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Cultural intelligence and conflict management styles

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Keywords:	cultural intelligence, self-monitoring, Conflict management styles

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5 **Purpose** –Negotiating effectively in multicultural contexts or others is not only a very
6 important skill for all organizational elements, but it is also crucial to
7 interorganizational relations (e.g., Adler, 2008). If defined as a process that occurs
8 when one party feels adversely affected by another (e.g., De Dreu, 1997) conflict
9 management styles can be analysed as a function of personality variables. In this
10 respect cultural intelligence and self-monitoring appear to be relevant variables, as
11 they are characterised by the demonstration of flexibility and interest in elements
12 that are present in conflict management styles. In this study the intention was to
13 evaluate the extent to which variables such as cultural intelligence and self-
14 monitoring can positively influence the ability to solve interpersonal conflicts more
15 effectively.
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26 **Design/methodology/approach** – This study, with a sample of 399 individuals,
27 aimed to test a model that explores how cultural intelligence and self-monitoring are
28 related as predictor variables in the styles of conflict resolution.
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33 **Findings** – It was observed that cultural intelligence presents itself as a reasonable
34 predictor of conflict management styles while self-monitoring appeared as a
35 dispositional and controversial measure in relation to those styles. Self-monitoring
36 exhibited itself as an important predictor of conflict management, but on the other
37 hand it had an influence on the choice of the dominating style in conflict situations.
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43 **Practical implications** – To understand the predictors of conflict management style
44 and in particular to realize the extent to which cultural intelligence promotes a more
45 effective conflict management style can help in the development of selection
46 processes and skill training programs. The development of these multicultural skills
47 will contribute to individual, social and organizational well-being.
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53 **Originality/value** – This study contributes to the literature of individual differences
54 and conflict management, demonstrating that some individual differences that
55 predict the styles of conflict management can lead to a certain ambiguity in
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3 understanding the behaviour that an individual may adopt in situations of conflict.

4 **Keywords** – Cultural intelligence, self-monitoring, conflict management styles

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6 **Paper type** –Research Paper
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10 11 12 **Introduction**

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14 In the light of globalization and the increased cultural diversity of organizations, it is
15 essential to understand how cultural differences influence both conflict
16 management styles and the negotiation process. Conflict is a perceived divergence
17 of interest between two or more sides (e.g., Pruitt & Rubin, 1986) and, depending on
18 the style adopted, conflict can be an asset as it can stimulate creativity,
19 independence and innovation.
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25 Organizations are now exposed to unfamiliar cultural contexts and culturally
26 diverse workforces. These intercultural interactions are a challenge since cultural
27 differences can increase conflict, tensions and difficulties (e.g., Earley & Ang, 2003).
28 Moreover, multiculturalism will tend to increase the time that needs to be spent
29 managing conflicts. So, the abilities to relate to people of different cultures (Dusi,
30 Messetti, & Steinbach, 2014) and to resolve conflicts have been perceived as key
31 competencies given the significant increase in interactions between individuals of
32 different cultural backgrounds (Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006). Consequently,
33 new global skills must be acquired in order to achieve effective negotiation and
34 interaction both in multicultural (e.g., Robinson & Harvey, 2008) and domestic
35 contexts. Several multicultural skills which are considered fundamental to deal with
36 all the metamorphoses that organizations have to face, have appeared in the
37 literature. Highlighted amongst them is the role of cultural intelligence which can be
38 defined as a set of capabilities and skills that facilitate adaptation to diverse cultural
39 situations and allow us to interpret unfamiliar behaviours and situations (Van Dyne,
40 Ang, & Livermore, 2010). Cultural intelligence is considered to be an important and
41 vital competence (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004) not only to deal with cultural
42 diversity, but also to achieve better adaptation and intercultural adjustment (Earley
43 & Ang, 2003). On the basis of previous research it may be reasonable to suppose
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3 that cultural intelligence plays a key role in the adoption of effective conflict
4 management styles. This is because cultural intelligence endows individuals with the
5 capacity to overcome cultural barriers, e.g., to adjust their behaviour in order to
6 work efficiently and effectively in specific cultural and other situations (Van Dyne et
7 al., 2012). On the other hand, personality is an antecedent of cultural intelligence
8 (Earley & Ang, 2003), so the personality trait self-monitoring, which is considered to
9 be a central concept in the analysis of social interaction (Anderson, 1987; Furnham &
10 Capon, 1983), can function as a positive predictor of conflict management when
11 associated with the cultural intelligence. The objective of this study is to evaluate the
12 extent to which variables such as cultural intelligence and self-monitoring can
13 predict conflict management styles.
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22 Furthermore with the exception of some studies (e.g., Chen, Wu, & Bian,
23 2014; Engle, Elahee, & Tatoglu, 2013; Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Groves, Feyerherm, &
24 Gu, 2014; Ramirez, 2010) that analysed the influence of cultural intelligence on
25 conflict management styles, there is a lack of research in this area, in particular
26 about the construct of self-monitoring as a predictor. Negotiating effectively is a
27 critical skill for all organizational members, and it has a crucial role in
28 interorganizational relations (Adler, 2008; Cai & Drake, 1998; Imai & Gelfand, 2010).
29 Thus, the identification of positive predictors for effective conflict management is
30 assumed as being key to organizational success.
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40 **Conflict Management Styles**

