes that can be measured by social consensus in the physical environment. This level of awareness is not as explicit as in the first level; however, these values are recognizable and measurable by members within a group. Values represent the principles and standards valued by organizational members. They indicate what is important to organizational members. Values are the foundation as to what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. Organizational members are able to recognize their values especially when challenged by others.

3. *Basic underlying assumptions* – This is the core, better known as the “essence of culture.” It entails the basic set of assumptions about the environment, the relationships of factors within and among the environment, and the nature of human behaviors. The basic set of assumptions is at the lowest level of awareness, representing the core or the heart of culture. Assumptions are the basis for how organizational members think and feel. Assumptions are unconscious and are taken for granted. Where solutions to problems, work continuously, the solution is used unconsciously and becomes the way things are done by the group (Schein, 1992).

Organizational culture inventory.

The widely-used measure of organizational culture is the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) designed by Cooke and Lafferty in 1983. It was, initially, a quantitative instrument that measures 12 sets of behavioral norms associated with three general types of organizational culture types: *constructive*, *passive/defensive*, and *aggressive/defensive*. Since its introduction, the OCI has been used by thousands of organizations and completed by over 2 million respondents throughout the world. It has been used for a variety of purposes, including testing hypotheses on the relationships among culture, outcomes, and antecedent variables. This wide range of applications has produced an extensive information base regarding the ways in which culture operates in different types of organizations (Cooke & Szumal, 2000).

The underlying conceptual framework of the OCI consists of two dimensions. The first, which distinguishes between a concern for people and a concern for task, define the behavioral norms measured by the OCI. The second dimension distinguishes between expectations for behaviors directed toward fulfilling higher-order satisfaction needs and those directed toward protecting and maintaining lower-order security needs.

Based on these dimensions, the 12 sets of norms (achievement; self-actualization; humanistic-encouraging; affiliative; approval; conventional; dependent; avoidance; oppositional; power; competitive; and perfectionistic) measured by the OCI are categorized into three general “clusters” or types of organizational cultures, which are labeled Constructive, Passive/Defensive, and Aggressive/Defensive. *Constructive* (people concerns) culture encourages members to interact with people and approach tasks in ways that will help them to meet their higher-order satisfaction needs; *Passive defensive* (task concerns) culture encourages or implicitly requires members to interact with people in ways that will not threaten their own personal security; *Aggressive defensive* (task concerns) culture encourages or drives members to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security (Cooke & Lafferty, 1983).

The OCI Circumplex.

The OCI circumplex, as seen in Figure 5 below, reflects the degree of each organizational culture rated by respondents. Behavioral norms on the right-hand side of the OCI circumplex reflect expectations for behaviors that are people oriented; those on the left-hand side reflect expectations for behavior that are relatively task oriented. Norms toward the top of the circumplex promote behaviors that are directed toward the fulfillment of higher-order satisfaction needs; those near the bottom promote behaviors directed toward the fulfillment of lower-order security needs (Cooke & Lafferty, 1983).

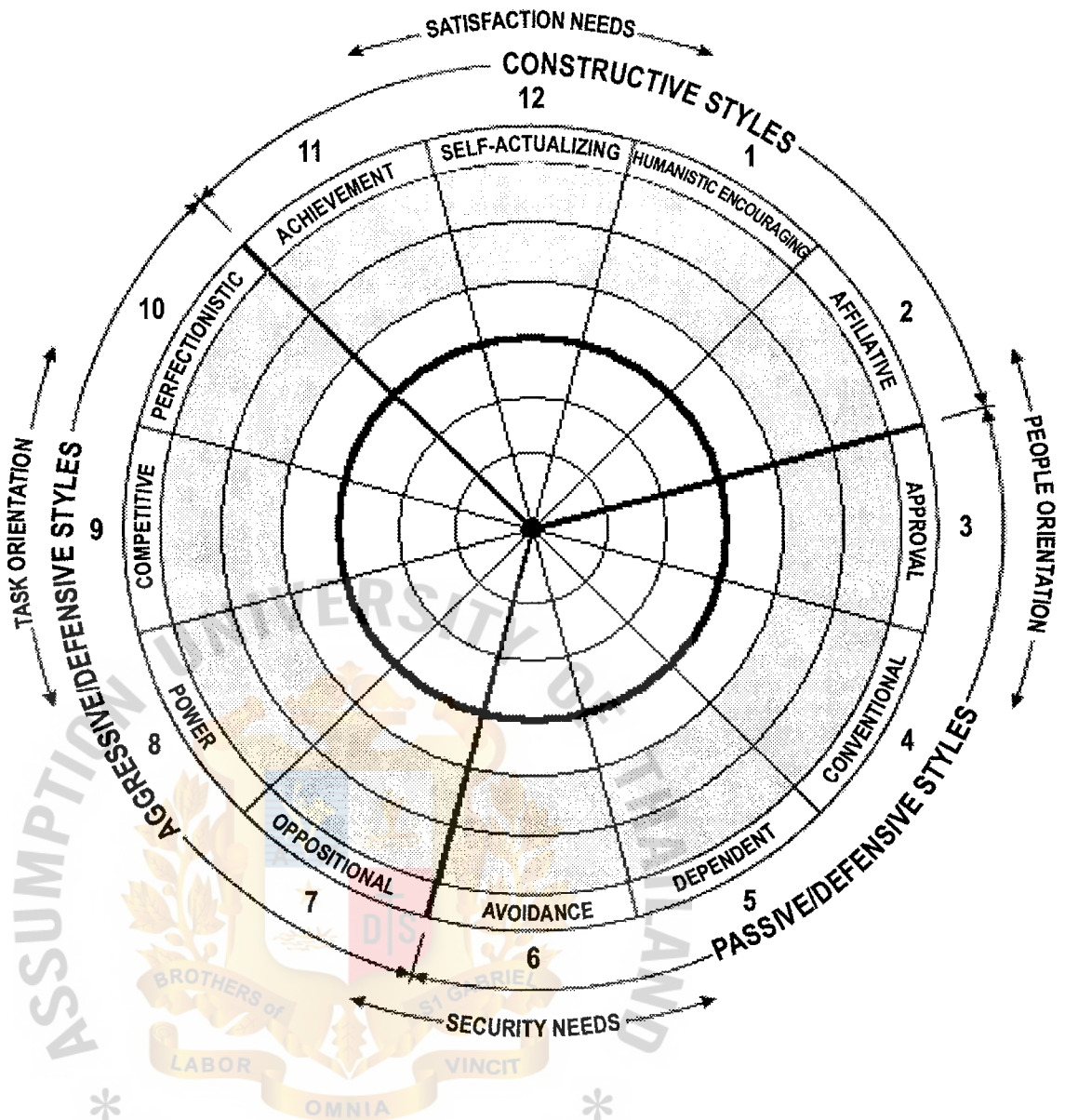


Figure 5. The OCI circumplex .

How Culture Works

Although the operating cultures of organizations have been viewed as a direct function of the assumptions and values shared by members and, in turn, as important determinants of individual and organizational performance, research with the OCI suggests a more complex picture of how culture really works, as depicted in Figure 5 (Cooke, 1987).

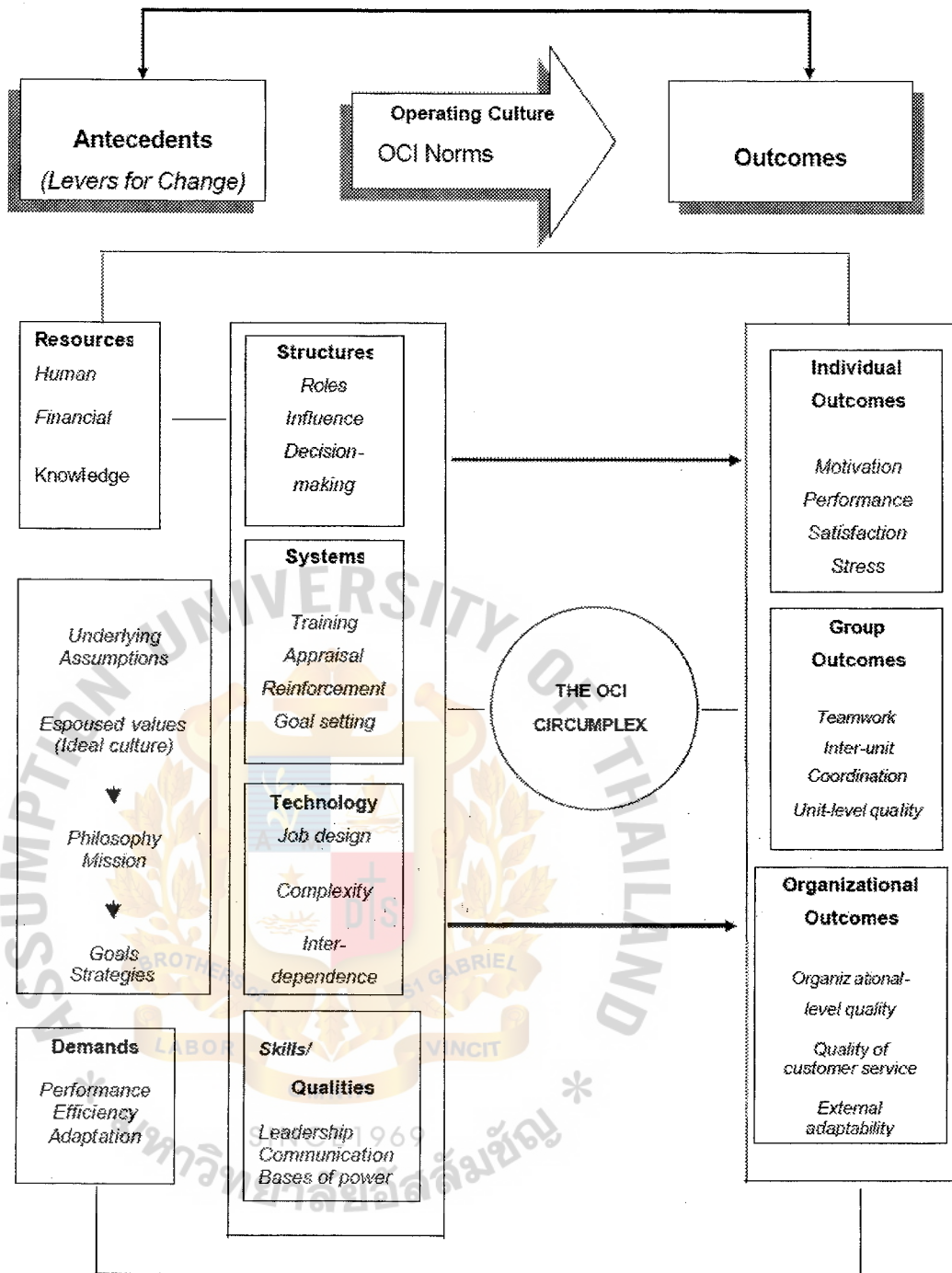


Figure 6. Theoretical model: how culture works.

First, the model proposes a disconnect between underlying assumptions and espoused values on the one hand and operating cultures in terms of behavioral norms and expectations on the other. This disconnect is due to the direct influence of structures, systems, technology, and skills/qualities – which do not necessarily reflect underlying

assumptions and values – on the operating cultures of organizations.

Secondly, the model proposes a relation between culture and outcomes consistent with, for example, the work of Kotter and Heskett (1992). Their description of the effects of adaptive versus non-adaptive cultures on organizational performance, problem solving, enthusiasm, and innovation suggests that Constructive (as opposed to Defensive) norms should lead to effectiveness. This model, however, shows that a number of other factors are causally related to outcomes – and these factors can suppress or counteract the effects of cultural norms.

Finally, the model displayed in Figure 6 proposes that organizational resources and environmental demands play an important role in explaining inconsistencies among values and philosophies, operating cultures, and organizational effectiveness. Resources and demands account for the misattribution often made when organizations with dysfunctional cultures appear to be successful. They also explain why attempts to overcome or bypass the negative effects of a Defensive culture (through the use of structures, systems, and technology to control members' behaviors directly) may appear to be effective – at least, temporarily, along certain criteria of effectiveness (Cook & Szumal, 2000).

Related Studies on Organizational Culture

In the past 20 years, organizational culture as a topic had been a focus of considerable research, which involves other variables not only within the organization but also out of the organization; for instance, customer satisfaction, organizational reputation, etcetera.

Schein (1992) described the relationship between leadership and culture with the

statement that culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin, in that leaders first create cultures when they create groups and organizations. Once cultures exist, they determine the criteria for leadership and thus determine who will or will not be a leader. This has been proven by previous studies, for example: the research by Eppard, (2004) examined how leadership indicates organizational culture. Eppard's findings included: 1) transformational leadership are positively and significantly correlated with Constructive culture and, therefore, transformational leadership could significantly predict a Constructive culture; however, 2) transactional leadership were positively and significantly correlated with Defensive Culture and, therefore, transactional leadership can predict a Defensive culture.

Organizational culture also has significant influence on employees' attitude and job satisfaction. Many previous researches revealed consistent results. According to Jiamwijak's (2002) study, the role oriented culture was significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction positively. Guerra, Martinez, Munduate, and Medina (2005) did a research and conclude that, in public organizations, the organizational culture of support orientation is positively related with workers' satisfaction compared to private organization which featured goal oriented organizational culture.

Organizational culture has been used to predict performance or effectiveness for different industry. For example, Clott and Fjortoft (1998) found that clan cultures were found to be more effective on the dimension that focus on individual and whose personnel, for example, feel that people are proud of their organization, the employees are rewarded for their good work, positive changes take place constantly, the well-being of organizational members is important, etcetera; hence, performance is higher. Fey and Denison (1998) did a similar research to test the relationship between organizational culture and effectiveness and proved the relationship. They found that organizational

culture encouraged involvement and adaptability, and are the strongest predictors of the organization's effectiveness.

Other studies on organizational culture, using the OCI, likewise used in the present study, revealed equally interesting findings. For example, Sandoval (2005) did a study in Army to explore how organizational culture influence decision making and suggested that organizational culture should be included among the factors that influence decision making. Results showed evidence that the sub-scale power of aggressive/defensive culture has a positive effect on successful decision making, this may reflect the particularity of the studied population; meanwhile, sub-scale achievement of constructive culture positively effect decision making. Lucas (2005) conducted a study to determine if transformational leadership behaviors predict a constructive organizational culture in manufacturing companies. Results showed that transformational leadership practices were predictive of and positively correlated with a constructive organizational culture. Management and non-management personnel were consistent in their perception of culture. Fang (2007) examined the relationships among organizational culture, organizational climate, and nurses' work outcomes. Results showed that a constructive organizational culture pattern had the strongest strength of relationship to satisfaction and low turnover. It was recommended that healthcare organizations should promote a constructive culture and a humanistic, productive climate to positively affect nurse job satisfaction and that attempts should be made to reduce organizational cultures that are aggressive/defensive or passive/defensive because of their negative relationship with nurse job satisfaction.

IT Workers

General Perspectives

Kahin and Wilson (1997) predicted that the current 'information revolution' would have a greater and qualitatively different impact than any previous phenomenon. Presently, information technologies (IT) have become more and more essential to produce goods and services in organizations; therefore, the role of IT workers has become correspondingly more critical in the development, acquisition, management, use, support, and maintenance of these information technologies and systems (Guzman, 2006).

Along with the broad use of Information Technology, virtual teams and online communication have become more and more common. However, the lack of media richness and the asynchronous nature of technologically transmitted messages make communication more difficult (Furumo, 2008). Beyond the illusion of perfected information technology lays a drama known only to those who work with the industry. Technological distresses include faulty information systems, interrupted networks, missing information, incorrect data, and ceaseless work. Information technology "wizards" are expected to work wonders in an environment of continuous, accelerating change, and to defeat or control the information system "dragon" (Chase, 2002). Meanwhile, it is observed that the annual turnover rates for Information Technology staff have traditionally exceeded other job classifications by ten to twenty percent during both boom and recession cycles (Scorce, 2008), which makes exploration on IT workers more critical.

Related Studies on IT Workers

Schulze, Han, and Fiedler (2008) found that IT specialists from China, Germany

and India prefer using integrating style to handle conflict with superior, subordinates, and peers. The similar preference of the integrative conflict handling style of Chinese, Germans, and Indians is primarily attributed to their similar working conditions and up to date scientific research and developmental work.

There have been researches on the impact of conflict management style in the new arena of Information Technology. For example, Furumo (2008) did a study which found that, in virtual teams with IT usage while communicating, the group using integrating conflict management style reported significantly higher levels of trust, group cohesion process, outcome satisfaction, and less relationship conflict than the group using avoiding conflict management style. The results of Souren, Seetharaman, Samarah, and Mykytyn (2004) suggested that collaborative conflict management style positively impacted satisfaction with the decision making process, perceived decision quality, and perceived participation of the teams.

Some studies involving IT workers examined certain aspects of their work in relation to organizational culture. For example, Guzman (2006) investigated the possible cultural clashes presented by students or recent graduates of IT-related majors with some type of pre-professional work experience in the socialization process. It was found that some differences did arise among different groups of students. Results showed that adaptation to occupational subculture predicts occupational commitment. A study by Lock (2002) attempted to determine what organizational cultural factors are needed to retain and recruit IT professionals in the British Columbia public service. Results from this study provided government with several key themes, the most prominent being that – all of the participants yearned to feel that their input and knowledge are valued. The evidence also suggested that IT workers want to feel as though they had made a difference to others.

CHAPTER III

Research Methodology

This chapter contains background information that serves to describe how the study was conducted. The background information is presented in the following sequence: research design; participants of the study; research instrumentation; data collection procedure; and data analysis.

Research Design

This quantitative research investigation is correlational-comparative in design. Firstly, the study is correlational as it sought to determine the statistical relationship between communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture. The design is also comparative as the study sought to compare organizational communication conflict management styles and perceived organizational culture between Chinese and Thai IT workers. The study is also cross-sectional as it required the categorization of the participants' demographic characteristics which were derived from a survey questionnaire completed at one point in time.

Participants of the Study

The participants of this study were Chinese and Thai IT workers who responded to a web-based survey questionnaire made available in China and Thailand, respectively. Participants included females and males who were currently working in international companies. The final number of participants was 314 IT workers which consisted of 173 Chinese IT workers in China and 141 Thai IT workers in Thailand.

The present researcher used a combination of convenience sampling and snowball technique to develop the sample of IT workers from China and Thailand. The researcher was identified as the central node of the snowball sampling strategy. The author's personal network included IT workers known through past academic peers, past employers and clients, and present educational peers. To be a participant, one must be: Chinese or Thai national, IT-based worker, full-time employee, able to read and write in English, and willing to participate in the study.

Research Instrumentation

The research instrument was a self-administered English survey questionnaire in three parts, namely, Personal Data Questionnaire, the Organization Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI), and the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI). The full survey questionnaire can be viewed in the Appendices section. A detailed description of each part of the questionnaire is presented in the following section.

Part I. Personal Data Questionnaire

This researcher-constructed part of the questionnaire was intended to obtain the required personal information of the respondents. The questions consisted of items directed toward seven categorized demographic variables, namely: gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, and size of company. Nationality and geographical work location were added only as 'control' questions to ensure that the Chinese participants were working in China and that the Thai participants were working in Thailand.

Part II. Organization Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI)

The OCCI was developed by Putnam and Wilson (1982) to assess choices about strategies in the management of conflict across organizational contexts. This form contains 30 items with a 7-point Likert scale (1=Never; 2=Very seldom; 3=Seldom; 4=Sometimes; 5=Often; 6=Very often; 7=Always) to measure individual conflict management styles.

The subscales and the item numbers are as follows: (1) *Nonconfrontation strategy* includes items: 2, 5, 7, 12, 14, 15, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, and 29; (2) *Solution-oriented strategy* is divided into two sub-scale factors: Confrontation includes items: 1, 4, 8, 11, 19, and 20 and Compromise includes items: 6, 9, 13, 16, and 21; and (3) *Control strategy* includes items: 3, 10, 17, 18, 22, 26, and 30.

Total scores were obtained by summing across the items for each particular strategy. Because 7 represents 'Always' and 1 represents 'Never,' high scores represent most frequent use.

Initial examinations of the reliability of the OCCI are quite positive. The instrument progenitors reported alpha coefficients ranging from .70 to .93 for the subscales. Most coefficients were above .80, which is very favorable.

Part III. Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI)

The original Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was developed by Cooke and Lafferty (1983). The present study utilized a shorter version of the original instrument, which was first used and tested by Sirisakdiporn (2005). This present instrument consists of 24 items, with a 7-point Likert Scale (1=Strongly disagree;

2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat disagree; 4=Neither agree nor disagree; 5=Somewhat agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly agree) to measure the corresponding organizational cultures which include three scales: constructive; passive-defensive; and aggressive-defensive.

There are 8 items respectively for each of the scale as following: (1) *Constructive* includes items: 31, 34, 37, 40, 43, 46, 49, and 52; (2) *Passive-defensive* includes items: 32, 35, 38, 41, 44, 47, 50, and 53; and (3) *Aggressive-defensive* includes items: 33, 36, 39, 42, 45, 48, 51, and 54.

