



R.T.
NIĞDE ÖMER HALİSDEMİR UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

**CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE ON CONFLICT MANAGEMENT
STYLE: A RESEARCH IN MULTICULTURAL CONTEXT**

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

Prepared by:
Fatmir A. HOXHA

Niğde
April, 2020



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**Niğde
April, 2020**

ONAY SAYFASI

Prof. Dr. Fatih ÇETİN danışmanlığında Fatmir HOXHA tarafından hazırlanan “Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Styles: A Research in Multicultural Context” adlı bu çalışma jürimiz tarafından Niğde Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme Anabilim Dalı’nda Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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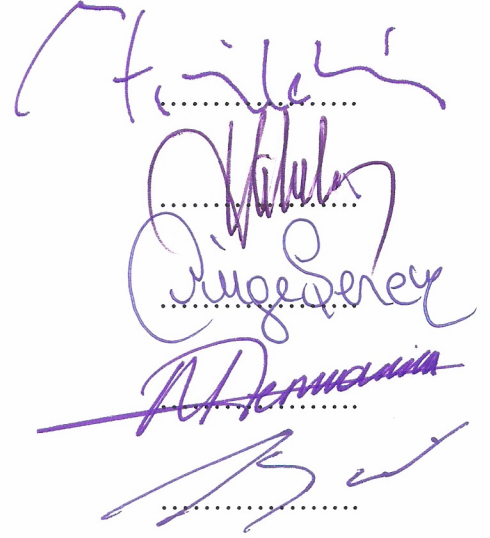
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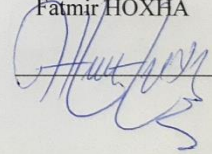
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DECLARATION

I declare in my paper titled "Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Style: A Research in Multicultural Context", I have followed the scientific and academic rules, I have written my thesis according to thesis writing guidance, and I have showed all references that I have used.

Date: 14/04/2020

Fatmir HOXHA



ABSTRACT

CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE ON CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLE: A RESEARCH IN MULTICULTURAL CONTEXT

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Supervisor: Prof.Dr. Fatih Çetin

Aprill 2020, 174 pages.

The main purpose of this thesis is to examine the impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) sub-dimensions on conflict management styles. For this purpose, a total of (N = 306) managers from private businesses in Kosovo have participated in the research data. The psychometric properties of the measures were tested using confirmatory factors analysis (CFA) and internal consistencies. In the study, the hypotheses were tested with a hierarchical regression analysis after controlling for age, gender, marital status, level of education and work experience.

The results showed that metacognitive CQ increases compromising and avoiding; cognitive CQ decreases collaborating, compromising and avoiding; motivational CQ increases collaborating, compromising and avoiding, behavioral CQ increases collaborating and avoiding conflict management styles. Also, all four sub- dimensions of CQ and collaborating, avoiding and compromising conflict management styles have differed in terms of level education and work experience respectively. All the findings indicated the significance role of CQ on conflict management process.

KeyWords: Cultural Intelligence, Conflict Management Styles, Kosovo.

ÖZET
DOKTORA TEZİ

**ÇATIŞMA YÖNETİMİ BİÇİMLERİNE KÜLTÜREL ZEKÂNININ ETKİSİ: ÇOK
KÜLTÜRLÜ ORTAMDA BİR ARAŞTIRMA**

Fatmir Hoxha
İşletme Anabilim Dalı
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Nisan, 2020, 174 sayfa

Bu tezin temel amacı, kültürel zekâ alt boyutlarının çatışma yönetimi biçimleri üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Bu amaçla, araştırmaya Kosova'daki özel bir şirketten toplam (N = 306) yönetici katılmıştır. Ölçümlerin psikometrik özellikleri doğrulayıcı faktör analizi ve iç tutarlılık analizleri ile test edilmiştir. Çalışmada oluşturulan hipotezler yaş, cinsiyet, medeni durum, eğitim düzeyi ve iş deneyimi kontrol edildikten sonra hiyerarşik regresyon analizi ile test edilmiştir.

Sonuçlar, üst-bilişsel kültürel zekânın çatışma yönetimi biçimlerinden rekabet etme, uzlaşma ve kaçınmayı artırdığını; bilişsel kültürel zekânın işbirliğini, uzlaşmayı ve kaçınmayı azalttığını; motivasyonel kültürel zekânın işbirliğini, uzlaşmayı ve kaçınmayı artırdığını; davranışsal kültürel zekânın işbirliğini ve kaçınmayı artırdığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, üst-bilişsel, bilişsel, motivasyonel ve davranışsal kültürel zekâ ve uyumu, çatışma ve ödün yönetimi tarzlarından kaçınma ve uzlaşma sırasıyla eğitim düzeyi ve iş deneyimi kontrol açısından farklılık göstermiştir. Tüm bulgular kültürel zekânın çatışma yönetimi sürecindeki önemini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kültürel Zekâ, Çatışma Yönetimi Biçimleri, Kosova.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The thesis paper is a good opportunity for all managers in Kosova to take information about CQ factors and CMS, because in the thesis are addressed interesting topics. Also, in the dissertation tested the data results about CQ and CMS in the local sample and this process was used for first time in Kosovo. This thesis paper has reflected some types of issues from the impact of four (CQ) sub-dimensions on conflict management styles.

This thesis describes the target audience has the appointed committee, supervisor, and interested colleagues. This document will contribute to advancement the knowledge. I hope for an open-minded audience providing rich feedback. With the sustenance and guidance of my supervisor Prof.Dr. Fatih Çetin and members of the commission, this research would not have been finished. Thank you for my supervisor and members of the commission, Prof. Dr. Haluk Korkmazyürek, Prof.Dr. Fatih Çetin, Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrge Şener, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Demiral and Assist. Prof. Dr. Murat Güler, and all professors in the Department of Business Administration in Niğde Ömer Halisdemir University for their wise advice, facility, support, and knowledge.

Niğde, April 2020

Fatmir HOXHA

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS INDEX

AGFI:	Adjustment Goodness of Fit
ACCOM:	Accommodating
AVO:	Avoiding
BEH:	Behavioral CQ
CQ:	Cultural Intelligence
CFI:	Comparative Fit Index
CRS:	Conflict Management Style
COG:	Cognitive CQ
CFA:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
COM:	Competing
COLL:	Collaborating
COMP:	Compromising
EU:	European Union
EI:	Emotional Intelligence
EFA:	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GFI:	Goodness of Fit Index
KMO:	Kaiser-Meyer
KSA:	Kosovo's Statistic Agency
MC:	Metacognitive CQ
MOT:	Motivational CQ
NATO:	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NFI:	Fit Index
RMSEA:	Logest, Root Mean Square Error
SFRY:	Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia
SI:	Social Intelligence
U.S:	United States

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Chapter 1.

Introduction

The first chapter of this thesis will introduce the topic and explain its most important aspects, including new global developments, new trends in human resources and the research proposal model. This chapter is important because highlights the existing research gap, hypotheses and research questions. A figure is also included to illustrate the variables to be examined. This chapter will conclude with a short description of the location of the study, its limitations and how the thesis is organised.

In the last decade, our society has become more interdependent and intercultural than ever before. Cultural and social interdependence creates more interconnectedness among people in the world. In this context, researchers' interest in human resources has grown recently: Scholars are learning more about what this growing interconnectedness of people will bring and how it affects and helps overcome undesired situations. This interconnectedness is linked to many activities but particular emphasis has been placed on advances in technology and the opening of states which enable human movement. Based on these concerns, in recent years many researchers have begun looking for a new tool which provides both advantages and disadvantages during interactions between people from different cultures (Templer et al., 2006; Ramirez, 2010).

Therefore, the primary focus of this study is the impact of the sub-dimensions of cultural intelligence on individuals' conflict management style (CMS). These substantial concerns are addressed in six chapters. The first chapter introduces the subject, the significance of study, the treatment model, offers a brief history of Kosovo (the location of the study) and outlines the limitations and assumptions of the study. The second

chapter is a literature review: It begins with a definition of the concept of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and its antecedents, consequences and recent studies. The third chapter presents a discussion of the conflict management sub-dimensions of CMS and its related theories, antecedents, consequences and recent studies. The fourth chapter outlines the methodology used in this research, including study participants, research instruments, study design and statistical techniques. In Chapter Five the findings and results are presented: This chapter is particularly important because it details the descriptive analysis, relationship with other constructive analyses (e.g. validity, correlation analysis), the testing of the hypotheses and research questions. The final chapter is a discussion of the conclusions and is thus one of the most important parts of this study.

1.1. The Background of the Problem

Interdependence in many dimensions is now an essential part of our lives, regardless of time and environment. It has become integral in many aspects of business, but intercultural connectedness in particular has exposed businesses to challenges they have never faced before. As the number of international companies grows they are in intense competition in local and global environments. Each individual in the global market is exposed to interdependence and competition according to their unique abilities and differences; these qualities become more complex when encountered in different multicultural environments. Such situations can make interactions between people easier and create opportunities for those professionals able to navigate international working places more successfully than those in their country (Templer et al., 2006, pp. 154–155).

Interdependence as a phenomenon is affecting every sector of businesses, so many organisations have become more complex as they have hired more employees from

different countries. The increase in the number of international companies and people mobility is also creating differences in teams of employees. Conflicts between employees are challenging and can throw a company's results and benefits into doubt. Many companies do not have enough leaders who are ready to recognise and implement new modern skills and knowledge (Mendenhall, 2006; Ramirez, 2010). The impact of workforces composed of many people from different cultural backgrounds places employees and customers in a common market. This new reality is requiring global business leaders to have sufficient influence and ability to change in response to global developments (Van Dyne & Ang, 2006).

Small and medium businesses which hire more employees from different countries are affected by internal and external factors which are then present all the time. The internal factors are all the elements that make up the organisation, starting with the size of the business, how it is structured, the technologies it uses and its market role; the external factors comprise all of the elements of interdependence, from the general state of the economy, sales increases and achievement of goals (Dragnic, 2014).

Today all types of factors are affected by the globalization phenomena causing the erosion of company boundaries and increasing economic interdependence. Economic globalization is an external factor which impacted management practices and is now determining how businesses orient themselves (Lane & Maznevski, 2014, p. 10). Globalization can be defined as the activities involved in the international exchange of goods and people through capital mobility between countries, including cultural differences. Technological advances and mobility have necessitated treating cultural diversity as a part of a company if it is to remain competitive in globalised markets

(Mendenhall, 2006, pp. 422–429).

Many states are also facing cross-cultural issues in all spheres of life, especially in the work environment. Cross-cultural issues refers to cultural diversity in any environment which includes different people; cultural diversity refers to increased commitment with employees from different cultures and countries in a single working environment (Mendenhall, 2006). Amadeo (2020) defined cultural diversity as the differences present in all aspects of peoples' cultural and social lives. New developments are manifested by people and are present in every sphere of life, especially employees of organisations which operate across national borders (Amadeo, 2020). The managers of such businesses need to know, now is another economy with multicultural teams by constantly altering their policies in order to keep up with industry changes and better understand working teams and customers. If these changes are to be long-term and secure new global leadership, one essential benefit of multicultural teams is strategic action (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Vahle & Ivarsson, 2013).

Cultural diversity can cause a domino effect in the workplace. First of all, the negative effects are manifested as low communication, barriers and non-functional processes, while the positive elements include knowledge about new talents and integration of the organization (Martin, 2014, pp. 89–90). Brett et al. (2006) identified two dimensions of multicultural teams: initially they produce benefits for global companies, but cultural differences may subsequently create barriers to effective work. Not all interactions end well, and some of them easily can create conflict between people from different cultural backgrounds (Kaushal & Kwantes, 2006, pp. 580–583).

It therefore creates significant risk for a business if its managers and workers are

not preoccupied to take cultural diversity seriously. One of the negative effects of such a failure is interpersonal conflicts—i.e. inconsistent relationships between individuals, groups or organisations with regard to reaching goals (Rahim, 2001). According to Ting-Toomey (2003), interpersonal differences arise from personal characteristics and phenomena such as political, cultural and economic trends. Such conflicts may have bad implications for an organisation, although various studies have shown that this does not have to be the case: If managed properly, the resolution of such conflicts can be useful for an organisation (Gonçalves et al., 2016, p. 725).

Recent studies have focused on cultural interconnectedness, particularly increased care at the CQ level and other important variables. Researchers are drawing more conclusions on how good stimulation helps in social interactions; because cultural differences may create conflicts, the cultural intelligence sub-dimensions are predictors of intercultural adjustment, which may improve an individual's abilities in this regard (Ramirez, 2010). It is important that people in an organisation be able to manage conflict at an organisational and social level. Therefore the factors of CQ can be important and effective in CMS at two levels (Gonçalves et al., 2016; Michailova, 2018). Conflict management is the practice of preventing conflict in an organisation. Based on interpersonal characteristics, conflict management is important because negative conflict can cause employee disputes which can have legal and financial consequences, cause decreases in job performance and productivity. If managed properly, however, conflicts can lead to positive change, prompting the development of strategic advantages, creativity and innovation (Rahim, 2002). To achieve these positive goals, businesses must effectively manage value diversity so as to resolve conflicts and enhance the

organisation. If business managers do not manage diversity values effectively, it could easily increase a company's risks and possibly destroy it (Cox & Blake, 1991). This condition has increased interest in CMS. Many different authors have contributed to our understanding of this increasingly important topic. The interconnectedness and cultural diversity reflect the need for new brands in general, and it can also be argued that a new brand of managers is needed who possess new global skills and can effectively and successfully manage cultural differences (Livermore, 2011).

This thesis will assess whether cultural intelligence levels affect CMS. To overcome these challenges and barriers in a different environment, businesses require prepared staff. It may be impossible to ensure that all of a company's employees are well prepared but is possible to find innovative managers who are ready to meet the most demanding customers' needs.

1.2. The Statement of the Problem

Because the interconnectedness between people is growing alongside technology, professional skills and human movement, recognizing the challenges that these phenomena give rise to in intercultural areas is important. Intercultural differences can cause unexpected situations, many of which create conflict between numerous actors in a business. In recent years the definition of cultural intelligence has become a good tool to help people to adapt and function in multicultural areas. The definition of CQ explains individuals' behavioral as social creatures based on the theory of cultural differences, which can help in resolving social and intercultural problems (Templer et al., 2006; Ramirez, 2010). The definition of cultural intelligence explains the behavioral of individuals as social and cooperative creatures. This means that skills theory reflects the

different aspects which distinguish one individual from everyone else emphasises the sense of belonging to people within the organisation while bearing in mind their differences. Cultural intelligence is reflected in an individual's ability to perceive cooperation between individuals in one organisation, in whether they see themselves as a member of the organisation and how they behave in a new environment (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Conflict is another phenomenon which first occurred with the appearance of the first organisations in human communities and intensified when individuals began to approach and protect their actions before one other in their place of work. Today it is impossible to find an organisation unaffected by conflicts, because conflicts are indispensable part of each organisation and inevitably appear from time to time (Yırık et al., 2015). Conflict as a phenomenon occurs in a private or work context because it is the result of the behaviours of individuals who experience animosity, negative attitudes, antagonism, aggression, rivalry and misunderstandings. Conflict is present when there are concerns between two or more people about one or more goals and when people perceive others as preventing them from reaching their goals (Rahim, 2002, p. 207). Conflict is present everywhere and may easily make employees unproductive if not managed well; however, it can also minimise unproductivity in an organisation. To minimise unproductivity in an organisation, the first step is to manage conflict. How conflicts are managed is a very important process which can be broken down into a series of stages. The first step is to identify and diagnose a conflict, identifying the differing interests at its heart, choosing an analytical method to resolve it and monitoring the effects of mediation (Yırık et al., 2015).

In a general sense, not every conflict is alarming, but all conflicts are important and interesting. In the past, the scholars of organisational behaviour have overlooked how conflicts are handled due to the assumption that every conflict is harmful to the organisation in which it occurs and thus did not look at alternative ways of managing them. The complexity of the human personality and accessing emotional and motivational feelings is a cause of conflict. A single conflict can produce various actions where people can hinder each other in fulfilling tasks by creating barriers to normal work, leaving objectives partially unachieved (Rahim, 2002).

Conflicts are often seen as a process which must be avoided, but some can be profitable for an organisation, especially when they are small and well-managed. Conflict can reflect the negative or positive elements in a situation. The negative consequences of a conflict can lead to extreme hostility among those involved, who may refuse to cooperate with one another; in some cases qualified individuals may leave the organisation forever. According to Kahn et al. (1964), the negative consequences of the conflict can affect individuals emotionally, influencing their personal relationships and confidence and increasing work-place tensions (Rahim, 2002, p. 103). Constructive conflicts occur when the profit from the conflict outweighs the costs incurred (Deutsch, 1973). When conflict is acceptable at lower levels, the performance, morale and cohesiveness of the group can be increased by the different members of the group racing to fulfil their job descriptions (Gonçalves et al., 2016, p. 727). An acceptable degree of conflict increases creativity and motivation and generates new ideas, encouraging employees to bring to light hidden problems. Acceptable conflict elements thus reflect positive issues in each business environment in strategic, organisational, structural and

functional terms (Schalerth et al., 2013).

Some key features of successful constructive conflict management used as CMS techniques, such as personality management, emotions, attitudes and communication participation, can be categorised into different styles (Rahim, 2002, p. 85). Business managers who achieve positive outcomes must possess personal skills when using CMS. Conflict management is a complex process which consists of a cycle of actions, from identifying to treating and managing the conflict. This phenomenon may face all individuals, but it is managers most of all who must deal with conflicts throughout their development. These leaders therefore necessarily require and continue to develop good skills to handle conflicts. Every study published had produced more information on how managers use different CMS techniques to manage conflicts based on different situations and implications (Saeed et al., 2014). CQ is a good tool for multicultural environments because it reflects an individual's ability to adapt and interact with people from different cultures (Ang et al., 2015, p. 3). The capability for CQ is present in all businesses, regardless of ethnic, generational or corporate culture. For example, to explain the importance of CQ in a simple way, it may help one stay informed of others' international work experience, be they your neighbours, classmates or other people (Livermore, 2011, p. 6). Previous research has provided a great deal of information about certain important variables which are tested by CMS. These variables are linked to gender, personality traits, bilingualism, etc., which may influence the selection of a particular CMS. Therefore, more understanding is needed to examine how best to predict which CMS style is used (Ramirez, 2010, pp. 45–53).

There is little empirical evidence regarding whether cultural intelligence can be

used to predict the efficacy of CMS. Given that the people of Kosovo come from different cultural backgrounds, ethnicities and religions, this study is even more interesting. Although Kosovo is a small country, globalization and cultural differences have had a noticeable effect on it. Many foreign companies began operating in Kosovo once they became privatised, including export-import trade, health services, hospitality, banks and road infrastructure. Emigration to Kosovo has also increased slightly (Kosovo's Statistic Agency, 2017). However, the business sector in Kosovo still faces barriers to regular access to overall Kosovo's market and beyond, although 20 years have passed since the war. A number of obstacles and barriers remain in place, linked to political circumstances dating back to the 1999 conflict.

Since 1999 political and security tensions between Kosovo Albanians and Serbs have hampered the creation of favourable conditions for strategic economic development; for instance, the investment environment and the vision of economic development by local governments remain unsustainable. Financial subsidies from Belgrade distributed to local economies to generate incomes in the Serbian community in north of Kosovo have been the primary means of economic development during this period. The private business sector in northern Kosovo still has many obstacles and barriers to overcome. A significant number of barriers are making it difficult for enterprises in southern Kosovo to enter the markets in north; these barriers are the result of the difficulties and problems still present in the administrative, institutional support, service and legal sectors, as well as the difficult political environment. The private cultural sector is also still dealing with the problem of Kosovo's severe internal separation. One of the major barriers threatening the growth of business exchanges between Southern and northern Kosovo is related to

legal and administrative circumstances, as well as multiculturalism.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

Commensurate to growing the size of the businesses is growing the number of people from different cultures who come and go as employees in different companies. Every day employees and their environments are becoming more and more complex, including their cultural differences. Mobility and new advances in technology are creating new opportunities which require well-prepared resources both professionally and in terms of general knowledge (Ritzer, 2007; Ramirez, 2010; Gonçalves et al., 2016).

Scholars are trying to better understand how to overcome barriers and achieve results in the face of rapid social change. Previous research has identified CQ as a good tool improving achievement and adaptation in cultural diversity (Thomas et al., 2015). The CQ factors have an impact and play an effective role in CMS. This argument is based on the relationship between CQ and personality because personality is an antecedent of CQ and may affect an individual's behaviour. Researchers of conflict management have examined the effect of individuals' characteristics on their CMS (Ramirez, 2010; Riasi & Asadzadeh, 2015; Gonçalves et al., 2016).

Research gaps about cultural intelligence on conflict management remain. Recent studies have identified some of these gaps, and filling these identified gaps is the main objective of this research. The research gaps to be filled are as follows: there is as yet not study on the impact of CQ on conflicts management at a general level; there are no separate studies about cultural intelligence as an independent variable or conflict management as a dependent variable in the Kosovo context although there are studies which have analysed links between CQ and other affective variables; and more new

research on the relationship between cultural intelligence sub-dimension relationship and conflict management in the organisational context is needed. This study is an attempt to test whether the effects of the sub-dimensions of CQ affect CMS in a multicultural context and if the sub-dimensions differ in terms of demographic characteristics. Filling these research gaps will produce interesting results which can be utilised by future researchers to conduct further studies on this subject.

1.4. The Significance of the Study

This research is important because in recent years the interest in treatment models for CMS has grown. This study will examine the impact of CQ individual characteristics on CMS in general. In Kosovo, no one has yet examined the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on CMS using a sample population of managers. These two topics are new in the context of Kosovo, and all other studies dealing with cultural intelligence and other variables have been conducted outside of Kosovo. Managers' understanding of and the actions they take to manage conflicts are important for improving workplace communication, team leadership and the growth of job performance. The most important challenge for individuals are the skills to manage conflicts constructively and to better understand work and living conditions (Vedadi, 2010). Management diversity programs are very significant because inclusion is important factor in environments with large numbers of people. In such a situation all people are responsible and contribute to decision-making in business.

Cultural intelligence produces optimal results and greater benefits for a company in two important ways. First, every time the growth of global developments accelerates, the requirements for identifying the best CMS grow, so identifying which variables

influence an individual's preference for a given style is important (Ang et al., 2006; Ramirez, 2010). The second significance of this study is to help Kosovo managers learn more about cultural intelligence, which may have positive impact on whether they can select an appropriate CMS and improve their knowledge of conflict management. Such knowledge would enable them to diagnose various problems and equip them with methods of managing each type of conflict, as no one solution is effective in every circumstance. These are only the two directly significant advantages; in the practice there are many others which can improve daily work routines.

This study will provide managers with information about skills and how to assess specific situations by controlling feelings to resolve conflict. After reading this study, business managers will understand more about CQ and conflicts and will be provided with information on conflict management and how to solve problems at work. This study will also be important for other researchers interested in Kosovo, as it will provide an important base for further studies on this topic.

1.5. The Research Model

To reflect more easily and to consider a practice description, the model is presented in the figuration method. This model figuration reflects our first visualisation of this study in one another format. Figure 1, adapted from Earley & Ang's (2003) and Ang et al., (2007) description of CQ and the ROCI format B of CMS (Rahim, 2002), is an illustration of the research model: The five main hypotheses are outlined, together with the four sub-hypotheses of each.