41 Conflict is an inevitable reality both in personal and organizational life. Given its
42 inevitability it must be managed. Conflict is defined as "a perceived or real
43 incompatibility of values, expectations, processes or outcomes between one or more
44 parties in practical and/or relational issues" (Ting-Toomey, 1994, p. 360).
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49 The strategies used to deal with conflict can be categorized according to the
50 way in which two variables intersect each other: the desire to satisfy the interests of
51 the counterparty, and the desire to satisfy one's own interests (Cunha, Rego, Cunha,
52 & Cabral-Cardoso, 2005). Five styles of conflict management result from this
53 intersection (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979):
54 integrating, avoiding, dominating, compromising, obliging. Rahim and Bonoma
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3 (1979) identify each style of conflict management as a function of the degree of
4 concern with self and the degree of concern with the others. The integrating style
5 refers to a high concern with others and self. The focus of this style is cooperation
6 and it is the most effective in conflict resolution. Win/win situations are sought in
7 which the issues are discussed and resolved for the benefit of both parties. The
8 views of the parties can be combined into a more comprehensive whole in order to
9 reach a consensus. The avoiding style refers to low concern with self and the others -
10 the individual seeks to avoid conflict and may even delay the matter until a more
11 suitable occasion or even withdraw himself/herself from the ominous scenario. The
12 dominating style refers to a high concern with self and a low concern with the
13 others. It is a style associated with authoritarianism, reflecting a concern to impose
14 self-interest. An individual with this style does everything to win or achieve his or her
15 goal, often ignoring the needs of the other party. It can also be used when it is
16 necessary to take quick decisions which are sometimes imposed, unpopular or
17 important (Rahim, 2002). The compromising style refers to an average concern with
18 self and with the others. It is an intermediate style in which both parties give way to
19 manage to win other things. Both parties have equal power, usually without time
20 pressure. The parties tend to reach a temporary solution with which neither party is
21 totally satisfied, and this creates a situation which could lead to new conflicts in the
22 future. The obliging style refers to a low concern with self and a high concern with
23 the others. Here the individual seeks to minimize the differences and to focus his or
24 her efforts on solving the problems by maximizing the common points in order to
25 satisfy the other party. It aims at peaceful coexistence and recognition of common
26 interests. There is a process of generosity, goodness and obedience relative to the
27 other party (Rahim, 2002).

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In general, organizational conflict literature shows that the integrating style is
related to the effective management of conflict and it is positively associated with
individual and organizational outcomes (Burke, 1970; Rahim, 2002). On the other
hand, dominating and avoiding styles are related to the ineffective management of
conflict (Rahim, 2002) while confrontation style is used to a significantly greater
degree in higher performing organizations (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Rahim, 2002).
Although these styles are often applied to organizational scenarios, it is possible to

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3 generalize them to scenarios that involve interpersonal interactions (Kaushal &
4 Kwantes, 2006).
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8 **Cultural intelligence as a predictor of conflict management style**