Total scores were obtained by summing across the items for each particular strategy. Because 1 represents 'Strongly disagree' and 7 represents 'Strongly agree,' high scores represent the organizational culture type.

Sirisakdiporn (2005) administrated a pilot test and obtained positive reliability results: 0.707 for constructive, 0.750 for passive-defense, 0.828 for active-defensive. Sekaran (2001, as cited in Sirisakdiporn, 2005) claimed that reliabilities of less than 0.60 are generally considered to be poor, those in the 0.70 range, to be acceptable, and those over 0.80 to be good. The reliability values in this research were greater than 0.70; hence, the questionnaire used to measure perceived organizational culture in this study was considered as having acceptable levels of internal consistency.

The researcher retained the original English version of the questionnaire for both Chinese and Thai IT workers, as it was assumed that workers in international organizations use English as their medium of written and spoken communication.

Data Collection Procedure

For the purposes of this investigation, a web-based survey questionnaire in

English (see Appendices) was developed and used to measure the variables necessary to achieve the objectives of this study. The basic steps of data collection were as follows:

1. The survey questionnaire was posted online with database support that collected the raw data provided by participants. The researcher was able to access the database with authorized username and password to check or copy the data at any time.
2. A pretest was conducted on 30 participants to test the reliability of the English questionnaire and to check if there were any problems with regard to the respondents' comprehension of the directions and question items, considering that the prospective respondents were non-English native speakers. The pretest data were subjected to a reliability test to obtain Cronbach's alpha values. Results indicated that the reliability value of the OCCI was 0.742 and the reliability value of OCI was 0.806. These values indicated that the measures were reliable and that the researcher could proceed with the study. Furthermore, there were no indications of complaints/problems encountered by pretest participants.
3. The researcher then requested the pretest respondents to invite additional Chinese and Thai IT workers in China and Thailand, respectively, to participate in the survey. An e-mail message was issued, with a link to the web survey, inviting 300 or more IT workers to participate in the survey during a two-month period. Prior to completing the survey themselves, participants were encouraged to forward the e-mail message to others who fit the inclusion criteria. Participants were assured that all responses will be treated with strict confidentiality.

Data Analysis

In this research, various statistical methods were used to analyze the collected data, mainly through the Minitab Statistics Software, version 13.2. All the relevant demographic information were encoded appropriately for analysis. The data were statistically analyzed with various statistical tools and methods. More details on data analysis are presented herewith.

1. The demographic data were analyzed with frequency and percentage distribution. Responses to the questions on organizational culture and communication conflict management style were assessed through the Mean, Standard Deviation, and Rank methods.
2. The *t*-test was used to determine the degree of significant differences between two group means of samples in this study. The *t*-test was employed to examine the significant differences between communication conflict management style and (a) gender; and (b) position level.
3. One-way ANOVA was used to examine any significant differences in the respondents' communication conflict management style as a function of the selected demographic variables with more than two categories, namely, age, education level, type of work, years in current organization, and size of company.
4. Multiple regression was used to determine the significant relationship between communication conflict management style and organizational culture.

CHAPTER IV

Results

This chapter reports the findings and analyses obtained from respondents' data derived from the survey questionnaire in order to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses indicated in the first chapter. It begins with the analysis of the demographic profile of the respondents. An analysis of the participants' responses relative to the two standardized instruments (the OCCI and OCI) makes up the second section of this chapter. The third section involves the testing of the study's research hypotheses. This chapter ends with the summary of findings.

Section 1. Demographic Profile

Descriptive statistical methods were used to analyze the demographic data, in the form of frequency and percentage distributions. These were accompanied by corresponding bar charts. The demographic variables used in the study were gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, and size of company. As earlier indicated, nationality and geographical work location were added only as 'control' questions to ensure that the valid participants were only Chinese and Thai, and that the Chinese participants were working in China and that the Thai participants were working in Thailand.

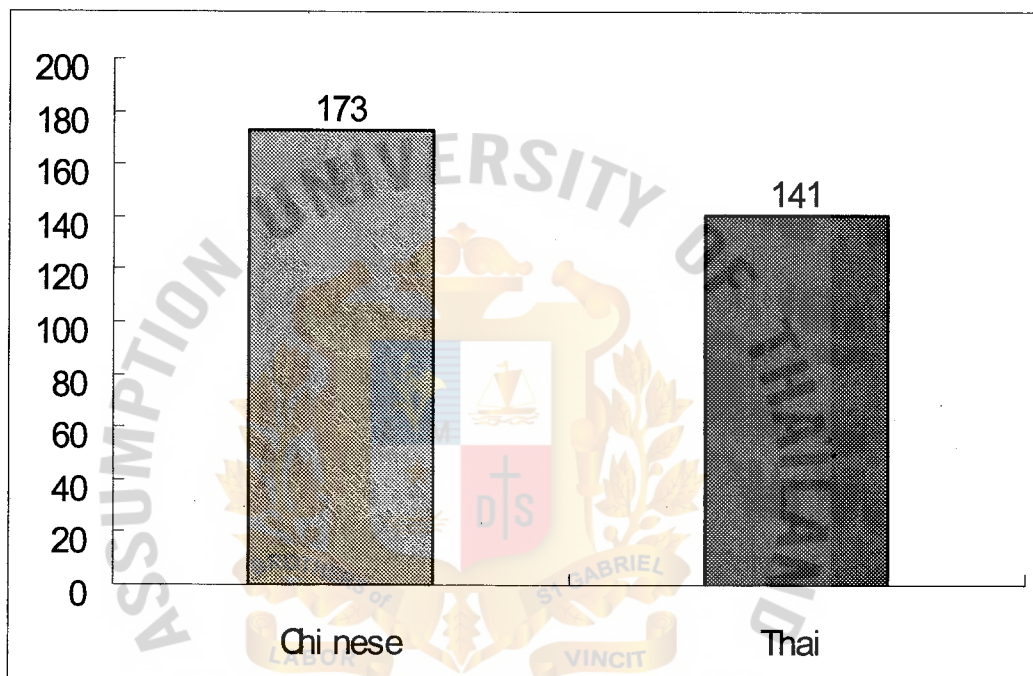
Nationality

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' nationality are shown in Table 1 and Figure 7. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 173 or 55 % Chinese respondents, and 141 or 45% Thai respondents.

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Nationality

Nationality	Frequency	Percentage
Chinese	173	55.1
Thai	141	44.9
Total	314	100

*Figure 7. Frequency and percentage distribution of nationality.**Gender*

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' gender are shown in Table 2 and Figure 8. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 81 female respondents or 46.8 %, and 92 male respondents or 53.2%. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there were 57 female respondents or 40.4 %, and 84 male respondents or 59.6%. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 138 female respondents or 43.9 %, and 176

or 56.1% male respondents.

Table 2
Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Gender

Gender	Chinese		Thai		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Female	81	46.8	57	40.4	138	43.9
Male	92	53.2	84	59.6	176	56.1
Total	173	100	141	100	314	100.0

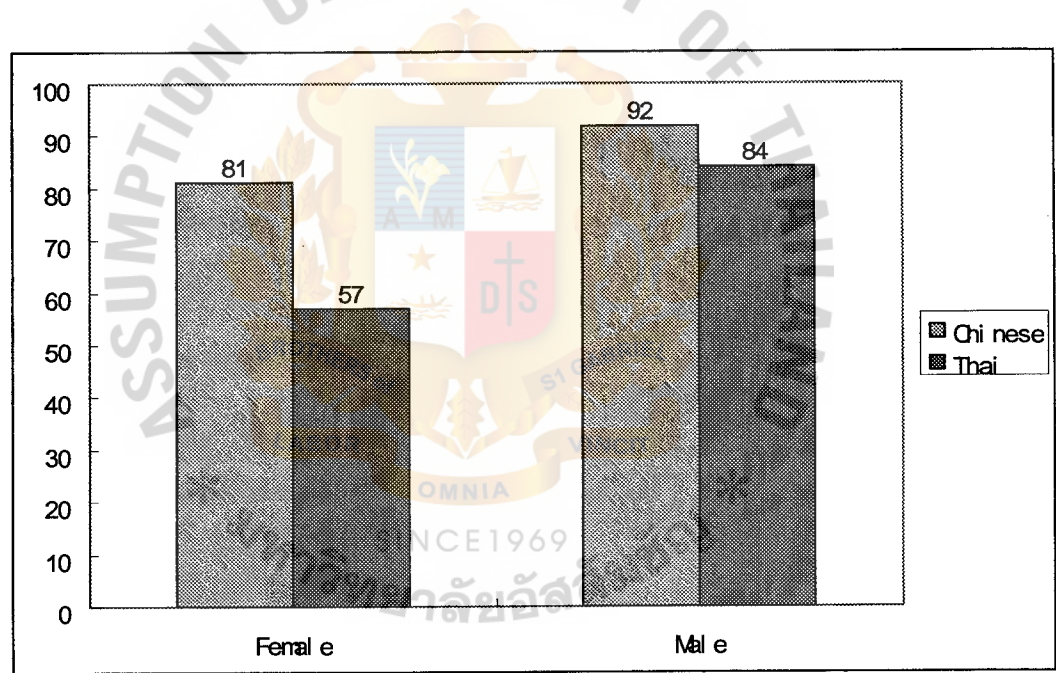


Figure 8. Frequency and percentage distribution of gender.

Age

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' age are shown in Table 3 and Figure 9. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 0 respondent at age of less than 22, 88 respondents or 50.9% at age of 22 to 28

years old, 63 respondents or 36.4% at age of 29 to 35 years old, and 22 respondents or 12.7% at age of beyond 36 years old. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there was 0 respondent at age of less than 22, 85 respondents or 60.3% at age of 22 to 28 years old, 41 respondents or 29.1% at age of 29 to 35 years old, and 15 respondents or 10.6% at age of beyond 36 years old. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there was 0 respondent at age of less than 22, there were 173 respondents or 55.1% at age of 22 to 28 years old, 104 respondents or 33.1% at age of 29 to 35 years old, 37 respondents or 11.8% at age of 36 years old and above.

Table 3

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Age

Age	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 22	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0.0
22 to 28 yrs	88	50.9	85	60.3	173	55.1
29 to 35 yrs	63	36.4	41	29.1	104	33.1
36 and above	22	12.7	15	10.6	37	11.8
Total	173	100.0	141	100.0	314	100.0

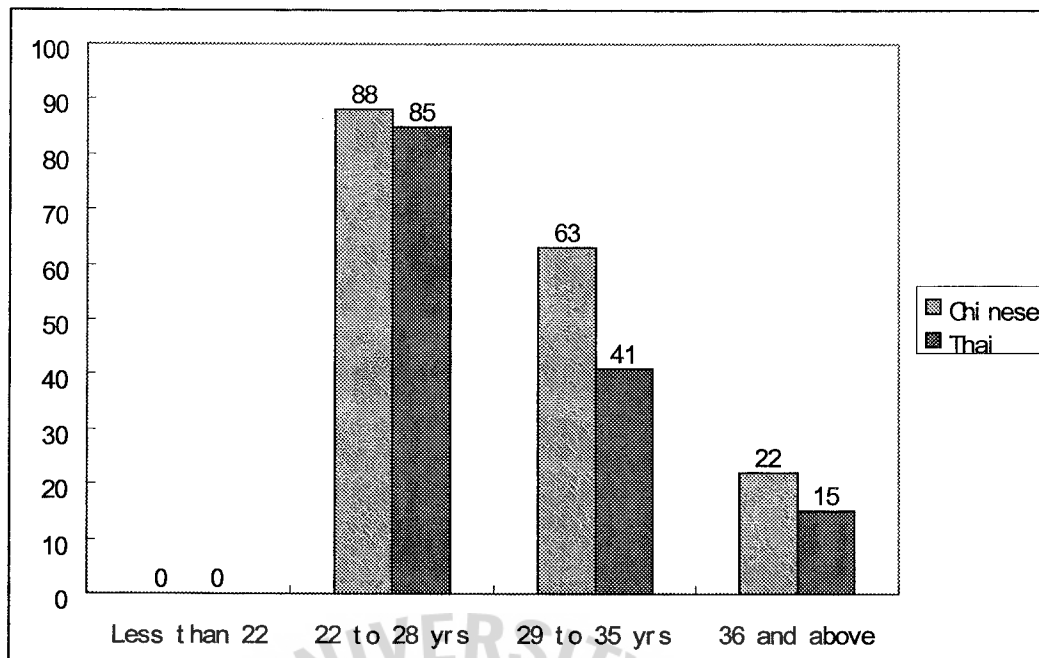


Figure 9. Frequency and percentage distribution of age.

Education Level

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' education level are shown in the following Table 4 and Figure 10. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 0 respondent with lower than Bachelor Degree, 128 respondents or 74.0% with Bachelor degree, 45 respondents or 26% with Master degree and higher. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there was 0 respondent with lower than Bachelor degree, 102 respondents or 72.3% with Bachelor degree, 39 respondents or 27.7% with Master degree and higher. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there was 0 respondent with lower than Bachelor degree, 230 respondents or 72.3% with Bachelor degree, and 84 respondents or 27.7% with Master degree and higher.

Table 4

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Education Level

Education Level	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Lower than Bachelor Degree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Bachelor Degree	128	74.0	102	72.3	230	72.3
Master Degree and higher	45	26.0	39	27.7	84	27.7
Total	173	100.0	141	100.0	314	100.0

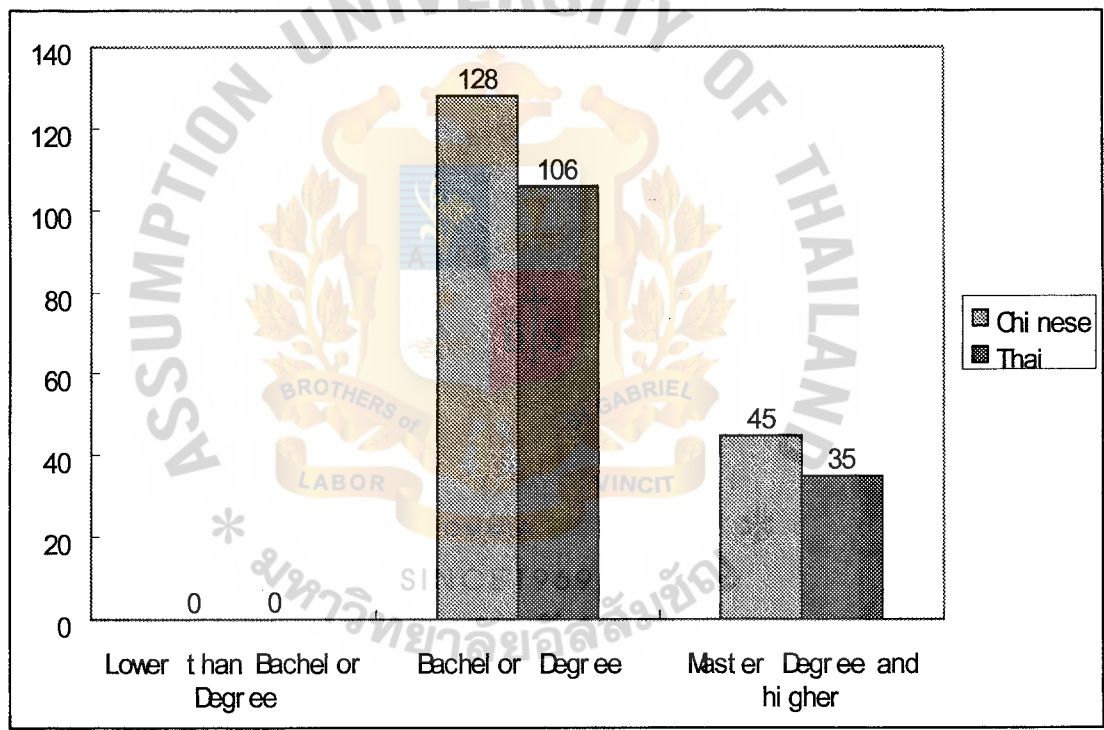


Figure 10. Frequency and percentage distribution of education level.

Type of Work

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' type of work are shown in Table 5 and Figure 11. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 28 respondent or 16.2% in Administration, 31 respondents or 17.9%

Table 4

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Education Level

Education Level	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Lower than Bachelor Degree	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Bachelor Degree	128	74.0	102	72.3	230	72.3
Master Degree and higher	45	26.0	39	27.7	84	27.7
Total	173	100.0	141	100.0	314	100.0

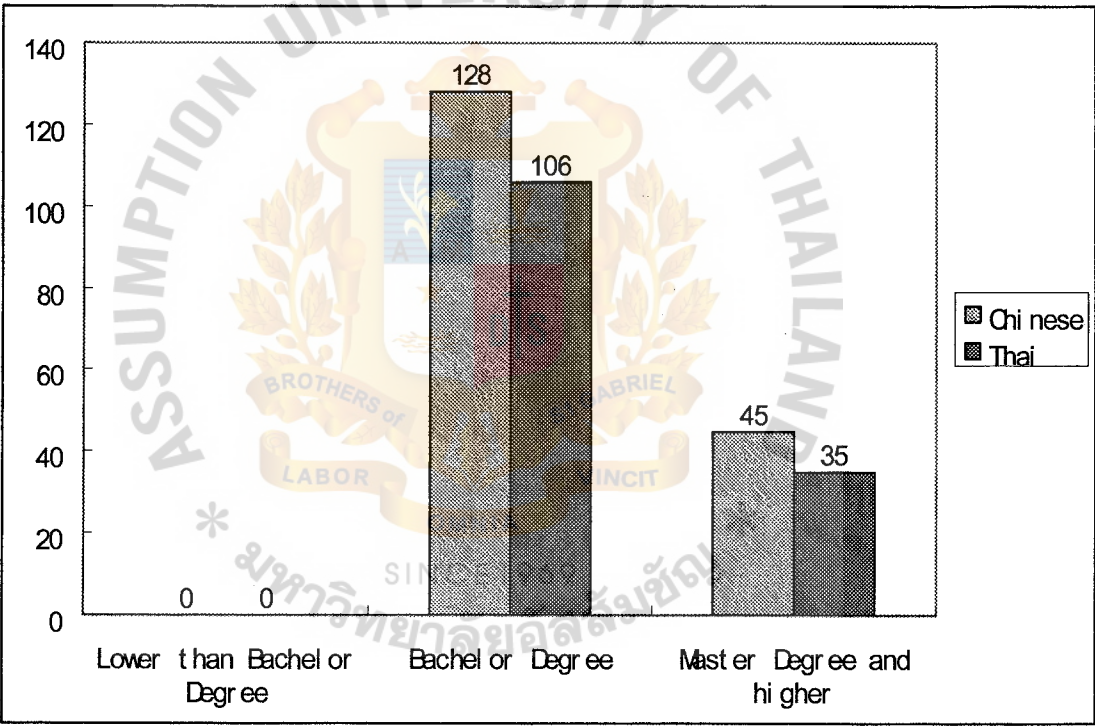


Figure 10. Frequency and percentage distribution of education level.

Type of Work

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' type of work are shown in Table 5 and Figure 11. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 28 respondent or 16.2% in Administration, 31 respondents or 17.9%

in Sales, 54 respondents or 31.2% in Technical Support, 38 respondents or 22% in Programming, and 22 respondents or 12.7% in others. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there were 30 respondent or 21.3% in Administration, 28 respondents or 19.9% in Sales, 33 respondents or 23.4% in Technical Support, 33 respondents or 23.4% in Programming, and 17 respondents or 12.1% in others. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 58 respondents or 18.5% in administration, 59 respondents or 18.8% in sales, 87 respondents or 27.7% in technical support, 71 respondents or 22.6% in programming, 39 respondents or 12.4% in other areas.