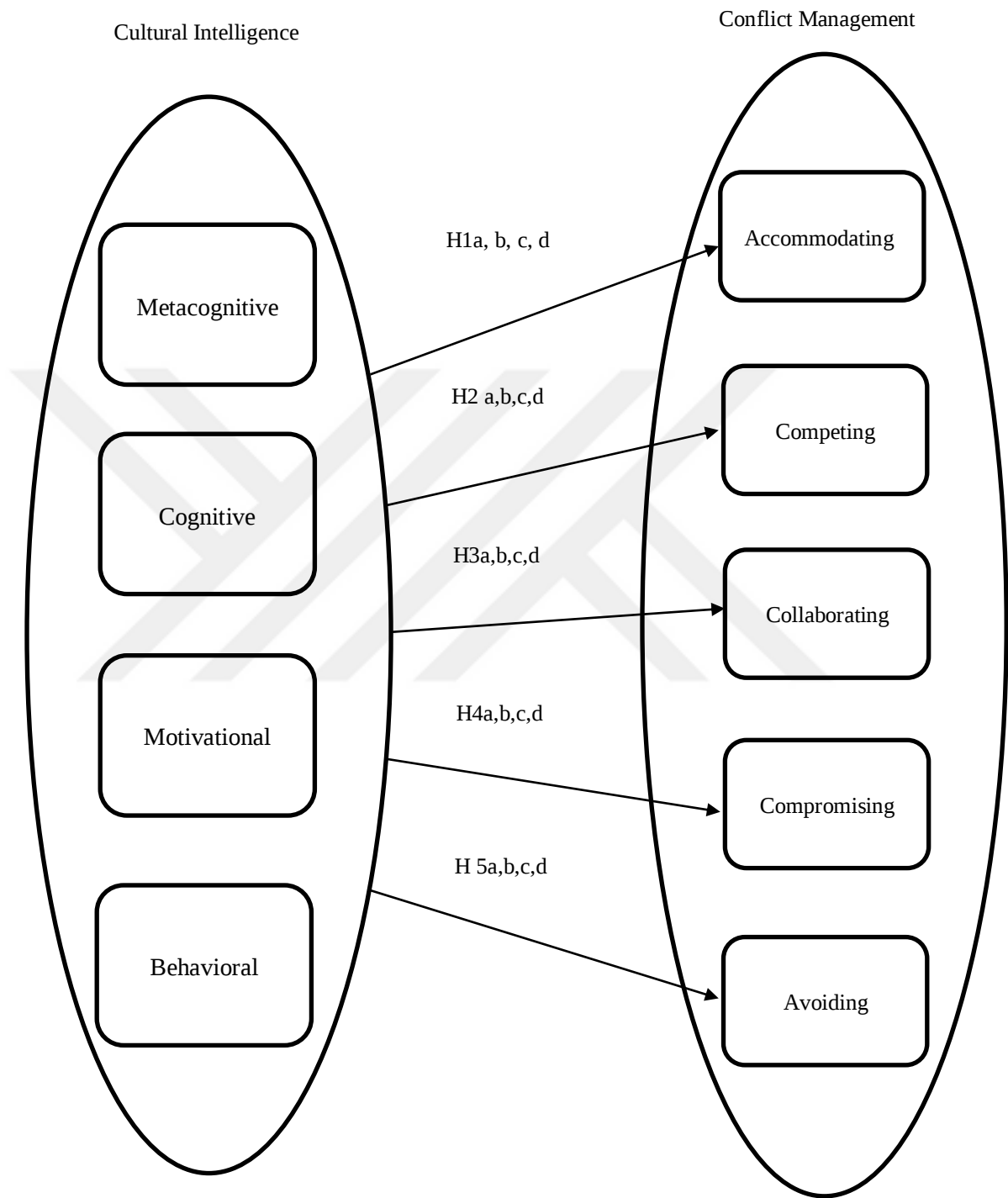


Figure 1. The model of the study

According to Earley & Ang (2003) and Ang et al., (2007), CQ is based on the four sub-dimensions of personality differences and understanding this concept is a

necessary prerequisite (Ng, 2012, p. 32). On the right-hand side there are five styles of ROCI format B from CMS (Rahim, 2002).

The process of identifying which CQ dimensions influence one's CMS based on the four sub-dimensions (metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ) and their impacts on the five CMSs is the first part of this study. Next, demographic factors and differences in age, gender, civil status, level of education and work experience will be examined. This model concerns the possibilities of the effects of CQ sub-dimensions as independent variables on CMS as a dependent variable. The model format with five hypothesis and research questions is presented in Figure 1 above.

Hypothesis 1a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on accommodating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 1b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on accommodating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 1c: Motivational CQ has an impact on accommodating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 1d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on accommodating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 2a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on competing style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 2b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on competing style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 2c: Motivational CQ has an impact on competing style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 2d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on competing style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 3a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on collaborating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 3b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on collaborating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 3c: Motivational CQ has an impact on collaborating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 3d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on collaborating style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 4a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on compromising style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 4b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on compromising style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 4c: Motivational CQ has an impact on compromising style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 4d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on compromising style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 5a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on avoiding style Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 5b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on avoiding style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 5c: Motivational CQ has an impact on avoiding style of Conflict Management.

Hypothesis 5d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on avoiding style of Conflict Management.

To determine the CQ and CMS effects or differences in demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, civil status, level of education and work experience), the following research questions were developed:

1. Do CQ sub-dimensions differ in terms of an individual's age, gender, civil status, level of education and work experience?
- 2: Does CMS differ in term of an individual's age, gender, civil status, level of education and work experience?

1.6. Kosovo

This description aims to inform and enrich the reader with an overview of the Republic of Kosovo. The reader will find important information and learn some facts about this new state in the Balkans. Kosovo was part of the former federal unit of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Judah, 1999). As part of Southeast Europe, Kosovo is now an independent state. It lies in a great position in the centre of the Balkans, and it has four neighbours: bordered to the north and east by Serbia, to the southeast by the Republic of North Macedonia, and to the southwest by Albania and Montenegro. The capital city of Kosovo is Prishtina, having a surface area of 10,908 km² and a population of 1.8 million. Most of the population comprises the Albanians, while other communities include the Serbs, Turks, Bosnians, Roma, Ashkali, Egyptians, and Gorani (Kosovo's Statistic Agency, 2017). Albanian and Serbian are the official

languages of Kosovo, but according to the constitution, some local languages are considered official languages in their municipalities. For example, Turkish and Bosnian are the official languages in Prizren Municipality; this fact is presented in Figure 2, showing the ethnic composition of Kosovo. According to the constitution, the state is secular, but more than 90% are from the Muslim community, Serbs are Eastern Orthodox, and a small proportion are Roman Catholic (Be in Kosovo, 2019; Rekacewicz, 2007).

Demographically, the population of Kosovo is young, and approximately 28% 0 to 14 years old, 65% 15 to 64 years, and 7% older than 65 years. A considerable number of Kosovars live outside in European, American, and Australian countries. Those who live and work outside of Kosovo are immensely associated with Kosovo; they help their families and the country a lot. Therefore, foreign remittances are the first of three economic indicators in Kosovo's economy (KAS, 2017).

Kosovo is the last country to gain independence in the Balkans as a result of the bloody break-up of the SFRY. Kosovo was declared a republic in 1990 and an independent state in 1991, but the country failed to realize its independence because of the Serbian military invasion that lasted for a decade, ending in 1999 (Bajrami, 2002, p. 68). The peaceful politics led by the then president of Kosovo, Dr. Ibrahim Rugova, later the war fought by the Liberation Army (1997–1999), and NATO (the North Atlantic Treaty Organization) airstrikes in the spring of 1999 ended the Serbian genocide against Kosovo's Albanian population. NATO troops entered Kosovo in June 1999 while the Serbian army was leaving from Kosovo. After that, Kosovo was administered by a United Nations mission until 2008 (Haxhiaj, 2018).

Kosovo declared their independence on February 17, 2008, which marked their secession from Serbia at last. The country is a parliamentary republic and modern democratic state on the basis of the principle of separation of powers and control balancing between institutions, which is defined by the constitution (Bajrami, 2012).

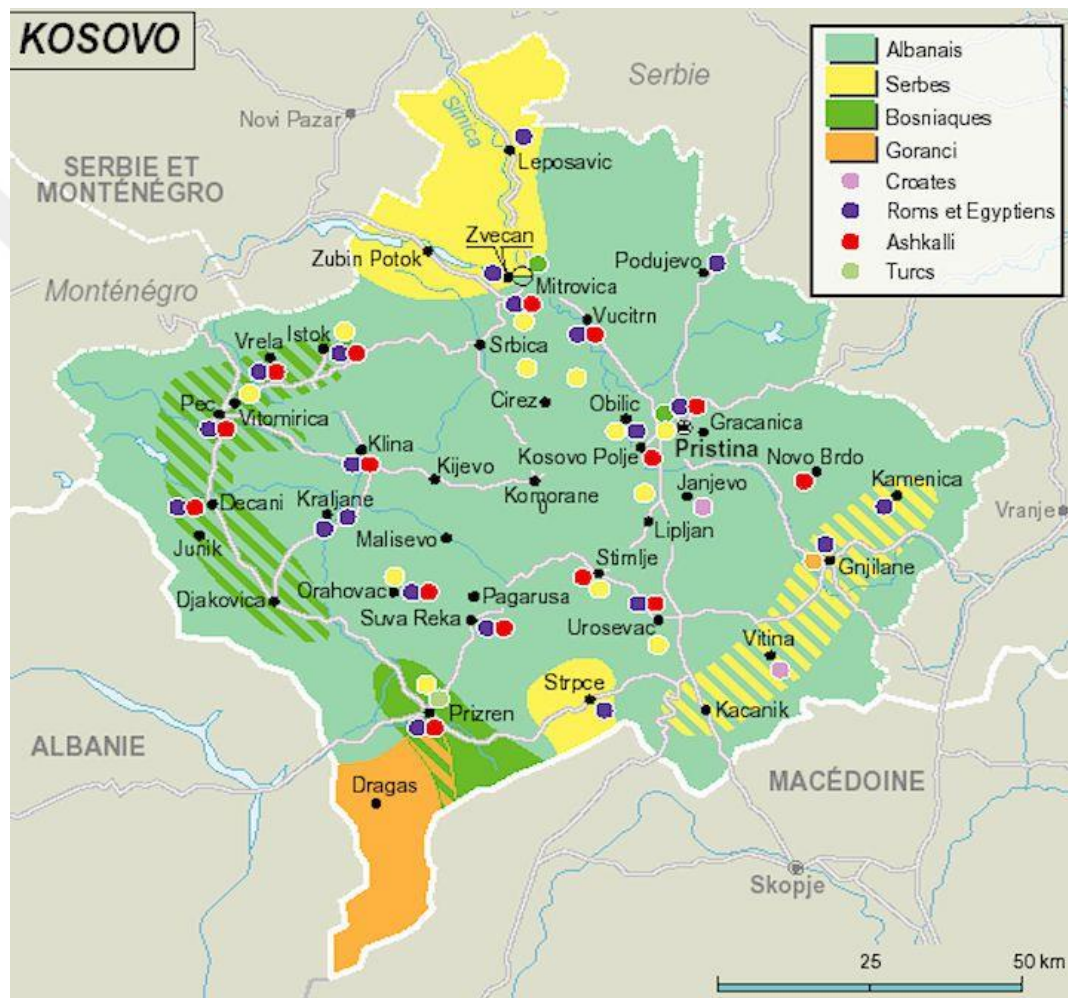


Figure 2. The ethnic composition of Kosovo. From United Nations Environment Programme, Balkan Vital Graphics, by Philip Rekacewicz (2007), <https://www.grida.no/resources/6868>.

Kosovo is Europe's youngest, but a very small and poorest, country. The economic freedom score is 66.6, making Kosovo's economy the 56th freest in the *Index*

of *Economic Freedom* (2018). Trade is a crucial factor for Kosovo: Exports and imports are equal to 74% of GDP, trade freedom 70.8%, investment freedom 65.0%, and financial freedom 30.0 (*Index of Economic Freedom*, 2019). Kosovo's economy remains weak, with a negative growth in GDP. In the last 2 years, Kosovo has had GDP growth of more than 4%, but it remains the poorest economy in the region. Most economic indicators are low, and the transition has not stopped yet. The inflation is low; at all times, a great help comes from the remittances made by Kosovars who live abroad, which accounts for an estimated 13% to 34% percent of GDP (Golubic et al., 2008). There is a positive trend seen in GDP; for example, as can be seen in Figure 3, the difference between the first three months of 2018 and the first three months of 2019 ranged from 2.9% to 4.1%, and the largest increase was seen in the second quarter of 2018, with a value of 4.4% (IntelliNews,2009).

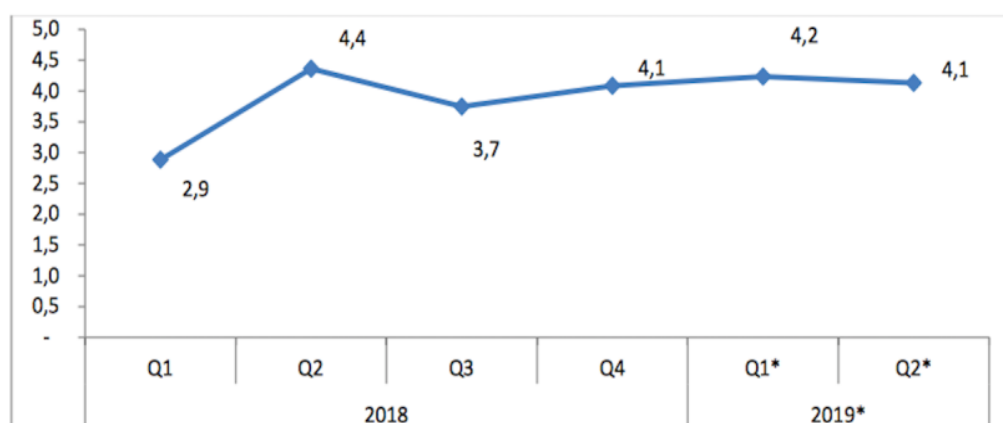


Figure 3. Kosovo's GDP growth. From IntelliNews (2009), <https://www.intellinews.com/kosovo-s-economy-grows-4-1-y-y-in-2q19-169327>.

Kosovo's relatively young population, abundant natural resources, and low labour costs have attracted foreign investment. According to *U.S. Country Commercial Guides*,

Kosovo's main trading partners are European countries, the United States, and Switzerland. Given that Kosovars are from different cultural backgrounds, ethnicity and religion provide an interesting look into this study. In terms of the social life in Kosovo in 2017, there were 17,112 marriages and 1,072 divorce cases, which means 62.6 divorce cases per 1,000 marriages. The gender difference was significantly close to general differences and was reported to be at 48.4% females and 51.6% males. In the education sector, the process had a high involvement on three levels, with a generally high involvement. At the preschool level, 14,144 out of 29,473 (48.0%) were females and 15,329 (52.0%) males. At the primary and secondary levels, 123,309 out of 255,093 (48.3%) were females and 131,784 (51.7%) males. At the university level (5 + 6), 64,594 out of 123,988 (51.2%) were females and 59,394 (47.9%) males. On the basis of these numbers, the total number of females was 199,766 out of 245,837 (49.2%) and that of males was 253,929 (50.8%; KSA, 2017).

These demographic data are important as they reflect the composition of Kosovo, which is enough to present a cultural difference. In the demographic structure, the total population, ethnic composition, gender difference, social status, and data on education are presented. This means the study presented a representative demographic structure with the main component. The data would be important during all processes but more specific in the presented hypothesis results. Except for this, Kosovo has several other gaps that represent the need to address this issue. First, a lot of foreign companies after the process of privatization operate in Kosovo. Second, the private sector of business Kosovo including other places where Serbs community live still have a lot of barriers and conflicts which are needed to pass. After the conflict, the business community did not

have cooperation across the country, businesses from the Northern part of Kosovo collaborated with Serbia and refused to co-operate with businesses in the rest of Kosovo. The North of Kosovo has four municipalities Mitrovica, Zvecan, Leposavić and Zubin Potok, which are mostly ethnic Serbs, including enclaves within Kosovo, while there is a small percentage of national minorities, such as Albanians, Bosnians and Roms, Ashkali and Egyptian (Markovic, 2017).

According by years book 2016-2018 of Kosovo Agency of Statistics the largest businesses sector in Kosovo is wholesale and retail trade and service, this sector from 2013 - 2017 always had over 16.500 businesses or 47% from all enterprises by economic sector. This sector always had over 2500 new businesses and in these type of businesses have planning staff strategy, staff structure and management level structure. The wholesale and retail trade and service from 2006 to 2019, reflect the multicultural context, because a lot of foreign companies after the process of privatization operate in Kosovo also the local businesses have a lot multicultural staff from community which live in Kosova (KSA, 2019).

1.7. Limitation of Study

From the beginning when I was preparing the plan of the thesis, I reviewed some important elements which have an influence on the findings of a study. The care was based on characteristics of the methodology because they may be impacted in the interpretation of the findings (Saunders et al., 2009).

Some limitations can impact the findings as; first the data collection and samples. The data collection was introduced with a sample, in the sample are managers from the different positions and different demographic characteristics while the questionnaire is

translated in the local language and results are worked carefully. Also, misunderstands the environment respondents provide answers, the data obtained in the study were limited within the framework of a sample of managerial staff working in businesses sector in Kosovo in a branch wholesale and retail trade and service. At the time of the research, data was collected in companies within organizational structures. The data collection process was attended by staff working in the businesses sector where they are employed. The survey method was used for single data collected. Data obtained from scales used for data collection are considered to perceived as a formal necessity due to participants' personal perceptions, management, and practices. The combination of factor loadings of some items has effected in limitation of the research. Results of the research are professional and sectorial. Its generalize ability is limited, and it is more appropriate to evaluate results within the sample.

During now, Kosovo has not any research about the impact of CQ on CMS where the sample would be managers in Kosovo. Like any quantitative study and this study may have difficulty in data analysis because of the complexity of research. In this study, the participant provides a response that is not in their capabilities.

After that, the instrumental of the likert scale may have created an inaccurate answer. The last limitation in this study was the difficulty of accessing all literature on dealing with cultural intelligence and conflict.

1.8. Organization of the Study

To remember from the introduction part, this study is structured in six chapters. The six chapters are separated in a way where each chapter represent a separate section of the topic, starting from the introduction level. First part of the research will introduce the

study background, study significance, research model, something about Kosovo's short history, limitations and assumptions. Second and third parts will discuss about the literature review starting by the concept of Cultural Intelligence and conflict management, then sub-dimensions of CQ and CMS, related theories, antecedents, consequences and recent studies.

In the fourth part of the study will be discusses about the methodology which is used in this research, including study participants, research instruments, study design and statistical techniques. While in the fifth-part will discuss findings and results, this chapter is particularly important because presents in general all research results, starting from descriptive analysis, relationships with other construct analysis (validity, correlation analysis), testing of hypothesis and research questions. After that finding will be evaluated taking into the results. At the last, in the sixth chapter will be discussing the conclusions and discussion, taking into consideration suggestions for future studies.

Chapter 2.

Cultural Intelligence

In this chapter the theoretical definition of Cultural Intelligence and its sub-dimensions will be presented, starting with the theoretical aspects of the concept and the roles of the CQ sub-dimensions role. The second part of the chapter two will cover the theories relating to CQ, from Gardner's multiple theories to Earley and Ang's definition of the concept. The antecedents and consequences of CQ will then be discussed, and finally the recent studies on CQ will be reviewed. The literature review is an important part of this study because it provides a detailed exploration of the objectives of the research, including an explanation and comparison of how they are all interconnected.

Life and work processes develop in several phases, so they should not create differences in terms of individuals' daily lives, because particularly employees, products and services are multicultural (Mendenhall, 2006; Templer et al., 2006). To function in such an environment individuals require characteristics such as knowledge, good communication skills, energy and the ability to practice good and acceptable behavioural. These characteristics are not only innovative characteristics but comprise a sort of methodology of how to use them. Some of these characteristics are described in job descriptions because they are important, but many of them are not described even if they are necessary at work (Mercan, 2016).

New characteristics or trends entail new requests, which must be managed by people who have good skills when one begins working in a new place or job. Acting in a multicultural context requires new skills to keep up with global trends. Describing new trends is important, as it relates to the general question of what is new in the twenty-first century? The answer is mobility, means of interacting with colleagues and different

cultures. Certain important elements can be used to address some characteristics, such as cooperation, understanding and interpretation, which are closely linked to CQ (Mercan, 2016). Therefore, treating the concept of CQ is an important step in answering which of these characteristics supports globalization and technological growth, including conflict management.

2.1. The Concept of Cultural Intelligence

The first knowledge of CQ was gained from a definition of how to adapt (manage) other people, based on considering possible differences between them in a cross-cultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 3). From the first appearance of this concept in research, it became a new tool to explain interdependence and individual differences in business. Chronologically, from the first presentation of the concept until now, many studies testing this tool have been published.

When referring to characteristics it is important to start from the beginning. Before this concept was first developed, researchers relied on other concepts or tools tested by individual behaviour and which were very similar to the concept of CQ. The formulation of CQ is based on three other types of intelligence, which according to Gardner (1993), Goleman (1996) and Cantor and Kihlstrom (1985) were emotional intelligence, social intelligence and interpersonal intelligence. Those scholars who researched different types of intelligence sought to identify or create a more effective tool to handle individual skills (Gonçalves et al., 2016, p. 728).

They eventually settled on Cultural Intelligence, which began to receive great attention. Earley and Ang (2003) introduced this definition as new way of understanding human behaviour, because existing management and psychology theories did not provide

enough information and alternatives to analyse the achievements and failures of individuals. More than even emotional or social intelligence, CQ is a good tool for assessing individuals' ability (Thomas et al., 2015).

According to Oto and Michalova (2018), of all three types of intelligence theories presented above, the construct of CQ has been formulated in two specific ways, first by Earley and Ang (2003) and second by Thomas et al. (2008). These two CQ constructs reflect differences in emotional and social intelligence. Two concepts have certain characteristics which are only slightly different. For example, Earley and Ang's (2003) conceptualization of CQ reflects three main factors but also covers a fourth factor, because the factor pillar comprises cognitive CQ and metacognitive CQ factors while motivational CQ and behavioral CQ belong to another pillars. According by Themom et al. (2008), however, CQ consists of cultural knowledge, metacognitive and skills (p. 104). According to Cartwright and Pappas (2008), CQ intelligence is more oriented to helping people in a cultural context (Themom et al., 2008, p. 102).

CQ defines an individual's skill, which can be adjusted efficiently in relation to action with other people through a four-factor construct. It is the foundation of a value system which incorporates knowledge and can be effectively adjusted by individuals in culturally specific situations. CQ is thus an effective tool for adjusting and enabling people to recognise others' distinctive personality traits and capabilities during social intercourse in a single multidimensional construct (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Livemore, 2011).