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10 In recent years, the ability to adapt to others has been emphasized through the
11 identification of various types of intelligence (Gardner, 1993) such as emotional
12 intelligence (Goleman, 1996), social intelligence (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1985;
13 Goleman, 2006), or interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1993). Although cultural
14 intelligence is consistent with the conceptualizations of intelligence (adaptability and
15 adjustment to the environment) (Gardner, 1993; Sternberg, 2000), it differs from
16 other types of intelligence because it focuses specifically on the culturally diverse
17 interactions (Van Dyne, Ang, & Koh, 2008). Despite its close relation to emotional
18 intelligence, cultural intelligence is making headway where emotional intelligence
19 leaves off (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004): an individual with high emotional
20 intelligence integrates what makes us simultaneously human and different from
21 each other, whereas a person with high cultural intelligence is able to comprehend
22 certain features of human behaviour that are specific to a person or group, as well as
23 those features that are neither universal nor idiosyncratic. Cultural intelligence is a
24 set of skills and competencies that facilitate the adaptation to different cultural
25 situations and allow us to interpret unfamiliar behaviours and situations (Van Dyne
26 et al., 2010).
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40 Earley and Ang (2003) based on the multidimensional intelligence model of
41 Sternberg and Detterman (1986) define cultural intelligence as an individual capacity
42 to work and effectively manage social interactions in different cultural settings. It's a
43 specific form of intelligence focused on the ability to learn, evaluate and behave
44 effectively in different situations characterized by cultural diversity (Ang et al., 2007).
45 This multidimensional construct enables the individual to learn continuously and
46 have a better coexistence with people of other cultures. It consists of four bases of
47 "intelligence": metacognitive, which refers to the awareness that individuals have for
48 interactions with individuals of different cultures; cognitive, which refers to the
49 specific knowledge one has about the rules, habits and conventions in new cultural
50 backgrounds; motivational, that captures the motivation that an individual has to
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3 learn and act effectively in various situations; and behavioural, conceptualized as the
4 flexibility of an individual to demonstrate appropriate actions with individuals from
5 other cultural contexts (Van Dyne et al., 2008; Ward, Wilson, & Fischer, 2011). Some
6 studies have linked personality attributes (e.g., intelligence, ethics, flexibility,
7 assertiveness) with conflict management styles. In this sense, the cultural
8 intelligence construct which provides individuals with the skills that promote
9 creativity (e.g., Leung, Maddux, Galinsky, & Chiu, 2008; Livermore, 2011), the
10 management of teams (e.g., Janssens & Brett, 2006) or leadership (e.g., Ng, Van
11 Dyne, & Ang, 2009), could also facilitate the management of conflicts (e.g., Chen et
12 al., 2014) and enable people to face the daily challenges professionally, either in
13 domestic, or multicultural contexts.

22 Considering the defining characteristics of cultural intelligence and its
23 dimensions, it is expected that individuals with high levels of cultural intelligence are
24 able to organize their social behaviour, opting for more integrative styles and more
25 cooperative relations, compared to those with lower levels of cultural intelligence
26 (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). They are more likely to persist, even if negotiating becomes
27 stressful and difficult, given their high motivation in different situations (e.g., Van
28 Dyne et al., 2012). The metacognitive dimension promotes active thinking in relation
29 to people and situations. It unleashes critical thinking about habits and beliefs and
30 enables the individual to make an assessment and to review mind maps, thereby
31 increasing, the ability to understand (Van Dyne et al., 2008). Individuals with high
32 levels of cognitive cultural intelligence have a deeper understanding of how people
33 are shaped/influenced by the environment in their way of thinking and acting (Van
34 Dyne et al., 2012). Similarly, high levels of culturally intelligent behaviour are
35 essential in conflict management. Individuals with high levels of culturally intelligent
36 behaviour can overcome the natural human tendency to rely on habits,
37 demonstrating a behavioural flexibility in different situations which can include a
38 change of code and an adjustment to the negotiating context (e.g., Molinsky, 2007).
39 Greater verbal flexibility increases communicational effectiveness; non-verbal
40 flexibility allows the individual to demonstrate compliance with the standards, and it
41 is especially critical because it works as a "silent language" allowing the individual to
42 interpret light indicators of sincerity, honesty and competence, etc. (Hall, 1959)

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3 which are fundamental in a negotiation process. Greater flexibility in terms of the
4 spoken word demonstrates that the individual understands the communication
5 standards and puts others at ease. In general, cultural intelligence enables
6 individuals to change their behaviour so that it is aligned to the nature of the conflict
7 and the requirements of the negotiation process. This change of behaviour,
8 according to specific situations, is a factor of utmost importance during conflict
9 resolution and the way individuals decide to change their behaviour (or not) is
10 strictly related to the self-monitoring personality trait. Consequently its analysis as a
11 mediating variable in conflict management styles is presented as having relevance.
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20 21 **Self-monitoring as a predictor of conflict management style**