Table 5

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Type of Work

Type of work	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Administration	28	16.2	30	21.3	58	18.5
Sales	31	17.9	28	19.9	59	18.8
Technical Support	54	31.2	33	23.4	87	27.7
Programming	38	22.0	33	23.4	71	22.6
Others	22	12.7	17	12.1	39	12.4
Total	173	100	141	100	314	100

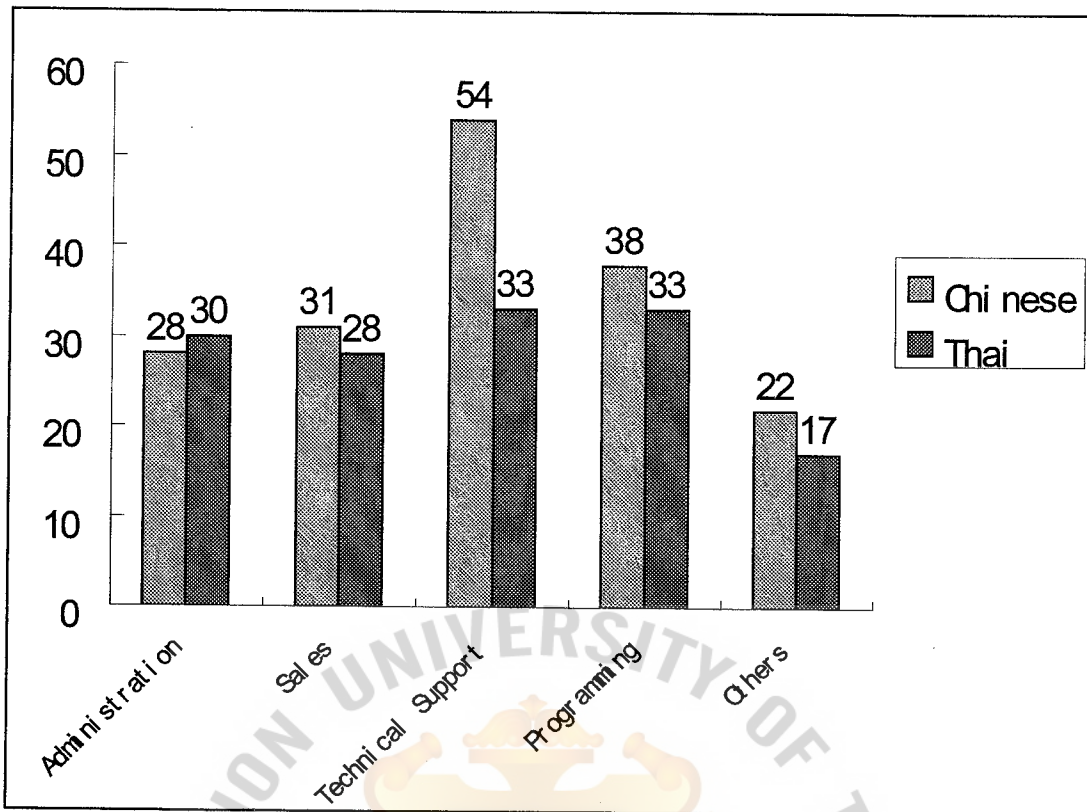


Figure 11. Frequency and percentage distribution of type of work.

Position Level

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' position level are shown in Table 6 and Figure 12. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 57 respondents or 32.9% at managerial level, 116 respondents or 67.1% at non-managerial level. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there were 51 respondents or 36.2% at managerial level, 90 respondents or 63.8% at non-managerial level. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 108 respondents or 34.4% in managerial level, 206 respondents or 65.6% in non-managerial level.

Table 6

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Position Level

Position Level	Chinese		Thai		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Managerial	57	32.9	51	36.2	108	34.4
Non-managerial	116	67.1	90	63.8	206	65.6
Total	173	100	141	100	314	100

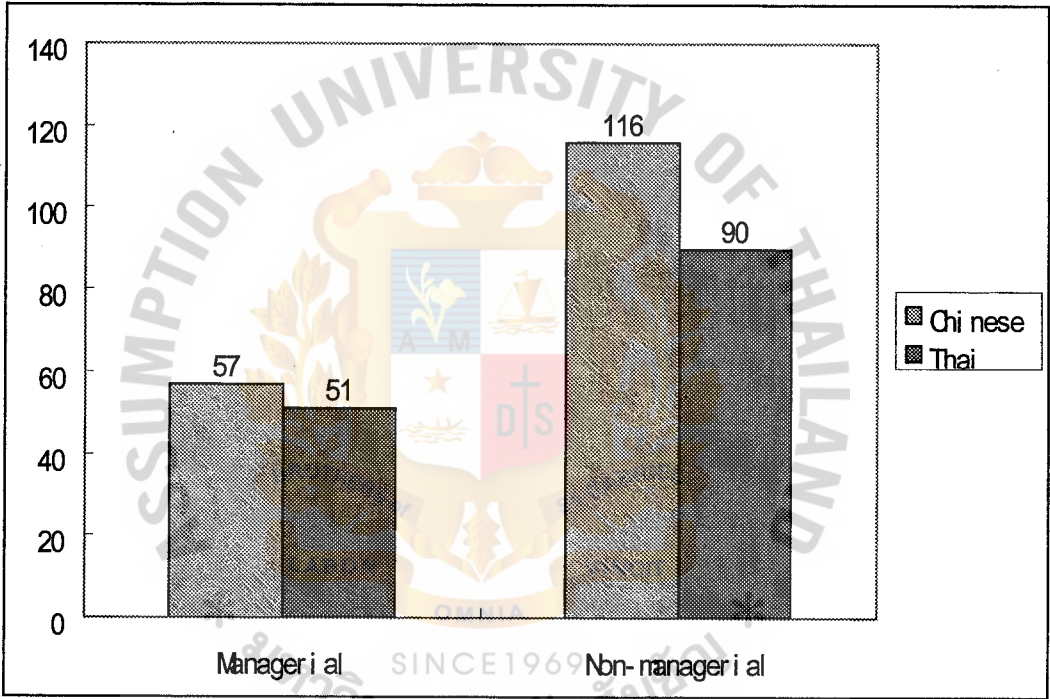


Figure 12. Frequency and percentage distribution of position level.

Years in Current Organization

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' years in current organization are shown in the following Table 7 and Figure 13. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 18 respondent or 10.4% less than 1 year, 56 respondents or 32.4% between 1 to 2 years, 79 respondents or 45.7% between

3 to 5 years, and 20 respondents or 11.6% above 5 years. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there were 19 respondent or 13.5% less than 1 year, 53 respondents or 37.6% between 1 to 2 years, 57 respondents or 40.4% between 3 to 5 years, and 12 respondents or 8.5% above 5 years. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 37 respondents or 11.8% less than 1 year in current organization, 109 respondents or 34.7 between 1 to 2 years in current organization, 136 respondents or 43.3 between 3 to 5 years in current organization, 32 respondents or 10.2% with 5 years and above in current organization.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Years in Current Organization

Years in Current Organization	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 yr	18	10.4	19	13.5	37	11.8
1 to 2 yrs	56	32.4	53	37.6	109	34.7
3 to 5 yrs	79	45.7	57	40.4	136	43.3
5 yrs and above	20	11.6	12	8.5	32	10.2
Total	173	100	141	100	314	100

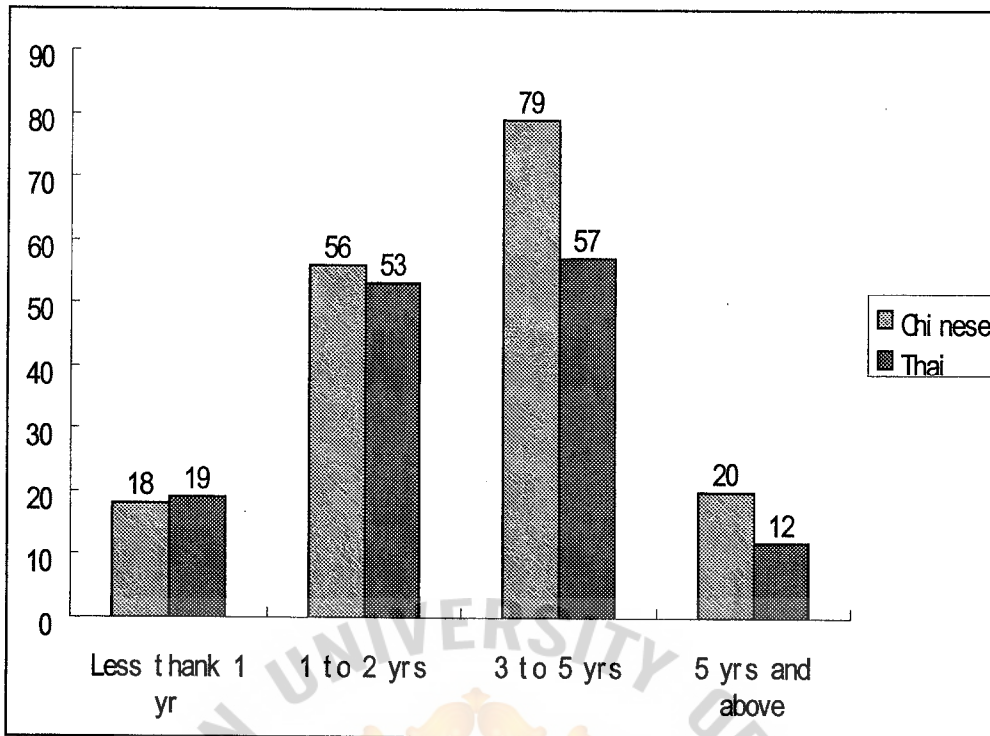


Figure 13. Frequency and percentage distribution of years in current organization.

Size of Company

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents' size of company are shown in the following Table 8 and Figure 14. The total number of Chinese respondents was 173, of which there were 33 respondent or 19.1% in small company, 63 respondents or 36.4% in middle company, 77 respondents or 44.5% in large company. The total number of Thai respondents was 141, of which there were 29 respondents or 20.6% in small company, 44 respondents or 31.2% in middle company, 68 respondents or 48.2% in large company. The total number of respondents was 314, of which there were 62 respondents or 19.7% in small company, 107 respondents or 34.1% in medium size company, 145 respondents or 46.2% in large company.

Table 8

Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Size of Company

Type of Company	Chinese		Thais		Total	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Small	33	19.1	29	20.6	62	19.7
Medium	63	36.4	44	31.2	107	34.1
Large	77	44.5	68	48.2	145	46.2
Total	173	100	141	100	314	100

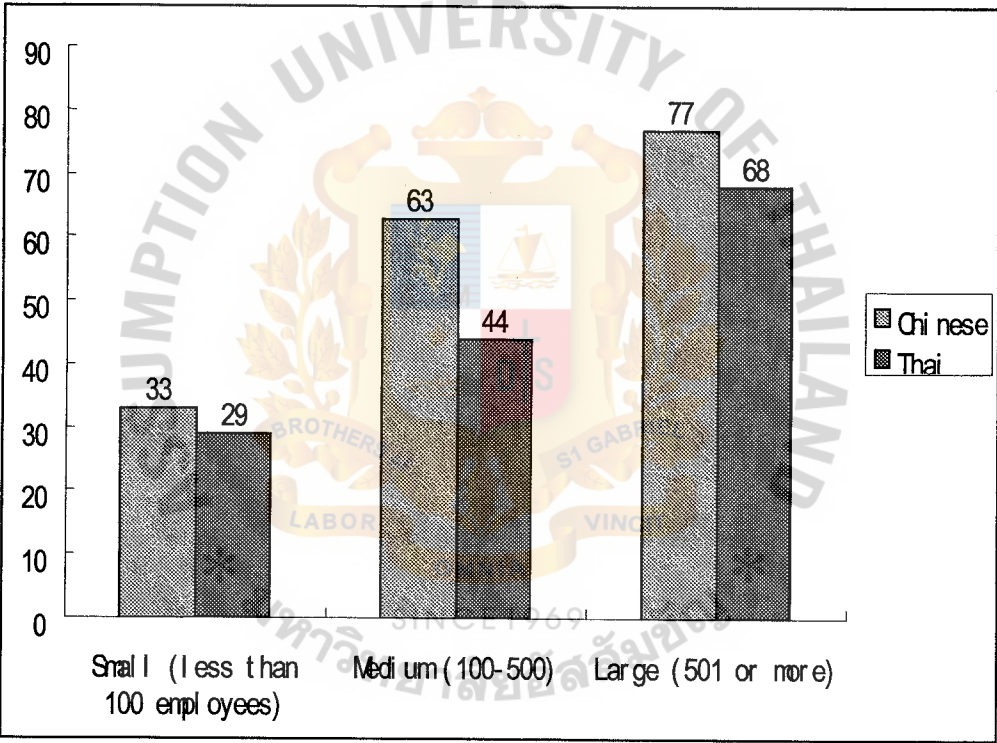


Figure 14. Frequency and percentage distribution of size of company.

Section 2. Participants' Responses to the OCCI and OCI Instruments

In this part, the reliability of each instrument was examined, followed by the normality test for each sub-factor of the two instruments (the OCCI and the OCI). The descriptive information of communication conflict management style and organizational culture were presented and interpreted with regard to Chinese and Thai participants.

Reliability of the Instruments

The reliability of the Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI) and Organizational Culture Instrument (OCI) were examined separately. Both instruments were tested with good reliability in this research: based on 314 samples, Cronbach's alpha for the OCCI was 0.74; and Cronbach's alpha for the OCI was 0.81.

Normality Testing

Normality testing was conducted for the usage of parametric or nonparametric tests in this research. If the p -values of variables shown in Anderson-Darling tests was less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), normality cannot be assumed; therefore, nonparametric test was conducted. If the p -value of the Anderson-Darling test was greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), then normality can be assumed; therefore, parametric test was employed.

Table 9

Normality Testing

Instruments		Chinese		Thai	
		P-Value	Normality	P-Value	Normality
OCCI	Nonconfrontation	0.945	True	0.436	True
	Solution-orientation	0.124	True	0.173	True
	Control	0.097	True	0.129	True
OCI	Constructive	0.050	True	0.061	True
	Passive-defensive	0.093	True	0.106	True
	Aggressive-defensive	0.070	True	0.220	True

As table 9 shows, all the *p*-values were equal or greater than 0.05; therefore, normality distribution could be assumed for all the sub-factors of the two instruments for both samples. Hence, parametric tests were used.

Communication Conflict Management Styles

Chinese.

The result of communication conflict management style among Chinese IT workers was summarized in Table 10, which provided the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum score, and the percentiles.

Table 10

Conflict Management Style among Chinese IT Workers

OCCI	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum	Q1	Q2	Q3
Nonconfrontation	173	42.405	8.776	14.000	62.000	36	43	49
Solution-orientation	173	50.561	6.509	33.000	64.000	46.5	51	55.5
Control	173	27.538	5.775	13.000	40.000	23	28	32

As the table indicates, the 173 Chinese respondents answered the questionnaire producing a mean for nonconfrontation that was 42.405 with a standard deviation of 8.776; the minimum score was 14.000 and the maximum score was 62.000; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 36 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 43 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 49 and below. The mean for solution-orientation is 50.561 with the standard deviation of 6.509; the minimum score was 33.000 and the maximum score was 64; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 46.5 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 51 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 55.5 and below. The minimum mean for control is 27.538 with the standard deviation of 5.775, twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 23 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 28 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 32 and below.

Table 11

Item Analysis of Conflict Management Style among Chinese IT Workers

OCCI	Medium Value	Item	Mean	Average
Nonconfrontation	4	12	42.405	3.534
Solution-orientation	4	11	50.561	4.596
Control	4	7	27.538	3.934

As described in Chapter III, there were 12 items for nonconfrontation with scale from 1 to 7. As seen in Table 11, the medium value was 4, the mean of nonconfrontation was 42.405, the average score per item was 3.534, which was less than medium value; for solution-orientation, mean was 50.561, average score per item was 4.596, which was higher than the medium value; mean for control was 27.538, average score per item was 3.934, which was slightly less than medium value. The dominant conflict

management style of Chinese IT workers was solution-orientation, and followed by control, then nonconfrontation.

Thai.

The result of communication conflict management style among Thai IT workers is summarized in Table 12. As the table indicates, the mean for nonconfrontation was 44.943, mean for solution-orientation was 49.596, mean for control was 25.333.

Table 12

Conflict Management Style among Thai IT Workers

OCCI	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum	Q1	Q2	Q3
Nonconfrontation	141	44.943	8.251	23.000	63.000	40	45	51
Solution-orientation	141	49.596	6.250	33.000	63.000	45	50	55
Control	141	25.333	5.409	13.000	37.000	22	26	29

As depicted in the above table, the 141 Thai respondents answered the questionnaire producing a mean for nonconfrontation was 44.943 with a standard deviation of 8.251; the minimum score was 23.000 and the maximum score was 63.000; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 40 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 45 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 51 and below. The mean for solution-orientation is 49.596 with the standard deviation of 6.250; the minimum score was 33.000 and the maximum score was 63; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 45 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 50 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 55 and below. The mean for control was 25.333 with the standard deviation of 5.409, twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 22 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 26 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 32 and

below.

Table 13

Item Analysis of Conflict Management Style among Thai IT Workers

OCCI	Medium Value	Item	Mean	Average
Nonconfrontation	4	12	44.943	3.745
Solution-orientation	4	11	49.596	4.509
Control	4	7	25.333	3.619

There were 12 items for nonconfrontation with scale from 1 to 7, the medium value was 4, the mean of nonconfrontation was 44.943, as Table 13 indicates. The average score per item was 3.745, which was less than medium value; for solution-orientation, mean was 49.596, average score per item was 4.509, which was higher than the medium value; mean for control was 25.333, average score per item was 3.619, which was slightly less than medium value. The dominant conflict management style of Thai IT workers was solution-orientation, and followed by nonconfrontation, then control.

Perceived Organizational Culture

Chinese.

The result of organizational culture as perceived by Chinese IT workers is summarized in Table 14.

Table 14

Perception of Chinese IT Workers on Organizational Culture

OCI	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum	Q1	Q2	Q3
Constructive	173	40.613	6.623	25.000	55.000	36	41	46
Passive-Defensive	173	36.792	6.054	21.000	49.000	33	37	41
Aggressive-Defensive	173	34.410	5.427	23.000	47.000	30	34	38.5

As Table above indicates, the 173 Chinese respondents answered the questionnaire producing a mean for constructive organizational culture which was 40.613 with a standard deviation of 6.623; the minimum score was 25.000 and the maximum score was 55.000; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 36 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 41 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 46 and below. The mean for passive-defensive is 36.792 with the standard deviation of 6.054; the minimum score was 21.000 and the maximum score was 49; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 31 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 37 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 41 and below. The mean for aggressive-defensive is 30 with the standard deviation of 5.427, twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 30 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 34 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 38.5 and below.

Table 15

Item Analysis of Conflict Management Style among Chinese IT Workers

OCI	Medium Value	Item Mean	Average
Constructive	4	8 40.613	5.077
Passive-Defensive	4	8 36.792	4.599
Aggressive-Defensive	4	8 34.410	4.30125

As described in Chapter III, there were 8 items for each factor with scale from 1 to 7, the medium value was 4, the mean of constructive was 40.613, and as shown in Table 15, the average score per item was 5.077, which was much more than medium value; for passive-defensive organizational culture, the mean was 36.792, average score per item was 4.599, which was higher than the medium value; mean for aggressive-defensive was 34.410, average score per item was 4.30125, which was slightly higher than medium value. The dominant organizational culture perceived by Chinese IT workers was constructive organizational culture, followed by passive-defensive organizational culture, and then aggressive-defensive organizational culture.

Thai.

The result of organizational culture perceived by Thai IT workers is summarized in Table 16 below.

Table 16

Perception of Thai IT Workers on Organizational Culture

OCI	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum	Q1	Q2	Q3
Constructive	141	40.809	6.895	24.000	55.000	37	41	46
Passive-Defensive	141	39.908	7.203	25.000	56.000	34	40	45
Aggressive-Defensive	141	31.113	6.210	17.000	44.000	27	32	35.5

It can be seen from Table 16 that the 141 Thai respondents answered the questionnaire producing a mean for constructive organizational culture was 40.809 with a standard deviation of 6.895; the minimum score was 24.000 and the maximum score was 55.000; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 37 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 41 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 46 and below. The mean for passive-defensive is 39.908 with the standard

deviation of 7.203; the minimum score was 25.000 and the maximum score was 56; twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 34 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 40 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 45 and below. The mean for aggressive-defensive is 31.113 with the standard deviation of 6.210, twenty five percent of the sample yielded a score of 27 and below, half of the sample yielded a score of 32 and below, seventy five percent of the sample yielded a score of 35.5 and below.

Table 17
Item Analysis of Conflict Management Style among Chinese IT Workers

OCI	Medium Value	Item	Mean	Average
Constructive	4	8	40.809	5.101
Passive-Defensive	4	8	39.908	4.989
Aggressive-Defensive	4	8	31.113	3.889

As described in Chapter III, there were 8 items for each factor with scale from 1 to 7, the medium value was 4; the mean of constructive was 40.809, as Table 10 indicates, the average score per item was 5.101, which was much more than medium value; for passive-defensive organizational culture, the mean was 39.908, average score per item was 4.989, which was higher than the medium value; mean for aggressive-defensive was 31.113, average score per item was 3.889, which was slightly less than medium value. The dominant organizational culture perceived by Thai IT workers was constructive organizational culture, followed by passive-defensive organizational culture, and finally by aggressive-defensive organizational culture.

Section 3. Hypothesis Testing

H1o: *There are no significant differences between the cultures in communication conflict management style.*

In this section, the differences across the three conflict management styles between Chinese and Thais were examined. The general statistics information including mean, standard deviation as well as minimum and maximum are listed in the following table.

Table 18

Conflict Management Style by Chinese and Thai

	Variable	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Chinese	Nonconfrontation	173	42.405	8.776	14.000	62.000
	Solution-orientation	173	50.561	6.509	33.000	64.000
	Control	173	27.538	5.775	13.000	40.000
Thais	Nonconfrontation	141	44.943	8.251	23.000	63.000
	Solution-orientation	141	49.596	6.250	33.000	63.000
	Control	141	25.333	5.409	13.000	37.000

As Table 18 above shows, the mean for Chinese in Nonconfrontation was less than that of Thais; therefore, Chinese in Nonconfrontation “Less than” Thais was tested in *t*-test. The mean for Chinese in Solution-orientation was great than that of Thais; therefore, Chinese in Solution-orientation “greater than” Thais was tested. The mean for Chinese in Control was greater than Thais’; therefore, Chinese in Control “greater than” Thais was tested. The three *t*-tests were conducted accordingly and listed in the next table.