2.2. The Sub-dimensions of Cultural Intelligence

The multidimensional basis of CQ is reflected by four factors, giving everyone the opportunity to identify the distinctive characteristics of each personality in different contexts. According to Van Dyne et al. (2012), the concept was first coined by Earley and Ang (2003), with the four factors of the CQ model later expanded into 11 sub-dimensions, which are explained in Figure 4 (p. 299). The 11 sub-dimensions are

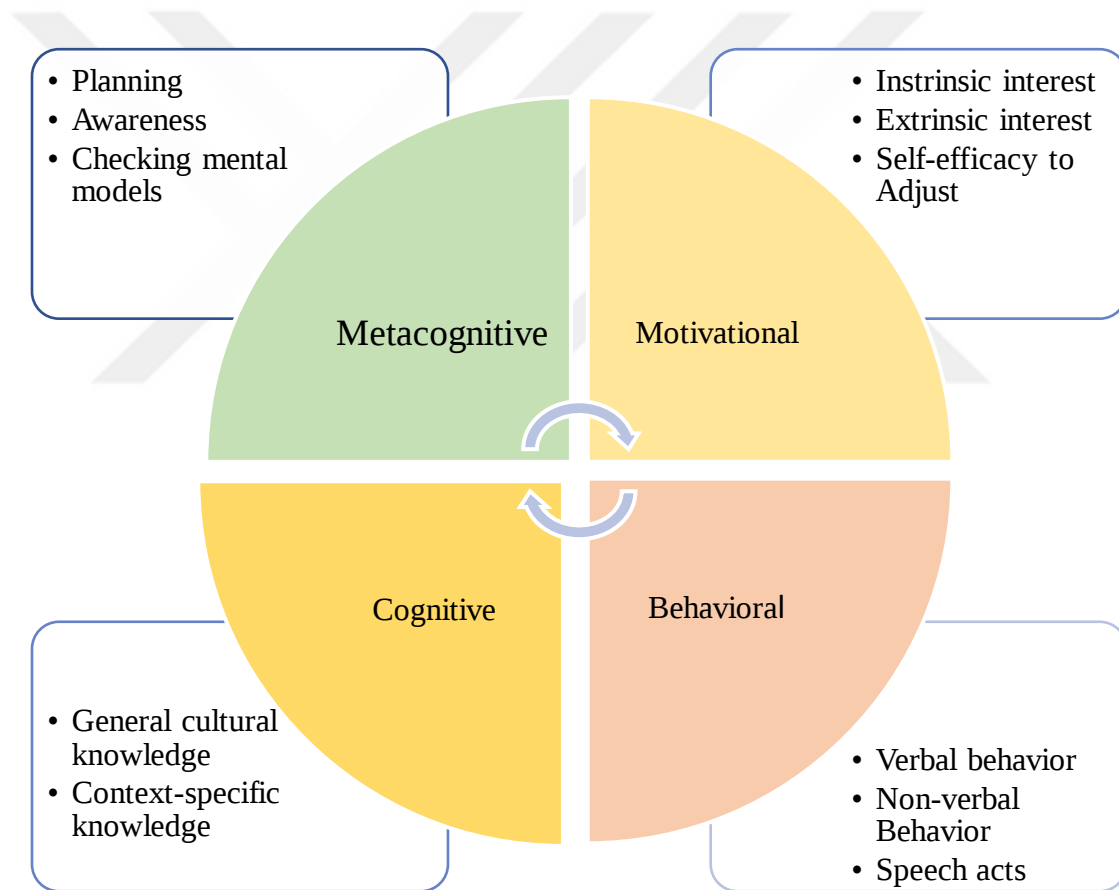


Figure 4. The four-factor CQ model adapted from Van Dyne et al. (2012).

separated into categories based on the four CQ factors, starting with planning and finishing with speech acts. Because this paper relies on the model developed by Earley

and Ang (2003) and Van Dyne et al. (2012) (the four factor model with 11 sub-dimensions), sections 2.2.1–4 will present descriptions of all four components and 11 sub-dimensions.

2.2.1. Metacognitive CQ

The first sub-dimension of CQ is metacognitive, which consists of distinctive features of individuals based on their personal skills concentrated in their cultural consciousness. In other words, it reflects their strategic characteristics and abilities, which individuals use in cross-cultural areas (Livermore, 2011). Metacognitive CQ is an important mental capability for cultural adaptation because it enables us to accept new models, cooperate and influence others (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5).

Ang et al. (2006) concluded that people or managers who are very conscientious rely strongly on metacognitive CQ; this tendency reflects cultural awareness, good cooperation and close communication in culturally diverse environments (Ang & Inkpen, 2008, p. 344). This particularly important dimension of CQ refers to specific elements of cognitive objects and cultural ability. However, this definition means that an individual's ability to incorporate the relevant experiences of every other individual with high metacognitive CQ impacts his or her job performance because these individuals apply an array of knowledge from different cultural contexts to a given situation. When individuals have high metacognitive CQ they rely on intercultural cooperation with other people (Earley & Peterson, 2008; Ramalu et al., 2011; Ljubica & Dulcic, 2012).

Metacognitive CQ refers to the process of planning, awareness and checking mental models. Planning is a strategic action consisting of preliminary preparation for meeting with people from different cultural backgrounds. Advance preparation includes

initial analysis, thinking deeply and developing objectives for the action plan. This planning process is a primary function of management and fills the gap before a culturally diverse encounter to achieve the desired outcomes (Van Dyne & Ang, 2008; Livermore, 2010).

The second sub-dimension of metacognitive CQ is awareness, which describes individual consciousness and mental behaviours in intercultural interactions. It refers to what an individual knows about cultural habits and how to use these habits around others. Awareness describes people's consciousness regarding how to suspend judgment and adapt to cultural aspects of personal behaviour in intercultural interactions (Van Dyne et al., 2012, p. 299). Checking mental models includes a degree of conscious reflection, which is linked with thinking, reviewing assumptions and adjusting intercultural interactions between people based on a new initiative. It also represents one's mental control over personal cultural assumptions in intercultural interactions (Van Dyne et al., 2012, p. 300).

2.2.2. Cognitive CQ

The second dimension of CQ is cognitive, which refers to one's knowledge of legal, social and economic systems in a multicultural context. According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), this factor encompasses those characteristics or elements which are part of individual behaviour and are used in different cultural settings. Different levels of knowledge about legal, social, economic and educational matters, as well as personal experiences, are part of cognitive (p. 5).

Cognitive CQ characteristics reflect written and unwritten norms. They begin with personal experiences related to cultural differences as well as all experiences gained

from life-long learning and practices. This dimension is considered an interesting part of cultural intelligence because ideas and individual actions are associated with knowledge, education and life experiences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). It also relates to an individual's flexibility and ability to decipher new cultural situations and to adapt based on past experiences (Brislin et al., 2006, p. 40). Managers with higher cognitive CQ have better experience practices, so they are at advanced level with regard to contact with others in different environments. This is often the result of a higher level of education and personal experiences (Ang & Inkpen, 2008, p. 344). Cognitive CQ represents some aspects which are essential for culture in general, including context-specific and general knowledge. People with strong cognitive skills find it easier to understand situations, even new ones, based on similarities to previous experiences (Van Dyne et al., 2010; Ersoy & Ehtiyar, 2015).

The sub-dimensions of this factor are general cultural knowledge and context-specific knowledge. Understanding general culture means all opportunities to understand elements or characteristics of one's overall culture and how these could change in a multicultural environment. Knowing the universal elements of culture is a priority objective because it gives people a framework for understanding and thinking about another cultural environment. (Van Dyne et al., 2012, pp. 300–301).

Context-specific knowledge is the possession of specific or unique knowledge linked to situations which occur in a multicultural environment. A cultural context can characterise specific differences between group members, such as personality, lifestyle, position, experience, missionaries in religious contexts, students, soldiers, employees who work across borders, etc. (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

2.2.3. Motivational CQ

The third factor of CQ, motivational, reflects two of the basic elements, focus/attention and individual energy for learning and applying new things in a multicultural environment. Motivational CQ is an emotional balance, ability to adapt and energy to function in a multicultural context and with unknown individuals (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ang et al., 2011). According to Thomas (2006), the basic elements of this sub-dimension reflects on the basic construct structure of CQ, and thus requires more research. In cooperation, the intangible benefits of motivational CQ are more attractive because belief in one's innate ability can create successful results (Fang et al., 2018). Individuals with high motivational CQ are ready to fight disgruntlement and frustrations in a multicultural environment using a method which encourages them to interact with others in a strategic way (Yeşil, 2009).

The first sub-dimensions of the third factor is intrinsic interest, meaning the satisfaction a person gains from managing one or more persons in any context from different cultural backgrounds, as well as individual experience with, energy for and satisfaction in working with diverse groups from different cultural backgrounds (Van Dyne et al., 2012). According to Ryan and Deci (2000), the second sub-dimension is extrinsic interest, the emotional benefits individuals gain from working with other people in culturally diverse contexts. The third and final sub-dimensions of motivational CQ is the self-efficacy to adjust, which refers to an individual's satisfaction with and confidence to work in culturally diverse groups. This sub-dimension includes emotional satisfaction, which requires self-efficacy (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

2.2.4. Behavioral CQ

The last of the three factors is behavioral CQ. According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), this dimension refers to behavioral CQ demonstrated through two kinds of communication, verbal and non-verbal (p. 6). These two elements are very important factors for good communication at the individual and group levels. The behavioral CQ dimension refers to individuals being able to exhibit appropriate behavioral when interacting with others. Verbal communication is accomplished using one's voice, tone and speed of speech, while non-verbal communication and behaviours comprise gestures, eye contact, facial expression and body language. Verbal behavioral includes all kinds of language communication which can help in easy communication (Van Dyne et al., 2010; Ang et al., 2011; Li et al., 2013; Fang et al., 2018). However, an individual's behavioral does depend on how he or she correlates previous experience with new situations (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 81). No one action can be based on a specific individual or group behavioral (which is described as responsive behaviour), but there is a range of actions for all situations. Managers with stronger behaviour skills possess good capabilities and good body language to communicate with others (Ang & Inkpen, 2008, p. 345).

The first sub-dimension of behavioral CQ is verbal behaviour. According to Victor (1992), this refers to the ability to express oneself verbally, i.e. through speech. Verbal ability also includes volume, speed, tone and other aspects of how one uses one's voice. It may also refer to proximity, warmth and enthusiasm when relating a message verbally (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

Non-verbal behaviour means an individual's ability to interact with other people through gestures and facial expression, such as movements of the head and body. This

means of communication provides further shades of meaning to what one says and may be conveyed via face and body gestures. Some cultures are more attentive to this aspect of communication than others (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

Speech acts are defined as the unique method an individual uses to communicate short messages. This unique short method may be used with specific messages to elicit specific answers during communication (e.g. yes, no, okay) based on rational standards (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

2.3. Theories Related of Cultural Intelligence

A number of intelligence researchers initially focused on social or emotional intelligence and how these relate to interpersonal interactions. Their aim was to learn more about individuals' social and emotions intelligence in practice in order to solve practical social problems. Historically, the study of intelligence was first undertaken by anthropologists and sociologists (Oto & Michailova, 2018).

An important aspect of the theoretical background is the concept of intelligence, based on Gardner's (2011) theory of multiple intelligences, which is itself based on a concept of intelligence related to the idea that an individual's biological abilities and intellectual commitment enable him or her to solve problems and create new solutions for others in multicultural environments (Tirri & Nokelainen, 2008, p. 208). Gardner (2011) also pointed out that this range of multiple intelligences is a raw biological capacity found only in certain individuals. To understand multiple intelligences correctly, Gardner (2011) created a list of types of intelligences, as follows: linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinaesthetic and personal (pp. 77–251). In describing Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, Tirri and Nokelainen (2008) stated that

Gardner's original 1983 list comprised seven types of individual intelligences, as personal intelligence was divided into interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (p. 208).

The development of intelligence theories passed through several chronological phases. According to Crowne (2009) it started in the 1930s with Thorndike's (1936) suggestion of social intelligence ideas. Social intelligence was initially calculated as a unique proposition related to individuals' abilities (p. 149). Goleman (2006) and Tongsuebsai (2009) divided social intelligence into two dimensions: awareness and facility, because people are by nature social and need for groups and organisation in their lives. In this context, social intelligence refers to an individual's behaviour in life and work, and how they adapt to others in a group (Paditsang et al., 2015, p. 100).

Following the development of the Social Intelligence concept came the second ability, emotional intelligence (EI). From beginning many researchers considered EI to be a dimension of SI. Salovey and Mayer (1990) divided personal intelligence into interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, following Gardner (1998, 2002), who determined a basis for EI but argued that it was centred more on cognitive and understanding than feeling (Crowne, 2009, p. 149). Goleman (1998) said emotional intelligence is an individual ability characterised by a high level of patience in any situation relating to relationships with other individuals. To build such individual competence it is necessary to have skills one can consciously apply when interacting with other individuals. The EI sub-dimensions are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivational, empathy and social skills (Paditsang et al, 2015, p. 99). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990) emotional intelligence is a concept based on a four-level

sequence: 1) an individual learns how to understand emotions; 2) he or she learns how to use emotions effectively; 3) the individual gains the ability to describe transitions between emotions; and 4) the individual learns how to manage his or her feelings (Mumcuoğlu, 2002).

Sternberg and Detterman (1986) presented the characteristics of individual intelligence based in individual ability as follows: The ability to realise objectives, correct personal weaknesses, adapt to other environments and to combine practical and creative abilities (Sternberg, 2005, p. 189). The interest in knowing more about individual intelligence comes from the need to understand the 'real world'. According by Earley and Ang (2003), the term 'real world' is characterised by the need for increased interaction between people, particularly given contemporary technological advances (p. 25). According to Bucker et al. (2015), interest in the real world eventually gave rise to the types of intelligence based in research into intelligence (p. 259). Sternberg and Detterman's (1984) concept of intelligence describes individual attributes at the genetic level within a 'loci' framework, including a description of intelligent mental capabilities, a part of the individual based on sub-dimensions (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 25).

The domain of intelligence is thus an interesting component according to its initial descriptions. Recent theoretical studies have been oriented in Cultural Intelligence (CQ), a new concept of personal intelligence (Crowne, 2009, p.150). The definition of CQ is individual skills or how one adapts to (manages) other people considering possible differences between them in a cross-cultural context (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 3). However, studies on adult intelligence solely from an intelligence perspective do not produce results relating to cultural differences, so it is important to consider other

elements which relate to directly to culture (Ng et al., 2012).

Based on the concept of a real intelligence framework, a new concept has been presented which targets the solving of practical problems using an individual's abilities relating to cross-cultural diversity. Four years after Earley and Ang (2003) presented their new concept, another step forward was made by completing this field with a new tool with which to measure the validity of CQ. This new tool enabled descriptions based on psychometric empirical evidence. Cultural Intelligence reflects individual differences focused on cultural personal ability (Ang et al., 2007).

According by Thomas et al. (2008), CQ is a unique ability or system of skills which serves as metacognitive for people taking an interactive role in relationships between others, and is divided into three aspects: cultural metacognitive, knowledge and cross-cultural skills. Cultural Intelligence is also the understanding of differences between individuals' skills, as well as understanding and learning more from individual behavioural (Oto & Michailova, 2018).

The growth of studies of perception and understanding individual differences is one of many achievements that have been updated recently as a result of global changes. Cultural intelligence addresses certain basic skills, starting from basic collaborating to reconciliation or adaptation, to improve cross-cultural respect. The theories related to the cultural intelligence from initiative to measurement validity have offered a brilliant means of study, based on a precise and comprehensive framework. Based on the above descriptions CQ can be classified as a good tool for measuring individual differences, where the point of reference is an individual's cultural differences (Brislin et al., 2006; Ng et al., 2012).

Research on CQ, in chronological order, can be separated into three periods. The first period, characterised by the development of the concept, lasted from 2003 until 2008; the second period, from 2008 until 2014, was characterised by an increase in empirical research; and the last period, from 2015 to the present, has been marked by a rapid increase in research comparing it with different variables (Fang et al., 2018, p. 1). The increase in research on CQ has been built on the definition of the concept, because it was shown to be an important tool in individual interactions across multicultural contexts. According to Brislin et al. (2006), individuals with high CQ are ready to quietly accept any situation without misunderstanding, do not judge others and can adapt to any cultural context.

For at least a decade scholars have presented many multi-disciplinary studies focused on cultural competence, particularly cultural intelligence. Since the concept of CQS was defined and validated, scholars have presented dozens of empirical studies in many fields using a social framework, including businesses, politics, culture, education and health (Oto & Michailova, 2018). These quantitative and qualitative studies have placed CQ in an advanced position; it is often used as an independent variable but sometimes as a mediation variable. According to Fang et al. (2018), the empirical research on CQ has become concentrated in certain categories, including measurement and validity and its antecedents and effects (p. 4). According to Otto and Michailova (2018), however, all 93 empirical studies on CQ have classified it as an independent, dependent or moderating variable (p. 101).

To summarise, is important to note that CQ is necessary to effective interaction in business: individuals must know more about other cultural backgrounds to overcome

barriers, and they must be able to use SI, EI and CQ and understand the relationships which exist between them (Crowne, 2009, p. 151). To treat these different topics in order, this part of the research will start with the antecedents, consequences and recent studies on CQ.

2.4. The Antecedents of CQ

Many studies have examined the impact of cultural intelligence, and it is known to play an important role in personality analysis. The description provided in chapter two highlighted that CQ is useful in a multicultural environment because it considers individuals' abilities, experience, energy and behaviours. New evidence has also come to light regarding the question of how important this tool is in evaluating individual skills. As outlined in Table 1, Ott and Michailova (2018) and Fang et al. (2018) have assessed the literature on CQ, particularly its antecedents. According to the leading theorists Earley and Ang (2003) and Thomas et al. (2008), CQ may be particularly adaptable by individuals in multicultural contexts: The research indicates that some characteristics of the antecedents are regarded as important in education, beyond national experience and individual capability.

The majority of articles which have examined antecedents are concentrated in three particular disciplines: the international experience regarding cultural exposure, cross-cultural training and education and individual differences (Ott & Michailova, 2018, p. 107). Some of the most valuable of the studies assessing the literature on CQ are presented in Table 1. Other studies have examined work experience and vacation experience in the international context and assessed how it increases metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ. However, the impact of CQ on international

experience or vacation, some think that the influence of CQ is short-term and has only a weak impact on other variables (Fang et al., 2018).

Table 1

Antecedents of CQ

Author (year)	Antecedents	Results
Ang et al. (2006)	Personality and four factors of CQ	Conscientiousness was positively associated with metacognitive CQ; agreeableness and emotional stability were positively associated with behavioral CQ but negatively with ; extraversion was positively associated with cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ; and openness was positively associated with four CQ sub-dimensions.
Fischer (2011)	Experiential training	Training lectures using a simulation game decreased the Cognitive CQ and Metacognitive CQ of participants and did not have an impact on Motivational CQ and Behavioral CQ.
Moon et al. (2012)	Differentiation between cross-cultural experiences	Non-work experiences were better predictors of CQ than work experience
Rehg et al. (2012)	Training and task-specific self-efficacy	Training and task-specific self-efficacy improved Motivational CQ and Behavioral CQ.
MacNab (2012)	Training and education in cross-cultural contexts	Training and education increased Metacognitive CQ and Behavioral CQ.
Harrison (2012)	Personality and four sub-dimensions of CQ	Agreeableness was positively associated with all sub-dimensions of CQ and openness was positively associated with all sub-dimensions of CQ, while individual participation in a multicultural context was positively associated with all sub-dimensions of CQ
Rosenblatt et al. (2013)	Training program and international experience	Training and international experience improved Cognitive CQ and Motivational CQ and increased Motivational CQ and Behavioral CQ.

Li et al. (2013)	Previous intercultural experience and four CQ sub-dimensions	Previous intercultural experience was positively correlated with four CQ sub-dimensions
Şahin et al. (2014)	International assignments	International assignments increased with all four factors of CQ
Engle and Crowne (2014)	International experience	International experience increased all four factors of CQ
Nel et al. (2015)	The impact of identity on CQ	Metacognitive CQ was positively associated with intellect and ethnic identity while religious identity was negatively associated with cognitive
Reichaard at al. (2015)	Simulated training programme	A simulated training programme increased all four factors of CQ
Kurpis and Hunter (2017)	Intercultural experience in the form of study, work and travel and four sub-dimensions of CQ	Intercultural experience based on studying abroad had a positive impact on all aspects of CQ
Pekerti and Hunter (2017)	Intercultural experience of immigrants	The intercultural experience of immigrants was associated with a high CQ level.

However, many studies have found that cross-cultural education based on international non-work experience does have value. Non-work experience has a strong impact on CQ factors and is not closely related to the duration of cross-cultural education. Antecedents have shown the influence of cultural intelligence on many organisational variables related to important elements such as achievement results in the workplace, job satisfaction and impact on cross-cultural adjustment. Cultural intelligence has thus been demonstrated to be a good tool in effective communication, job performance and expatriate performance. The four sub-dimensions of CQ have an impact on individual personality characteristics (Ramirez, 2010; Templer et al., 2006).

Ang et al. (2006) discussed some of the personality indicators affected by CQ. These indicators are part of the personality and reflect a person's emotional stability and agreeableness. Li et al. (2016) provided evidence that the five personality factors had positive associations with all aspects or factors of CQ except motivational when an individual's understanding was low. To develop intercultural ability it is important to know yourself and others: experiences are important and have a positive impact on at least one CQ factor. In terms of context, participants who had more international experience demonstrated better cognitive (Kurbis & Hunter, 2017). A study conducted in China and Ireland which evaluated 94 international executive managers and graduate business students produced impressive results, showing that cultural intelligence had an impact on overseas experience when global executives have a divergent learning style thus reflecting greater opportunities for cross-cultural adjustment in their work (Li et al., 2013). Overseas experience led to stronger results in two dimensions, cognitive and motivational. For example, individuals who reported personal experiences, practices and energy with regard to cross-cultural adjustment were more advanced than others who had never travelled outside their country of birth (Balli, 2017).

Vedadi et al. (2010) tested the effect of CQ on 'achievement need', with particular focus on cognitive CQ and behavioral CQ and how these impacted managers' achievements and motives. Metacognitive CQ and behavioral CQ had positive effects on working abroad and 'expatriate job performance' (Ramalu et al., 2011). Behavioral CQ also had a positive impact on job satisfaction, one of the most important results which all businesses want to achieve (Şahin, 2011). Kanten (2014) assessed the positive relationships between CQ and many characteristics of professional occupations, attaining

significantly positive results for employees working in customer service.

Research conducted in single countries examining the link between CQ sub-dimensions and CMS is still insufficient. More studies are needed to identify different results of the CQ and CMS sub-dimensions. It is important to understand how cultural intelligence works in conjunction with CMSs by confirming existing relationships through qualitative research.

2.5. The Consequences of CQ

Although CQ started to be tested in the last decade, such studies have reflected a range of individual abilities in the context of cultural differences. These individual abilities include all human categories and touch on four factors of CQ demonstrated in psychological, behavioural and performance outcomes in culturally unfamiliar situations (Fang et al., 2018). Existing studies have demonstrated that CQ is a good tool which can be used in a multicultural environment and its effects can be divided into the following three categories: direct, indirect and mediating. These three ranks are related to three other elements: mental and emotional states, effectiveness and performance. Scholars who have examined CQ sub-dimensions have proved its incremental predictive validity in different individual variables, which can alleviate work and life pressure and thus reduce psychological consequences for individuals (Early & Ang, 2003; Ng et al., 2006; Ramirez, 2010; Fang et al., 2018). The first consequences listed belong to the psychological aspects, which include problems, stress and in many cases anxiety. The second consequence is functional: interpersonal effectiveness may be endangered by poor communication, problems with knowledge, poor cooperation and low performance (Leung, et al. 2014; Bückner et al., 2015; Rasool & Zahra, 2015; Fang et al., 2018).

A study conducted in China produced interesting results, demonstrating that CQ sub-dimensions play an important role in reducing pressure and anxiety and have a positive impact on good communication and job satisfaction. This indicates that CQ reduces the negative effects of and alleviates psychological stresses in both work and life in different cultural contexts (Leung et al., 2014; Rasool & Zahra, 2015). In many studies the sub-dimensions of CQ have been found to have a positive effect on general adjustments, including stability, adaptation and individual cooperation at work in a cross-cultural context. Considering these facts, it is possible to calculate that the majority of CQ sub-dimensions work in conjunction with other variables (Templer et al. 2006; Huff et al., 2014).

All four sub-dimensions of CQ predict that the positions of businesses can be maintained in all aspects, starting with planning, action and control in local and multicultural contexts. Planning with and managing people of different cultures directly supports managing or controlling inner emotions as a strategy to overcome conflicts between the parties. Metacognitive CQ offers opportunities for new ideas, strong cooperation between parties (regardless of where each party operate) and helps elucidate the differences between them. In addition to metacognitive CQ, behavioral CQ and motivational CQ are particularly significant in individual performance, enabling the adaption of work plans and improving managerial performance for each person equipped with knowledge (Van Dyne et al., 2008; Chua et al., 2012). Four factors of CQ are important in transferring leadership with knowledge of global developments. This means that CQ is positively associated with every transforming behaviour of global leaders based on international experience (Ramsey et al., 2017).

The CQ sub-dimensions are related to and have an impact on individual performance because they allow better communication, cooperation and interactions with new cultural experiences in multicultural environments. This means these sub-dimensions are important in work, producing attractive effects and sustaining the professional commitment of staff, which in turn improves satisfaction and reduces pressure. For example, professional staff with a high level of CQ are more motivated and satisfied with their work. Therefore, CQ sub-dimensions are an important means for each individual to reduce pressure and stress at work (Eisenberg & Williams, 2013).