22 According to Snyder (1974) individuals regulate their behaviour in order to
23 introduce a specific self according to situational cues, i.e., they differ in the way they
24 present themselves in social situations.
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28 Self-monitoring is considered to be a central concept in the analysis of social
29 interaction (Anderson, 1987; Furnham & Capon, 1983). It entails both sensitivity to
30 situational cues and the ability to adapt to situational demands (Bell, Schoenrock, &
31 O'Neal, 2000). Some individuals are motivated to present an appropriate Self in
32 different social situations while others are impelled to be themselves (Gainey, 2012).
33 According to self-monitoring theory, people are internally or externally motivated
34 (Snyder, 1974). Internally motivated individuals are characterized as low self-
35 monitors, and externally motivated individuals are characterized as high self-
36 monitors. Individuals with a high self-monitoring are considered "the world's
37 chameleons", willing to change their behaviour depending on the environment
38 where they are (Snyder, 1974). Studies have reported that those with high self-
39 monitoring are more likely to be good actors, to be sensitive to the social
40 appropriateness of behaviour, to regulate the degree to which emotional states are
41 displayed to others, to show more cross-situational variability in behaviour, and to
42 act in ways that are less consistent with privately held attitudes (Bell et al., 2000).
43 Usually these individuals obtain more positive results at work, because they change
44 their behaviour depending on the situation and are more likely to resolve conflicts
45 through the integrating and compromising styles (Warech, Smither, Reilly, Millsap, &
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3 Reilly, 1998). With their “reading-situation” capacity they tend to be the right
4 person, in the right place, at the right time (Snyder, 1987) engaging in appropriate
5 behaviours by means of mentally tailored images which are used as guides (Gupta,
6 Sing, Jandhyala, & Bhatt, 2013). These evidences are not restricted to an
7 organizational scenario, because high self-monitoring presents itself as a variable
8 linked to superior interpersonal effectiveness (Warech et al., 1998). On the other
9 hand, individuals who exhibit low self-monitoring seek to be themselves in different
10 social situations (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). In order to be themselves they resort
11 to introspection, focusing their attention on their thoughts, beliefs and feelings. They
12 use internal attitudes, values and beliefs as guides to behaviour (Gupta et al., 2013;
13 Snyder & Monson, 1975) so their behaviour is consistent even in different social
14 situations, or at least similar, because they are motivated by dispositions, which do
15 not differ from one situation to another (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; see Snyder,
16 1987, for review).

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28 According to the study by Gupta et al. (2013), self-monitoring is a significant
29 predictor of cultural intelligence and its dimensions. The conflict management styles
30 adopted, indicate a characteristic of personality, so the trait of a self-monitoring
31 personality and the attribute of cultural intelligence, can predict the conflict
32 management style to be adopted. In other words, it is expected that individuals with
33 a high level of self-monitoring, who adapt to situations of conflict and act according
34 to the needs of the others, adopt the integrating and compromising styles to resolve
35 those conflicts. Individuals with lower levels of self-monitoring, which evidence a
36 stable and carefree behaviour towards the others` needs, will tend to adopt the
37 dominating and avoiding styles (Kaushal & Kwantes, 2006). Research linking these
38 concepts simultaneously with concomitant conflict management styles is scarce, at
39 least as far as we know. A notable exception is the study by Kaushal and Kwantes
40 (2006), which sought to explore the influence of self-monitoring in conflict resolution
41 styles. These authors didn't find any relationship between these variables,
42 suggesting the application of a measure with more items, than the scale of 16 items
43 developed by Warech et al. (1998). A further contribution by Mehra and Schenkel
44 (2008) showed that individuals who have a high self-monitoring tend to experience
45 greater degrees of conflict.
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5 Given the importance of conflict resolution in organizations, the
6 identification of predictors of effective conflict management is assumed to be key to
7 organizational success. The present study examines the effect of cultural intelligence
8 and self-monitoring on conflict management styles. This study proposes the
9 following model (Figure 1) for investigation.
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17 **Research design and methodology**