Table 19

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Nationality

Variable	Nationality	N	Mean	StDev	Value	P(one-tailed)
Nonconfrontation	Chinese	173	42.40	8.776	- 0.264	0.004*
	Thai	141	44.94	8.251		
Solution-orientation	Chinese	173	50.56	6.509	1.34	0.091
	Thai	141	49.60	6.250		
Control	Chinese	173	27.54	5.775	3.48	0.000*
	Thai	141	25.33	5.409		

The table above clearly shows that the p -value for nonconfrontation is less than 0.05 ($p=0.004<.05$); thus, the null hypothesis is rejected. Chinese IT workers use nonconfrontation conflict style significantly less than Thai IT workers. Table 19 also clearly indicates that the p -value for solution-orientation is more than 0.05 ($p=0.091>.05$); hence, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Therefore, there is no significant difference in the use of solution-orientation conflict style between Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers. The p -value for control is less than 0.05 ($p=0.000<.05$); thus the null hypothesis is rejected. Chinese IT workers use control conflict style significantly more than Thai IT workers.

H2o: *There is no significant relationship between demographic variables and communication conflict management style.*

For this hypothesis, One-way ANOVA and *t*-test were used to test if there were relationships between demographic variables and conflict management style. Demographic variables in this research included gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, size of company.

There were two independent parts in this section by nationality: Chinese and Thais. The two samples were tested and described separately.

Gender – Chinese.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of gender are presented in the following segment. In the subsequent tables, gender was represented by 1 and 2; that is, 1 for females and 2 for males, respectively.

Table 20

Conflict Management Style by Gender among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	81	43.889	8.863	24.000	62.000
	2	92	41.098	8.533	14.000	61.000
Solution-Orientation	1	81	50.259	6.789	33.000	62.000
	2	92	50.826	6.277	34.000	64.000
Control	1	81	26.407	6.006	13.000	38.000
	2	92	28.533	5.403	14.000	40.000

As the table above shows, the mean for females in nonconfrontation was greater than that of males; therefore, female “greater than” male in nonconfrontation was tested. The mean for females in solution-orientation was less than the mean for males; therefore, female “less than” male in solution-orientation was tested. The mean for females in control was less than that of males; therefore, female “less than” male in

control was tested. The three *t*-tests were conducted separately and listed in the next table.

Table 21

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Gender among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	StDev	Value	P(one-tailed)
Nonconfrontation	1	81	43.889	8.863	2.10	0.018*
	2	92	41.098	8.533		
Solution-Orientation	1	81	50.259	6.789	-0.57	0.286
	2	92	50.826	6.277		
Control	1	81	26.407	6.006	-2.43	0.008*
	2	92	28.533	5.403		

As depicted in Table 21, the *p*-value was less than 0.05 ($p=.018<.05$), thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means, for Chinese respondents, female IT workers use nonconfrontation significantly more than male IT workers.

Table 21 indicated, for solution-orientation as a function of gender, the *p*-value was greater than 0.05 ($p=.286>.05$), therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. This means there is no significant difference between female and male in solution-orientation conflict management style.

As seen in Table 21, the *p*-value for control as a function of gender was less than 0.05 ($p=.008<.01$), therefore, null hypothesis was rejected. This means female Chinese IT workers use control conflict management style significantly less than male Chinese IT workers.

Gender – Thai.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style

as a function of gender among Thai IT workers are shown in the next segment. As portrayed in the subsequent tables, gender was represented by 1 and 2; that is, 1 for female and 2 for males, respectively.

Table 22
Conflict Management Style by Gender among Thai IT workers

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	57	46.632	7.245	25.000	63.000
	2	84	43.798	8.726	23.000	62.000
Solution-Orientation	1	57	49.860	5.263	37.000	59.000
	2	84	49.417	6.864	33.000	63.000
Control	1	57	25.035	5.825	13.000	37.000
	2	84	25.536	5.133	13.000	36.000

As the table above shows, the mean for female Thai IT workers in nonconfrontation was greater than that of male Thai IT workers; therefore, female Thai IT workers “greater than” male Thai IT workers in nonconfrontation was tested. The mean for female Thai IT workers in solution-orientation was greater than that of male Thai IT workers; therefore, female Thai IT workers “greater than” male Thai IT workers in solution-orientation was tested. The mean for female Thai IT workers in control is less than the mean of male Thai IT workers; therefore, female Thai IT workers “less than” male Thai IT workers in control was tested. The three tests were conducted separately and the results of *t*-test are listed in the following table.

Table 23

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Gender among Thai

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	StDev	Value	P(one-tailed)
Nonconfrontation	1	57	46.632	7.245	2.10	0.019 *
	2	84	43.798	8.726		
Solution-Orientation	1	57	49.860	5.263	0.43	0.333
	2	84	49.417	6.864		
Control	1	57	25.035	5.825	-0.53	0.300
	2	84	25.536	5.133		

As Table 23 indicates, the p -value for nonconfrontation was less than 0.05 ($p=.019<.05$), hence, the null hypothesis is rejected at the significance level of 0.05. That means, at the significance level of 0.05, it can be assumed that females in the IT field tend to use nonconfrontation conflict management style more than males in the IT field, among Thais. However, the p -values for solution-orientation and control were greater than 0.05, therefore, the null hypotheses were retained, which meant that there is no difference in the use of solution-orientation and control in terms of gender among Thais in the IT field.

Age – Chinese.

The general statistics information of conflict management style, as a function of age are presented in the following table. As seen in Table 24, age was represented by 2, 3, and 4 respectively; that is, 2 for age group between 22 to 28 years old; 3 for age group between 29 to 35 years old; and 4 for age group of 36 years old and above.

Table 24

Conflict Management Style by Age among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Age	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	2	88	42.94	9.57	19.00	62.00
	3	63	42.33	8.33	14.00	61.00
	4	22	40.45	6.41	25.00	51.00
Solution-orientation	2	88	49.943	7.088	33.000	64.000
	3	63	50.413	5.866	34.000	61.000
	4	22	53.45	5.18	45.00	62.00
Control	2	88	26.591	6.047	14.000	38.000
	3	63	28.317	5.656	13.000	40.000
	4	22	29.091	4.374	23.000	38.000

The above Table 24 reveals the three age groups' perception on communication conflict management style. The means for the three age groups were different across the three conflict management styles. One-way ANOVA was employed to test the difference among the three groups on conflict management style. The result of testing for nonconfrontation by age group is listed in the next table. If the p -value is less than 0.05, namely, if there is a difference among the three age groups on conflict management style, therefore a further test – Tukey's pairwise test would be used to identify which groups were different from others.

Table 25

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Age among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Age	2	109.5	54.8	0.71	0.494
	Error	170	13136.2	77.3		
	Total	172	13245.7			
Solution-Orientation	Age	2	219.2	109.6	2.64	0.075
	Error	170	7067.4	41.6		
	Total	172	7286.6			
Control	Age	2	170.3	85.1	2.60	0.077
	Error	170	5566.7	32.7		
	Total	172	5737.0			

As Table 25 above indicates, the p -value of nonconfrontation in terms of age groups was greater than 0.05 ($p=.494>.05$); thus the null hypothesis is retained, which means that there is no significant difference in nonconfrontation across age groups at the significance level of 0.05.

The above table also indicates that the p -value of solution-orientation in terms of age groups was greater than 0.05 ($p=.075>.05$); thus the null hypothesis is retained. This means that, at significance level of 0.05, there is no significant difference in solution-orientation among age groups, among Chinese IT workers.

Table 25 also reveals that the p -value of control in terms of age groups was greater than 0.05 ($p=.077>.05$); thus the null hypothesis was retained. This means that there is no significant difference in control among age groups at the 0.05 level of significance.

Age – Thai.

The general statistics descriptive information including mean and standard deviation of communication conflict management style as a function of age are listed in the following segment. As the following tables indicate, age was represented by 2, 3,

and 4, respectively; that is, 2 for age group between 22 to 28 years old; 3 for age group between 29 to 35 years old; and 4 for age group at 36 years old and above.

Table 26
Conflict Management Style by Age among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Age	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	2	85	44.753	8.426	23.000	62.000
	3	41	45.51	7.60	27.00	63.00
	4	15	44.47	9.40	25.00	59.00
Solution-orientation	2	85	49.776	6.825	33.000	62.000
	3	41	48.683	4.767	41.000	57.000
	4	15	51.07	6.42	37.00	63.00
Control	2	85	25.741	5.566	13.000	36.000
	3	41	24.293	5.110	13.000	34.000
	4	15	25.87	5.25	14.00	37.00

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the difference in the three communication conflict management styles among the three age groups. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results can be seen in the following table, with corresponding interpretation. If the *p*-value is less than 0.05, namely, if there is a difference among the three age groups on conflict management style, therefore a further test – Tukey’s pairwise test would be used to identify which groups were different from others.

Table 27

Results of Testing on Conflict Management style by Age among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Age	2	19.8	9.9	0.14	0.867
	Error	138	9511.8	68.9		
	Total	140	9531.5			
Solution-orientation	Age	2	69.4	34.7	0.89	0.414
	Error	138	5398.6	39.1		
	Total	140	5468.0			
Control	Age	2	62.8	31.4	1.07	0.344
	Error	138	4032.5	29.2		
	Total	140	4095.3			

As Table 27 reveals, all p -values for the three factors were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. That means that there is no difference in the use of communication conflict management style in terms of age, among Thai IT workers.

Education level – Chinese.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of education level are presented in the following segment. As the next tables show, education levels were represented by 2 and 3; that is, 2 for bachelor degree, 2 for master degree and higher, respectively.

Table 28

Conflict Management Style by Education Level among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Education Level	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	2	128	42.648	9.016	14.000	62.000
	3	45	41.710	8.110	25.000	54.000
Solution-orientation	2	128	50.250	6.627	33.000	64.000
	3	45	51.444	6.144	35.000	63.000
Control	2	128	27.211	5.981	13.000	40.000
	3	45	28.467	5.093	15.000	38.000

Table 28 above shows the two education levels' perception on communication conflict management style. The means for the two age groups were different. In nonconfrontation, the mean of group two was slightly higher than group three; therefore, group two “greater than” group three was tested; in solution-orientation, the mean of group two was slightly less than group three; therefore group two “less than” group three was tested; in control, the mean of group two was slightly less than group three; therefore, group two “less than” group three was tested. The three tests were conducted separately and interpreted accordingly.

Table 29

Result of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Education Level among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Education Level	N	Mean	StDev	Value	P(one-tail)
Nonconfrontation	2	128	42.648	9.016	0.65	0.260
	3	45	41.71	8.11		
Solution-orientation	2	128	50.250	6.627	-1.1	0.138
	3	45	51.444	6.144		
Control	2	128	27.211	5.981	-1.36	0.089
	3	45	28.467	5.093		

As revealed in Table 29 above, all three p -values were greater than 0.05; thus, the null hypotheses were retained, which means that there is no significant difference in the three communication conflict management style between the two education level groups.

Education level – Thai.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of education level among Thai IT workers was listed in the following segment. As the following tables show, education levels were represented by 2 and 3; that is, 2 for bachelor degree and 2 for master degree and higher, respectively.

Table 30

Conflict Management Style by Education Level among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Education Level	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	2	103	45.282	8.401	23.000	63.000
	3	38	44.03	7.87	29.00	62.00
Solution-orientation	2	103	49.233	6.031	33.000	63.000
	3	38	50.58	6.79	36.00	61.00
Control	2	103	25.320	5.268	13.000	37.000
	3	38	25.368	5.847	14.000	35.000

As depicted in the above Table 30, the mean of nonconfrontation for education level two was greater than education level three; therefore, nonconfrontation for education level two “greater than” education level three on nonconfrontation was tested; the mean of solution-orientation for education level two was less than education level three; therefore, education level two “less than” education level three on solution-orientation was tested; the mean of control for education level two was less than

education level three; therefore, education level 2 “less than” education level 3 on control was tested. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results were listed in the following table and interpreted accordingly.

Table 31

Results of Testing on Conflict Management style by Education Level among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Education Level	N	Mean	StDev	T	P(one-tailed)
Nonconfrontation	2	103	45.282	8.401	0.83	0.206
	3	38	44.03	7.87		
Solution-orientation	2	103	49.233	6.031	-1.08	0.143
	3	38	50.58	6.79		
Control	2	103	25.320	5.268	-0.04	0.482
	3	38	25.368	5.847		

As Table 31 indicates, the p -values for the three factors were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. This means that there is no difference in the use of conflict management style in terms of education level among Thai IT workers.

Type of work – Chinese.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of type of work was listed in the following segment. As the subsequent tables show, type of work were represented by 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5; where 1 is for administration, 2 for sales, 3 for technical support, 4 for programming, and 5 for others, respectively.

Table 32

Conflict Management Style by Type of Work among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Type of Work	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	28	47.00	46.96	33.00	62.00
	2	31	41.26	42.00	14.00	59.00
	3	54	42.15	41.98	24.00	61.00
	4	38	41.11	40.97	25.00	61.00
	5	22	41.05	41.10	26.00	55.00
Solution-orientation	1	28	49.64	49.77	36.00	60.00
	2	31	51.16	51.41	35.00	64.00
	3	54	50.611	50.750	34.000	62.000
	4	38	52.11	52.62	33.00	63.00
	5	22	48.09	47.85	39.00	62.00
Control	1	28	25.429	25.538	14.000	34.000
	2	31	30.16	30.41	15.00	40.00
	3	54	27.407	27.563	13.000	38.000
	4	38	27.105	27.206	14.000	38.000
	5	22	27.59	27.65	18.00	36.00

One-way ANOVA was used to determine the difference among the five groups of type of work, across the three factors of communication conflict management style. If the p -value is less than 0.05, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise test comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA are listed in the next table.

Table 33

Result of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Type of Work among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Type of Work	4	740.4	185.1	2.49	0.045 *
	Error	168	12505.3	74.4		
	Total	172	13245.7			
Solution-orientation	Type of Work	4	259.8	64.9	1.55	0.189
	Error	168	7026.9	41.8		
	Total	172	7286.6			
Control	Type of Work	4	346.0	86.5	2.70	0.033*
	Error	168	5391.0	32.1		
	Total	172	5737.0			

As Table 33 above indicates, *p*-values for nonconfrontation and control were less than 0.05; therefore, the null hypotheses were rejected. This means that there is a significant difference in nonconfrontation across type of work; meanwhile, there is a significant difference in control across type of work. However, there is no significant difference in solution-orientation across type of work. Therefore, Tukey's pairwise test comparisons were used to identify the different groups for nonconfrontation and control. The results of the tests to identify the different groups for nonconfrontation and control are presented in the next table.

Table 34

Difference in the Use of Nonconfrontation Based on Type of Work among Chinese IT Workers

	Administration	Sales	Technical Support	Programming
Sales	1.302 * 10.182*			
Technical Support	0.886 * 8.818 *	-4.728 2.948		
Programming	1.653 * 10.136*	-3.969 4.275	-2.563 4.649	
Others	1.102 * 10.807*	-4.535 4.960	-3.205 5.410	-4.503 4.622

Table 34 above indicates in the first column the confidence intervals for administration with sales, administration with technical support, administration with programming, administration with others, none of these covered zero; therefore, there is a significant difference of the usage of nonconfrontation conflict management style between administration and other groups. In the second, third and forth column, however, all the confidence intervals covered zero; therefore, there is no significant difference among sales, technical support, programming, and others.

Table 35

Difference in the Use of Control Based on Type of Work among Chinese IT Workers

	Administration	Sales	Technical Support	Programming
Sales	-7.648 * -1.817 *			
Technical Support	-4.583 0.625	0.234 * 5.274 *		
Programming	-4.462 1.108	0.350 * 5.762 *	-2.066 2.670	
Others	-5.348 1.023	-0.547 5.688	-3.012 2.645	-3.481 2.510

As table 35 above depicts, the confidence intervals for administration with sales, sales with technical support, sales with programming, didn't cover zero; therefore, there is a significant difference of the usage of control conflict management style between administration and sales, same as sales and technical support, as well as sales and programming. The other confidence intervals covered zero; therefore, there is no significant difference between administration and any of technical support, programming, and others. Meanwhile, there is no significant difference between sales and technical support; and there is no significant difference between technical support and group4, others; finally, there is no significant difference between programming and others.

Type of work – Thai.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of type of work was presented in the following segment. As the next tables show, type of work were represented by 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5; where 1 stands for administration, 2 for sales, 3 for technical support, 4 for programming, and 5 for others, respectively.

Table 36

Conflict Management Style by Type of Work among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Type of Work	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	30	48.43	6.71	31.00	63.00
	2	28	41.11	7.16	26.00	55.00
	3	33	44.12	7.86	27.00	58.00
	4	33	45.42	8.84	23.00	62.00
	5	17	45.76	9.83	25.00	62.00
Solution-orientation	1	30	48.97	6.03	36.00	59.00
	2	28	50.32	5.42	38.00	59.00
	3	33	50.515	5.702	40.000	61.000
	4	33	48.33	7.05	33.00	61.00
	5	17	50.18	7.40	40.00	63.00
Control	1	30	23.73	5.97	13.00	34.00
	2	28	27.750	4.343	17.000	35.000
	3	33	25.182	5.480	14.000	35.000
	4	33	25.091	4.914	13.000	36.000
	5	17	24.94	5.99	13.00	37.00

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the difference in the use of communication conflict management style among the five types of work. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results were listed in the following table and interpreted according. If the p -value is less than 0.05, therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise test comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA are reflected in the next table.

Table 37

Results of Testing on Conflict Management style by Type of Work among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Type of Work	4	818.9	204.7	3.20	0.015 *
	Error	136	8712.7	64.1		
	Total	140	9531.5			
Solution-orientation	Type of Work	4	112.8	28.2	0.72	0.582
	Error	136	5355.1	39.4		
	Total	140	5468.0			
Control	Type of Work	4	245.6	61.4	2.17	0.076
	Error	136	3849.7	28.3		
	Total	140	4095.3			

As revealed in Table 37, the p -value for nonconfrontation in terms of type of work was less than 0.05 ($p=.015<.05$); therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it could be concluded that, at significance level of 0.05, there is a difference in the use of nonconfrontation conflict management style among the five types of work. Therefore, a further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons was conducted to identify the groups that were different from others. However, the p -values for solution-orientation and control were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. This indicates that there is no difference in the use of solution-orientation and control in terms of type of work among Thai IT workers.

Table 38

Difference in the Use of Nonconfrontation Based on Type of Work among Thai IT Workers

	Administration	Sales	Technical Support	Programming
Sales	3.166 *			
	11.486 *			
Technical Support	0.318 *	-7.082		
	8.306 *	1.054		
Programming	-0.985	-8.385 *	-5.201	
	7.003	-0.249 *	2.595	
Others	-2.138	-9.525	-6.370	-5.067
	7.475	0.210	3.083	4.386

Table 38 above shows that confidence intervals for administration with sales, administration with technical support, sales with programming, didn't cover zero; therefore, there is a significant difference in the usage of nonconfrontation conflict management style between administration and sales, same as administration and technical support, as well as sales and programming. The rest of the confidence intervals covered zero; therefore, there is no significant difference in the usage of nonconfrontation between administration and any of either of programming and others. Meanwhile, there is no significant difference between sales and technical support, none between sales and others; and there is no significant difference between technical support and either of programming and others; furthermore, there is no significant difference between programming and others.

Position level – Chinese.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of position level was listed in the following segment. In the next tables,

position levels were represented by 1 and 2, where 1 stands for managerial and 2 for non-managerial, respectively.

Table 39

Conflict Management Style by Position Level among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Position Level	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	57	39.95	7.91	25.00	59.00
	2	116	43.612	8.957	14.000	62.000
Solution-orientation	1	57	52.632	5.599	40.000	63.000
	2	116	49.543	6.703	33.000	64.000
Control	1	57	28.47	4.95	17.000	38.000
	2	116	27.08	6.110	13.000	40.000

Table 39 above shows the mean and standard deviation of conflict management style across two position levels. The means for the two age groups were different. In nonconfrontation, the mean of position level one was less than position level two; therefore, position level one “less than” position level two in nonconfrontation was tested; in solution-orientation, the mean of position level one was greater than position level two; therefore, position level one “greater than” position level two in solution-orientation was tested; in control, the mean of position level one was greater than position level two; therefore, position level one “greater than” position level two in control was tested. The three *t*-tests were conducted and listed in the following table.