Prejudice is the first cause of disagreements between people and may lead to conflict. CQ is effective in reducing prejudices and improving acceptance of foreigners, supporting the establishment of relationships between newcomers and the host culture (Joardar et al., 2007). Ramirez (2010) went even further, claiming that CQ affects one's ability to resolve conflicts, which is a primary focus of her study (p. 42). A few of the consequences are presented to explain why the elements of CQ are important today.

2.6. Recent Studies on Cultural Intelligence

The growth of global development through modern interactions and crossing the national borders has prompted the need to study the cultural intelligence. Given the importance of functioning in such an environment, scholars have recommended improving the ability of managers because they are an important component of success for a business which operates in a cross-cultural context (Ramirez, 2010; Rasool & Zahra, 2015). According by Ramirez (2014), there are two basic aspects of studying CQ: the study of culture and multiple intelligences. The first dimension has four main areas which must be addressed when exploring the impact of social phenomena: management

processes, including social elements; social culture; organisational processes; and leadership in a different country. The second dimension is related to the study of multiple intelligence as a concept affecting business and management. Intelligence will not be treated separately in the empirical part of this study, but it is important to mention it as a chronological part of CQ studies. In recent years culture has been identified as an important dimension of intelligence, a fact which has created new space for research. The definition of CQ has set new standards; it is an as-yet unknown tool related to individuals' skills, operational knowledge and work in environments comprising people of different cultures, regardless of geographical location (Ang et al., 2006).

In this context, the definition of CQ as a concept is an elaboration of the personality elements of individuals, particularly their capabilities, skills, experience and education. Skills and experience enable better communication between people who share particular qualities and create a sense of positivity in cooperative practices. Previous studies have addressed the impact of cultural intelligence on many other variables. In fact, most empirical analyses are focused on one, two or three sample tests of validity factors. Personality ability is a major determinant of whether individuals with high CQ can effectively engage in a multicultural context (Ilhan & Cetin, 2014).

Ang et al. (2007) and Van Dyne et al. (2008) tested the validity of a CQ scale instrument used in several important empirical studies. They found that the four-factor structure is stable, sustainable and interpretable. The instrument was used to assess empirical evidence such as the relationship between CQ and other forms of intelligence, personality, international experience, cultural adaptation, performance, global leadership, multicultural time and social networking.

Recent studies on CQ sub-dimensions have been more complex, except for those presented as initial studies. A study of 78 middle and senior managers in important positions in a company reported that they were their employees' primary manager and thus understood the effect of CQ on increasing achievement in the workplace. In this situation motivational was an important factor in the managers' achievements (Vedadi et al., 2010). Regarding experience in international operation and individual performance in multinational enterprises, the results indicate that CQ affects self-efficacy, job satisfaction and performance at work (Şahin & Gürbüz, 2014). Another interesting point addressed regarded the impact of CQ on prejudice, which was found to negatively impact cooperation between people all over the world. The information available on CQ in coordination with prejudice indicates that it has positive effects on entrepreneurship, which is very important for new businesses (Baltacı, 2017). Ipekci and Buyukbese (2016) showed that CQ positively affects employee well-being, career building and career orientation, and that it helps individuals build resilience to cope with change.

Moon's (2013) study of 73 multicultural teams (327 individuals) measured performance in work engagement and found that higher CQ indicated cultural diversity and higher rates of performance and improvement. In another case, multicultural diversity indicated the need for a better understanding of all factors which affect cultural intelligence. CQ also has a positive impact on international individual relationships, innovation opportunities and transformational global leadership because it is a means of 'providing individualized support. Two of the four sub-dimensions, metacognitive CQ and cognitive CQ, were also found to have a positive effect on transformational global leadership (Alexandra, 2018; Lorenz et al., 2018).

Managers with a higher level of metacognitive CQ reflect were more likely to share new ideas and collaborate on intercultural creative endeavours. Metacognitive CQ and cognitive CQ contributed to the positive impact of improved international exchange, and metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ were positively associated with cooperation, enhancing social knowledge and considering the values of trust and common vision (Chua et al., 2012; Varela & Gatlin-Watts, 2013; Men & Tsai, 2016). In a study on the relationship between CQ sub-dimensions and job creation and cultural learning, the results showed a positive correlation between immigration and CQ factors. The people who were tested demonstrated a positive correlation with and more activity in cultural learning, which is related to job creation. Vision has a good effect on job creation, as it enables new creative activities, innovativeness and cultural learning (Lorenz et al., 2018). The CQ sub-dimensions also influenced in knowledge sharing among culturally diverse teams and affected perceived team efficacy. CQ was also found to affect individual sales services in a sample of 305 real estate agents employed in the United (Chen et al., 2012, p. 104).

The CQ sub-dimensions at a moderate level impact the results of some important variables which are part of organisational work, particularly acceptance of tasks and expectation of challenges by team members. Cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ affect the cross-cultural experience and cross-cultural adjustment of individuals with non-work experience before they start permanent work (Li et al., 2013). Schwarzenthal et al. (2017) investigated CQ sub-dimensions' impact on cultural heritage and found that age was not correlated to any of them. The business sector is immense and as it continues to grow its operating environment becomes more complex, so the number

of studies on it also grows every day.

In the demographic characteristic level the CQ sub-dimensions did not reflect a significant difference in gender. In this case the only statistically effect difference in gender was related to cognitive. The results for experience indicated that young managers were focused on their duties, reflecting increased motivational CQ (Balli, 2017). Education was also found to be an important factor and had significant differences for all dimensions of CQ, meaning that it reflected essential differences between groups: individuals with a higher level of education were more motivated. Marital status was also found to have a significant difference with regard to behaviour—married people demonstrated better behavioral skills than unmarried ones (Aslan & Aslan, 2015). In the general there were few differences between the four sub-dimensions of CQ with regard to demographic variables.

Chapter 3.

Conflict and Conflict Management

The third chapter of this thesis will present the theoretical definition of conflict in a general sense, its levels and interpersonal conflict. The antecedents and consequences of CMS will then be presented, followed by summaries of recent studies on CMS. This chapter will also include reflections on theoretical aspects of CMS in the literature review.

3.1. The Concept of Conflict

Throughout history, human society has been subject to conflicts. Disputes occur everywhere, in every place and in every business. The history of conflict studies reflects interesting events which affect all individuals, wherever they occur; to overcome these conflicts it is necessary to use different means of managing them. Conflicts must be handled with particular care in order to avoid escalating them into undesirable situations. When thinking about conflict as a phenomenon, the first type to come to mind is those between one or more individuals, which often arise due to a desire to protect one's goals and values. In certain circumstances, people or groups have the opportunity to cooperate with one other to achieve their goals, but sometimes these relationships may be incompatible and cause conflict (Rahim, 2002, p. 207).

The root of conflicts are certain attributes, specifically attitudes, behaviours and incompatibility between individuals or interdependent parties. Ting-Toomey (1985) defined conflict as a dispute between one or more individuals trying to protect their goals and values (Havenga, 2008). Pondy argued that conflicts can develop between incompatible people who share a common job or commitment. According to Putnam and Poole (1987) and Thomas (1992a, 1992b) conflicts can occur in the presence of

disagreement, negative emotion and interference (Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2011). Conflict is a complex process which originates in the minds of people who cannot agree and will not cooperate (Capozzoli, 1999) in circumstances such as competing perceptions, emotional behaviours and outcomes, which give rise to frustration. Conflict is a pervasive phenomenon in the social context and yet it is also necessary to degree because it affects people's performance and decision-making abilities (Saeed et al., 2014). According to Deutch (1973), all disagreements which are products of conflict should be avoided or suppressed because they can lead to unfavourable situations which can easily produce negative results, as most people are predisposed to certain negative actions (Berscneid & Reis, 1998).

All sectors of business—public, private and non-profit—cope with conflicts every day. Human components and activity are unavoidable parts of conflict. The negative factors of conflict start with misunderstanding, inaction, non-cooperation and the complete cessation of communication. It is the process which inevitably arises occasionally and in certain situations involving individuals and groups, but unmanageable conflict can damage a business's effectiveness. Based on the potential effects, researchers have examined the negative and positive dimensions of conflict (Braham et al., 2005).

According to Schermerhorn et al., (1997), the main role of managers or leaders is to devote part of their working time to handling conflicts. This happens because disagreements first directly affect senior management. In these circumstances it is more important to create an environment conducive to every employee respecting one another, which may prevent disagreements. The simplest definition of conflict is a disagreement

between people about an objective. Conflict management has been the focus of a considerable amount of research for decades (Chan et al., 2007). Now that the conflict has been defined for the purposes of this study, CMS as the dependent variable will now be addressed.

3.2. Levels of Conflict

Conflict may be characterised by certain aspects, phases and levels and its consequences are commensurate to its size, time and development. Pondy (1967) argued that conflict may be characterised by specific levels or phases, each entailing particular consequences. The first level is latent conflict, where there is no apparent conflict but unspoken or otherwise concealed disagreements exist. This kind of conflict is based on economic inequality and unequal social access between individuals or groups. In such cases management may be unresponsive to the needs of those involved because they are not aware of it. When such issues do emerge as an open conflict it is called competing or role conflict.

The second level is perceived conflict. The first level is not always a precursor to this stage, where a conflict is manifested or expressed and the parties involved misunderstand one another. A common mistake made at this level is poor communication and coordination.

The third level of conflict is called felt conflict, where the disagreement becomes known or is experienced in a physical sense. In felt conflicts individuals or groups express their negative emotions and hostility. This level of conflict causes anxiety and crisis for individuals but may still not be demonstrated in behaviour. In this stage, individuals respond to and contradict each other. This situation can be called the action to

engage in sabotage and sometimes violence.

The consequences of conflicts may be damaging or even fatal for businesses or can promote collaborating which have a positive influence. When measuring the effect of a certain dispute, its results usually reveal positive or negative indicators which can easily have repercussions for the affected business. In such cases, the magnitude of the consequences depends on how the conflict is resolved. One means of resolving a conflict is the involvement and participation of all individuals in CMS. If a conflict suppressed or not resolved, it may be repeated or escalated (Pondy, 1967). According to Deutsch (1991) and Schermerhorn et al. (1998), there are some levels of conflict as: intrapersonal level, interpersonal level and intragroup level, intergroup level.

3.2.1. Intrapersonal conflict

This stage reflects when a conflict is still within an individual's perception or psyche. It is a psychological conflict which reflects the individual's thoughts, objectives and emotion. In this case an internal struggle takes place between people with very different personalities. These circumstances occur typically because people's choices and opinions are incompatible. They are personal occurrences which may help managers in developing relationships with others.

3.2.2. Interpersonal (individual-to-individual) conflict

In this case occurs internal struggles are expressed in public when people have incompatible choices and opinions. However, they are still personal occurrences which may help managers in developing relationships with others.

3.2.3. Intragroup conflict

The next level or stage is characterised by the involvement of two or more

individuals in a group or organisation, as a result of discrepancies and interpersonal disagreements. At this stage the conflict has crossed beyond an individual boundary to affect a group within a business.

3.2.4. Intergroup or inter-organisational conflict

Intergroup conflicts occur as discrepancies and intergroup disagreements within an organisation. For example, a misunderstanding can easily take place among different departments in an organisation.

3.3. Interpersonal Conflict

People are social by nature and need group organisation. The workplace is one of the organisational settings characterised by several elements, including job characteristics and relationships at work. Our emotions and our behaviour have an important impact on interpersonal relationships. Today, the interpersonal conflict management studies are important in management because those provide opportunities to treat appropriately human behaviours (Madalina, 2016).

The definition of interpersonal conflict is similar to that of general conflict: it involves individual personalities and incompatible ideas, plans, concepts and opinions. Interpersonal conflicts are disagreements between individuals who work together in groups or teams and reflect disparities between personalities, motives, values, styles, culture, attitudes or perceptions (Rahim, 2002; Beheshtifar & Elham, 2013; Madalina, 2016).

Scholars have different references for interpersonal conflict. The first scholar to introduce a theory of interpersonal conflict was Hammond (1965), who said that ‘conflicts between individuals or parties should be viewed from a purely cognitive

perspective that ignores their motivations and values' (Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2011). Interpersonal disagreements are when incompatible individuals in interdependent groups are working toward a shared goal which will produce different benefits for each person or party. Kellermann (1996) explained that interpersonal conflict is the perception of different interests by two or more individuals who desire different results (Bao et al., 2016).

When thinking of conflicts, the first thing to come to mind is interpersonal conflict. Deutsch (1973) proposed a division between positive (constructive) and negative (destructive) functions of conflict. In each conflict situation, interpersonal relationships may initially have one of two influences, positive or negative (Berscheid & Reis, 1998). According to Fisher (2000) interpersonal conflict may refer to one or more parties feeling a need for more power, and there is no way for both or all parties involved to be satisfied. In this situation tactics such as sabotage, deception and threats may be employed until the relationship breaks down. Interpersonal conflicts may include emotional imbalance, individual demotivational and stress. Rudeness and disagreement between individuals often cause distress and strain for those involved.

According to Beheshtifar and Zare (2013), interpersonal conflict may bring concessions in management, so it is necessary to change individuals' behaviour and the organisation's structure to enable the organisation to function effectively. However, the positive aspect of interpersonal conflict promotes competition between individuals at the organisational level.

3.4. Related Theories about Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict in an organisation is an undesirable phenomenon which has

no specific structure but can be destructive and damaging to relationships between individuals. In a destructive situation conflict can cause negative effects such as low job satisfaction, absenteeism, poor commitment to work, more grievances, sabotage, deception, threats, poor performance and stress. A low-level of conflict, however, can be desirable, prompting the development and implementation of new ideas, positive progress in performance and growth of the organisation (Pondy, 1967; Rahim, 1986; Sportsman, 2005; Beheshtifar, & Elham, 2013). However, interpersonal conflict can also be reflected as a mixed conflict with constructive or nonconstructive elements. Constructive conflicts reflect a readiness to resolve the problem on the part of both parties, while in nonconstructive situations the parties accept reconciliation unwillingly and do not alter their original views (Rahim, 1986).

Researchers have suggested that the development of interpersonal conflict is independent and may be affected by its source and the number of people involved. Studying this type of conflict is important for organisations and institutions. According to Schermerhorn (1993) and Thomas and Schmidt (1976), the interpersonal conflict is inevitable in business and thus everyone must learn to deal with such situations, particularly managers (Bao et al., 2016).

Relationships between individuals produce some of the factors which influence conflicts, such as the history of interaction, personality building, biological differences, hierarchical positions and interacting with certain stakeholders. Influencing factors were found to arise from all personality differences, i.e. gender, which increased interpersonal conflicts (Jehn et al., 1997) and revealed dramatic shifts in conflict behaviour according to age (Laursen & Collins, 1994; Volkema et al., 1996).

Differences in education may increase interpersonal conflict at an organisational level because they can reveal work-related barriers in communication between individuals (Ancona, 1990; Jehn et al., 1997; Tengilimoglu & Kisa, 2005). According to Dhami and Olson (2008), interpersonal conflict has regrettably been neglected, despite the importance of operationalizing the concept of interpersonal conflict, and more research in this area is needed (Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2011).

3.5. Conflict Management

Conflict is inextricable from the human experience, in life and work, and the presence of conflict creates the need for its treatment and management. Conflict management has been defined in various ways by various authors, but all such descriptions share the objective of controlling and reducing a conflict (Bartol et al., 2001). First, conflict management is a phenomenon which is related in a general sense to the characteristics of dispute but more specifically to the people tasked with reducing and managing disputes (Rahim, 2002).

Conflict management is an individual action or actions which may be applied to any form or type of conflict; in business, its aim is to ensure the effective functioning of personnel, stability, good communication and collaborating. The aforementioned actions should be supported by all individuals in such situations (Bartol et al., 2001; Rahim, 2002; Thomas Kliman, 2007). To manage conflict in effective ways, it is important to know many basic actions which are useful in training, developing and motivating staff, reducing negative actions which can cause stagnation and enabling the fulfilment of the organisation's objectives (Rahim, 1986; Bartol et al., 2001).

All contemporary organisations need constructive methods of conflict

management which will enable them to draft effective conflict management strategies. Conflict management ultimately reflects the need to changes individuals' behaviour and organisation structure to coordinate basic activities and to plan work for relational objectives. Change can be realised when there all employees are willing and dedicated to work in a positive way (Rahim, 2001; Thomas Kliman, 2007; Ramirez, 2010; Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013).

3.6. Conflict Management Styles

Today, the challenge for each business is how to achieve success under certain conditions and circumstances which involve disagreements between employees. This challenge must be overcome if a business is to achieve stability and to manage conflict. Conflict management includes an organisational phase which provides constructive actions and results for all involved (Rahim, 2001; Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013).

Conflict management can be broken down into several phases, starting with diagnosing and determining the form, causes and intensity of conflict and then evaluating how best to intervene in and deescalate it. Although conflict is a negative it can promote positive advances in some circumstances, including a renewal of internal energy (motivation), new activity and enhanced ethics at the individual level and improve the functioning of the business as a whole (Rahim, 1986). Effective management of conflict is important as it influences creativity, problem-solving skills and learning. Such situations can be influenced by personality factors related to individual culture, education and life experience (Rahim, 2001; Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013).

CMSs are methods tested by researchers which can help people respond effectively in conflict situations. Researchers have used different methods and

instruments to learn more about CMSs, all of which can be used in interpersonal and organisational contexts (Rahim, 1983). The first conceptual design model of the five styles of CMS was presented by Blake and Mouton (1964). Their definition contains two measurable dimensions: a concern for production and a concern for people (Holt & DeVore, 2005, p. 167). According to Blake and Mouton (1985), this means the product is a basic tool for people preoccupied with work. In these situations it should be noted first that there is concern about the purpose of the organisation, such as production, which can also be calculated as a concern for people. Manufacturing or delivering products is always the highest priority for a company, which it achieves using its power and authority. The second is the opposite: rather than being concerned with production, it concerns people. The third element, a combination of the two, is particularly interesting: the commitment or concern relates to both categories. It is 'middle of the grid' (a moderate concern) and integrates concern for production and people (Holt & DeVore, 2005, p. 167).

At the beginning of implementation the Blake-Mouton model supported concern for production one side and concern for people on the other side, and it was felt to be an adequate strategy for problem-solving (Holt & DeVore, 2005, p. 167). However, this idea was contested by Killman and Thomas (1978), who argued that no one strategy was better than the others (Ramirez, 2010). They later presented a new model which also had two levels: assertiveness and cooperation (Thomas & Killman, 2007, p. 7). This model is based on five styles which are outlined in Figure 3 below (Rahim, 2002; Brahnham et al., 2005; Ramirez, 2010). In conflict situations, people tend to use the personal style at the moment of conflict. The five styles of approaches to conflicts (collaborating,

accommodating, competing, avoiding and compromising) are presented below:

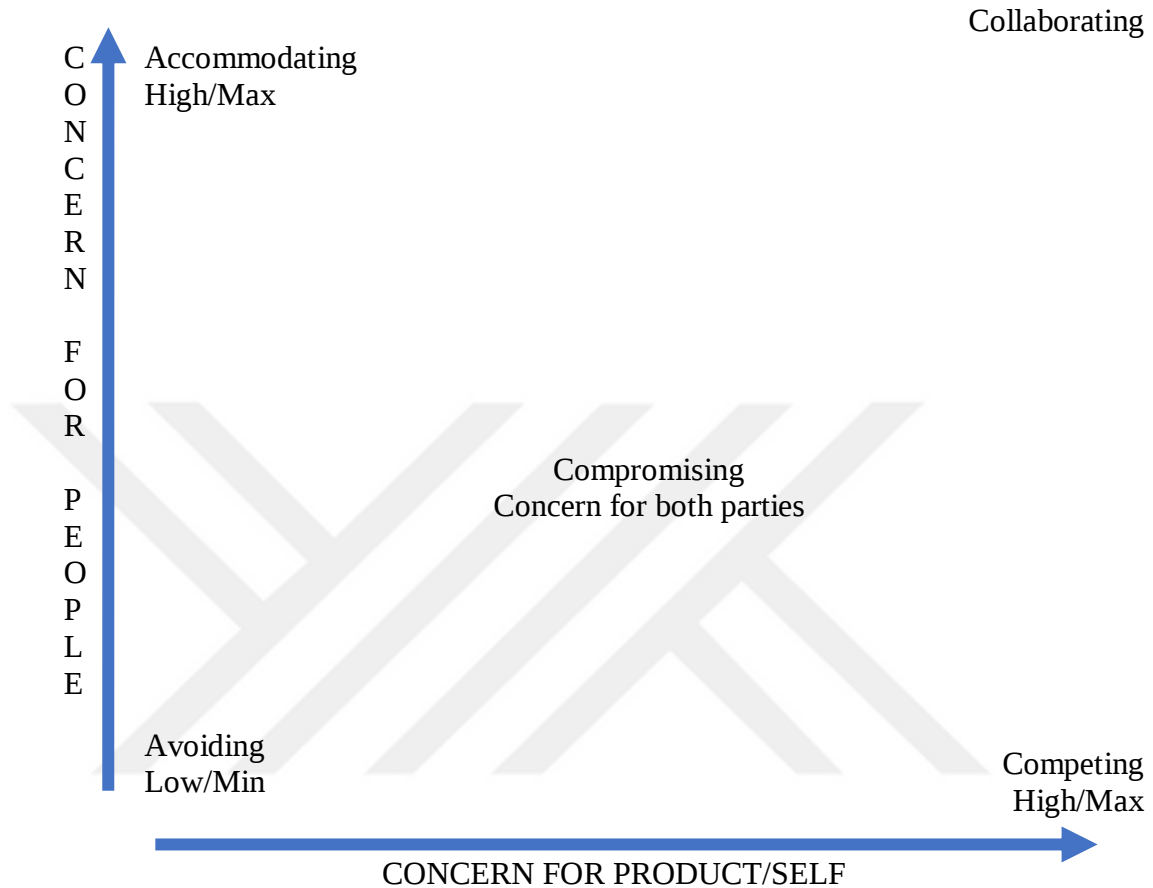


Figure 5. Concern for people versus concern for product, adapted from Rahim (2002).

3.6.1. Competing Style

The first dimension in this framework is competing. People are by nature given to competitiveness and tend to focus primarily on their own goals, even in a cooperative situation. In many cases competing may create unforeseen situations, some of which may be good, some bad. This style is characterised by a high concern for oneself and a low concern for other people. It can be an aggressive and uncompromising approach because it is oriented in power; people who favour this style tend to be interested only in their own goals. Competing strategies are ‘win-lose’ and tend to be ineffective in meeting their

objectives. People who use this CMS prioritise their personal initiatives and think that only their attitude is right (Gonçalves et al., 2016; Stample, 2010).

This style is characterised by two basic elements: the desire for power and the desire to apply a particular method of pressure on the other party. Some may try to accommodate actions that are presented as competing, but this is as strategy which is used to influence the other party. Those who rely on this CMS tend to feel that ‘if you are not with me, you are against me’ (Stample, 2010) and prefer to be the centre of the attention.

3.6.2. Collaborating Style

The second style, collaborating, is best-known in social environments. To collaborate is to act for the benefit of two or more parties at the same time, to understand both oneself and other individuals cooperating toward a single goal. The important characteristics of this style are having an open mind and the desire to resolve any differences by generating strategic solutions acceptable to both parties (Afzalur et al., 1992; Semple, 2010). In such situations, both or all parties involved in the cooperative process may have disagreements, but they are ultimately able to resolve them to everyone’s satisfaction. Meier (2011) defined collaborating as a situation where individuals who are cooperating on a shared goal become involved in a dispute with regard to how to fulfil their objectives. Collaborating occurs when seek a solution for everyone, not just themselves. People think that with collaborating it is possible to combine different experiences and practices so as to resolve disputes. In complicated situations and with special individuals, those managers who use this CMS must have

particular qualities, especially patience (Riasi & Asadzadeh, 2015; Gonçalves et al., 2016).

3.6.3. Compromising Style

The third CMS is compromising, a moderate style which addresses the concerns of all parties and requires that some goals or aspects of goals be sacrificed for the general good. Compromising is generally perceived positively, as moderately cooperative and highly assertive means of resolving conflict. In general, this CMS leads to conflict resolution quickly and with more acceptable results (Rahim, 1983; Semple, 2010).