18 *Population and Sample*

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20 The study sample consists of 399 individuals (62.9% female and 30.8% male) from
21 several regions of Portugal (22.3 % Alentejo and Algarve, 23.5% Beiras, Estremadura,
22 Ribatejo and 8.2% foreigners – who were all Portuguese speakers) aged between 18
23 and 59 years (M = 26.40; SD = 8.90). Many of the participants were graduates
24 (46.9%).
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31 *Measures*

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33 *Cultural Intelligence Scale:* The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), adapted to the
34 Portuguese population by Sousa, Gonçalves, Reis and Santos (2015), was originally
35 developed in English by Van Dyne et al. (2008). This 20-item tool, rated according to
36 a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree), is a
37 multidimensional measure that includes four dimensions of "intelligence":
38 metacognitive (4 items, e.g., item 1: "I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use
39 when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds"), cognitive (6
40 items, e.g., item 7: "I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other
41 cultures"), motivational (5 items, e.g., item 11: "I enjoy interacting with people from
42 different cultures") and behavioural (5 items, e.g., item 18: "I vary the rate of my
43 speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it"). The Cronbach's alpha for the
44 Portuguese adaptation of the scale was 0.93; the alpha of the scale dimensions
45 ranged from 0.86 to 0.89.
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56 *Conflict Management Style:* The participants answered the instrument developed
57 by Simões (2008) based on the assumptions of the Rahim's contingencial model
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3 (1983), demonstrating a Cronbach's alpha of 0.80. This instrument consists of 30
4 items rated according to a Likert-type scale from 1 (rarely) to 7 (usually)
5 contemplating the five conflict management styles: dominating (e.g., item 7: "I'd
6 rather win than agree to compromise"), avoiding (e.g., item 2: "I'd rather avoid the
7 person until the problem is solved by itself"), compromising (e.g., item 30: "If both
8 give in a little, we will have a solution easily"), obliging (e.g., item 25: "I agree
9 immediately before discussion") and integrating (e.g., item 12: "I try to act as a
10 mediator not as an adversary"). The five scale dimensions showed acceptable levels
11 of internal consistency, varying the alpha between 0.66 and 0.73.
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19 *Self-Monitoring:* We used the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) developed by Snyder
20 and Gangestad (1986) and translated and tested for the Portuguese population. The
21 face validity was supported by translation and retranslation made by four bilingual
22 translators and subsequently adjusted to the final version. Participants rated the
23 extent to which they regarded the statements as true or not, concerning their own
24 behaviour. A Likert scale of 1 (not true) to 7 (totally true) was used. In terms of
25 reliability, the scale showed an internal consistency of 0.80.
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32 In addition to the scales, items on the biographical variables (age, gender,
33 employment status and educational level) were included, in order to characterize
34 the sample.
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38 *Procedure*

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40 *Data collection:* Upon approval of the Scientific Committee (the entity responsible
41 for monitoring the procedures and ethical safeguards of the research) and assurance
42 of ethical criteria (e.g., information about the voluntary and anonymous nature of
43 the study), participants were asked to answer an online questionnaire with an
44 average completion time of 15 minutes.
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49 *Data analysis:* The data collected were statistically analysed using IBM SPSS and
50 AMOS (version 20.0) and the significance level was assumed at 0.05.
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52 *Dimensions Analysis:* Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated for
53 each dimension of the variables under study.
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58 **Results**