Table 40

Results of Testing on Conflict Management style by Position Level among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Position Level	N	Mean	StDev	T	P(one-tail)
Nonconfrontation	1	57	39.95	7.91	-2.74	0.004 *
	2	116	43.612	8.957		
Solution-orientation	1	57	52.632	5.599	3.19	0.001 *
	2	116	49.543	6.703		
Control	1	57	28.47	4.95	1.61	0.055
	2	116	27.08	6.110		

As revealed in Table 40 above, the p -values for nonconfrontation and solution-orientation were less than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were rejected. This means that, at the 0.05 level of significance, Chinese IT workers in managerial level use nonconfrontation conflict management style less than those in non-managerial level; meanwhile, Chinese IT workers in managerial level use solution-orientation under conflict situation more than those in non-managerial level. However, the p -value for control was greater than 0.05 ($p=.055>.05$), therefore, null-hypothesis was retained. It can be said that there is no significant difference in the usage of control under conflict situation between Chinese managerial IT workers and Chinese non-managerial IT workers.

Position level – Thai.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of position level among Thai IT workers are listed in the following segment. As the forthcoming tables show, position levels are represented by 1 and 2, where 1 stands for managerial and 2 for non-managerial, respectively.

Table 41

Conflict Management Style by Position Level among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Position Level	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	51	43.59	7.84	26.00	58.00
	2	90	45.711	8.420	23.000	63.000
Solution-orientation	1	51	50.941	5.390	38.000	61.000
	2	90	48.833	6.595	33.000	63.000
Control	1	51	25.922	5.079	14.000	35.000
	2	90	25.000	5.587	13.000	37.000

As depicted in Table 41 above, the mean of nonconfrontation for managerial level was less than non-managerial level; hence, managerial level in nonconfrontation “less than” non-managerial level was tested; the mean of solution-orientation for managerial level was greater than non-managerial level; hence, managerial level in solution-orientation “greater than” non-managerial level was tested; the mean of control for managerial level was greater than non-managerial level; hence, managerial level in control “greater than” non-managerial level was tested. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results are given in the following table and interpreted accordingly.

Table 42

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Position Level among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Position Level	N	Mean	StDev	T	P(one-tail)
Nonconfrontation	1	51	43.59	7.84	-1.50	0.068
	2	90	45.711	8.420		
Solution-orientation	1	51	50.941	5.390	2.05	0.021 *
	2	90	48.833	6.595		
Control	1	51	25.922	5.079	1.00	0.160
	2	90	25.000	5.587		

It can be seen in Table 42 that the p -values for nonconfrontation and control were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. This means that there is no difference in the use of nonconfrontation and control in terms of position level among Thai IT workers. However, the p -value for solution-orientation was less than 0.05 ($p=.021<.05$); therefore, the null-hypothesis is rejected, and it can be concluded that Thai IT workers in managerial level use solution-orientation more than Thai IT workers in non-managerial level.

Years in current organization – Chinese.

The general statistics information including mean and standard deviation of communication conflict management style as a function of years in current organization are listed in the following segment. As the forthcoming tables show, years in current organization were represented by 1, 2, 3, and 4, where 1 stands for less than 1 year, 2 for 1 to 2 years, 3 for 3 to 5 years, 4 for 5 years and above respectively.

Table 43

Conflict Management Style by Years in Current Organization among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Education Level	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	18	46.44	8.73	31.00	61.00
	2	56	41.50	7.92	25.00	61.00
	3	79	42.73	9.05	14.00	62.00
	4	20	40.00	9.31	24.00	58.00
Solution-orientation	1	18	50.78	7.09	37.00	59.00
	2	56	51.786	5.601	34.00	61.00
	3	79	49.481	6.868	33.00	64.00
	4	20	51.20	6.65	39.00	63.00
Control	1	18	24.33	5.63	14.00	35.00
	2	56	27.643	5.751	13.00	40.00
	3	79	27.519	5.699	14.00	40.00
	4	20	30.20	5.23	21.00	38.00

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the difference in the use of conflict management style among the four groups. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results were listed in the following table and interpreted accordingly. If the p -value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA are presented in the next table.

Table 44

Result of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Years in Current Organization among Chinese IT Workers

	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Years in Current Organization	3	463.8	154.6	2.04	0.110
	Error	169	12781.9	75.6		
	Total	172	13245.7			
Solution-orientation	Years in Current Organization	3	185.2	61.7	1.47	0.225
	Error	169	7101.5	42.0		
	Total	172	7286.6			
Control	Years in Current Organization	3	327.2	109.1	3.41	0.019 *
	Error	169	5409.8	32.0		
	Total	172	5737.0			

The foregoing Table 44 illustrates that the p -values for nonconfrontation and solution-orientation were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses cannot be rejected. This means that there is no significant difference in nonconfrontation and solution-orientation across the four groups of years in current organization. However, the p -value for control was less than 0.05; thus the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a significant difference in control in terms of years in current organization. A further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons was conducted to find out which groups are different from others.

Table 45

Difference in the Use of Control Based on Years in Current Organization among Chinese IT Workers

	less than 1 year	1 to 2 years	3 to 5 years
1 to 2 years	-6.336 * -0.283 *		
3 to 5 years	-6.103 * -0.269 *	-1.827 2.075	
5 years and above	-9.495 * -2.238 *	-5.466 0.352	-5.477 0.115

In Table 45, in the first column, the confidence intervals for less than one year with other groups, none covered zero; therefore, there is a significant difference in the usage of control conflict management style between less than one year and the other three groups. The rest of the confidence intervals covered zero; therefore, there is no significant difference in the usage of control among groups of one to two years, three to five years, and five years and above.

Years in current organization – Thai.

The general statistics information including mean and standard deviation of communication conflict management style as a function of years in current organization are presented in the forthcoming segment. As the subsequent tables show, years in current organization were represented by 1, 2, 3 and 4; that is, 1 is for less than 1 year, 2 for 1 to 2 years, 3 for 3 to 5 years, 4 for 5 years and above, respectively.

Table 46

Conflict Management Style by Years in Current Organization among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Years in Current Organization	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	19	49.63	6.65	32.00	60.00
	2	53	43.70	9.00	26.00	63.00
	3	57	44.63	8.02	23.00	62.00
	4	12	44.50	6.11	33.00	53.00
Solution-orientation	1	19	49.95	6.11	40.00	63.00
	2	53	50.019	5.719	36.000	62.000
	3	57	49.193	6.757	33.000	61.000
	4	12	49.08	6.84	39.00	59.00
Control	1	19	23.32	5.53	13.00	30.00
	2	53	24.358	5.516	13.000	35.000
	3	57	26.333	5.125	13.000	37.000
	4	12	28.08	4.44	20.00	35.00

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the difference in the use of conflict management style among the four groups. The three tests were conducted separately, and the results are listed in the following table and interpreted accordingly. If the p -value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA are reflected in the next table.

Table 47

Results of Testing on Conflict Management style by Years in Current Organization among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Years in Current Organization	3	507.7	169.2	2.57	0.057
	Error	137	9023.9	65.9		
	Total	140	9531.5			
Solution-orientation	Years in Current Organization	3	24.2	8.1	0.20	0.894
	Error	137	5443.7	39.7		
	Total	140	5468.0			
Control	Years in Current Organization	3	275.5	91.8	3.29	0.023 *
	Error	137	3819.9	27.9		
	Total	140	4095.3			

Table 47 reveals that the p -values for nonconfrontation and solution-orientation were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. This means that there is no difference in the use of nonconfrontation and solution-orientation in terms of years in current organization among Thai IT workers. Meanwhile, the p -value for control was less than 0.05 ($p=0.023<0.05$), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that, at a significance level of 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference in the use of control in terms of years in current organization among Thai IT workers.

Table 48

Difference in the Use of Control Based on Years in Current Organization among Thai IT Workers

	less than 1 year	1 to 2 years	3 to 5 years
1 to 2 years	-3.834 1.749		
3 to 5 years	-5.783 * -0.252 *	-3.967 0.017	
5 years and above	-8.617 * -0.918 *	-7.062 * -0.388 *	-5.066 1.566

As Table 48 shows, in the first column, confidence intervals for group less than one year with both of three to five years and five years and above, none covered zero; therefore, there is a significant difference of the usage of nonconfrontation conflict management style between less than one year and three to five years, same as less than one year and five years and above, as well as one to three years and five years and above. The other confidence intervals covered zero; therefore, there is no significant difference in the usage of nonconfrontation between group less than one year and group one to three years. Meanwhile, there is no significant difference between one to three years and three to five years, none between three to five years and five years and above.

Size of company – Chinese.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of size of company are portrayed in the forthcoming segment. As the following tables show, size of company was represented by 1, 2 and 3, where 1 stands for small size with less than 100 employees, 2 for medium size company with 100 to 500 employees, and 3 for large company with more than 500 employees.

Table 49

Conflict Management Style by Size of Company among Chinese IT Workers

Variable	Size of Company	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	33	40.64	7.85	25.00	59.00
	2	63	43.32	9.72	19.00	62.00
	3	77	42.416	8.320	14.000	61.000
Solution-orientation	1	33	51.00	6.18	40.00	60.00
	2	63	51.460	6.674	35.000	64.000
	3	77	49.636	6.468	33.000	62.000
Control	1	33	28.18	5.82	17.00	40.00
	2	63	27.762	6.082	14.000	38.000
	3	77	27.078	5.534	13.000	40.000

The results of one-way ANOVA for the three conflict management styles by size of company are presented and interpreted below. If the p -value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA were reflected in the next table.

Table 50

Results of Testing on Nonconfrontation by Size of Company among Chinese IT Workers

	Source	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Size of Company	2	155.7	77.8	1.01	0.366
	Error	170	13090.0	77.0		
	Total	172	13245.7			
Solution-orientation	Size of Company	2	123.1	61.6	1.46	0.235
	Error	170	7163.5	42.1		
	Total	172	7286.6			
Control	Size of Company	2	33.1	16.6	0.49	0.611
	Error	170	5703.9	33.6		
	Total	172	5737.0			

It can be seen in Table that 50 all the p -values were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypothesis was retained. It can be concluded that, at the 0.05 level of significance, there is no difference in conflict management style among the three types of size of company.

Size of Company – Thai.

The general statistics information of communication conflict management style as a function of size of company among Thai IT workers are listed in the following segment. As the next tables show, size of company was represented by 1, 2, and 3; that is, 1 stands for small size with less than 100 employees, 2 for medium size company with 100 to 500 employees, 3 for large company with more than 500 employees.

Table 51

Conflict Management Style by Size of Company among Thai IT Workers

Variable	Size of Company	N	Mean	StDev	Minimum	Maximum
Nonconfrontation	1	51	45.49	7.86	23.00	62.00
	2	36	44.69	8.54	25.00	62.00
	3	54	44.59	8.54	26.00	63.00
Solution-orientation	1	51	49.725	5.507	36.000	63.000
	2	36	48.75	7.25	33.00	59.00
	3	54	50.037	6.255	37.000	62.000
Control	1	51	25.431	5.334	13.000	36.000
	2	36	25.833	5.337	13.000	37.000
	3	54	24.907	5.591	13.000	35.000

The three tests were conducted separately, and the results are revealed in the following table and interpreted accordingly. If the p -value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected, which means that there is a difference among the groups, and a further test – Tukey's pairwise comparisons would be conducted to identify which groups were different from the others. The results of one-way ANOVA can be viewed in

the next table.

Table 52

Results of Testing on Conflict Management Style by Size of Company among Thai IT Workers

	Resource	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Nonconfrontation	Size of company	2	24.1	12.1	0.18	0.840
	Error	138	9507.4	68.9		
	Total	140	9531.5			
Solution-orientation	Size of company	2	37.1	18.6	0.47	0.625
	Error	138	5430.8	39.4		
	Total	140	5468.0			
Control	Size of company	2	19.3	9.6	0.33	0.722
	Error	138	4076.0	29.5		
	Total	140	4095.3			

As Table 52 above indicates, the p -values for the three factors were greater than 0.05; hence, the null hypotheses were retained. This means that there is no difference in the use of conflict management style in terms of size of company among Thai IT workers.

H3o: *There is no significant relationship between perceived organizational culture and conflict management style among IT workers in China and Thailand.*

Stepwise regression was used in this research. In stepwise regression, the number of independent variables entered and the order of entry were determined by statistical criteria generated by the stepwise procedure. The reason for choosing “stepwise” in this study is to remove the invalid or useless independent variables as they have the ability to remove the invalid variables. The entry and remove criterion was 0.05.

Chinese.

For Chinese respondents, the relationship between communication conflict management style and organizational culture was examined separately, with the order: nonconfrontation, solution-orientation, control.

Nonconfrontation Style and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 53

Result of Stepwise Regression on Nonconfrontation and Organizational Culture among Chinese IT workers

Step	Constant	Passive-Defensive			Aggressive-Defensive			Constructive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P			
1	24.28	0.49	4.73	0.000							8.28	11.56	11.04
2	37.09	0.44	4.17	0.000	-0.31	-2.67	0.008				8.13	15.12	14.12
3	48.93	0.39	3.75	0.000	-0.31	-2.74	0.007	-0.248	-2.66	.009	7.99	18.53	17.08

Table 53 shows that the three variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with nonconfrontation among Chinese IT workers. Passive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by aggressive-defensive, then constructive. The relationship between nonconfrontation and passive-defensive is positive; nonconfrontation and aggressive-defensive as well as constructive are negatively related. The final overall model showed that the model accounted for 18.53% of the total variance, the value of constant is 48.93. The value of passive-aggressive is 0.39 at the significance level of $0.000 < 0.01$. The value of aggressive-defensive is -0.31 at the significance level of $0.007 < 0.01$. The value of constructive is -0.248 at the significance level of $0.009 < 0.01$. The regression equation of nonconfrontation with organizational culture factors of Chinese IT workers is as follows:

$$\text{Nonconfrontation} = 48.9 + 0.390 \text{ Passive-defensive} - 0.314 \text{ Aggressive-defensive} - 0.248 \text{ Constructive}$$

Solution-orientation Style and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 54

Result of Stepwise Regression on Solution-Orientation and Organizational Culture among Chinese IT workers

Step	Constant	Constructive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P			
1	33.16	0.428	6.33	0.000 *	5.87	19.01	18.53

The foregoing Table 54 showed that only constructive organizational culture entered into a relationship with solution-orientation, among Chinese IT workers. Neither aggressive-defensive nor passive-defensive was included into the relationship as they failed to enter into the model under the selection criteria. The relationship between solution-orientation and constructive organizational culture is positive. The model accounted for 19.01% of the total variance; the value of constant is 33.16. The value of constructive is 0.39, at the significance level of $0.000 < 0.01$. The regression equation of solution-orientation with organizational culture factors of Chinese IT workers is as follows:

$$\text{Solution-orientation} = 33.2 + 0.428 \text{ Constructive}$$

Control Style and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 55

Result of Stepwise Regression on Control and Organizational Culture among Chinese IT workers

Step	Constant	Aggressive-Defensive*			Passive-Defensive			Constructive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P			
1	16.96	0.308	3.95	0.000							5.55	8.35	7.81
2	24.41	0.270	3.44	0.001	-0.167	-2.38	0.019				5.47	11.29	10.25
3	32.34	0.268	3.47	0.001	-0.198	-2.82	0.005	-0.166	-2.65	0.009	5.38	14.83	13.31

Table 55 indicates that three variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with control among Chinese IT workers. Aggressive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by passive-defensive, then constructive. The relationship between control and aggressive-defensive is positive, control and both passive-defensive and constructive cultures are negatively related. The final overall model showed that the model accounted for 14.83% of the total variance; the value of constant is 32.34. The value of aggressive-defensive is 0.268 at the significance level of $0.001 < 0.01$. The value of passive-defensive is -0.198 at the significance level of $0.005 < 0.01$. The value of constructive is -0.166 at the significance level of $0.009 < 0.01$. The regression equation of control with organizational culture factors of Chinese IT workers is as follows:

$$\text{Control} = 32.3 + 0.268 \text{ Aggressive-defensive} - 0.198 \text{ Passive-defensive} - 0.166 \text{ Constructive}$$

Thai.

For Thai respondents, the relationship between conflict management style and organizational culture was examined separately, with the order: nonconfrontation, solution-orientation, control.

Nonconfrontation and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 56

Result of Stepwise Regression on Nonconfrontation and Organizational Culture among Thai IT workers

Step	Constant	Passive-Defensive			Constructive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P			
1	25.31	0.492	5.63	0.000				7.47	18.55	17.96
2	38.61	0.520	6.24	0.000	-0.353	-4.05	0.000	7.09	27.20	26.14

It can be seen in Table 56 above that two variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with nonconfrontation, among Thai IT workers. Passive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by aggressive-defensive. The relationship between nonconfrontation and passive-defensive is positive; nonconfrontation and aggressive-defensive are negatively related. The final overall model showed that the model accounted for 27.20% of the total variance; the value of constant is 38.61. The value of passive-defensive is 0.520 at the significance level of 0.000. The value of aggressive-defensive is -0.353 at the significance level of 0.000< 0.01. The regression equation of control with organizational culture factors of Chinese IT workers is as follows:

$$\text{Nonconfrontation} = 38.6 + 0.520 \text{ Passive-defensive} - 0.353 \text{ Constructive}$$

Solution-orientation and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 57

Result of Stepwise Regression on Solution-Orientation and Organizational Culture among Thai IT workers

Step	Constant	Constructive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P			
1	36.52	0.320	4.45	0.000	7.47	18.55	17.96

Table 57 reveals that only constructive organizational culture entered into a relationship with solution-orientation among Thai IT workers. Neither aggressive-defensive nor passive-defensive was included into the relationship as they failed to enter into the model under the selection criteria. The relationship between solution-orientation and constructive organizational culture is positive. The model accounted for 18.55% of the total variance; the value of constant is 36.52. The value of constructive is 0.32 at the significant level of $0.000 < 0.01$. The regression equation of solution-orientation with organizational culture factors of Thai IT workers is as follows:

Solution-orientation = 36.5 + 0.320 Constructive

Control and Organizational Culture

The result from Stepwise regression is showed in the next table.

Table 58

Result of Stepwise Regression on Control and Organizational Culture among Thai IT workers

Step	Constant	Aggressive-Defensive			Passive-Defensive			S	R-Sq	R-Sq(adj)
		Coef	T	P	Coef	T	P			
1	16.45	0.286	4.09	0.000				5.13	10.75	10.11
2	24.03	0.271	3.99	0.000	-0.179	-3.06	0.003	4.98	16.42	15.20

It can be seen in the foregoing Table 58 that two variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with control, among Thai IT workers. Aggressive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by passive-defensive. The relationship between control and aggressive-defensive is positive; control and passive-defensive are negatively related. The final overall model indicates that the model accounted for 16.42% of the total variance; the value of constant is 24.03. The value of aggressive-defensive is 0.271 at the significance level of $0.001 < 0.01$. The value of passive-defensive is -0.179 at the significance level of $0.003 < 0.01$. The regression equation of control with organizational culture factors of Chinese IT workers is as follows:

$$\text{Control} = 24.0 + 0.271 \text{ Aggressive-defensive} - 0.179 \text{ Passive-defensive}$$

Summary of Findings

Respondents' Demographic Profile

Nationality.

There were 314 respondents in all. Chinese respondents slightly outnumbered their Thai counterparts at 55.1% and 44.9%, respectively.

Gender.

There were 173 Chinese respondents, consisting of 46.8 % females and 53.2% males. There were 141 Thai respondents; 40.4 % were females and 59.6% were males. For the total number of respondents (n=314), 43.9 % were females and 56.1% were males. On the whole, there were slightly more male than female respondents.

Age.

Half of the Chinese respondents (50.9%) were aged 22 to 28 years old, followed by those aged between 29 to 35 years old, at 36.4%. For the Thai group, likewise, majority of respondents were aged 22 to 28 years old at 60.3%, followed by those aged between 29 to 35 years old, at 29.1%.

Education level.

Most of the Chinese respondents (74.0%) held a Bachelor degree, followed by those with a Master Degree, at 26%. These results were similarly reflected in the Thai group where 72.3% had a Bachelor degree and 27.7% held a Master Degree.

Area of work.

For the Chinese group, 31.2% were in Technical Support; followed by 22% in Programming, 17.9% in Sales, and 16.2% in Administration. Among the Thai

respondents, there were identical results: 22.7% in Technical Support; 22.7% in Programming; and 22.7% in Administration. The least number of Thai IT workers, 19.9%, were in Sales.

Position level.

Majority (67.1%) of Chinese participants were non-managerial IT workers and only 32.9% were at the managerial level. Their Thai counterpart mirrored these results: 63.8% Thai IT workers held non-managerial level jobs and only 36.2% reported being in the managerial level. Hence, for both groups, most of the respondents held non-managerial position level jobs.

Years in current organization.

Nearly half (45.7%) of Chinese respondents have been in the organization between 3 to 5 years, followed by 32.4% who have been in the organization between 1 to 2 years. Results on the Thai group showed basically similar findings: 40.4% have been in the organization between 3 to 5 years, followed by 37.6% who have stayed between 1 to 2 years. In both groups, most of the respondents have stayed in the organization between 3 to 5 years.

Size of company.