People who prefer this CMS share certain ability which may easily be considered weaknesses because they could lead to new conflicts in the future. This style offers an effective solution to manage or bypass a conflict with few negative consequences (Semple, 2010).

3.6.4. Avoiding Style

The fourth conflict style is avoiding, which causes the least disturbance for everyone involved in a conflict because it gives the impression that there is no problem to be resolved; however, it often leads to distrust, escalating existing problems and possibly generating new ones. This situation occurs when an individual convinces him- or herself that it is not possible to address everyone's concerns so it is better not to address anyone's. Individuals who use this style are 'unassertive and uncooperative' (Semple, 2010).

Those who rely on this CMS tend not to care about the anyone's interest, including their own (Stample, 2010; Gonçalves et al., 2016). Fear of conflict leads such

people to avoid it in the hope of restoring normalcy. This model implies that conflicts will not be resolved but ignored.

3.6.5. Accommodating Style

The last of the five CMSs is accommodating. This style is characterised by two complementary impulses: low concern for oneself and high concern for others. The individuals who implement this CMS tend to fear confrontation and are unprepared to argue for their objective. Those who rely on this approach tend to minimise differences and focus on commonalities to satisfy the needs of the other party (Semple, 2010, p. 3).

People with this style consider that differences should never be regarded as major and impassable obstacles because all problems have solutions. This approach creates space for cooperation and reflects a willingness to place the interests of others ahead of one's own out of generosity and selflessness (Gonçalves et al., 2016).

3.7. The Antecedents of Conflict Management

Based on the descriptions in the literature, the antecedents of conflict management came from analyses of conflicts between individuals produced in academic disciplines such as sociology and psychology which are now being elaborated by organisational management (Moeller et al., 2012). Conflicts between individuals arise from individual differences, incompatible behaviour, contention about competencies, separation of tasks and exclusive preferences (Rahim, 2002).

Some studies have addressed the antecedents of conflict management and posited that certain factors can influence conflicts. These factors are based on individual, organisational and extra organisational characteristics. In conflict situations, individual factors influence whether or not conflicts occur in an assigned environment. Individual

factors are linked to personal characteristics which can be distinguished as personality, gender, position or role, level of education or experience (Volkema et al., 1996). Individual characteristics and demographic factors can also affect conflict. Early research shows that individual characteristics have been identified as the source of interpersonal conflict. According to Wall and Callister (1995), individual characteristics refer to important elements such as individuals' emotions, values, goals and objectives: They argued that there is limited support for individual personalities in emotional and stressful circumstances, so people themselves are conflict antecedents. Jehn et al. (1997), on the other hand, argued that demographic and educational differences were conflict antecedents (Moeller et al., 2012).

Individual characteristics or demographic factors can also have an impact on conflicts. For example, previous studies have shown differences in demographic characteristics (including means of cooperation) and in the use of organisational opportunities (including managerial style). The antecedents of conflict have been listed in some important contexts, starting with individual differences, interpersonal issues and organisational and extra-organisational factors. Individual differences reflect individual characteristics such as gender, education, language, maturity, experience, beliefs, culture and attitudes about emotional stability. Interpersonal issues refer to interpersonal behaviour demonstrated by each employee based on respect and equality. Organisational elements refers to all characteristics which are part of organisation, including motivational and internal actions. Conflicts may arise from these antecedents as a result of inconsistencies in needs, interests and differences in attitude toward joint activities conducted on behalf of the organisation (Rahim, 2002).

According to Wilson (2002), there is a separation in gender-based because some jobs are dominated by one gender. However, for the purposes of this study gender is less important than differences in culture, personality and experience. Women are stereotypically perceived to be considerate and compassionate in conflicts and to have more patience in all associated processes. Another important demographic characteristic is age, which is an important characteristic related to CMS strategy. There have been a number of studies on the relationship between age and CMS. According to Havenga (2006), there are conflicting handling styles within age groups, with most younger individuals tending to use compromising and dominance (Vokic & Sontor, 2009, p. 14) and in some cases collaborating. There are also some cases when individual characteristics (e.g. age and status) for which there was no statistically significant difference between groups (Havenga & Visagie, 2006). Diversity in marital status also leads to conflict in work, so marital satisfaction is important with regard to CMS (Greeff & Bruyne, 2000). Another individual characteristic which leads to conflict is work experience; in this case there are many individual factors which can easily create differences in personality. All employees in any business accept interpersonal behaviour from managers, and vice versa; if any one individual begins to behave in a way which does not conform to his or her job description, this can give rise to a conflict (Cetin & Hacifazhoglu, 2014).

Interpersonal conflicts can easily be affected by secondary elements, such as social exclusion in the community, disputes with neighbours, politics, culture, norms or new global rules. According to Tepper et al. (1998), pressure, authority, bureaucracy, departmentalization and decisions are prominent organisational factors which influence

interpersonal personal conflicts (Rahim, 1986; Shweta & Srirang, 2012).

3.8. The Consequences of Conflict Management

The development of technology has shortened deadlines in the business sector, placing permanent commitments on individuals and creating many new stressors. Current organisational behaviour practices mean that interactions between people can easily give rise to tension and thus create barriers to efficient operation (Darling & Walker, 2001). Most studies of the consequences of conflict view it either as solely positive or solely negative. Interpersonal relationships in conflicts refer to disagreements among team members about individual issues related to personality differences. According to Gerardi (2004), Chassin and Becher (2002) and Davies (2005), the consequences of conflict can be either indirect or direct. Indirect consequences can be negative, including degradation of the business's reputation or negative publicity, the creation of barriers to communication between employees, decreased morale and resource constraint (Huan & Yazdanifard, 2012). Scholars emphasised certain negative elements which can cause interpersonal conflict in businesses. Rahim (2002, p. 206) emphasised that a small conflict can easily interfere with the smooth functioning of a company if it continues for a long period and produces negative outcomes which are typically destructive for businesses (Sportsman, 2005). Such negative outcomes include misunderstandings, disruption of relationships, tension and stress for every employee. At the business level, this kind of conflict can have negative outcomes, including poor performance, low tolerance of others and becoming error-prone (Thomas, 1992; Douglass, 1996). Negative conflict outcomes have consequences for individuals, groups and the organisational structure as a whole. According to Jehn (1995), individual negative consequences include

emotional reactions, frustration, tension, anxiety, fear, mistrust and poor communication (Guerra et al., 2005). However, Rahim (1986) emphasised that conflicts may sometimes have positive outcomes which can lead to new ideas, progress and positive growth in a business. These positive outcomes are the result of constructive conflicts, which can create balance in the interest of both individuals and parties and prompting a race for new results. The consequence of conflicts in general can be seen as negative, but in some situations conflict can be lucrative for a business. Most conflicts can be resolved successfully and may improve employee relationships, but some can create problems. Conflict can help managers understand problems and later may inspire ideas or solutions for how to strengthen relationships between employees.

3.9. Recent Studies on Conflict Management

Recent studies have been dedicated to categories of the actual topics and have covered a variety of variables. The sample population used for the present empirical comprised individuals from various businesses with multicultural workforces. Rapid global changes are occurring in every country, every day, bringing opportunities for dynamic conflict. These changes affect our working environment and operating spaces, arenas where conflict was already a constant. In business conflicts arise whenever there is pressure due to time management, heavy or excessive workloads, individual differences and problems with communication between people (Templer et al., 2006). The number of studies on conflict management is growing because of the increasing demands for balance, dedication, efficacy and harmony in the workplace. Some of these studies are outlined in Table 2 below.

Management of conflict can prompt formal and informal actions on the part of an

individual, including job terms, personality preferences, cultural knowledge and family traditions, level of education and experience. All knowledge is of value for a manager, who should be capable of managing conflict in situations with different social characteristics. The formal structure of an organisation can be effective if the team is ready to manage conflicts (Thomas & Killman, 2007; Ramirez, 2010; Alper et al., 2000). Research has provided some important observations of the five styles of CMS.

Table 2

Some Studies about Conflict Management

Author (year)	Object of the Study	Findings
Brewer et al. (2002)	The role of gender in conflict management in organisation	Respondents: 118 men and women of lower and higher levels in organisation. Women tended to avoiding while men tended to dominate.
Mohammed et al. (2008)	The effects of culture and CMS on international projects	A study of three kinds of managers from France, India and the United Kingdom analysing the effects of culture and CMS on international projects. The results indicated that management with cultural knowledge resulted in competing. In this case, Indian managers preferred avoiding while the French and UK managers preferred competing.
Havenga (2008)	Demographics characteristics gender and age have impact on applying of CMS	Women used integration more often than men, while there were no differences with regard to gender for the other CMSs. Respondents who were 36 years old used dominance, while other styles of CMS did not show any differences with regard to age.
Özkalp et al., (2009)	Turkish managers' preferred CMS in different sectors	Turkish managers preferred integration most of all, followed by compromising.
Timothy et al. (2010)	The relationship between conflict management and personal values	Dominance was positively associated with self-improvement in both countries and negatively associated with self-perfection.

		Integration was positively associated with self-perfection and negatively associated with self-improvement
		Respondents: Residents of Germany and Australia aged 18–60 years. For Germany there were 214 respondents (107 women, 107 men). For Australia there were 204 respondents (113 women, 91 men).
Elkhouly and Gamaleldin (2012)	Examined cooperation between Egyptian and Europeans managers	The results show that the Egyptian managers preferred dominance while the European managers tended to prefer collaborating.
Schlaerth et al. (2013)	A meta-analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and constructive conflict management based on leadership position and age	EI has a positive impact on constructive treatment of conflict and there was no difference with regard to age.
Drakulevski et al. (2014)	Relationship between CMS and learning	The results indicate a link between methods or styles which evolved for learning new things and CMS.
Rubčić and Švegar (2017)	CMSs used by students of Economics and Business Administration based on gender differences	Men preferred compromising, appeasement and problem-solving while women relied on problem-solving and compromising.

Compromising is the most accepted CMS because it is oriented in reciprocal profit, considers the basic interests of all parties involved, produces superior outcomes and is accepted by all parties (Vikic & Santor, 2009, p. 3). In a sample of 100 employees from five manufacturing industries in Amritsar, this style was found to be very popular affected all involved parties' 'assertiveness and cooperativeness' (Stample, 2010).

The commitment to test management styles has continued. Another study explored the nature of CMS in business using the Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument. This study confirmed that Chinese managers were most likely to use

compromising, followed by avoiding (Ma, 2007).

Previous studies have highlighted differences in demographic characteristics. Chusmir and Mills (1989) concluded that women and men are conscious of gender differences in conflict situations. CMSs were assessed using a sample population of 201 managers (102 women and 99 men), and it was found that female managers were most likely to use compromising, followed by avoiding, collaborating, accommodating and finally competing, whereas male managers preferred collaborating and then compromising. Trust level has a positive effect according to Curseu et al. (2012), at each organisational level the presence of trust has a positive impact and reduces the likelihood of conflict between team members in a work environment (Sudhakar, 2015, p. 218).

In a study of high school teachers, women who were more passive and inflexible were found to prefer avoiding conflict. These results are representative of a real situation which is probably related to social mentality (Cetin & Hacifazhoglu, 2004). In another study, the results showed that both genders significantly favoured particular CMSs: men relied more on dominance while women used avoiding (Brewer et al., 2002). According to Ogunyemi et al. (2010), gender is an important variable in conflict management because in a conflict involving both genders, women are more likely to use accommodating.

Another important demographic characteristic related to CMS is age. The literature indicates a relationship between age and CMS. In situations where the interconnectedness between people is growing alongside technology, older individuals are more likely to show their accepted skills in intercultural context because social and intercultural differences can give rise to unacceptable situations (Grossmann et al., 2010).

According to Vokić and Sontor, (2005) there are different conflicting handling styles within the age groups: younger individuals use compromising while older people prefer accommodating (p. 14).

Another demographic characteristic which is important in CMS is marital status. Pinto and Ferrer (2002) argued that marital status was not in itself significant, but other studies have found that married couples have more family obligations and are thus more likely to choose cooperation (Vokić & Sontor, 2005, p. 10). Greeff and Bruyne (2000) said that marital satisfaction is important variant when it comes to CMS: Their results reflected that managers who were happy in their marriages tended to use collaborating to resolve conflicts.

With regard to work experience, a study of employees in commercial banks found that there was no significant difference between people in terms of experience (Harem, 2003). Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004), however, found out that there is a difference in terms of work experience, because older employees are more likely to use collaborating over any other style. A study in Pakistan assessed CMS preferences among 145 educational managers and found that education had no significant effect in terms of educational practice but it did create significant differences in administrative experiences (Tahir Farooqi, 2015).

Studies also show that there is no single CMS which is appropriate in all situations: Individuals must choose the best CMS for a particular situation (Friedman et al., 2000; Rahim, 2002). In general, if a person chooses a style, it can be more effective for their personal characteristics and to product more effect on CMS (Koza, 2002, p. 95). At last, it is not only one style better than the other styles in the individual process, but it

depends on individual personality and situations.

3.10. Cultural Intelligence and Conflict Management Styles

Nowadays, the interest in the role of Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Style has grown, but there were not enough empirical researches that review the impact of individual features. Therefore, the theory concerning relationship between Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Style are descriptions about individual behaviours.

With or without consciousness people are part of an unavoidable social relationship with other people, some of those actions can be classified as good actions or inappropriate actions that could hurt or lead to a conflict. So the way a person approaches situations which can cause damage to relationships are important characteristics for the theory of organisational behaviours. It is necessary to know more about individuals differences theories, which comes a results of their judgments and reactions. The years 1955 and 1958 are characterized by the theory of personality presented by Kelly (1955) and followed by theory of social perception from Heider's in (1958). According to theory of personality presented by Kelly(1955) there are two dimensions of individual characteristics as trust and judgment on the cases of relationships them. Theory of personality was followed later by the theory of social perception from Heider's in (1958) who presented new findings regarding the individual's approach influenced by perceptions of himself and others (Dweck, Chiu & Hong, 1995).

However, researchers from the last ten years of XX century were looking for more facts according to the theories dedicated to the humans behaviour in the organizational sense. In the conflict situations according by Rusbult (1987) and Zembrodt

& Gunn (1982), two are important characteristics which that damage interpersonal relationship such as; neglect and exit, while there are two other characteristics which responses relationship as; acceptance and accommodating (Kammrath & Dweck, 2006).

According by Chiu, Hong & Dweck (1997), Dweck, Chiu & Hong (1995) and Levy & Dweck (1998) the theories related to personality implications have shown effect in determining conflict resolution strategies. In this regard incremental theorists are those who believe that individuals are an influence factor to possible changes in social relationships based on dynamic and developable behaviours. This group of theorists underline that there is less effort from people to negotiate negative actions which over time can turn into negative objectives, as most people do not believe in the power of change as a problem-solving strategy. While in the other way entity theorists are those who believe that intelligence or moral character are fixed personal unit that cannot be changed, so people can learn new things, but the difference in terms of intelligence is small, and this is the reason for the failure to build strategies. Interpersonal relationships based on incremental theorists emphasize that achieving a problem-solving there should be no lack of willingness, confidence and strength to cope with conflict situations even when the results can be slow and the solution seems somewhere far away. Unlike entity theorists who do not believe in the power of knowledge and doubt the flexibility of change based on mental capability (Dweck, Chiu & Hong (1995; Kammrath & Dweck, 2006).

The selected form of action by the individual for the treatment of interpersonal conflicts is an important characteristic to calculate the effects of the results. In this sense, the author Lim (2009) pointed out that in addition to methods presented by authors such

as incremental and entity theorists, the benefit of the method has been proven to be an open minded way to individuals as additional theory during interaction with others and as an integration feature that will ensure improved relationships between people in conflict situations. The opportunity to express oneself openly in all situations including those of conflict is a new theory that will help individuals improve relationships during conflict situations (p.401). These perspective are realized when individuals beliefs are relatively stable and is not missing openness to positive changes in conflict situation.

The argument that changes should occur enables the postponement of building strategies for conflict resolution while doubts about the force of change hinder initiatives to resolve conflicts and present obstruction or detachment from the initiative. Incremental theorists consider a theory to manage healthy initiatives by proving the change of self on the one hand and through it the improvement of the other parties to realize a healthy connection. It is not only the mental models of individuals that dictate interpersonal relationships but also interpersonal action, as believing in the power of change and engaging in it implies an active strategy in the direction of curbing conflict. In conflict situations the behavioural of individuals is influenced by motives, social knowledge or specific situations for which individuals are able to act (Kammrath & Dweck, 2006; Lim, 2009).

According by Kammrath & Dweck, (2006), in a conflict situation the way people behave can be influenced by social motive on the one hand and cognitive on the other hand, are two of the most important elements in the interpretation of individual behaviours. Based on motivational CQ and cognitive CQ perspective as an important factor in resolving conflict, in order to realize a stable relationship we need to have

behavioural that dynamically raise feelings of closeness, trust and unity. Those kind of individual behaviours will affect individual motivation and increase harmony to enable integration even in situations with open opposing views (Lim (2009). So, social recognition which promotes an active motive that together with behavioural in conflict situations constitute the part of intelligence which is treated by CQ factors. CQ factors, unlike other types of intelligence, such as emotional and social, offers more opportunities to adapt and interact in multicultural environments. The reason why CQ factors provide a more comprehensive adaptation lies in the fact that they provide knowledge on a number of skills that can be turned into competencies that enable a greater adaptation. This multidimensional concept enables individuals to learn new things all the time that they may need in interaction with others. Let's start with metacognitive CQ as a factor that provides knowledge about preparations before a predicted situation by planning possible actions based on models of mental abilities. This form of pre-preparation through planning enables better management based on awareness and control by adopting trust-based plans. On the other hand, cognitive sub-dimensions also enables the recognition of political, social, legal and economic circumstances, enabling the individual to understand the practical world in a multidimensional environment. Motivational CQ promotes self-efficacy based on a dynamic energy to enable better functioning based on material and non-material benefits. At last behavioral CQ which help people to show flexibility between communication in for effective intercultural interactions (Van Dyne et al, 2012). All CQ four factors in the theoretical sense have grounds to offer effects in conflict management styles. To be specific, CQ four factors relate to collaborating, compromising, and accommodating directly, as they provide full opportunities for the

individual to operate in multicultural environments. Also metagocintive CQ, cognitive CQ and behavioral CQ can affect competing and avoiding. Recent studies have been dedicated over the importance of cultural intelligence in individual abilities that can influence in the management team in base of conflict management. Considering the role of cultural intelligence in individual behaviour the studies have shown that the high level of cultural intelligence has impact in the conflict management(Ng et al., 2009; Ramirez, 2010; Van Dyne et al., 2012; Vedadi & Mohammadi, 2017).

According by Ramirez (2010) cultural intelligence that effects on conflict resolution ability is very important for 21st-century managers. The technological advances and people mobility create interconnectedness and cultural difference reflect the need for brands managers that are ready to effectively and successfully manage cultural difference (p.52). In this context, individuals who have a high level of cultural intelligence are ready to modify the behaviour and use firstly compromising and cooperation style in conflict management in work relationship with people from different cultural backgrounds (Vedadi & Mohammadi, 2017, pp.55-64). Also, cultural intelligence in some cases can play the role as a reasonable predictor of conflict management style but in the major cases is consider as a valuable predictor in the relationship between people from different cultural background (Gonçalves et al., 2016; Livermore, 2011).

Interest in adapting individuals' behaviour using an appropriate CMS is also growing. To make the best choices when adapting one's own behaviour or influencing others, it is important to understand all types of intelligence, including cultural intelligence. CQ provides a good opportunity for individuals adjustment in response to

cultural differences (Van Dyne et al., 2008). Moreover, the effect of cultural intelligence levels, including versatility, may help in selecting an appropriate CMS. There is little empirical evidence of whether cultural intelligence can serve as a predictor for increased or decreased CMS. New global developments are creating daily challenges: To solve these challenges, we need individuals with the skills to promote creativity and their own knowledge. It is important that individuals with creativity skills facilitate and manage conflicts, even in environments with different people (Ng et al., 2009; Ramirez, 2010; Livermore, 2011; Chen et al., 2014).

Recent studies have assessed the impacts of personality attributes on CMSs, one of which is intelligence. The evaluation of the extent of cultural intelligence and self-monitoring on conflict variables reflects the positive moderating effect that cultural intelligence (CQ) which increases cultural orientations in one side and CMSs on the other (Gonçalves et al., 2016). A study on art and cultural organisation in Tehran analysed the role of CQ on CMS based on the reports of 115 managers, and found that those participants with high CQ preferred cooperation and compromising (Vadadi & Mohammadi, 2017).

People with high CQ sub-dimensions are likely to have a positive impact when choosing a CMS and can address the concerns of all individuals involved in a conflict. Knowledge of cultural intelligence dimensions reflect an individual's ability to select a CMS; in this case, the participants with a strong knowledge of CQ preferred integration and cooperation, unlike those with a weak grasp of it (Imai & Gelfand, 2010).

There is a difference between individuals with regard to CQ level and personality. All human differences, including diversity, can easily lead to conflict, so these situations

should be well managed. According to Ochieng and Price (2009), a study of managers from the United Kingdom and Kenya revealed that certain cultural differences had an impact on team performance (Sudhakar, 2015, p. 217). Ma et al. (2018), in a study on diversity and team performance, argued that diversity is a primary factors which can lead to task conflict between individuals, although it can also have a positive influence on group performance. The impact of culture on CMS has also been shown in a study with American and Chinese managers working in China (Sudhakar, 2015, p. 218).

At last but not least, people need to learn more about incremental theory because this can create opportunity for everyone to be open in improving relationships in work as objective for positive changes and to use adequate style in the conflict situation.

Chapter 4.

Methodology and Data

In this chapter the methodology used in this study will be presented, along with information about the participants in the study, research analysis and research instruments. First, the translation of the questionnaire into the target language will be explained and the design of the study will be presented. The questionnaire is divided into three parts: there are 20 questions on the first variable (CQ), 28 questions on the dependent variable (CMS), and the remainder covers demographic issues. The purpose of methodology used in this research was to determine the possible effects of the sub-dimensions of CQ on CMS in an environment which had never been evaluated for this purpose before. Each step of the analysis is explained in the following section.

4.1. Participants in the Study

Based on the review of the theoretical background, the application of the analytical tools was practically designed based on empirical research. The sample population was gathered from small and medium businesses in wholesale and retail trade and service. Conducting the analysis was not too easy, because it involved a number of technical and professional methods. The primary data collection tool used in this study was a questionnaire, which was sent to participants from the target group. The sample population comprised business managers employed by wholesale and retail trade and service companies in Kosovo. According to the Kosovo Agency of Statistics Yearbooks for 2016–2018, this is the largest business sector in Kosovo: Between 2013 and 2017 it comprised approximately 16,500 businesses, or 47% of all businesses (KSA, 2004–2018, p. 172). Over 2,500 new businesses are added to this sector every year and each requires a staff strategy and management structure. The wholesale and retail trade and service

businesses from 2006 to 2019 represent a multicultural context because many foreign companies opened operations in Kosovo once the business sector was privatized; furthermore, many local businesses employ immigrants residing in Kosovo (KSA, 2007–2018). The frameworks of these businesses differ because many businesses are local but some are based in southern and western Europe, the Balkan states and Asia; however, the questionnaire did not address businesses' nation of origin. A total of 132 businesses were represented by the sample population, with three or two managers responding from each business. Three hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed and 306 were returned. Participation was fully anonymous and every participant had the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any obligation.

Gathering completed questionnaires proved to be challenging because many top-level managers refused to participate in the study. Three attempts were made to gather data. First, the questionnaires were sent out to business and returned a month later, but few of them had been completed. The second attempt was the creation of an online survey and managers were contacted via email with an invitation to complete it; this action was also unsuccessful. Finally, the deadline was extended beyond 60 days and an offer to complete the questionnaire in person was made. This last attempt proved to be successful.