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3 In table 1 we can see the means and standard deviations of all the variables under
4 study. Regarding cultural intelligence, the cognitive dimension features the lower
5 mean ($M = 3.97$; $SD = 1.06$) while the metacognitive dimension presents the highest
6 mean ($M = 5.20$; $SD = 1.02$). These results suggest that, although individuals do not
7 possess a specific knowledge about the standards, habits and conventions of the
8 new cultural contexts; they seek to be more aware when they interact with
9 individuals from other cultures. As for self-monitoring it was obtained $M = 3.92$; $SD =$
10 0.60 . In relation to conflict management styles, it turns out that the style integrating
11 presented the highest mean ($M = 4.83$; $SD = 0.96$) and the style obliging the lowest
12 mean ($M = 3.13$; $SD = 0.94$).
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26 The verification of the model, was made by means of hierarchical regression
27 analyses carried out to explore the effects of the cultural intelligence and self-
28 monitoring on the conflict management styles.
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31 The two dispositional variables (cultural intelligence and self-monitoring)
32 explain 13% of the variance [$F(3, 398) = 19.212, p = 0.00$]. We also observed that the
33 explanatory weight of cultural intelligence on conflict management styles increases
34 slightly when it is alone as an independent variable ($\beta = 0.182, p = 0.00$) (Figure 2).
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44 The four dimensions of cultural intelligence are only related to the
45 integrating style of conflict management. The metacognitive dimension is the only
46 one that presents a considerable percentage of the variance of this style, 11% ($R^2 =$
47 0.113) [$F(1, 398) = 50.546, p = 0.00$] and an explanatory power of $\beta = 0.336; p = 0.00$.
48 The remaining dimensions had very low regressions on the five conflict management
49 styles. The contribution of self-monitoring to the conflict management styles
50 provides an explanation for 11% of the variance [$F(1, 398) = 48.435, p = 0.00$].
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5 In exploring which of the styles had the greater explanatory weight, it was found
6 that the dominating and compromising strategies have a higher weight in relation to
7 the others ($\beta = 0.280$, $p = 0.00$ and $\beta = 0.264$, $p = 0.00$, respectively). It should be
8 noted that the integrating strategy did not appear to be significant in this
9 relationship ($\beta = 0.041$, $p = 0.41$) (Table 2).
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14 15 **Discussion and conclusion**

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17 The organizational complexity caused by cultural diversity is now a challenge
18 for human resources management. Nowadays intercultural meetings are almost
19 inevitable, and interactions between individuals from different cultures involve
20 different communication styles, expectations, beliefs, and ways to deal with conflict
21 (Reguieg, 2014). As cultural differences can result in misunderstandings (Earley &
22 Ang, 2003), it is relevant to consider predictor variables that have a positive and
23 productive effect on conflict resolution.
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29 This article aimed to test a model where high levels of cultural intelligence
30 mediated by a high self-monitoring, affect and predict positively the tendency an
31 individual has to use effective conflict management styles according to the individual
32 characteristics of those involved in the conflict. In terms of the dispositional
33 measures used to predict the conflict management styles, it was observed that
34 cultural intelligence presents itself as a reasonable predictor of conflict management
35 style. By adding the self-monitoring variable its explanatory power decreased
36 slightly. However, it is emphasized that the single dimension of cultural intelligence
37 having a determining power in conflict management styles is the metacognitive
38 dimension. This dimension reasonably predicts the integrating style. It promotes
39 active thinking about people and situations and unleashes critical thinking about
40 habits and beliefs. It also enables the individual to make an assessment and to
41 review mind maps which also increases the capacity to understand (Van Dyne et al.,
42 2008). In addition this is dimension presents a higher mean.
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54 These results indicate that the existence of cooperative reasoning in
55 individuals with high levels of intelligence is very important to interpersonal
56 relations, since the outcome in conflict situations will be more satisfactory for both
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3 parties (Imai & Gelfand, 2010). So if individuals have a greater awareness of the
4 cultural background of each other during social interactions and behave in order to
5 emphasize their connection with others then, in a conflict, they will be likely to opt
6 for strategies that benefit not only themselves but also the other party, and perhaps
7 more importantly, strengthening and maintaining at the same time their relationship
8 with the others.
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14 Self-monitoring appeared in the study as a predictor of conflict management
15 style; being particularly important in the dominating dimension. The current study is
16 consistent with the Mehra and Schenkel's (2008) research and it suggests that there
17 may also be some disadvantages to being a social "chameleon": as individuals who
18 exhibited high self-monitoring used a more aggressive style of conflict management
19 than those with low levels of self-monitoring. If it is considered that an individual
20 with high self-monitoring has a special ability to focus on the emotions of others, it
21 might be expected that integrative strategies could be observed. Thus a company
22 seeking employees with high levels of cultural intelligence and high levels of self-
23 monitoring, might not obtain the desired integrative result. A culturally intelligent
24 individual will normally chose integrative strategies but if he or she exhibits high self-
25 monitoring then he or she will tend to adopt the dominating style and may therefore
26 experience more conflict situations (Mehra & Schenkel, 2008).
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38 Overall, this study examined the predictive power of personality variables on
39 conflict management styles. No previous study has simultaneously investigated the
40 effects of cultural intelligence and self-monitoring on conflict resolution styles. The
41 findings of the present study showed that cultural intelligence can reasonably
42 predict a person's choice of conflict resolution strategies and self-monitoring
43 introduces itself as a controversial dispositional measure in relation to those styles.
44 On the one hand, it presents itself as an important predictor of conflict management
45 ability, but on the other it has a greater weight in the choice of the dominating style
46 in conflict situations. If an individual presents a greater ability to perceive their
47 environment and to draw clues that give him or her the ability to act accordingly,
48 one would expect that, in situations of domestic or cultural diversity, such
49 individuals would show evidence of being more sensitive and skilled in managing
50 these aspects.
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Although these findings have shed some light on the influence of both cultural intelligence and self-monitoring constructs on conflict resolution styles, more research is needed in order to fully understand the role of both in conflict behaviour. The sample size used in this study can also be considered restrictive of the results achieved, since it is relatively small and homogeneous (collected only in Portugal). A larger sample might permit a broader analysis. Larger sample sizes from different countries should be included in future research, in order to conduct a comparative research. Future studies may contribute to this analysis with aspects that are relevant to conflict management, such as mimicry. Mimicry is an important factor in conflict resolution (e.g., Maddux, Mullen, & Galinsky, 2008; Swaab, Maddux, & Sinaceur, 2011) and varies according to the self-monitoring levels (Cheng & Chartrand, 2003). Multicultural personality may also be a variable to consider in future research as it focuses on cultural adaptation, intercultural competence and multicultural effectiveness (Ponterotto, Ruckdeschel, Joseph, Tennenbaum & Bruno, 2011; Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000). It is also suggested that subsequent analyses use the Intercultural Conflict Style (ICS) developed by Hammer (2005) that measures the individual level (the style that the individual has in conflict management styles) and allows comparison with cultural groups (level of conflict style aggregation).