For the Chinese group, nearly half (44.5%) were IT workers in a large company, followed by 36.4% from middle-sized companies. Likewise, for the Thai group, 48.2% were from a large company, followed by 31.2% from a middle-sized company. Nearly half of both Chinese and Thai IT workers belonged to large companies.

respondents, there were identical results: 22.7% in Technical Support; 22.7% in Programming; and 22.7% in Administration. The least number of Thai IT workers, 19.9%, were in Sales.

Position level.

Majority (67.1%) of Chinese participants were non-managerial IT workers and only 32.9% were at the managerial level. Their Thai counterpart mirrored these results: 63.8% Thai IT workers held non-managerial level jobs and only 36.2% reported being in the managerial level. Hence, for both groups, most of the respondents held non-managerial position level jobs.

Years in current organization.

Nearly half (45.7%) of Chinese respondents have been in the organization between 3 to 5 years, followed by 32.4% who have been in the organization between 1 to 2 years. Results on the Thai group showed basically similar findings: 40.4% have been in the organization between 3 to 5 years, followed by 37.6% who have stayed between 1 to 2 years. In both groups, most of the respondents have stayed in the organization between 3 to 5 years.

Size of company.

For the Chinese group, nearly half (44.5%) were IT workers in a large company, followed by 36.4% from middle-sized companies. Likewise, for the Thai group, 48.2% were from a large company, followed by 31.2% from a middle-sized company. Nearly half of both Chinese and Thai IT workers belonged to large companies.

Participants' Responses to the OCCI and OCI Instruments

Communication conflict management style (OCCI-based).

The dominant conflict management style of Chinese IT workers was solution-orientation, followed by control and, lastly, nonconfrontation. The dominant conflict management style of Thai IT workers was solution-orientation, followed by nonconfrontation and, lastly, control. Both groups' most dominant conflict management style was solution-orientation.

Perceived organizational culture (OCI-based).

Analysis of both groups' responses to the OCI revealed similar results: the dominant organizational culture perceived by both Chinese and Thai IT workers was constructive organizational culture, followed by passive-defensive organizational culture and, lastly, aggressive-defensive organizational culture.

Hypothesis Testing

H1o: *There is no significant difference between the cultures in communication conflict management style.*

Chinese IT workers use nonconfrontation conflict style significantly less than Thai IT workers. There is no significant difference in the use of solution-orientation conflict style between Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers. Chinese IT workers use control conflict style significantly more than Thai IT workers.

H2o: *There is no significant relationship between demographic variables and communication conflict management style.*

Gender.

For the Chinese group, female Chinese IT workers use nonconfrontation significantly more than male IT workers. There is no significant gender difference in solution-orientation style. Female Chinese IT workers use control significantly less than male Chinese IT workers. For the Thai group, female Thai IT workers use nonconfrontation significantly more than male IT workers. There is no gender difference in the use of solution-orientation as well as in control. Therefore, both Chinese and Thai female IT workers use nonconfrontation significantly more than male IT workers.

Age.

In relation to the Chinese group, there is no significant age difference in all communication conflict management styles. Data analysis resulted in similar results for the Thai group. Therefore, for both Chinese and Thai groups, there is no age difference in the use of all communication conflict management styles (nonconfrontation, solution-orientation, and control).

Education level.

For the Chinese group, there is no significant education level difference in the three communication conflict management styles. Similarly, there is no difference in the use of conflict management style in terms of education level among Thai IT workers. Therefore, for both Chinese and Thai groups, there is no significant education level difference in the use of the three communication conflict management styles.

Type of work.

In terms of the Chinese group, there is a significant type of work difference in nonconfrontation; those in administration use nonconfrontation style significantly more than those in sales and programming. There is also significant type of work difference in control; those in sales use control significantly more than those in administration. However, there is no significant type of work difference in solution-orientation. As for the Thai group, there is a type of work difference in the use of nonconfrontation; those in administration use nonconfrontation significantly more than those in sales. However, there is no significant type of work difference in the use of solution-orientation and control. Therefore, for both Chinese and Thai groups, there is a significant type of work difference in nonconfrontation; those in administration use nonconfrontation style significantly more than those in sales and programming.

Position level.

For the Chinese group, those in managerial level jobs use nonconfrontation less than those in non-managerial level but use solution-orientation more than those in non-managerial level. However, there is no significant difference in the usage of control managerial workers and non-managerial IT workers. For the Thai group, there is no position level difference in the use of nonconfrontation and control. However, it can be concluded that Thai IT workers in managerial level jobs use solution-orientation significantly more than those in non-managerial level. Therefore, for both Chinese and Thai groups, those in managerial level jobs use solution-orientation significantly more than those in non-managerial level jobs.

Years in current organization.

Both groups were found to have similar characteristics. For both Chinese and Thai groups, there is no significant difference in nonconfrontation and solution-orientation across the four groups of years in the current organization. However, there is a significant difference in control in terms of years in current organization. Those who have stayed in the organization for the longest period (4 for 5 years and above) use control significantly more than those in other categories.

Size of company.

The same results were found for the two cultural groups. For both Chinese and Thai groups, there is no significant difference in the use of communication conflict management styles in terms of size of company.

H3o: *There is no significant relationship between perceived organizational culture and conflict management style among IT workers in China and Thailand.*

*Nonconfrontation style and organizational culture.**

The three variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with nonconfrontation among Chinese IT workers. Passive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by aggressive-defensive, then constructive. For the Thai group, only two variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with nonconfrontation. Passive-defensive entered into the relationship first, followed by aggressive-defensive.

For both Chinese and Thai groups, a positive relationship exists between nonconfrontation and passive-defensive culture; however, a negative relationship exists

between nonconfrontation and aggressive-defensive culture. The constructive organizational culture only factored into the Chinese equation but in a negative relationship with nonconfrontation; it does not influence the usage of nonconfrontation among Thai IT workers.

Solution-orientation style and organizational culture.

The same results were found for the two cultural groups. For both Chinese and Thai groups, only constructive organizational culture entered into a relationship with solution-orientation communication conflict management style, and that they are positively correlated. Furthermore, aggressive-defensive and passive-defensive organizational cultures do not influence the usage of solution-orientation in both cultural groups.

Control style and organizational culture.

Relative to the Chinese group, three variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with control conflict management style. Aggressive-defensive culture entered into the relationship first, followed by passive-defensive, then constructive. As for the Thai group, only two variables of organizational culture entered into a relationship with control conflict management style. Aggressive-defensive culture entered into the relationship first, followed by passive-defensive culture.

For both Chinese and Thai groups, there is a positive relationship between control style and aggressive-defensive culture. However, there is a negative relationship between control style and passive-defensive culture. The constructive organizational culture only factored into the Chinese equation but in a negative relationship with control; it does not influence the usage of control among Thai IT workers.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

This last chapter is divided into five parts, which consist of a brief overview of the study, discussion of findings, limitations of the study, conclusions, and recommendations.

Overview of the Study

The present study was primarily conducted to examine the relationship between communication conflict management style and perceived organizational culture between Chinese and Thai IT workers. The secondary purpose of this study was to examine differences in communication conflict management styles between Chinese and Thai IT workers. The study also aimed to examine differences in communication conflict management style in relation to gender, age, education level, type of work, position level, years in current organization, and size of company.

There were 314 participants in the study, consisting of 173 Chinese IT workers in China and 141 Thai IT workers in Thailand. Convenience sampling and Snow-ball sampling were utilized to obtain participants through a web-based survey questionnaire. The research instrument was a self-administered English survey questionnaire in three parts, namely, Personal Data Questionnaire, the Organization Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI), and the Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI).

After the data collection process, the respondents' data were analyzed through Minitab Version 13. Data Analysis included descriptive statistics which consisted of frequency and percentage distributions on participants' demographic data. The participants' responses were described in the form of means, standard deviation, and

standard error means. Finally hypothesis testing was accomplished through inferential statistics which involved the use of the *t*-test, one-way ANOVA, Tukey's pairwise comparison test, and multiple (stepwise) regression analysis.

Discussion of Findings

Communication Conflict Management Style between Chinese and Thai

The current study revealed significant differences between Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers. Chinese IT workers use nonconfrontation conflict style significantly less than Thai IT workers. Moreover, Chinese IT workers use control conflict style significantly more than Thai IT workers. However, there is no significant difference between Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers in the use of solution-orientation conflict style. There have been studies about conflict management style among Asians, but mostly among Chinese, Japanese and Korean. As to the differences between Chinese and Thai, according to Hofstede (2007), Chinese is rated higher than Thai in masculinity and lower in uncertainty avoidance index than Thai. The results of this study in the difference of Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers are only partly consistent with Hofstede's finding.

As revealed in the present study, perhaps the Chinese, more than the Thais, resemble Koreans who, according to Putnam and Wilson (1982) were found to least use the nonconfrontation strategy when faced with conflict situations. And when compared with westerners (Americans), Koreans use the control strategy more frequently, as in the case of Chinese IT workers in the present study. In this investigation, Chinese IT workers appear to use a more aggressive conflict management style in which one person manages conflict by arguing persistently for his or her position and possibly even use

more nonverbal messages to emphasize demands, and even trying to win at all costs, compared to Thai IT workers. The results here further suggest that Thai IT workers tend to use a relatively passive conflict management style in which the person avoids disagreements, downplays controversies, or approaches conflict indirectly. Compared to Chinese workers, the Thai worker says nothing at all or may even quickly give in to another in a conflict situation. It may be that Thai IT workers may use control (aggressive) strategy only as a last resort rather than the first, when confronted with a communication conflict situation.

Conflict Management Style and Demographic Variables

The findings of this research suggests there are significant differences in conflict management style based on gender, type of work, position level, as well as years in current organization, but not age, educational level, and size of company. These findings are partially consistent with previous studies that connected conflict management style with demographic variables. In the following segment, this researcher discusses the connection between conflict management style and demographic variables, based on the findings of this research as well as previous related studies.

Gender.

Generally, demographic data in most of the studies involved gender. There have been previous researches on conflict management style, where differences between gender had been examined, and most of the researches supported the observation that males use controlling style more than females. Broome (2004) found that females tended to use avoiding style more than males while dealing with conflict. Vera, Shin, Montgomery, Mildner, and Speight (2004) did a research among urban adolescents and

got the consistent result that 3% of the girls relied on aggression, compared to 14% of their male counterparts. In this study, a significant difference between genders was proven among Chinese and Thai participants. Specifically, for both Chinese and Thai IT workers, females use nonconfrontation significantly more than male IT workers, which is consistent with the previous studies mentioned. However, there were also studies failing to prove the difference between genders (Boonsathom, 2007).

Type of work.

In the current research, it was also found that there were significant differences in conflict management styles among the types of work. For both Chinese and Thai groups, there is a significant type of work difference in nonconfrontation; those in administration use nonconfrontation style significantly more than those in sales and programming; alternatively, those in sales were found to use control significantly more than those in administration. This finding is in partial agreement with that of Urbantke (2006) who observed that people in sales are more willing to use an integrative approach involving solution-orientation management style and controlling to deal with conflicts in organization. The findings of this study suggest that IT workers in administrative functions tend to be less aggressive and more passive when confronted with conflict situations due to the relatively routine and low-key nature of their work, unlike sales staff who are likely to be front liners and who directly come face-to-face with customers and suppliers, almost on a day-to-day basis. Being assertive, even aggressive, and persuasive are key components of sales people's person specifications.

Position level.

It was revealed in this study that, for both Chinese and Thai groups, those in

managerial level jobs use solution-orientation style significantly more than those in non-managerial level jobs. This finding does not concur with that of Urbantke (2006) who found that managers tended to use control conflict management style more than subordinates. It may be that Thai and Chinese managers, as distinct from the American respondents of the cited study, tend to use a cooperative and assertive conflict management style that encourages all conflicting parties to work together for a solution that meets everyone's needs as fully as possible rather than trying to win over their subordinates, at all costs.

Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Conflict Management Style

The current research revealed that there is a significant relationship between organizational culture and conflict management style of Chinese IT workers and Thai IT workers. Certain organizational cultures boost or block the usage of certain communication conflict management style. This finding is partly supported by that of Urbantke (2006) who noted that organizational culture was found to influence supervisors' conflict strategy towards their subordinates.

In this study, it was found that, for both Chinese and Thai respondents, a more predominant passive-defensive culture is associated with a more predominant nonconfrontational conflict management style. This suggests that where the culture is mainly one where members passively interact with others in ways that will not threaten their own personal security, the tendency of members is to resolve conflict situations in a passive style in which disagreements are avoided as much as possible. And, where the culture is aggressive-defensive in which members approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security, as described by Cooke and Lafferty (1983), the predominant conflict management style is one of diminished passivity or, in another

sense, more aggressive and direct confrontation. Not in complete agreement is Chen (2000) who claimed that the Chinese are more likely to be nonconfrontational, avoiding, obliging, and integrating in the process of conflict resolution. The same applies to Broome (2004) who claimed that Thais were mainly in high and medium nonconfrontation orientation and lower solution orientation.

A difference between Chinese and Thai IT workers was noted in this study, however, in terms of constructive culture. Chinese workers who perceive their organization as encouraging self-actualization, affiliation, and achievement are likely to be more aggressive and direct in handling conflict situations. The same situation would have little or no effect on Thai workers' style of dealing with conflict.

Limitations of the Study

As in most, if not all, research investigations, there are limitations. In this section, the researcher reports limitations of the present study. Firstly, convenience and snowball sampling methods were used in this study which may produce sample bias for self-selection; in this sense, the people who participated in this research may not be representative of the IT worker in China and Thailand. Meanwhile, the web-based survey questionnaire used in this study may also lead to sample bias since IT workers in some companies were not allowed to browse websites for information security purposes. And even though some of them could get the e-mail of the invitation to participate in the research, they may not have filled in the questionnaire, for various reasons.

In this study, an English-version survey questionnaire was used, even though the participants, whose native language was Chinese or Thai, were all working in international companies where English was supposed to be the medium of

communication. Nonetheless, there may still be some degree of language comprehension difficulty in some cases. This may lead to some inaccuracy in the responses to the questionnaire items.

Besides, in this study, perceived organizational culture in terms of demographic data was not analyzed for the shortage of time and the intention of focusing on conflict management style. Moreover, this study investigated conflict management styles only in terms of selected demographic variables and organizational culture. Other factors, such as personality traits, organizational structure, and interpersonal relationships at work that may influence personal conflict management style differences were not examined, limiting the study's ability to identify other variables that may have affected the results.

Lastly, this research was conducted in international companies in China and Thailand; however, the impact from original national culture was not considered. For example, organizational culture in a US international company operating in China may differ from organizational culture in a European international company operating in China. Had this aspect been considered, results may be different and more meaningful.

Conclusion

Employee communication conflict management style and organizational culture are very critical variables in the area of human resource management and development. From the results of this study, it can be concluded that organizational culture influences employees' style of handling communication conflict situations in the workplace. It was implied in the study that the more aggressive the organization is in terms of encouraging members to approach tasks in forceful ways to protect their status and security, the more aggressive and direct are these members in the way they handle

communication conflicts, and vice-versa. In other words, the way people manage conflicts at work reflect the perceived organizational culture.

With regard to cultural differences in managing conflict, while it is true that both Chinese and Thai workers belong to the Southeast Asian culture, it does not necessarily mean that they manage difficult situations at work in the same way. The results of this study suggest that Thai workers initially tend to use a relatively passive conflict management style in which the person would try to avoid disagreements, downplay controversies, or approach conflict indirectly. On the other hand, Chinese workers use control and a more aggressive conflict management style as a matter of course.

Recommendations

People who are working in cultures other than their own should be more sensitive to the reality of cultural differences; that to have good working relations with colleagues from other parts of the world, people should be more open to and respectful of diversity in thinking patterns and emotional reactivity, even between those working for the same organizational goals. By understanding their colleagues' behavioral preferences in conflict situations, organizational members are assured of bringing about greater work productivity, team work, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Managers and top executives of multinational organizations who manage a diverse labor force should set a good example in terms of cultural sensitivity and respect for diversity. They are, after all, in the best position to develop an organizational culture that would foster desired organizational citizenship behaviors on the part of their workers and discourage counterproductive employee behavior. Besides, being the top level in organizations, they have the influencing force that can foster constructive

organizational culture in the workplace to improve overall organizational productivity. By being actively involved in facilitating employees' personal development, self-actualization, and goal achievement, constructive organizational culture can be achieved progressively and effectively.

Industrial/Organizational psychologists and vocational counselors in industry should take the results of this study seriously and make good pragmatic use of the knowledge and data base provided, and include in their repertoire of intervention programs, training courses that highlight the role played by organizational culture in the development of desirable and productive employee behaviors. As professionals in their field, they can also help organizations to adjust or even change organizational culture from the artefacts level; thereby inculcating espoused values among the organizational members as well as changing the basic underlying assumptions in organizations.

Finally, behavioral researchers who are interested in the same phenomena under study should take the components of this investigation to a higher level, perhaps in terms of more sophisticated statistical methodology and research design, a wider and more diverse population, or a more focused examination of any one of the major variables of this study. For example, future research could examine the moderating role of conflict management style in the work place; the effect of immediate supervisors' communication conflict management style on their subordinates' conflict handling style; or the role of organizational culture in the enhancement of interpersonal communication in the workplace.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant:

This survey questionnaire is intended exclusively for **Chinese IT workers in China and Thai IT workers in Thailand**, as part of a research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master of Science at Assumption University, Bangkok.

Please fill in the questionnaire with utmost care and sincerity. Your time and cooperation is very much appreciated. All information will remain anonymous and confidential. If you have any problem during the questionnaire completion, please contact the researcher Joanna Zhi Juan Wu by email: Amymore@gmail.com; or by Mobile (0066)846823690.

Part I. PDQ

Direction: Please mark the “☐” corresponding to your answer.

Nationality: ☐ Chinese ☐ Thai ☐ Others (please specify)_____.

Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

Age: ☐ Less than 22 ☐ 22 to 28 years old; ☐ 29 to 35 yrs ☐ 36 and above

Educational Level: ☐ Lower than Bachelor Degree ☐ Bachelor Degree
☐ Master Degree and higher

Type of Work: ☐ Administration ☐ Sales ☐ Technical Support ☐ Programming
☐ Others (please specify)_____

Position Level: ☐ Managerial ☐ Non-managerial

Years in Current Organization: ☐ less than 1 yr ☐ 1 to 2 yrs ☐ 3 to 5 yrs ☐ 5 yrs and above

Size of Company: ☐ Small (Less than 100 employees) ☐ Medium (100-500) ☐ Large (501 or more)

Geographical Work Location: ☐ China ☐ Thailand

Part II. OCCI

Directions: Think of disagreements you have encountered in task situations with your immediate work group. For each item select the number that represents the behavior you are most likely to exhibit. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please respond to all items using the following scales:

1 Never; 2 Very seldom; 3 Seldom; 4 Sometimes; 5 Often; 6 Very often; 7 Always

ITEMS	Never	Always
1. I bend my ideas with my work group to create new alternatives for resolving a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I shy away from topics which are sources of disputes with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I make my opinion know in a disagreement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I suggest solutions which combine a variety of viewpoints.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I steer clear of disagreeable situations.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I give in a little on my ideas when my work group also gives in.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I avoid my work group when I suspect that he or she wants to discuss a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I integrate arguments into a new solution from the issues raised in a dispute with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I will go 50-50 to reach a settlement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I raise my voice when I am trying to get my work group to accept my position.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I offer creative solutions in discussions of disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I keep quiet about my views in order to avoid disagreements.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I give in if my work group will meet me half way.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I downplay the importance of a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I reduce disagreements by making them seem insignificant.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I meet my work group at a mid-point in our differences.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
17. I assert my opinion forcefully.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I dominate arguments until my work group understands my positions.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

Part II. OCCI

Directions: Think of disagreements you have encountered in task situations with your immediate work group. For each item select the number that represents the behavior you are most likely to exhibit. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please respond to all items using the following scales:

1 Never; 2 Very seldom; 3 Seldom; 4 Sometimes; 5 Often; 6 Very often; 7 Always

ITEMS	Never	Always
1. I bend my ideas with my work group to create new alternatives for resolving a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I shy away from topics which are sources of disputes with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I make my opinion know in a disagreement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I suggest solutions which combine a variety of viewpoints.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I steer clear of disagreeable situations.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I give in a little on my ideas when my work group also gives in.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I avoid my work group when I suspect that he or she wants to discuss a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I integrate arguments into a new solution from the issues raised in a dispute with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I will go 50-50 to reach a settlement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I raise my voice when I am trying to get my work group to accept my position.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I offer creative solutions in discussions of disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I keep quiet about my views in order to avoid disagreements.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I give in if my work group will meet me half way.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I downplay the importance of a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I reduce disagreements by making them seem insignificant.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I meet my work group at a mid-point in our differences.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
17. I assert my opinion forcefully.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I dominate arguments until my work group understands my positions.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

Part II. OCCI

Directions: Think of disagreements you have encountered in task situations with your immediate work group. For each item select the number that represents the behavior you are most likely to exhibit. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please respond to all items using the following scales:

1 Never; 2 Very seldom; 3 Seldom; 4 Sometimes; 5 Often; 6 Very often; 7 Always

ITEMS	Never	Always
1. I bend my ideas with my work group to create new alternatives for resolving a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I shy away from topics which are sources of disputes with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I make my opinion know in a disagreement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I suggest solutions which combine a variety of viewpoints.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I steer clear of disagreeable situations.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I give in a little on my ideas when my work group also gives in.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I avoid my work group when I suspect that he or she wants to discuss a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I integrate arguments into a new solution from the issues raised in a dispute with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I will go 50-50 to reach a settlement with my work group.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I raise my voice when I am trying to get my work group to accept my position.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I offer creative solutions in discussions of disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I keep quiet about my views in order to avoid disagreements.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I give in if my work group will meet me half way.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I downplay the importance of a disagreement.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I reduce disagreements by making them seem insignificant.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I meet my work group at a mid-point in our differences.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
17. I assert my opinion forcefully.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I dominate arguments until my work group understands my positions.	1	2 3 4 5 6 7

19. I suggest we work together to create solutions to disagreements.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. I try to use my work groups ideas to generate solutions to problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. I offer trade-offs to reach solutions in a disagreement.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. I argue insistently for my stance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. I withdraw when my work group confronts me about a controversial issue.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. I side-step disagreements when they arise.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I try to smooth over disagreements by making them appear unimportant.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. I insist my position be accepted during a disagreement with my work group.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. I make differences(disagreements) seem less serious.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. I hold my tongue rather than argue with my work group.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. I ease conflict by claiming our differences are trivial.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. I stand firm in expressing my viewpoints during a disagreement with my work group.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please go to next page for Part III

Part III. OCI

Direction: Think of the highest level (e.g., work unit, division, department, and directorate) within your overall organization that is most meaningful to you in terms of how you experience your organization's culture. Please respond to all items using the following scales:

1 Strongly disagree

2 Disagree

3 Somewhat disagree

4 Neither agree nor disagree

5 Somewhat agree

6 Agree

7 Strongly agree

ITEMS	Strongly disagree
	Strongly agree
31. In this organization, goals are set to be realistic but challenging.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. In this organization, members' decisions need to be approved by their superiors.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. In this organization, members gain status and influence by being critical such as opposing the idea of others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. In this organization, members believe that they have a positive impact on goals and objectives.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. In this organization, members try to avoid conflicts and open disputes.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. In this organization, confrontation and negativism are rewarded.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. In this organization, innovation and creativity are encouraged and rewarded.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
38. In this organization, there are many rules and regulations to be followed	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
39. In this organization, members believe that they will be rewarded for taking charge and controlling subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
40. In this organization, members are encouraged to gain enjoyment from their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting activities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
41. In this organization, decisions are made by centralization.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
42. In this organization, members value on the basis of the authority in member's position.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
43. In this organization, cooperation across apartments of the organizations is actively encouraged.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
44. In this organization, members may disagree with superiors but not show it to please supervisors.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
45. In this organization, there is high competition and win-lose situations.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
46. In this organization, members work like they are part of a team	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

47. In this organization, decisions will flow from superiors and subordinates need to follow.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
48. In this organization, members are rewarded for outperforming others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
49. In this organization, members from different departments have a common perspective.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
50. In this organization, violating rules and regulations will get a person in trouble	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
51. In this organization, members dedicate their time for work in order to attain goals.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
52. In this organization, members are sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
53. In this organization, members try to maintain harmony and face saving.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
54. In this organization, perfectionism, persistence, and hard work are valued.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

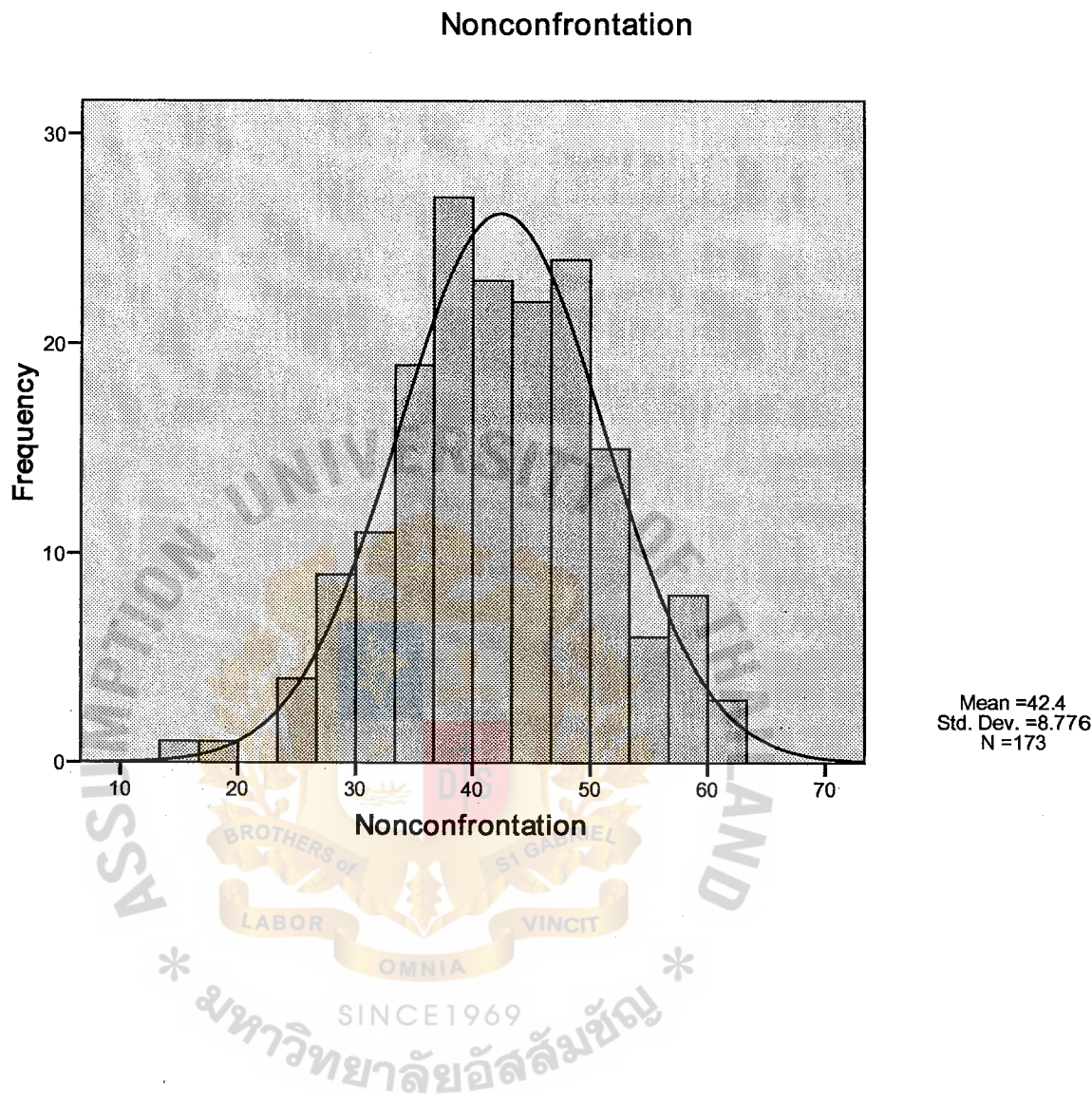




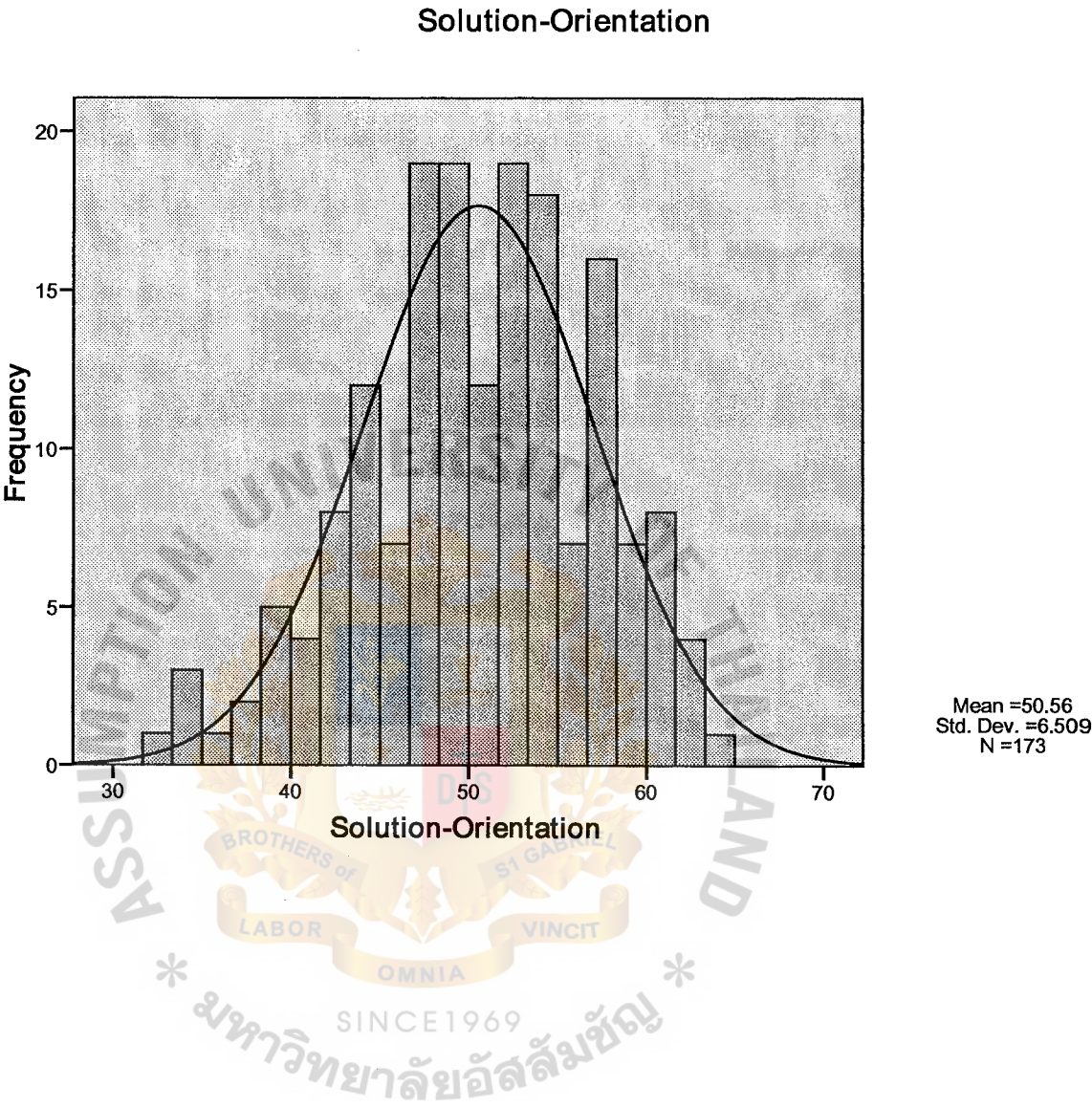
APPENDIX B

HISTOGRAM

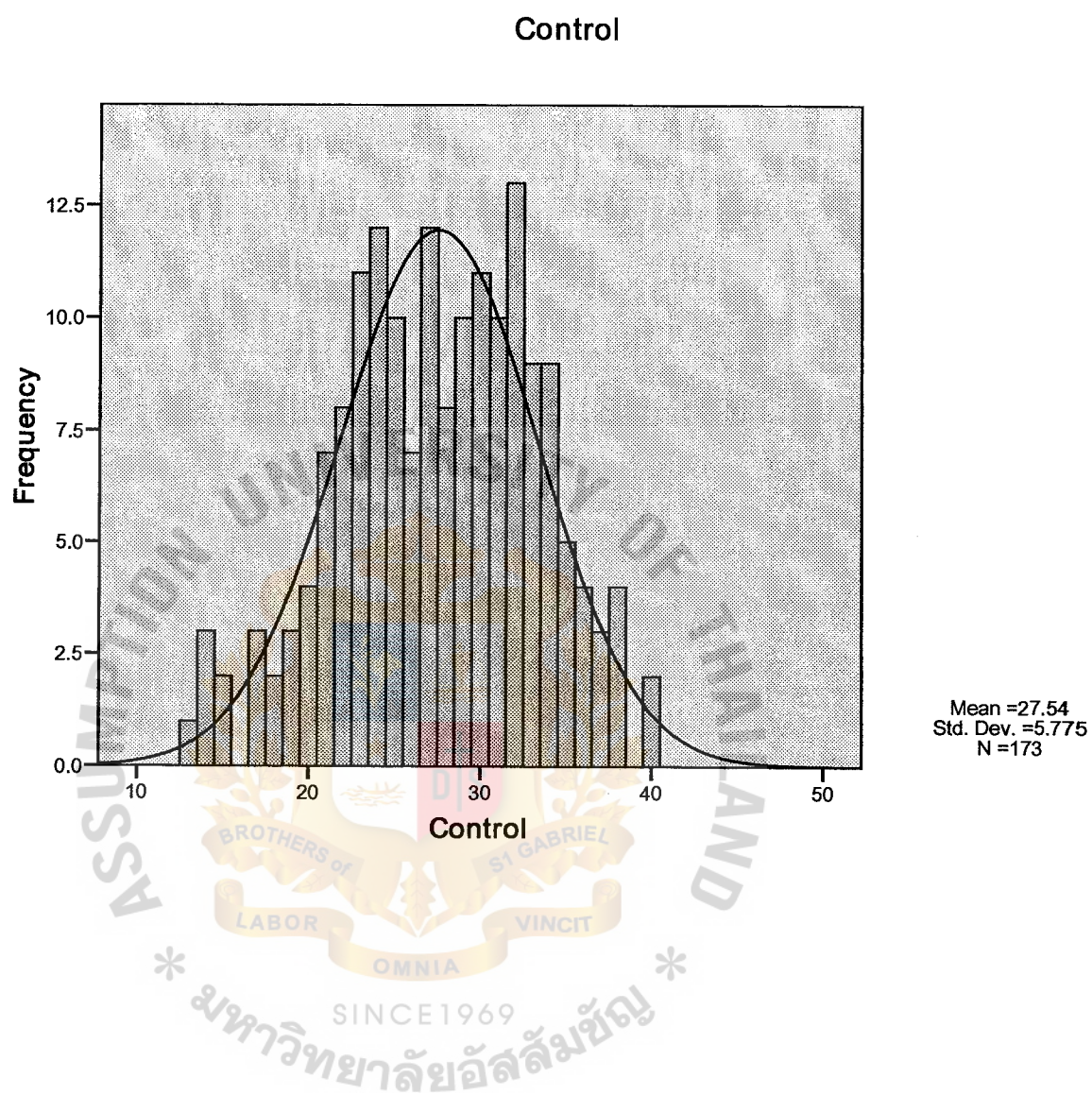
Histogram on Nonconfrontation among Chinese IT Workers



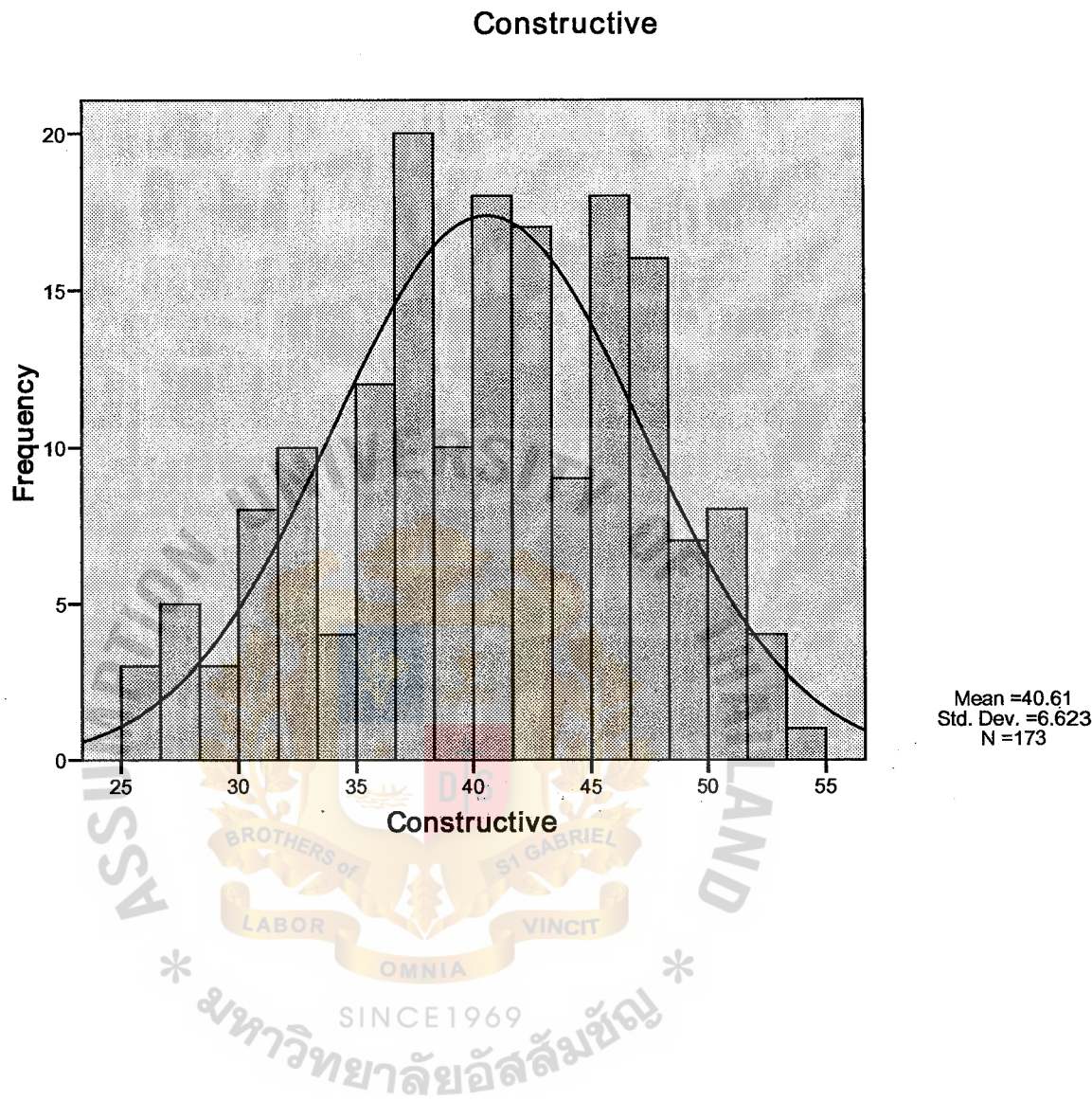
Histogram on Solution-Orientation among Chinese IT Workers



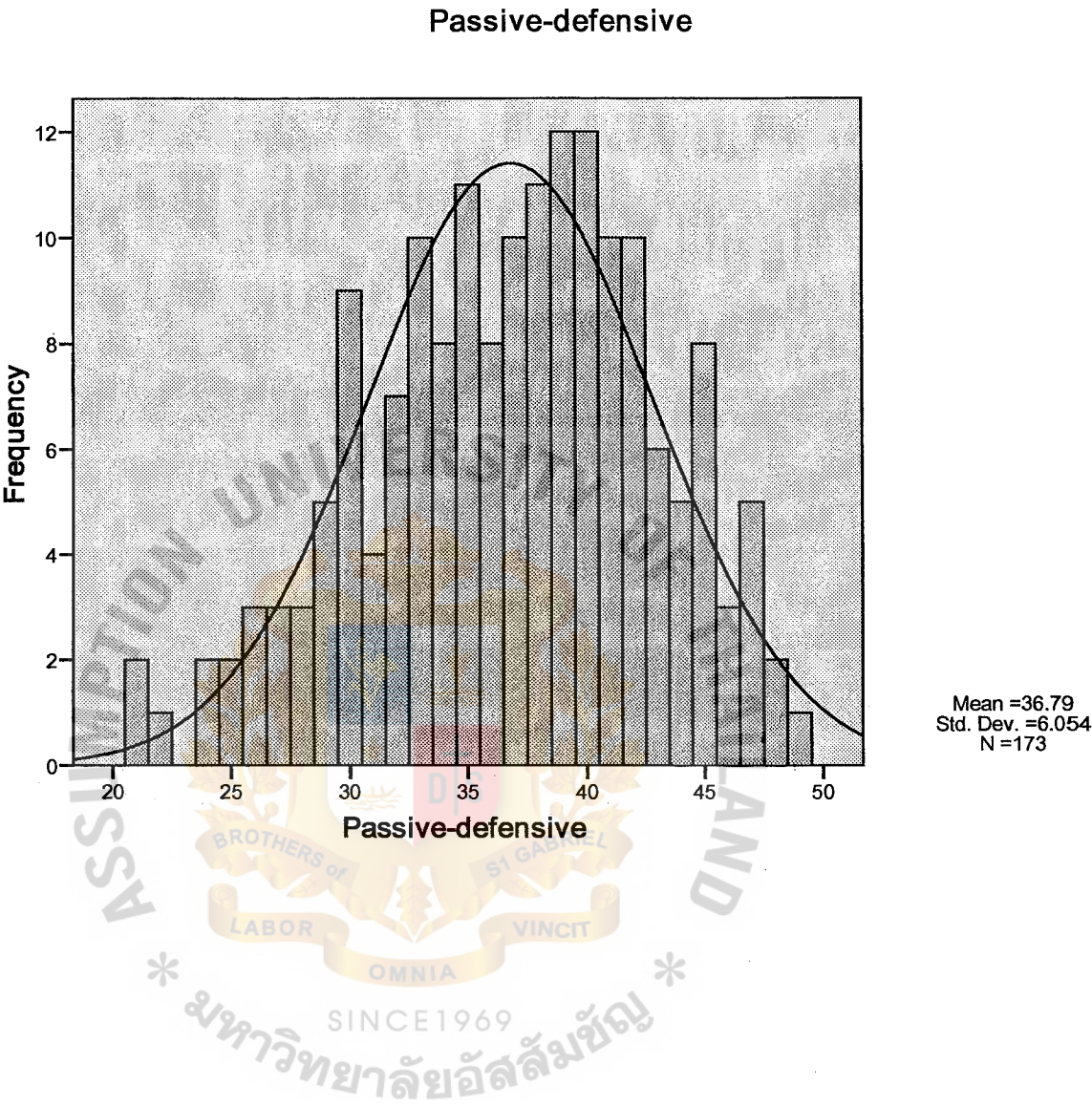
Histogram on Control among Chinese IT Workers