Based on the organogram structure in wholesale, retail trade and service businesses in Kosovo, each company employs at least two managers. Economic activity in Kosovo is well developed and extends throughout the territory, including minority communities. These kinds of businesses have the largest numbers of employees and are better structured by being divided into operating units run by managers at three

management levels, each of which has a different job description. This economic sector is older than most businesses in the country, as it started to operate immediately after the fall of the communist system; it was consolidated after the war and is now driving the liberalization of the market in Kosovo. Based on this experience, the research was professional and founded on the diversity of the participants, who came from different environments. The Kosovo study version of the research instrument was administered to only one sample population. As it was based on good practices, there were no special criteria for participating in research; all managers from different levels of business were included, randomly selected from different cities in Kosovo. A greater number of participants lived in the capital, but many respondents came from minority communities and lived in other parts of the country, including Pristina, Ferizaj, Prizren, Peja and Mitrovica, as well as Leposavić, Zvečan and Zubin Potok in the north.

A total of 306 managers returned the questionnaire, a response rate of 87.57%. Based on 'The Research Advisors' (2006), this number was tested and provided a 95% confidence interval and an error rate of 3.5%. Of the 306 respondents, 60 were 25–34 years old (19.6%), 85 were 35–44 years old (27.7%), 91 were 45–54 years old (29.7%), 64 were 55–64 years old (20.9%) and 6 were 65+ years old (1.9%) (mean [M] = 2.57, SD = 1.08). When the respondents were classified according to gender, 158 were men (51.6%) and 148 (48.4%) were women (M = 1.48, SD = .50). Regarding marital status, 207 were married (67.6 %), 87 were single (29%), six were divorced (1.9%) and six were widowed (1.9%) (M = 1.77, SD = .57). The respondents' reported education levels were as follows: 188 had graduated college (62%), 92 had postgraduate degrees (30%) and 26 listed themselves as other (8.5%) (M = 1.47, SD = .648). Finally, the respondents'

reported the following terms of job experience: 60 participants had worked for three to five years (19.6%), 66 had worked for six to eight years (21.6%), 70 had worked from nine to 14 years (22.9%) and 110 had worked for 15+ years (35.9%) ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.14$). The demographic characteristics are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3

The Participants' Demographic Characteristics

Demographic	Characteristics	N	%
Age	25–34	60	19.6
	35–44	85	27.7
	45–54	91	29.7
	55–64	64	20.9
	65	6	1.9
Gender	Men	158	51.6
	Women	148	48.4
Marital status	Single	87	28.4
	Married	207	67.6
	Divorced	6	1.9
	Widowed	6	1.9
Education	Graduate	188	61.5
	Master's degree	92	30
	Other	26	8.5
Experience	3–5	60	19.6
	6–8	66	21.6
	9–14	70	22.9
	15+	110	35.9

4.2. The Research Instruments

Before the instruments are presented, it is very important to note that it had never been used before in Kosovo. This study is important because Kosovo has never been the setting for a study of cultural intelligence and CMS, and therefore there was no standardised instrument to use to measure results for factorial validity and reliability. Because of this it was necessary to use standardised instruments created by a foreign researcher. Two instruments were used to collect data: the Cultural Intelligence Scale

(CQS), a seven-part of scale developed by Ang et al., (2007) to measure cultural intelligence base on 20 items with four sub-dimensions (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008), and the five CMS scales adapted from Rahim's Organisational Conflict Inventory-II, Form B.

4.3. Translation of the Research Instruments

To use these standardised instruments for the sample population in Kosovo, it was translated into English for those who spoke that language and into local dialects for those who did not. The translating process was developed based on quantitative methods, which provided good results (Eremenco et al., 2005). The translation used full, meaningful and simple sentences, taking conceptual equivalence into consideration. Conceptual equivalence means adapting statements into different words without losing content or meaning (Mason, 2005). Starting from the first translation into the target language, the translation was evaluated and adapted into the other necessary dialects and reviewed by experts (Brislin, 1986).

The scale was first translated from English into Albanian by experts who spoke the target language as natives and who had a very strong command of English. Next, an economist in the field of organisation behaviour examined and transformed the translated passages into a single text. This version was examined by an English language expert. In step four, the rejected passages were compared to the original scale to see whether they had the same meaning. Finally, the scale was subjected to a general assessment to gain the opinions of an academic proficient in English. The scale model was used when the evaluation analysis result was positive.

Table 4.

Questions of CQ in English (Ang et al., 2007) and in Local Language

<i>CQ -</i>	<i>Questions in English and Albanian</i>	<i>Type scales</i>
1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds	Unë jam i vetëdijshëm për njohuritë kulturore që përdor, kur bashkëveproj me njerëz me prejardhje të ndryshme kulturore.	1-7
2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	Unë përshtat njohuritë e mia kulturore, kur bashkëveproj me njerëz nga një kulturë që nuk është e njohur për mua.	1-7
3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions	Unë jam i vetëdijshëm për njohuritë kulturore që aplikoj dhe gjatë ndërveprimeve ndërkulturore.	1-7
4. I check the accuracy of my knowledge as I interact with people from different culture.	Kontrolloj saktësinë e njohurive të mia kulturore gjatë ndërveprimeve me njerëz nga kultura të ndryshme.	1-7
1. I know the legal and economic system of the other culture.	Unë i di sistemet ligjore dhe ekonomike të kulturave të tjera.	1-7
2. I know the rules of other languages.	Unë i di rregullat (p.sh. fjalori, gramatikore) të gjuhëve të tjera.	1-7
3. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	Unë i di vlerat kulturore dhe besimet fetare të kulturave të tjera.	1-7
4. I know the marriage systems of	Unë e di traditat e martesës tek kulturat e tjera.	1-7

the other cultures.

5. I know the arts and crafts of the other cultures.	Unë kam njohuri për artin dhe vepra artizanale të kulturave të tjera.	1-7
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6. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in others culture.	Unë i njoh rregullat për të shprehur sjelljet jo-verbale me kulturat e tjera.	1-7
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1. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	Mua më pëlqen të bashkëveprojmë me njerëz nga kulturat e ndryshme.	1-7
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2. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	Unë jam i bindur se mundem të bisedoj me vendasit që vjen nga një kulturë që është e panjohur për mua.	1-7
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3. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a cultural that is new to me.	Unë jam i sigurt se mund të merren me përshtatjen e stresit ndaj një kulture që është e re për mua.	1-7
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4. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	Mua më pëlqen që jetoj në kultura të cilat janë të panjohura për mua.	1-7
--	---	-----

5. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture	Unë jam i bindur se mund të merrem me të mësuarit e kushteve të blerjes te një kulturë tjetër.	1-7
---	--	-----

1. I change my verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	Unë ndryshoj sjelljen time verbale (p.sh. theks, ton, lëvizjet) në një bashkëveprim ndër-kulturor nëse kërkohet ajo.	1-7
---	--	-----

2. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	E përdor pauzën dhe heshtjen ndryshe për t'iu përshtatur situatave të ndryshme ndër-kulturore.	1-7
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3. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	Unë e ndryshoj shkallën e të folurit tim kur një situatë ndër-kulturore e kërkon atë.	1-7
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4. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	Unë ndryshoj sjelljen time jo-verbal, kur një bashkëveprim ndër-kulturor kërkon atë.	1-7
5. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	Ndryshoj shprehjet e fytyrës, kur një ndërveprim ndërkulturor e kërkon atë.	1-7

Table 5.

Questions of CMS (Rahim, 2002) in English and in Local Language

<i>CMS -questions</i>	<i>in English and Albanian</i>	<i>Type scales</i>
1. I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us.	Unë përpiqem për të hetuar një çështje me vartësit e mi për të gjetur një zgjidhje të pranueshme për ne.	1-5
2. I generally try to satisfy the needs of my subordinates.	Unë zakonisht përpiqem për të kënaqur nevojat e vartësve të mi.	1-5
3. I attempt to avoid being put on the spot and try to keep my conflict with my subordinates to my self.	Unë përpiqem për të shmangur të qenit "të vendosi vet", dhe përpiqem për të mbajtur konfliktin tim për veten time.	1-5
4. I try to integrate my ideas with those of my subordinates to come up with a decision jointly.	Unë përpiqem për të integruar idetë e mia me ato të vartësve të mi për të dalë me një vendim të përbashkët.	1-5
5. I try to work with my subordinates to find solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations.	Unë përpiqem për të punuar me vartësit e mi për të gjetur zgjidhje për një problem që kënaq pritjet tona.	1-5
6. I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my subordinates.	Unë zakonisht i shmangem diskutimeve të hapura lidhur me dallimet e mia me vartësit e mi.	1-5
7. I try to finde a middle course to resolve an impasse.	Unë përpiqem për të gjetur një rrugë të mesme për të zgjidhur një rrugë pa kry.	1-5
8. I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	Përdori ndikimin tim për të marrë idetë e mia të pranuar.	1-5

9. I use my authority to make a decision in my favour.	Përdorin autoritetin tim për të marrë një vendim në favor timin.	1-5
10. I usually accommodate the wishes of my subordinates.	Zakonisht akomodoj (gjeje vendin) dëshirave të vartësve të mi.	1-5
11. I give in to wishes of my subordinates.	Unë jap hapësire në dëshirat e vartësve të mi.	1-5
12. I exchange accurate information with my subordinates to solve a problem together.	Unë shkëmbej informacione të sakta me vartësit e mi për të zgjidhur një problem së bashku.	1-5
13. I usually allow concessions to my subordinates.	Në përgjithësi lejoj lëshime të vartësve të mi.	1-5
14. I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlock.	Zakonisht propozojë një terren të mesme për të thyer bllokime.	1-5
15. I negotiate with my subordinates so that a compromise can be reached.	Negocioj me vartësit e mi kështu për një kompromis që mund të arrihet.	1-5
16. I try to stay away from disagreement with my subordinates.	Përpiqem të qëndrojë larg nga mospajtimi me vartësit e mi.	1-5
17. I avoid an encounter with my subordinates.	I shmangem një takimi me vartësit e mi.	
18. I use my expertise to make a decision in my favour.	Unë e përdori ekspertizën time për të marrë një vendim në favorin tim.	1-5
19. I often go along with the suggestions of my subordinates.	Shpesh vendos së bashku me sugjerimet e vartësve të mi.	1-5
20. I use give and take so that a compromise can be made.	I përdori metodën "jap dhe marr" për të bërë kompromis.	1-5
21. I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	Unë jam në përgjithësi fer në ndjekjen e anës time të çështjes.	1-5
22. I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	Përpiqem për të sjellë të gjitha shqetësimet tona në formën e hapur në mënyrë që çështjet mund të zgjidhen në mënyra më të mira të mundshme.	1-5
23. I collaborate with my subordinates to come up with decisions acceptable	Unë bashkëpunoj me vartësit e mi për të dal me vendimet e pranueshme.	1-5

to us.		
24. I try to satisfy the expectations of my subordinates.	Përpiqem për të kënaqur pritjet e vartësve të mi.	1-5
25. I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	Nganjëherë përdori fuqinë time për të fituar një situatë konkurruese.	1-5
26. I try to keep my disagreement with my subordinates to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	Përpiqem për të mbajtur mospajtimin tim me vartësit e mi për veten time, për të shmangur ndjenjat e vështira.	1-5
27. I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my subordinates.	Përpiqem ti shmangë shkëmbimeve të pakëndshme me vartësit e mi.	1-5
28. I try to work with my subordinates for a proper understanding of problem.	Unë përpiqem për të punuar me vartësit e mi për ta kuptuar një problem në versionin e duhur.	1-5

Over the last decade the CQS multidimensional instrument has been translated into several languages, including Turkish (Şahin et al., 2013), Spanish (Moyano et al., 2015) and Arabic (Al-Dossary, 2016), and each version had good validity (Fang et al., 2018, p. 4). The second instrument has also been translated into a few other languages. For this study the translated instrument was tested and found to have good validity.

4.4. Cultural Intelligence and the CMS Scale

The collected data was classified into two categories. The first category was all of the questions relating to CQS, developed by Ang et al. (2007). The CQS was created as follows: the model for the framework was developed and comprised 40 questions to be answered using a scale of 1–7; 20 of these 40 items were rejected due to statistical difficulties (Ang et al., 2007), leaving a 20-item instrument. The full instrument is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) (Ang et al., 2007)

CQ sub-dimensions	20 items	Likert-type scales
Metacognitive	1–4	1–7
Cognitive	1–6	1–7
Motivational	1–5	1–7
Behavioral	1–5	1–7

The second instrument used was adapted from Rahim's Organisational Conflict Inventory-II, Form B and is presented in Table 7. This part of the survey used a five-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree, to assess demographic characteristics.

Table 7

The CMS Instrument Adapted from ROCI-II Form B (Rahim, 2002).

The Five CM Styles	28 items	Likert-type scales
Collaborating	1, 4, 5, 12, 22, 23, 28	1–5
Accommodating	2, 10, 11, 13, 19, 24	1–5
Competing	8, 9, 18, 21, 25	1–5
Avoiding	3, 6, 16, 17, 26, 27	1–5
Compromising	7, 14, 15, 20	1–5

4.5. Design of the Study

There is little empirical evidence as to whether cultural intelligence is a predictor of increased or decreased CMS ability, and in Kosovo there is no empirical evidence about this topic available. The quantitative method was appropriate for this study because statistical analysis was used to explain the variables (Creswell, 2005). Like every quantitative study, specific questions and instruments were used to collect data for this

study, and the multivariate correlational method was used because it was assumed to be adequate for this purpose based on the relevance of the correlation analysis, especially for non-experimental research, which includes a process of introducing natural variables and which cannot be manipulated for certain purposes.

The study is unusual because most of its dimensions were considered during the methodological treatment process. Before testing, all data from all of the questions described were evaluated, consolidated and coded to be used for the other stages. The data from the respondents were sorted into categories using the SPSS program, which was also used to for the data analysis. At first, all data were listed in an Excel spreadsheet to make them easier to use. The analysis relied on elements of descriptive statistics, which were run through SPSS statistical program according to the respective samples and time of administration. Each of these databases were then grouped into respective variables according to the analysis factors described in Chapter 5 below.

To evaluate the results of the managers' sample, some descriptive analyses were carried out which included basic analyses and the most complex comparative analysis practiced today to obtain results ranging from averages to analysis of variables. After the descriptive analysis, the factorial and reliability analyses were performed using EFA (with SPSS version 23) and confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) (with Amos 23). Multiple regression analyses were then conducted to reveal the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on CMS, and correlation analyses were used to measure the level of significance of Pearson's rho (r) correlation coefficient .05. Finally, the significant differences between CQ and CMS depending on each of the managers' demographic characteristics were calculated using ANOVA.

4.6. Ethical Considerations

In each study, the important place has the ethical declaration as a credible document. Today, all researchers learn from each other and the mistakes are part of the job. In this study, the ethical process was taken into account throughout the work and reviewed from time to time.

To the realization this study, I have taken into consideration the following ethical principles; all respondents were treated fairly, the invitation was confidential and anonymous. Participants in the study had made clear the study goals and are released to choose whether or not to be part of this study.

Although these are basic principles are important for ethics during work with thesis. Certainly in the preparation of each subject, there are elements which may seem to be of a particular application as the interconnection between the social sciences itself enables such work. In this case, I think that the ethical process was taken into account throughout the work and reviewed from time to time.

Chapter 5.

Findings and Results

Chapter 5 will present the results of the empirical analysis based on the applied methodology. The first part of this chapter will present the findings from the analysis of the 20 items relating to the CQ sub-dimensions, then the 28 CMS items, and finally the demographic results. The presentation of results will start with the validity and reliability CFA tests; then the exploratory factor loading, correlation analysis, hierarchical interaction analysis and one-way ANOVA results for the differences with regard to age, gender, marital status, education level and work experience will be reviewed. The hypotheses will be used to demonstrate the possible effects of CQ sub-dimensions on CMSs, particularly whether a higher level of CQ has an impact on CMS. The research questions will elucidate the differences between CQ and CMS sub-dimensions in demographics characteristics.

The aim of the hypotheses is to determine whether managers' cultural intelligence plays an important role how they deal with conflict. To determine whether each hypothesis was supported, the data was processed using two variables: the independent variable with four CQ sub-dimensions and the dependent variable with the five CM styles. The factors of the variables were then compared and the five models results from the hypotheses obtained using regression analysis.

5.1. The Validity and Reliability of the Study

CFA was used to test the study's validity and reliability. Factor analysis is a family of statistical strategies used to model unmeasured sources of variability in a set of scores (Hoyle, 2000). CFA and the more general structural equation modelling (SEM) involve specifying a model, estimating its parameters and evaluating how well the

proposed model explains the pattern of observed variances and covariances (Shevlin & Miles, 1998). CFA allows a researcher to test a hypothesis using relationships between observed variables and determine whether an underlying latent construct(s) exists. The researcher can then use knowledge of the theory or empirical research (or both) to postulate a relationship pattern a priori and test the hypothesis statistically (Suhr, 2006). When a CFA is conducted, the researcher uses a hypothesised model to estimate a population covariance matrix which is compared to the observed covariance matrix. Technically, the researcher must minimise the difference between the estimated and observed matrices (Schreiber et al., 2006).

The following eligibility indexes were referenced for model goodness: the χ^2 , degree of freedom (df), the ratio of χ^2 to df (χ^2/df), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Hu & Bentel, 1998). We performed CFAs separately for both the cultural intelligence scale and the conflict management scale.

Table 8 presents the results of the CFA for the CQ scale. This scale consisted of 20 items and the CFA model fit is shown using the χ^2 , RMSEA, TLI and CFI tests. In interpreting the results listed in Table 8, the χ^2/df was found to be 2.29. To determine the goodness of the model (Hoe, 2008, p. 78), especially in cases where the number of

Table 8

The CQ Scale Compliance Index

χ^2	<i>P</i>	<i>Df</i>	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
376.09	.00	164	2.29	.06	.896	.910

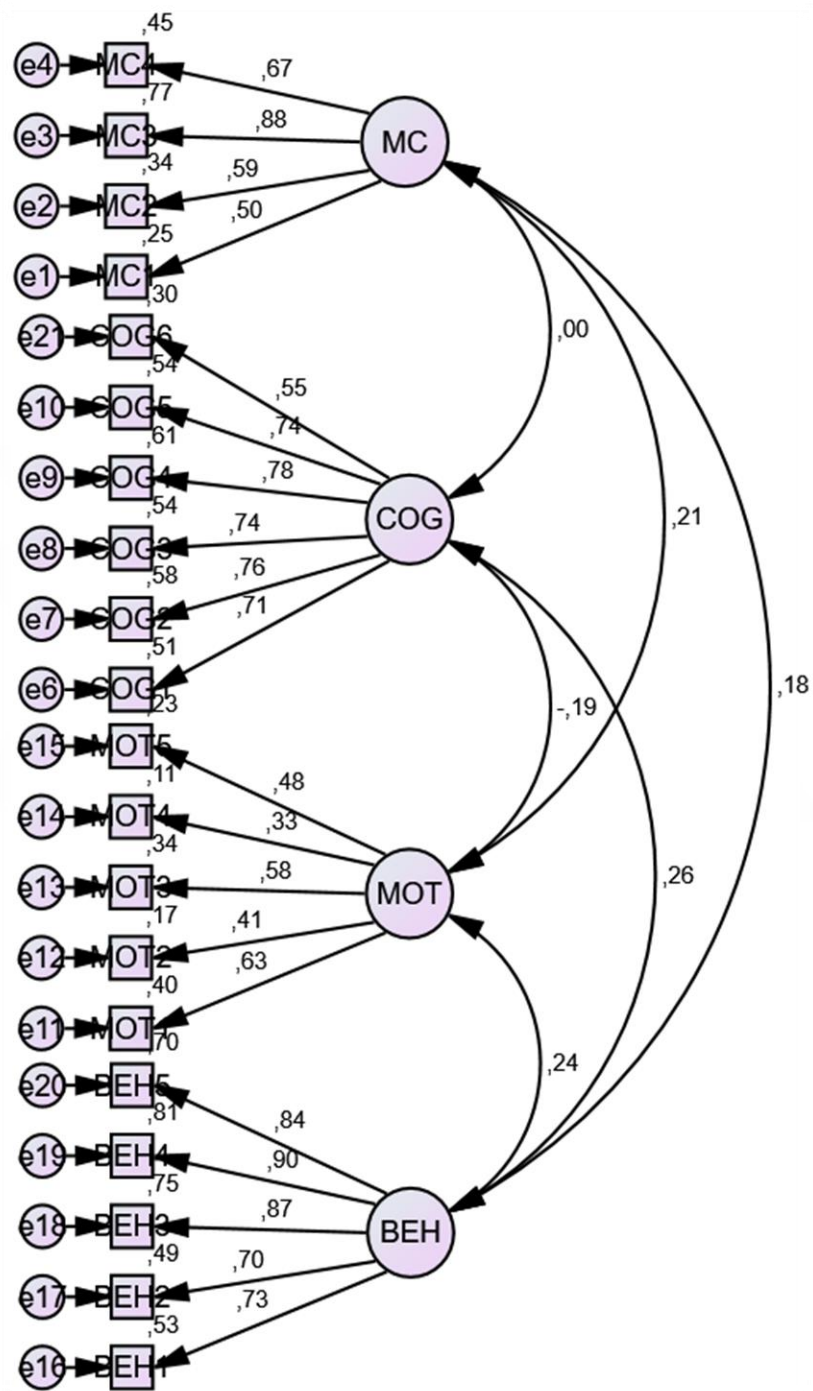


Figure 6. The structure of the CQ Scale sub-dimensions. The values on the one-headed arrow show factor loading, while the values on the two-headed arrows show correlations.

samples exceeds 200. In large samples, the χ^2 becomes significant ($\chi^2 = 376.09$, $P < .00$). However, the RMSEA test suggested a good model fit ($RMSEA = .06 \leq .06$) and two other tests confirmed the same results ($TLI = .89$ and $CFI = .91$). Therefore, we can conclude that the CFI results for the CQ scale showed a good model fit.

The factor loadings of the model obtained by considering the factor structure and

Table 9

CQ Loading Items

<i>Sub-dimensions</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Loading</i>
Metacognitive	1	.71
	2	.76
	3	.83
	4	.69
Cognitive	1	.76
	2	.77
	3	.77
	4	.80
	5	.80
	6	.61
Motivational	1	.67
	2	.60
	3	.60
	4	.60
	5	.59
Behavioral	1	.78
	2	.76
	3	.86
	4	.88

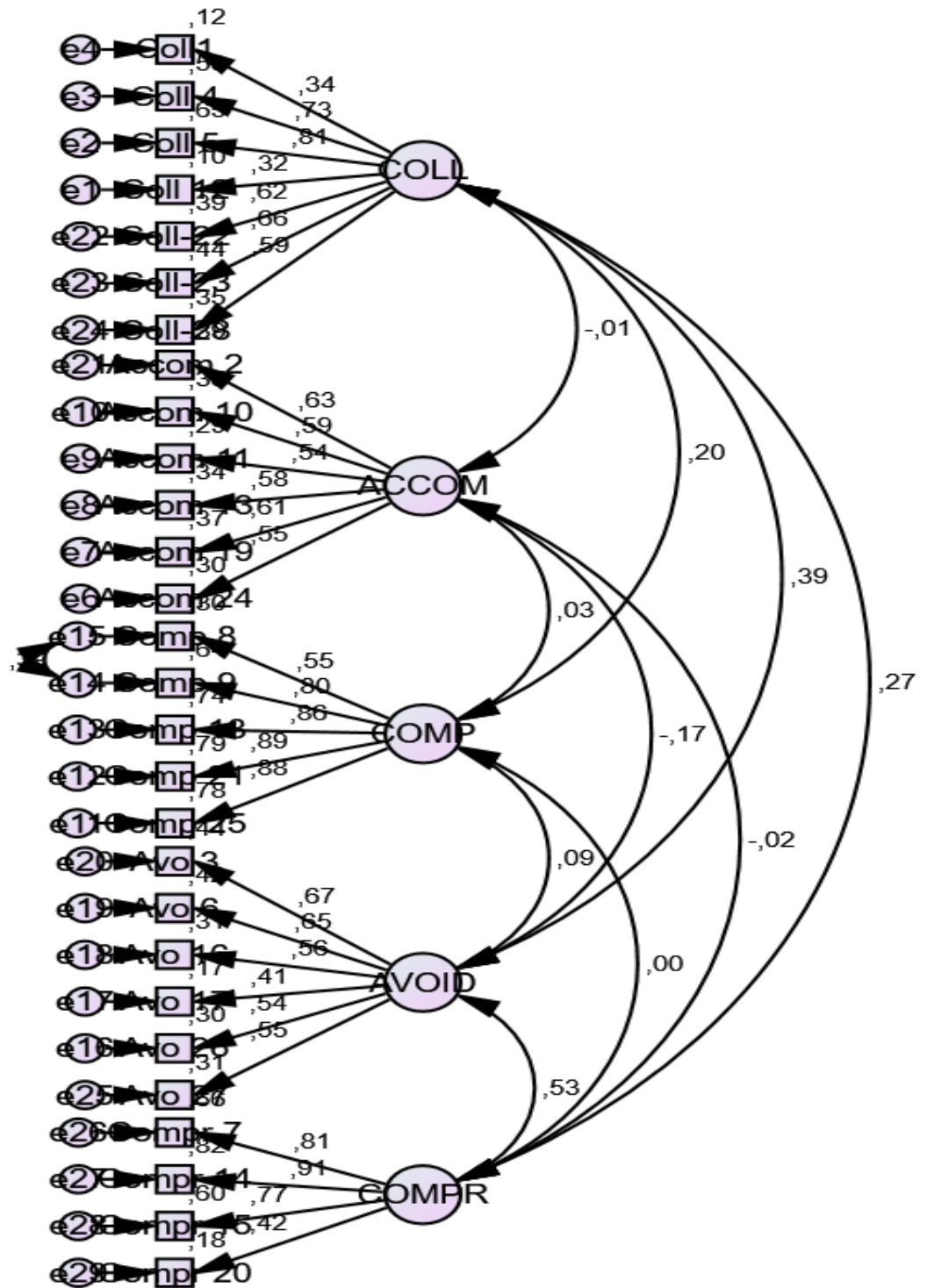


Figure 7. The structure of the CMS scale. The values on the one-headed arrows show factor loading, while the values on the two-headed arrows indicate correlations.