Notwithstanding its limitations, the study has implications for cross-cultural management practice. It would help human resource professionals in creating a culturally competent workforce. By demonstrating the relationship between cultural intelligence, self-monitoring and conflict management styles, this study allows organizations to improve their human resource strategies. Understanding the predictor variables of conflict management style and, in particular the extent to which cultural intelligence promotes a more effective conflict management style could help in decision-making and negotiation and therefore contributing to organizational success.

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For Review Only

Tables:

Table 1

Means and standard deviation for cultural intelligence, self-monitoring and conflict management styles

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Cultural Intelligence	Metacognitive	5.20	1.03
	Cognitive	3.97	1.07
	Behavioural	5.12	1.11
	Motivational	4.92	1.10
			<i>M</i> = 4.74; <i>SD</i> = 0.83
Self-Monitoring		3.92	0.61
Conflict Management Styles	Obliging	3.13	0.94
	Avoiding	3.21	1.09
	Compromising	4.07	0.81
	Integrating	4.83	0.97
	Dominating	3.74	1.01

Table 2

Self-monitoring as a predictor of conflict management styles

		Self-monitoring		
		<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Conflict Management Styles	Dominating	0.280	5.816	0.079**
	Avoiding	0.224	4.579	0.050**
	Compromising	0.264	5.458	0.070**
	Obliging	0.196	3.991	0.039**
	Integrating	0.041	0.822	0.002

** $p < 0.001$

Figures:

Figure 1. Proposed model

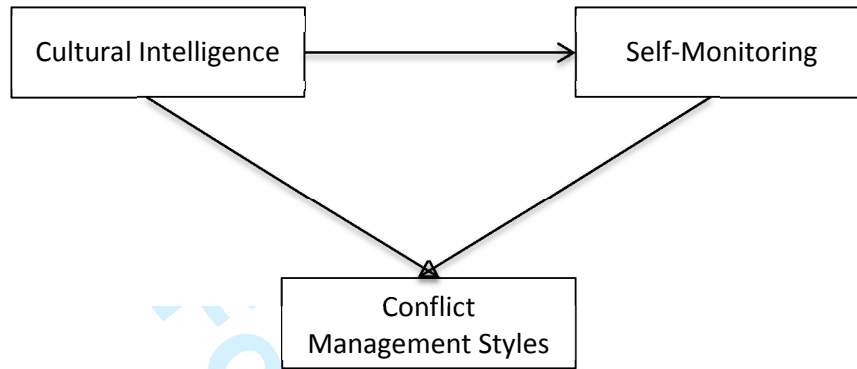


Figure 2. Cultural intelligence and self-monitoring: Predictor effect in conflict management styles