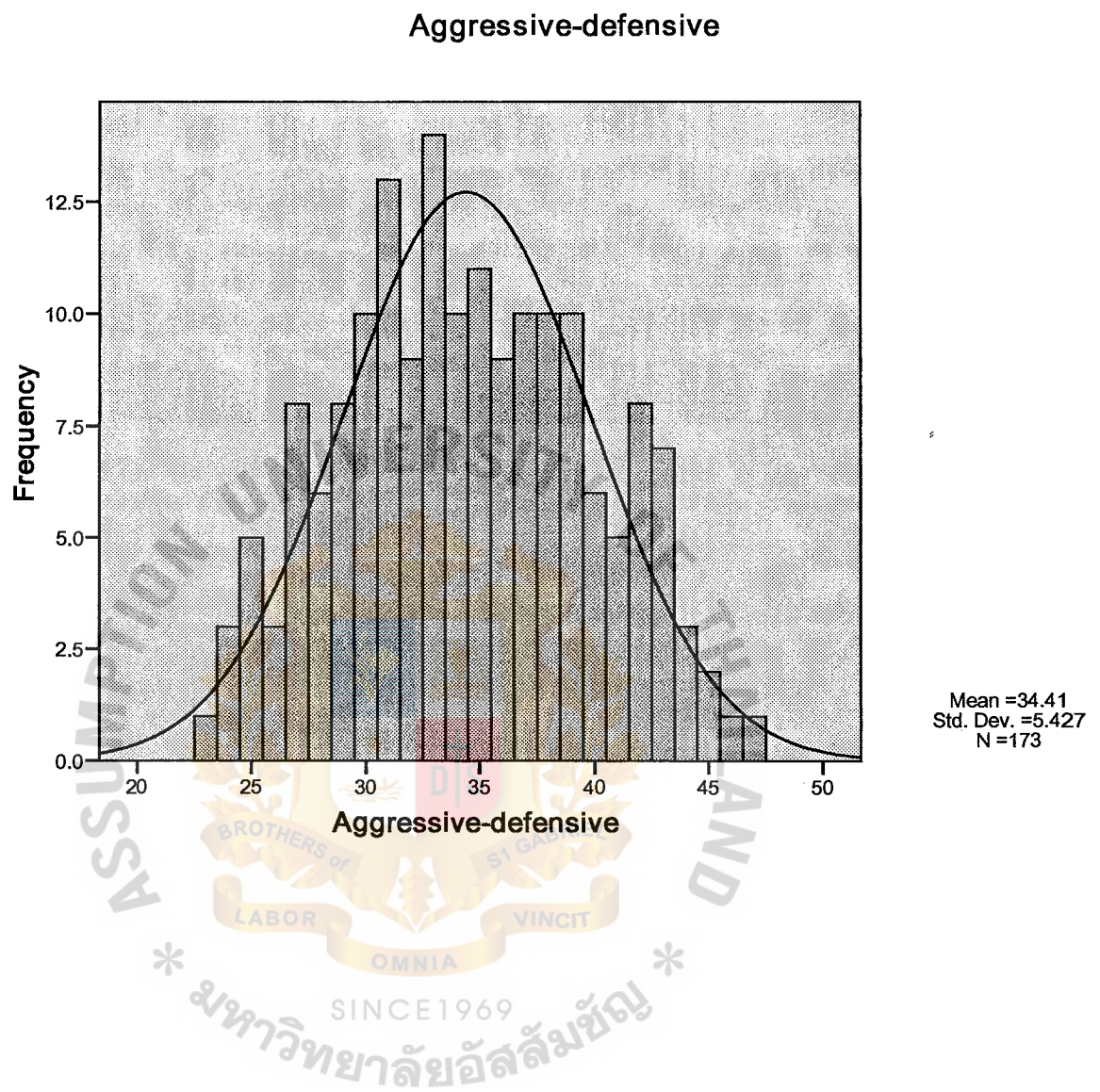
Histogram on Perceived Constructive Organizational Culture among Chinese IT Workers



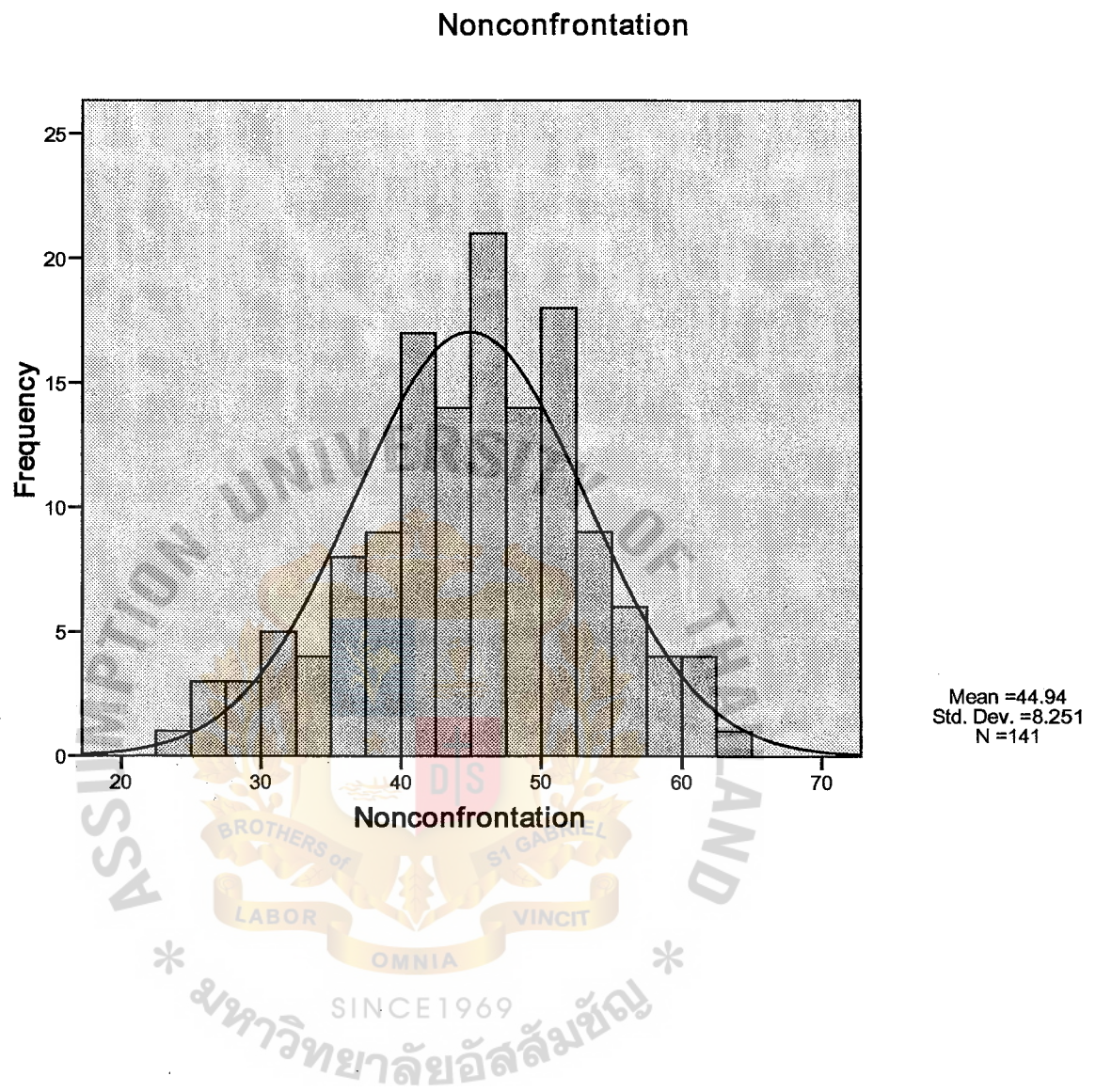
Histogram on Perceived Passive-defensive Organizational Culture among Chinese IT Workers



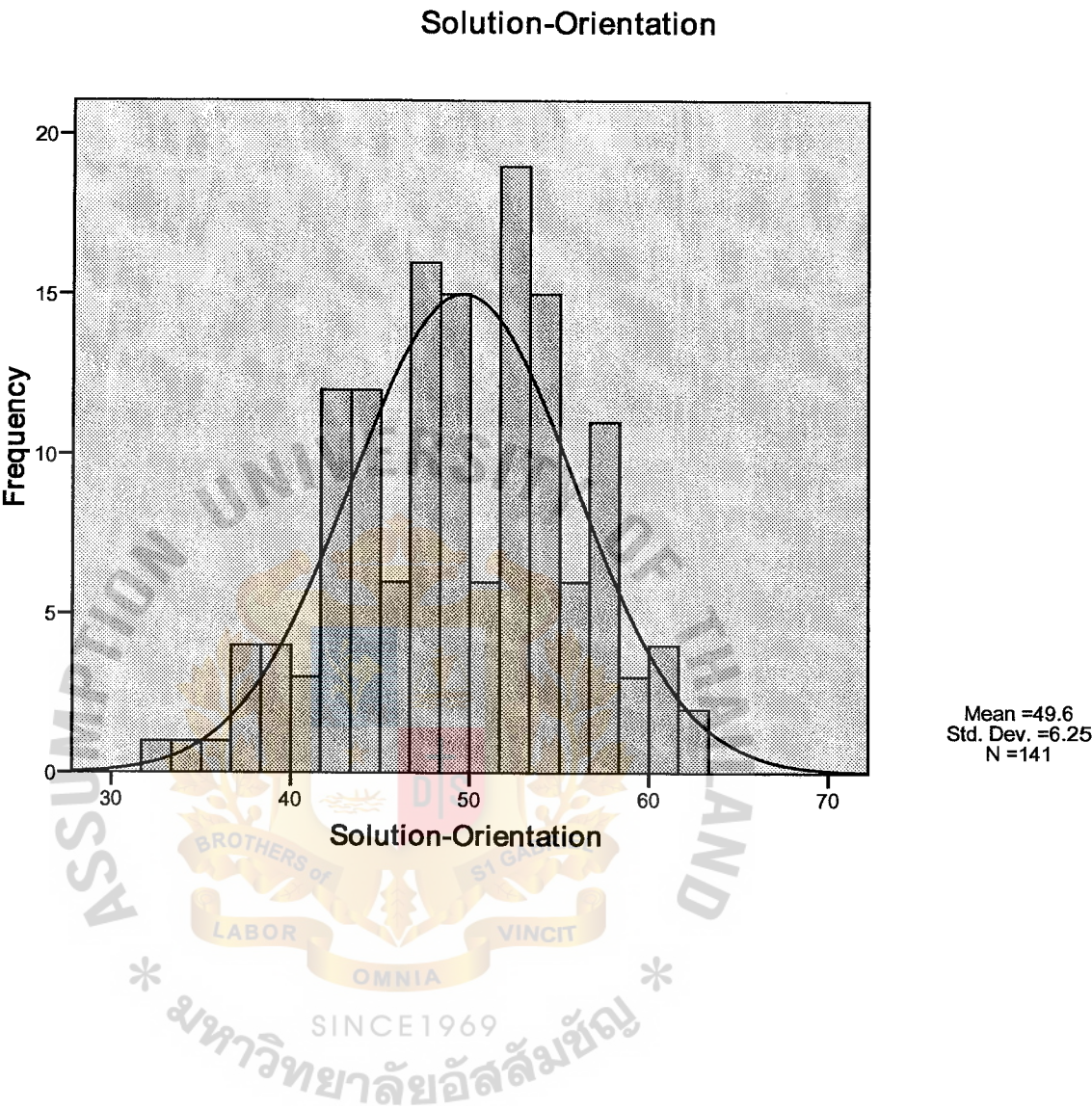
Histogram on Perceived Aggressive-defensive Organizational Culture among Chinese IT Workers



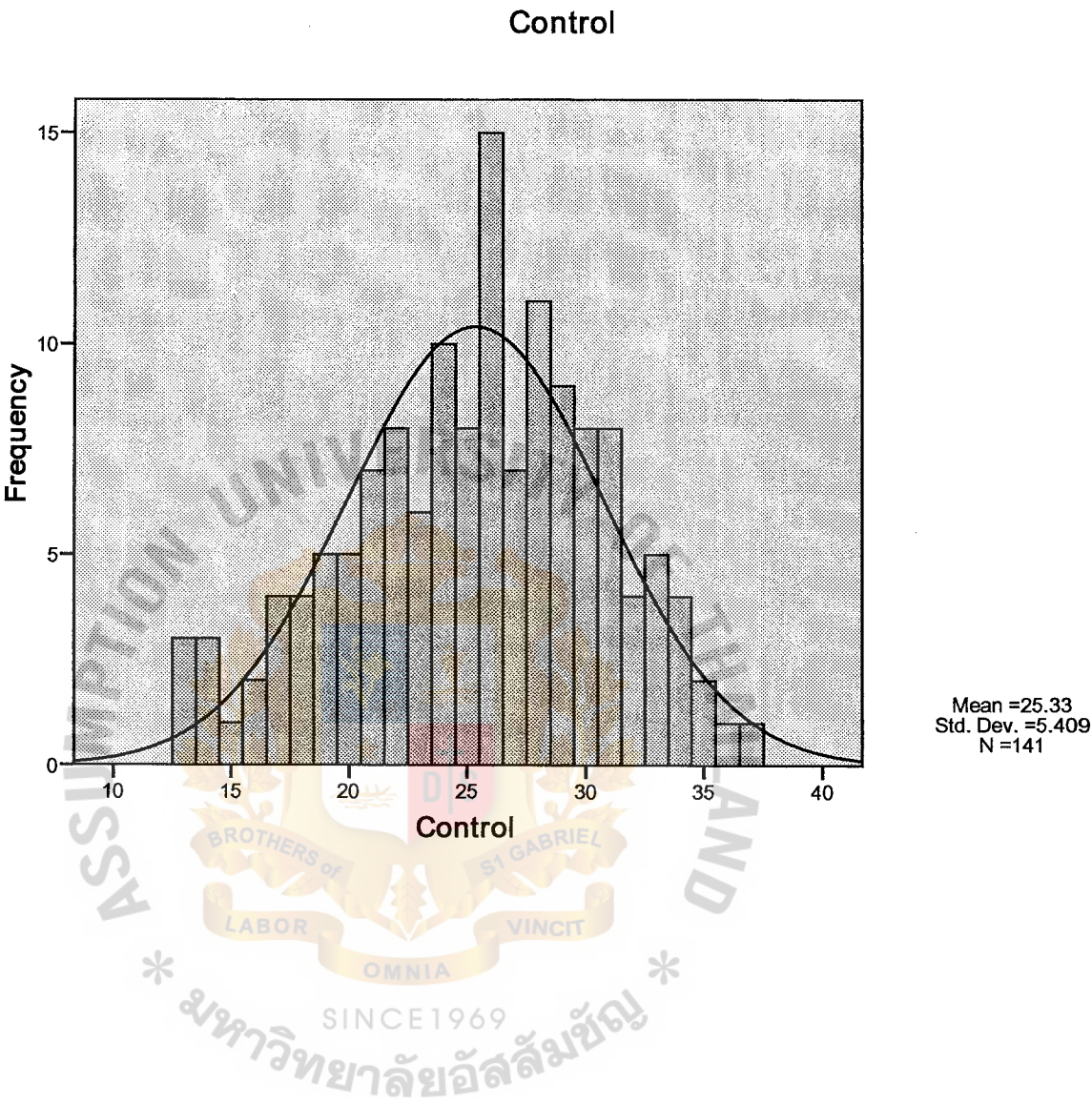
Histogram on Nonconfrontation among Thai IT Workers



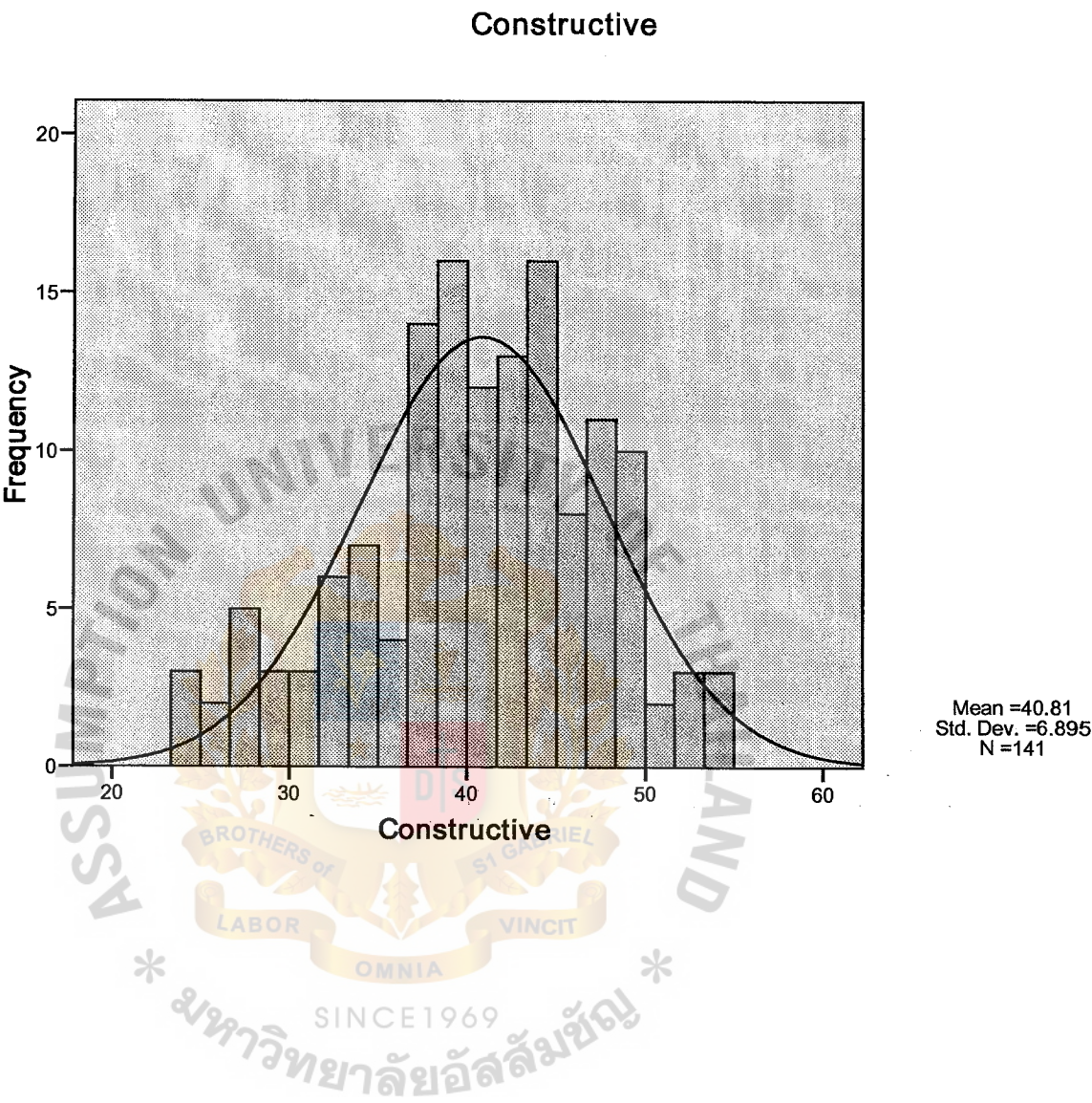
Histogram on Solution-Orientation among Thai IT Workers



Histogram on Control among Thai IT Workers



Histogram on Perceived Constructive Organizational Culture among Thai IT Workers



Histogram on Perceived Passive-defensive Organizational Culture among Thai IT Workers