Correlation coefficients of the factors are shown in Figure 6 above, which also indicates that the resulting fit indices show a representation model fit for the cultural intelligence construct. The figure makes it clear that the factor loadings of the dimensions formed as a result of the CFA varied between .33 and .90.

Table 9 above presents the results of the exploratory factor loading for four CQ factors based on the responses of the 306 managers in Kosovo, and the results indicate good values. The results also indicate that the data confirm the four-factor structure of CQ.

The 28-item model representative model of CMS is presented in Figure 7 above. Based on the literature, this model reveals a good fit for the Kosovo data. The model also demonstrated sufficient fit: $\chi^2/(df=339) = 62$; $P = .00$; TLI = .898; CFI = .908; GFI = .87; and RMSEA = .05.

In Table 10 below, the resulting fit indices reveal a representation model fit for the conflict management construct, while Table 11 presents the results of the exploratory factor loading table of the five factors of CMS reported by the 306 managers. The factors analysed in Kosovo were accepted because they were within the permitted parameters according to statistical classifications of construction for each construct (0.5). In this case, all of the loadings were in accepted standards except those for items 1 and 12 in

Table 10

The Compliance Indexes for CMS Ability

χ^2	P	Df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
621.284	.00	339	1.83	.05	.89	.908

Table 11

The Factor Loadings of the CMS Items

<i>CMS</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Loading</i>
Collaborating	1	.44
	4	.75
	5	.76
	12	.34
	22	.72
	23	.74
	28	.68
Accommodating	2	.67
	10	.68
	11	.65
	13	.67
	19	.64
	24	.67
Competing	8	.71
	9	.88
	18	.88
	21	.87
	25	.87
Avoiding	3	.65
	6	.63
	16	.71
	17	.62
	26	.58
	27	.54
Compromising	7	.74
	14	.83
	15	.84
	20	.64

CMS, which were lower than five. This level of sample analysis thus had convergent validity. The results of the exploratory and CFA factor analyses reflected good values, so both models' values were accepted. However, the sample in Kosovo was valid and reliable even in the analysis of Cronbach's α , so this value level is accepted. To provide a strong analysis, all of the results presented in the figures and tables are based on measurement validity.

The coefficient of reliability is Cronbach's α , a measure of internal consistency which was also used to investigate the dimensionality of the scale. The consistency of the CQ scale, the 28-item five factor scale, and the Kosovo version of the CMS scale was tested using the 306 samples. Table 12 presents the CQ items, which ranged from $\alpha = .61$ to $\alpha = .90$.

Table 12

The Cronbach's α Values for the CQ Scale

CQ sub-dimensions	Cronbach's α	No. of items
Metacognitive	.75	4
Cognitive	.86	6
Motivational	.61	5
Behavioral	.90	5
Sub-dimensions	.78	20

Table 13 presents the Cronbach's α values for all five factors of the CMS Ability scale, which ranged from $\alpha = .73$ to $\alpha = .90$. The internal consistency data of Cronbach's α coefficient exceeded the cut-off point of $\alpha = .61$. According to Anastasi (1976), Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) a Cronbach's α coefficient above .60 is acceptable (Havenga & Visagie, 2006). The reliability of nine constructs of the four

Table 13

The Cronbach's α Values for the CMS Scale

<u>CMS sub-dimensions</u>	<u>Cronbach's α</u>	<u>No. of items</u>
Collaborating	.78	7
Accommodating	.75	6
Competing	.90	5
Avoiding	.73	6
Compromising	.81	4
Four sub-dimensions	.79	28

sub-dimensions of CQ and the five factors of CMS were accepted. The Cronbach's α coefficient average for the four subdimensions of CQ the Cronbach-Alpha was .78 and that for the five sub-dimensions of CMS was .79. The results clearly fall within the range of values which indicate that scales are reliable.

5.2. Descriptive Analysis Results

Once the CFA and reliability statistics had been completed, the data were subjected to further basic calculations, such as standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for all sub-dimensions and demographic characteristics. The descriptive statistics resulting from these tests are presented in Table 14. Distributions of variables and the determination of data distribution results from the calculation of skewness and kurtosis in Table 14 indicate that all values are acceptable. The mean values also indicate that all factors which describe the managers' cultural intelligence are above average. The managers thus scored highly in components of cultural intelligence. The mean values for each component of CMS were as follows: 3.92 for accommodating, 2.84 for competing, 4.26 for collaborating, 2.97 for compromising and 2.71 for avoiding. The mean values indicate that all factors which describe the CMSs of the managers were above 2.5 based

on a Likert scale of 1–5. According to Havenga and Visagie (2006), skewness values ranging from 3 to -3 and those for kurtosis ranging from 7 to -7 are all very acceptable.

Table 14

The Descriptive Variables Statistics (Standard Deviation, Minimum, Maximum and Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.d	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	306	1	5	2.57	1.08	.06	-.968
Gender	306	1	2	1.48	.50	.06	-2.00
Marital status	306	1	4	1.77	.57	.67	2.79
Education	306	1	3	1.47	.64	1.05	-.028
Experience	306	1	4	2.75	1.14	-.30	-1.34
Metacognitive	306	3	7	5.60	.79	-.40	.10
Cognitive	306	2.17	6.83	5.31	.93	-.72	.26
Motivational	306	4.20	7.00	5.96	.56	-.78	.34
Behavioral	306	1.40	7.00	4.70	1.24	-.41	-.67
Accommodating	306	1.33	5.00	3.92	.61	-1.05	1.70
Competing	306	1.00	4.80	2.84	.94	.09	-1.14
Collaborating	306	3.00	5.00	4.26	.58	-.86	.25
Compromising	306	1.00	4.75	2.97	.74	.22	-.47
Avoiding	306	1.33	4.33	2.71	.63	.31	-.72

Table 15

Correlations of Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	1													
2. Gender	-.11	1												
3. Marital Status	.35**	-.23**	1											
4. Education	.05	-.00	.21**	1										
5. Experience	.55**	-.23**	.38**	.07	1									
6. Metacognitive	.09	.03	.04	.05	.23**	1								
7. Cognitive	-.05	-.02	-.00	-.03	-.19**	.02	1							
8. Motivational	.10	-.08	-.02	.03	.28**	.13*	-.13*	1						
9. Behavioral	.13	-.02	-.05	-.04	.17**	.16**	.24**	.16**	1					
10. Accommodating	.08	-.01	.02	-.02	.01	-.05	.13*	-.02	-.02	1				
11. Competing	.02	-.03	-.00	-.03	-.00	.13*	.08	-.04	.03	.04	1			
12. Collaborating	-.03	-.02	.02	-.00	.24**	.10	-.18**	.22**	.16**	.00	.09	1		
13. Compromising	.14	-.08	.05	-.11	.31**	.19**	-.29**	.25**	.09	-.01	-.06	.22**	1	
14. Avoiding	.12	-.00	.03	.00	.27**	.21**	-.37**	.34**	.20**	-.12*	.02	.30**	.41**	1

Correlation is significant at - * $P < .05$ Correlation is significant at - ** $P < .01$

5.3. Relationships with Other Constructs—A Correlation Analysis

After the normality test, the second step was correlation analysis, which produced the correlations between variables based in the data. The correlation analysis results are presented in Table 15. Looking at the table, first the relations between the CQ sub-dimensions as the independent variable and the conflict management dimensions as the dependent variable are clear. The values of these relationships are between .13 to .41. Based on the normal distribution results, Pearson's correlation coefficient, which is used to reveal positive or negative statistical relationships between two variables (Blecic, 1999), was used to analyse the relationships between the variables.

Table 15 above reveals correlations between cultural intelligence, conflict management and some demographic characteristics. There is a significant positive correlation ($r = .35, P < .01$) between marital status and age, a significant negative correlation ($r = -.23, P < .01$) between marital status and gender, and a significant positive correlation ($r = .21, P < .01$) between education and marital status. Experience is significantly positively ($r = .55, P < .01$) related to age, negatively to sex ($r = -.23, P < .01$) and positively to marital status ($r = .38, P < .01$). However, no further information on the correlations between demographic characteristics and other variables was obtained.

A significant positive correlation was found between experience and metacognitive CQ ($r = .23, P < .01$), motivational CQ ($r = .28, P < .01$), behavioral CQ ($r = .17, P < .01$), collaborating ($r = .24, P < .01$), compromising ($r = .31, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = .27, P < .01$), and a negative correlation was found with cognitive CQ ($r = -.19, P < .01$).

Metacognitive CQ is significantly and positively correlated with motivational CQ ($r = .13, P < .01$), behavioral CQ ($r = .16, P < .01$), compromising ($r = .19, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = .21, P < .01$). Cognitive CQ is significantly and positively correlated with behavioral CQ ($r = .24, P < .01$) and accommodating ($r = .13, P < .01$) and negatively correlated with motivational CQ ($r = -.13, P < .01$), collaborating ($r = -.18, P < .01$), compromising ($r = -.29, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = -.37, P < .01$). Motivational CQ is significantly and positively correlated with behavioral CQ ($r = .16, P < .01$), collaborating ($r = .22, P < .01$), compromising ($r = .25, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = .34, P < .01$). Behavioral CQ is significantly and positively correlated with collaborating ($r = .16, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = .20, P < .01$). Accommodating is significantly and negative correlated with avoiding ($r = -.12, P < .01$). Collaborating is significantly and positively correlated to compromising ($r = .22, P < .01$) and avoiding ($r = .30, P < .01$). Finally, compromising is significantly and positively correlated with avoiding ($r = .41, P < .01$).

5.4. Regression Analysis

The hierarchical independent interaction analysis was used to determine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The first stage of the hierarchical analysis conducted on the two models (Model 1) used the demographic characteristics as independent variables and the CMSs as dependent variables. In the second phase (Model 2), the dimensions of Cultural Intelligence were tested using one CMSs as dependent variables.

5.5. Testing the Hypotheses

The hypotheses were tested using hierarchical analysis, with the aim of determining the impact of the variables on CMS. The first analysis was used to determine

the effects of the demographic variables in Model 1 (age, gender, marital status, education and experience) on accommodating, while in the second phase (Model 2) were the impact of the CQ sub-dimensions on accommodating was measured. All statistics obtained are presented in Table 16. The hypotheses about the models are as follows:

Hypothesis 1a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on accommodating.

Hypothesis 1b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on accommodating.

Hypothesis 1c: Motivational CQ has an impact on accommodating.

Hypothesis 1d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on accommodating.

Table 16 presents the results of the regression analysis with regard to the effect of demographic characteristics and CQ sub-dimensions on accommodating. The model summary shows that the demographic characteristics (age, gender, marital status, level of

Regression Analysis Results for Models 1 and 2 (Accommodating)

Variable	Model 1				Model 2			
	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	β	Sig
Age	.06	.04	.11	.11	.05	.04	.10	.14
Gender	-.01	.07	-.01	.80	.00	.07	.00	.99
Marital Status	.03	.07	.00	.97	-.02	.08	-.02	.74
Level of Education	-.03	.05	-.03	.58	-.02	.05	-.02	.64
Work Experience	-.02	.03	-.04	.52	.01	.04	.03	.68
Metacognitive					-.04	.04	-.05	.32
Cognitive					.11	.04	.16	.00
Motivational					-.00	.06	-.00	.96
Behavioral					-.03	.03	-.07	.23
R		.10				.19		
R ²		.01				.03		
Adjusted. R ²		-.00				.00		
ΔR^2		.01				.03		
F		.62				1.29		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.68				.24		

Note. The correlation was also found to be statistically insignificant.

* $P < .05$.

education and work experience) explained 1% of the change in accommodating ($R^2 = .01$)

and that the model is not significant as a whole ($F = .62$, $P = .68 > .05$), indicating that

demographic characteristics do not have a significant effect on accommodating.

For the second model the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on accommodating was tested. The model summary shows that the CQ sub-dimensions explained 3% of the change in accommodating ($R^2 = .03$), and that the model is not significant ($F = 1.29$, $P = .24 > .05$). Therefore, the CQ sub-dimensions did not have a significant effect on accommodating. As a result, hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b}, H_{1c} and H_{1d} were not supported.

Table 17

Regression Analysis Results for Models 1 and 2 (Competing)

Variables	Model 1				Model 2			
	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	B	Sig
Age	.03	.06	.45	.52	.03	.06	.04	.53
Gender	-.07	.11	-.38	.52	-.09	.11	-.04	.42
Marital Status	-.00	.10	-.00	.93	-.01	.10	-.01	.86
Level of Education	-.05	.08	-.03	.52	-.06	.08	-.04	.45
Work Experience	-.02	.06	-.03	.64	-.03	.06	-.03	.63
Metacognitive					.18	.07	.15	.01
Cognitive					.07	.06	.07	.25
Motivational					-.08	.10	-.05	.39
Behavioral					-.00	.04	-.00	.94
R		.06				.18		
R ²		.00				.03		
Adjusted. R ²		-.01				.00		
ΔR^2		.00				.03		
F		.24				1.15		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.94				.32		

Note. The correlation was also found to be statistically insignificant.

* $P < .05$.

Hypothesis 2a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on competing.

Hypothesis 2b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on competing.

Hypothesis 2c: Motivational CQ has an impact on competing.

Hypothesis 2d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on competing.

Table 17 above presents the results of the regression analyses for the effect of demographic characteristics and CQ sub-dimensions on competing. The effect of demographic characteristics on competing was tested, and the model summary ($R^2 = .00$) shows that demographic characteristics had no significant effect on competing ($F = .24$, $P = .94 > .05$).

Model 2 tested the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on competing. The model summary ($R^2 = .03$) shows that the CQ sub-dimensions explained 3% of the change in competing, but this effect was not significant ($F = 1.15$, $P = .32 > .05$). Therefore, Hypotheses H_{2a} , H_{2b} , H_{2c} and H_{2d} were not supported.

Hypothesis 3a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on collaborating.

Hypothesis 3b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on collaborating.

Hypothesis 3c: Motivational CQ has an impact on collaborating.

Hypothesis 3d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on collaborating.

Table 18 presents the results of the effect of demographic characteristics and CQ sub-dimensions on collaborating. In the first model, the effect of demographic characteristics on collaborating was tested. The model summary ($R^2 = .09$) shows that demographic characteristics explained 9% of the change in collaborating, so this effect is significant ($F = 6.60$, $P < .00$). With the exception of sex, marital status and level of education, age ($\beta = -.23$, $P < .00$) had a negative effect and work experience ($\beta = .39$,

Table 18

Regression Analysis Results for Models 1 and 2 (Collaborating)

Variables	Model 1				Model 2			
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>Sig</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>Sig</i>
Age	-.11	.03	-.23	.00	-.11	.03	-.22	.00
Gender	.04	.06	.04	.46	.03	.06	.03	.53
Marital Status	-.02	.06	-.02	.64	.02	.06	.02	.74
Level of Education	-.01	.04	-.01	.23	-.00	.04	-.08	.88
Work Experience	.19	.03	.39	.00	.12	.03	.26	.00
Metacognitive					.01	.03	.02	.69
Cognitive					-.10	.03	-.16	.00
Motivational					.12	.05	.12	.03
Behavioral					.07	.02	.16	.00
R		.31				.39		
R ²		.09				.15		
Adjusted. R ²		.08				.13		
ΔR^2		.09				.15		
F		6.60				6.12		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.00				.00		

Note. The correlation was found to be statistically insignificant

* $P < .05$.

$P < .00$) had a positive effect on collaborating.

The second model was used to test the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on collaborating. The model summary ($R^2 = .15$) showed that CQ sub-dimensions explained 15% of the change in collaborating, and thus this effect is significant ($F = 6.12$, $P < .00$). From the coefficients table, with the exception of metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.16$, $P < .00$) had a negative effect on collaborating, while motivational CQ ($\beta = .12$, $P < .03$) and behavioral CQ ($\beta = .16$, $P < .00$) had positive effects on collaborating. The results of the regression analysis demonstrate that hypothesis H_{3a} was not supported but that hypotheses H_{3b} , H_{3c} and H_{3d} were.

Hypothesis 4a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on compromising.

Hypothesis 4b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on compromising.

Hypothesis 4c: Motivational CQ has an impact on compromising.

Hypothesis 4d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on compromising.

Table 19 presents the results of the regressions analysis for the effect of demographic characteristics and CQ sub-dimensions on compromising. In the first model, the model summary ($R^2 = .12$) showed that the demographic characteristics explained 12% of the change in compromising and that this effect was significant ($F = 8.51$, $P < .00$). The coefficient table indicates that the level of education ($\beta = -.13$, $P < .01$) had a negative effect on compromising and that work experience ($\beta = .36$, $P < .00$) had a positive one.

Table 19

Regression Analysis Results for Models 1 and 2 (Compromising)

Variables	Model 1				Model 2			
	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	β	Sig
Age	-.02	.04	-.03	.57	-.07	.04	-.01	.86
Gender	-.01	.08	-.01	.83	-.05	.08	-.03	.50
Marital Status	-.05	.07	-.04	.48	.07	.07	-.00	.92
Level of Education	-.15	.06	-.13	.01	-.16	.06	-.14	.00
Work Experience	.23	.04	.36	.00	.12	.04	.18	.00
Metacognitive					.13	.05	.14	.00
Cognitive					-.21	.04	-.27	.00
Motivational					.16	.07	.12	.02
Behavioral					.04	.03	.08	.13
R		.35				.47		
R ²		.12				.22		
Adjusted. R ²		.11				.20		
ΔR^2		.12				.22		
F		8.51				9.58		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.00				.00		

Note. The correlation was found to be statistically insignificant

* $P < .05$.

Model 2 was used to calculate the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on compromising. The model summary ($R^2 = .22$) showed that the CQ sub-dimensions explained 22% of the change in compromising and that this effect was significant ($F = 9.58$, $P < .00$). The coefficients table indicated that level of education ($\beta = -.14$, $P < .00$) and cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.27$, $P < .00$) had a negative effect on compromising, while work experience ($\beta = .18$, $P < .00$), metacognitive CQ ($\beta = .14$, $P < .00$), and motivational CQ ($\beta = .12$, $P < .00$) had positive ones. Hypothesis H_{4d} was rejected while hypotheses H_{4a} , H_{4b} , H_{4c} were supported.

Finally, the effect of the CQ sub-dimensions on avoiding were tested.

Hypothesis 5a: Metacognitive CQ has an impact on avoiding.

Table 20

Regression Analysis Results for Models 1 and 2 (Avoiding)

Variables	Model 1				Model 2			
	B	SE	β	Sig	B	SE	β	Sig
Age	-.01	.04	-.01	.79	.00	.03	.01	.83
Gender	.06	.07	.04	.40	.02	.06	.02	.68
Marital Status	-.08	.06	-.07	.24	.01	.06	.01	.77
Level of Education	-.00	.05	-.00	.90	-.01	.04	-.01	.83
Work Experience	.17	.03	.32	.00	.02	.03	.05	.45
Metacognitive					.11	.04	.14	.00
Cognitive					-.26	.03	-.39	.00
Motivational					.25	.05	.22	.00
Behavioral					.11	.02	.22	.00
R		.28				.56		
R^2		.08				.32		
Adjusted. R^2		.06				.29		
ΔR^2		.08				.32		
F		5.44				15.47		
ANOVA (Sig.)		.00				.00		

Note. The correlation was found to be statistically insignificant * $P < .05$.

Hypothesis 5b: Cognitive CQ has an impact on avoiding.

Hypothesis 5c: Motivational CQ has an impact on avoiding.

Hypothesis 5d: Behavioral CQ has an impact on avoiding.

Table 20 above presents the effects of demographic characteristics on avoiding in Model 1 and the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on avoiding in Model 2.

The model summary ($R^2 = .08$) for Model 1 showed that the demographic characteristics explained 8% of the change in avoiding, and this effect was significant ($F = 5.44, P < .00$). In the coefficient table, only work experience ($\beta = .32, P < .00$) had a positive and significant effect on avoiding. The model summary ($R^2 = .32$) for Model 2

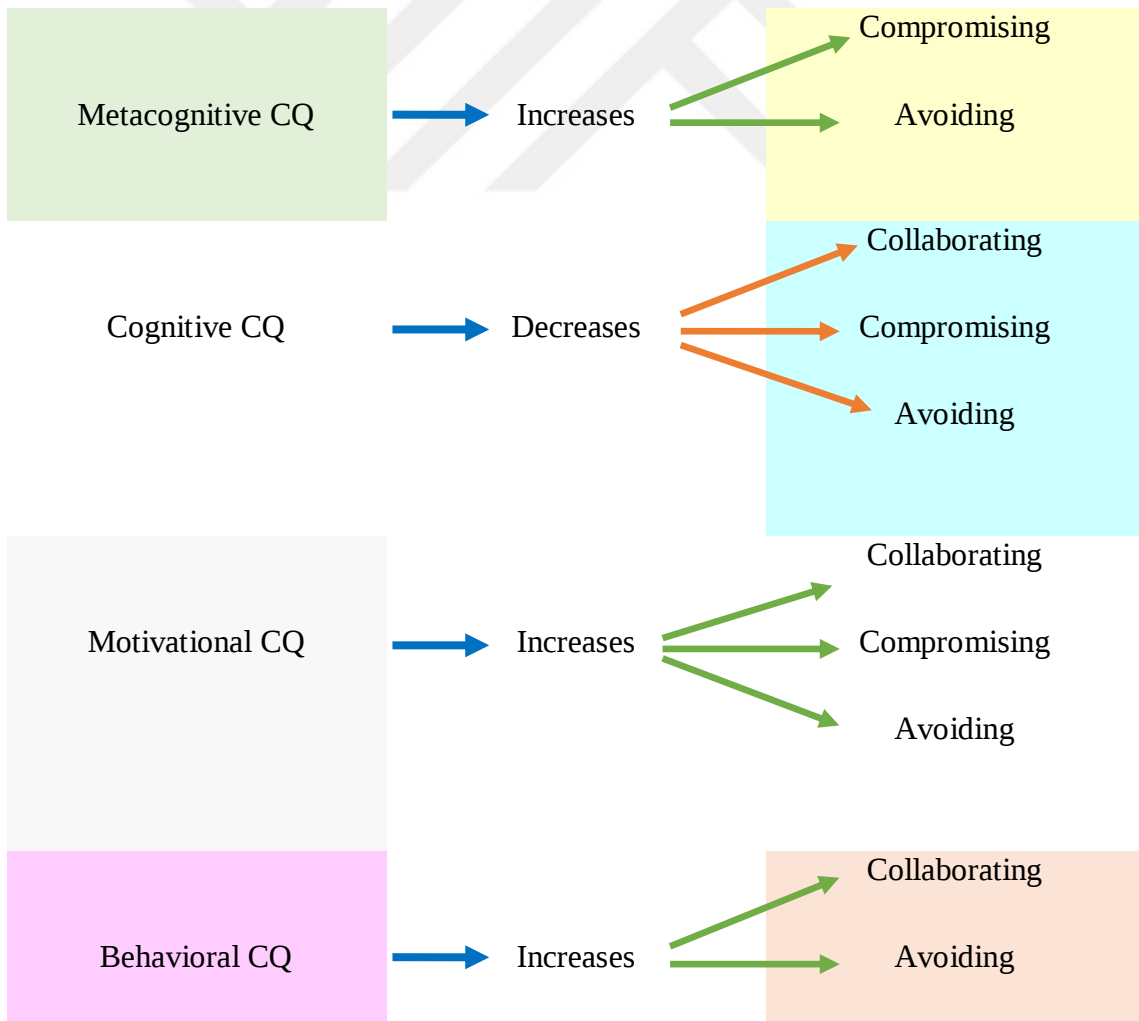


Figure 8. Visualisation of the CQ sub-dimensions' impact on CMS.

showed that CQ sub-dimensions explained 32% of the change in avoiding, and this effect was significant ($F = 15.47$, $P < .00$). In the coefficient table, with the exception of cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.39$, $P < .00$), the three other variables, metacognitive CQ ($\beta = .14$, $P < .00$), motivational CQ ($\beta = .22$, $P < .00$) and behavioral CQ ($\beta = .22$, $P < .00$), had positive effects on avoiding. These results confirmed hypotheses H_{5a}, H_{5b}, H_{5c} and H_{5d}. The effect of CQ sub-dimensions on CMS is presented in Figure 8 above.

Table 21 summarises the hypotheses results. The four divisions of Hypothesis 1 revealed whether the CQ sub-dimensions affected accommodating. In this case, only cognitive CQ had an impact on accommodating; the other three (metacognitive CQ,

Table 21

Summary of All Hypotheses

<i>Hypothesis</i>		<i>Results</i>				<i>Results</i>
		<i>B</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	
H1	A	-.06	.27	1.29	.24	Rejected
	B	.18	.00			
	C	-.00	.99			
	D	-.075	.22			
H2	A	.15	.01	1.15	.32	Rejected
	B	.07	.23			
	C	-.05	.36			
	D	-.00	.96			
H3	A	.03	.57	6.12	.00	Accepted
	B	-.18	.00			
	C	.14	.01			
	D	.16	.00			
H4	A	.15	.00	9.58	.00	Accepted
	B	-.27	.00			
	C	.14	.00			
	D	.08	.14			
H5	A	.14	.00	15.47	.00	Accepted
	B	-.38	.00			
	C	.22	.00			
	D	.21	.00			

motivational and behavioral) did not. However, this model was not significant, so the CQ sub-dimensions were determined not to have a significant effect on accommodating.

The second hypothesis questioned whether the CQ sub-dimensions had an impact on competing. The model revealed that the effects of the sub-dimensions on competing were not significant. The testing of hypothesis three showed that only metacognitive CQ had no impact on collaborating, so hypothesis H_{1a} was not supported. The other three CQ sub-dimensions, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ were supported. Hypothesis H_{4a-d}, concerning metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ and motivational CQ, were supported, showing that these three sub-dimensions had an impact on compromising. H_{4d} had no impact on compromising. Finally, H_{5a-d} had an impact on avoiding. This was the only case where all four variations of hypothesis were supported.

After the regression analysis to answer the research questions, the effects of or differences between demographic characteristics as age, gender, marital status, level of education and experience on CQ and CMS were analysed.

5.6. Research Questions

Another finding which emerged in the research was that demographic characteristics play a role in explaining the CQ sub-dimensions and CMSs. In this context, the sub-dimensions of the CQ variables were analysed for differences with regard to age, gender, marital status, education level and work experience.

5.6.1. Differences among CQ sub-dimensions in terms of demographic characteristics

From the presented results, there was a significant difference between CQ dimensions depending on demographic variables. The significant difference was not in all

demographic variables but some of them were presented significant differences. We have used One-Way ANOVA to test the differences according to demographics characteristics. Table 22 below reports the results of differences of CQ sub-dimensions according to age.

Results of the one-way ANOVA show no difference on CQ sub-dimensions according to age. All *P* values for all CQ sub-dimensions are greater than 5%. Hence, this variable is rejected. Table 23 below reports the difference results of CQ sub-dimensions according to gender.

Table 22

Relationship between Age and CQ

Variable	Age	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Metacognitive	25-34	60	5.48	.83	.754	.556
	35-44	85	5.57	.81		
	45-54	91	5.64	.75		
	55-64	64	5.71	.76		
	65	6	5.66	.88		
Cognitive	25-34	60	5.41	.96	.809	.520
	35-44	85	5.38	.92		
	45-54	91	5.19	.98		
	55-64	64	5.28	.82		
	65	6	5.61	1.0		
Motivational	25-34	60	5.83	.56	1.240	.294
	35-44	85	5.98	.62		
	45-54	91	5.96	.54		
	55-64	64	6.05	.51		
	65	6	5.93	.58		
Behavioral	25-34	60	4.41	1.3	1.755	.138
	35-44	85	4.74	1.1		
	45-54	91	4.67	1.2		
	55-64	64	4.91	1.1		
	65	6	5.36	1.2		

Note. From the sample with 1 = 25-34, 2 = 35-44, 3 = 45-54, 4 = 55-64, 5 = 65 age, were found to be statistically insignificant $P > .05$.

Table 23

Relationship between Gender and CQ

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Metacognitive	Men	158	5.58	.77	.301	.584
	Women	148	5.63	.80		
Cognitive	Men	158	5.34	.91	.220	.639
	Women	148	5.29	.95		
Motivational	Men	158	6.00	.54	2.419	.121
	Women	148	5.90	.59		
Behavioral	Men	158	4.74	1.2	.252	.616
	Women	148	4.67	1.2		

Note. From the sample with 1 = Men, 2 = Women

Table 24

Relationship between Marital Status and CQ

Variable	Marital Status	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Metacognitive	Single	87	5.51	.83	.963	.411
	Married	207	5.65	.76		
	Divorced	6	5.29	1.0		
	Widowed	6	5.66	.62		
Cognitive	Single	87	5.27	1.0	.459	.711
	Married	207	5.34	.85		
	Divorced	6	5.25	1.4		
	Widowed	6	4.94	1.0		
Motivational	Single	87	5.97	.50	.071	.975
	Married	207	5.95	.59		
	Divorced	6	6.03	.70		
	Widowed	6	6.00	.45		
Behavioral	Single	87	4.79	1.1	.268	.849
	Married	207	4.67	1.2		
	Divorced	6	4.56	1.2		
	Widowed	6	4.50	1.4		

Note. Managers' marital status 1 = single, 2 = married, 3 = divorced, 4 = widowed

Table 25

Relationship between Level of Education and CQ

Variable	Education	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Metacognitive	Graduate	188	5.53	.78	5.251	.006
	Master	92	5.82	.78		
	Other	26	5.40	.73		
Cognitive	Graduate	188	5.36	.93	.899	.408
	Master	92	5.21	.90		
	Other	26	5.38	1.0		
Motivational	Graduate	188	5.95	.55	3.450	.033
	Master	92	6.04	.56		
	Other	26	5.72	.59		
Behavioral	Graduate	188	4.73	1.2	.625	.536
	Master	92	4.73	1.3		
	Other	26	4.44	1.2		

Note. Level of education of managers. 1 = Graduate, 2 = Postgraduate and 3 = Other

As all *P* values were greater than 5%, this variable was not supported. There are no difference in CQ sub-dimensions according to age and gender.

Table 24 above reports the results of the one-way ANOVA conducted to determine the differences of CQ sub-dimensions according to marital status. As all *P* values for all dimensions are greater than 5%, we cannot support this hypothesis.

Table 25 above reports the ANOVA results for the difference of CQ sub-dimensions according to education level. There is difference in metacognitive CQ ($F = 5.25$, $P < .00$) and in motivational CQ ($F = 3.45$, $P < .03$) dimensions according to education level.

To check the differences in these two dimensions, we used the results of the Tukey test from the Multiple Comparisons table 25. In the metacognitive sub-dimension, there is a significant difference between managers with master's degree and managers with graduate and other degrees. The reason of this difference is because the mean (5.82)

of managers with master's degree is significantly higher than the means (5.53 and 5.40) of managers with graduate and other degrees. The results have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of metacognitive CQ than the others.

In the motivational CQ dimension, similar results are obtained. The mean (6.04) of managers with master's degree is significantly higher than the means of managers with graduate and other degrees (5.95 and 5.72). The results have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of motivational CQ than the others. Therefore, we support that hypothesis, that is, CQ sub-dimensions significantly varies according to education level.

Table 26 reports the results of ANOVA regarding the differences of CQ sub-dimensions according to work experience.

Table 26

Relationship between Work Experience and CQ

Variable	Experience	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Metacognitive	3-5	60	5.37	.91	6.044	.000
	6-8	66	5.42	.66		
	9-14	70	5.63	.75		
	15 plus	110	5.82	.75		
Cognitive	3-5	60	5.50	.83	5.189	.002
	6-8	66	5.60	.91		
	9-14	70	5.22	.96		
	15 plus	110	5.10	.92		
Motivational	3-5	60	5.80	.56	11.477	.000
	6-8	66	5.80	.60		
	9-14	70	5.86	.61		
	15 plus	110	6.20	.43		
Behavioral	3-5	60	4.46	1.21	3.676	.013
	6-8	66	4.42	1.15		
	9-14	70	4.77	1.20		
	15 plus	110	4.96	1.28		

Note. Managers work experience 1 = 3-5, 2 = 6-8, 3 = 9-14 plus and 4 = 15+

ANOVA results shows that there are significant differences for all sub-dimensions: Metacognitive CQ ($F = 6.04, P < .00$), Cognitive CQ ($F = 5.18, P < .00$), Motivational CQ ($F = 11.47, P < .00$) and Behavioral CQ ($F = 3.67, P < .01$). Using the results of the Tukey test, in the first dimension, Metacognitive CQ, there is a significant difference between managers with 15+ years of experience and managers with three to five and six to eight years' experience. The mean of managers with 15+ years of experience (5.82) is significantly higher than the mean of managers with three to five and six to eight years' experience (5.37 and 5.42). The results have showed that managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of Metacognitive CQ than the others.

In the Cognitive CQ dimension, significant differences were found between managers with six to eight years of experience and managers with 15+ years of experience. The reason of this is the higher mean (5.60) for managers with six to eight years of experience than the mean (5.10) for managers with 15+ years of experience. The results have showed that managers with six to eight years of experience have higher level of Cognitive CQ than the others.

In the Motivational CQ dimension, significant differences were found between managers with 15+ years of experience and all managers with less experience. The mean of managers with 15+ years of experience (6.20) is significantly higher than the mean of all managers with less experience (5.80, 5.80 and 5.86). The results have showed that managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of Motivational CQ than the others.

Finally, significant differences between managers with 15+ years of experience and three to five and six to eight years of experience were obtained. The mean of

managers with 15+ years of experience (4.96) is significantly higher than the means of managers with three to five and six to eight years of experience (4.46 and 4.42). The results have showed that managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of Behavioral CQ than the others.

Hence, we successfully support this hypothesis. In the second research question, we tested the differences of CMS dimensions according to demographic characteristics.

5.6.2. Do CMS differ in the same term of demographics characteristics?

There were no statistically significant differences between CMS the groups in age of managers. Table 27 reports the ANOVA results for the differences in CMS sub-dimensions according to age. Because all *P* values for all dimensions are higher than 5%, we cannot support this hypothesis.

Table 28 presents the results of CMS differences according to gender. Because all *p*-values are higher than 5%, we cannot support this hypothesis.

Table 29 reports the results of CMS differences according to marital status. Because all *p*-values are higher than 5% for all dimensions, we reject this hypothesis.

Table 30 reports the results of CMS differences according to education level. ANOVA results report for significant differences in collaborating ($F=7.30$, $P<.00$) and avoiding ($F=3.61$, $P<.02$). The reason for this difference in collaborating is because the mean of managers with a master's degree (4.42) was significantly higher than the mean of managers with other degree (3.99). The results have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of collaborating than the others. The reason for the difference in avoiding dimension was because the mean of managers with master's degree (2.83) was higher than the mean of managers with other degree (2.49). The results

have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of avoiding than the others. Hence, this hypothesis is supported.

Table 27

Relationship between Age and CMS

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Age (years)</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Collaborating	25–34	60	4.24	.56	1.511	.199
	35–44	85	4.37	.49		
	45–54	91	4.20	.57		
	55–64	64	4.22	.61		
	65	6	4.52	.29		
Accommodating	25–34	60	3.91	.57	1.784	.132
	35–44	85	3.79	.70		
	45–54	91	4.01	.54		
	55–64	64	3.96	.60		
	65	6	4.13	.52		
Competing	25–34	60	2.69	.85	.647	.630
	35–44	85	2.95	.98		
	45–54	91	2.85	.98		
	55–64	64	2.82	.93		
	65	6	2.90	.88		
Avoiding	25–34	60	2.56	.53	2.062	.086
	35–44	85	2.73	.65		
	45–54	91	2.67	.67		
	55–64	64	2.87	.61		
	65	6	2.72	.52		
Compromising	25–34	60	2.79	.72	1.876	.115
	35–44	85	2.95	.73		
	45–54	91	2.98	.73		
	55–64	64	3.15	.76		
	65	6	3.00	.52		

Note. From the sample with 1 = 25–34, 2 = 35–44, 3 = 45–54, 4 = 55–64, 5 = 65 age

Table 28

Relationship between Gender and CMS

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Collaborating	Men	158	4.27	.57	.063	.802
	Women	148	4.26	.54		
Accommodating	Men	158	3.93	.60	.101	.751
	Women	148	3.91	.62		
Competing	Men	158	2.87	.90	.361	.549
	Women	148	2.81	.99		
Avoiding	Men	158	2.71	.61	.015	.901
	Women	148	2.70	.65		
Compromising	Men	158	3.03	.73	1.991	.159
	Women	148	2.91	.74		

Note. Managers age 1 = men and 2 = women.

Table 29

Relation between marital status and CMS

Variable	Marital Status	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Collaborating	Single	87	4.26	.54	.636	.592
	Married	207	4.25	.57		
	Divorced	6	4.57	.37		
	Widowed	6	4.33	.45		
Accommodating	Single	87	3.86	.63	1.484	.219
	Married	207	3.95	.59		
	Divorced	6	4.16	.39		
	Widowed	6	3.55	.85		
Competing	Single	87	2.87	.95	.232	.874
	Married	207	2.83	.94		
	Divorced	6	2.70	.81		
	Widowed	6	3.10	1.16		
Avoiding	Single	87	2.70	.63	.343	.794
	Married	207	2.70	.64		
	Divorced	6	2.72	.54		
	Widowed	6	2.97	.55		
Compromising	Single	87	2.94	.66	.655	.580
	Married	207	2.98	.77		
	Divorced	6	2.91	.81		
	Widowed	6	3.37	.62		

Note. 1 = single 2 = married, 3 = divorced and 4 = widowed

Table 30

Relationship between Level of Education and CMS

Variable	Education	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Collaborating	Graduate	188	4.23	.55	7.308	.001
	Master	92	4.42	.44		
	Other	26	3.99	.77		
Accommodating	Graduate	188	3.94	.59	.345	.708
	Master	92	3.88	.65		
	Other	26	3.93	.63		
Competing	Graduate	188	2.86	.97	.451	.637
	Master	92	2.86	.90		
	Other	26	2.67	.89		
Avoiding	Graduate	188	2.68	.63	3.613	.028
	Master	92	2.83	.62		
	Other	26	2.49	.62		
Compromising	Graduate	188	3.03	.72	2.168	.116
	Master	92	2.93	.77		
	Other	26	2.73	.71		

Note. Level of education of managers. 1 = Graduate and 2 = Postgraduate and 3 = other.

Table 31 below reports the ANOVA results of differences of CMS according to work experience. Significant differences were found in collaborating ($F = 7.22$, $P < .00$), avoiding ($F = 10.22$, $P < .00$) and compromising ($F = 13.65$, $P < .00$).

In collaborating, significant differences between managers with three to five, six to eight and 15+ years of experience were obtained. The reason for this was that the mean of managers with 15+ years of experience (4.44) was significantly higher than the means of managers with three to five and six to eight years of experience (4.13 and 4.10, respectively). The results have showed that managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of collaborating than the others.

In avoiding, significant differences between managers with three to five, six to eight and 15+ years of experience were obtained. The reason for this was that the mean of

Table 31

Relationship between Experience and CMS

Variable	Experience	N	Mean	SE	F	P
Collaborating	3-5	60	4.13	.61	7.222	.000
	6-8	66	4.10	.59		
	9-14	70	4.26	.58		
	15 plus	110	4.44	.43		
Accommodating	3-5	60	3.91	.58	.351	.789
	6-8	66	3.88	.68		
	9-14	70	3.98	.56		
	15 plus	110	3.91	.62		
Competing	3-5	60	2.80	.89	.205	.893
	6-8	66	2.92	.97		
	9-14	70	2.82	.94		
	15 plus	110	2.83	.97		
Avoiding	3-5	60	2.51	.53	10.228	.000
	6-8	66	2.45	.58		
	9-14	70	2.84	.65		
	15 plus	110	2.89	.62		
Compromising	3-5	60	2.74	.65	13.654	.000
	6-8	66	2.67	.61		
	9-14	70	2.96	.74		
	15 plus	110	3.29	.73		

Note. Managers work experience 1 = 3-5, 2 = 6-8, 3 = 9-14 plus and 4 = 15+ years

managers with 15+ years of experience (2.89) was significantly higher than the means of managers with three to five and six to eight years of experience (2.51 and 2.45, respectively). The results have showed that managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of avoiding than the others

Regarding compromising, significant differences between managers with 15+ years of experience and all managers with fewer years of experiences were obtained. The reason for this that the mean of managers with 15+ years of experience (3.29) is significantly higher than the mean of managers with three to five, six to eight and nine to 14 years of experience (2.74, 2.67 and 2.96, respectively). The results have showed that

managers with 15+ years of experience have higher level of compromising than the others.

Tables 32 and 33 below present the relationships between the research questions and the demographics variable, and the CMS differences in terms of level of education and work experience. Hence, this hypothesis is supported.

Table 32

Relationship between Demographic Variables and CQ

CQ sub-dimensions	Demographic Variables	F	P	Results
Metacognitive	Age	.754	.556	Rejected
	Gender	.301	.584	Rejected
	Marital Status	.963	.411	Rejected
	Level of Education	5.251	.006	Accepted
	Work Experience	6.044	.001	Accepted
Cognitive	Age	.809	.520	Rejected
	Gender	.220	.639	Rejected
	Marital Status	.459	.711	Rejected
	Level of Education	.899	.408	Rejected
	Work Experience	5.189	.002	Accepted
Motivational	Age	1.240	.294	Rejected
	Gender	2.414	.121	Rejected
	Marital Status	.071	.975	Rejected
	Level of Education	3.450	.033	Accepted
	Work Experience	11.477	.000	Accepted
Behavioral	Age	1.755	.138	Rejected
	Gender	.252	.616	Rejected
	Marital Status	.268	.849	Rejected
	Level of Education	.625	.536	Rejected
	Work Experience	3.676	.013	Accepted

Table 33

Relationship between Demographic Variables and CMS

CMS	Demographic Variable	F	P	Results
Collaborating	Age	1.511	.199	Rejected
	Gender	.063	.802	Rejected
	Marital Status	.636	.592	Rejected
	Level of Education	7.308	.001	Accepted
	Work Experience	7.222	.000	Accepted
Accommodating	Age	1.784	.132	Rejected
	Gender	.101	.751	Rejected
	Marital Status	1.484	.219	Rejected
	Level of Education	.345	.708	Rejected
	Work Experience	.351	.789	Rejected
Competing	Age	.647	.630	Rejected
	Gender	.361	.549	Rejected
	Marital Status	.232	.874	Rejected
	Level of Education	.451	.637	Rejected
	Work Experience	.205	.893	Rejected
Avoiding	Age	2.062	.086	Rejected
	Gender	.015	.901	Rejected
	Marital Status	.343	.794	Rejected
	Level of Education	3.613	.028	Accepted
	Work Experience	10.228	.000	Accepted
Compromising	Age	1.876	.115	Rejected
	Gender	1.991	.159	Rejected
	Marital Status	.655	.580	Rejected
	Level of Education	2.168	.116	Rejected
	Work Experience	13.654	.000	Accepted

Chapter 6.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this concluding chapter the results of all the analyses related to the hypothesis and differences in the demographic analyses will be reviewed and the associated recommendations will be outlined. Various suggestions regarding the relationships between variables will be made, and the chapter will conclude with recommendations for business managers based on the findings of the study.

Today's reality reflects the fast global developments in modern technology and human mobility, which are creating more differences and, in turn, the need for better social organisation in all levels. These circumstances require talented, stable and prepared individuals who can function efficiently in any environment (Templer et al., 2006). Developing new skills is thus at the top of the agenda for many businesses. Culture and cultural intelligence are practice tools for analysis, so lately interest in new research in this field is increasing (Ramirez, 2010).

This study sheds new light on these developments and provides a broader understanding of the nature of the problem. This thesis is a good opportunity for all managers in Kosovo to gather information about CQ factors and CMS as interesting topics. The results of the local population surveyed were tested for psychometric properties using CFA and internal consistencies. The hierarchical regression analysis was conducted after controlling for demographic variables.

The five sets of four hypotheses were tested to determine the possible effects of CQ sub-dimensions on CMSs. The regression analysis was used to test hypotheses 1_{a-d} to determine whether CQ sub-dimensions had an impact on accommodating. The results of

the regression analysis showed that the independent variables did not have a significant effect on the dependent variable in Model 1 ($F = .62$, $P = .68$) or Model 2 ($F = 1.29$, $P = .24$). The results indicated that the effect of independent variables on accommodating was not significant at 5% level and cannot be supported. The results have showed that accommodating dimension was not significant. This means the Kosovo managers are not ready to make any concessions for other and to give up from his/her needs and goals. They are not available to show the generosity and to be altruist that followed by submission to other.

Hypotheses 2_{a-d} produced somewhat similar results: Only hypothesis 2a, related to metacognitive CQ, had an impact on competing ($\beta = .15$, $P < .01$). The results shows that the independent variables did not make a significant contribution in dependent variable from regression Model 1 ($F = .24$, $P = .94$) and Model 2 ($F = 1.15$, $P = .32$). From the confirmed results this model which were tested the impact of CQ sub-dimension as independent variables on competing as a dependent variable is not significant at 5% level and cannot be supported. The results have showed that competing dimension also was not significant while the others are significant. This means that the Kosovo managers lack confidence and have doubts in the career system. Managers are not available to show the personal concerns at the expense of other's concerns and they are not ready to defend the objective that is believed to be correct. This comes because the competing strategy and business system function have many flaws and believe that the psychological barriers cannot overcome.

Hypotheses 3_{a-d} assumed that cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.16$, $P < .01$), motivational CQ ($\beta = .12$, $P < .01$) and behavioral CQ ($\beta = .16$, $P < .01$) would impact collaborating in a

statistically significant way. Metacognitive CQ ($\beta = .02$, $P < .69$) was not found to have significant statistical effect on collaborating as a dependent variable. Model 1 reflected the results when age ($\beta = -.23$, $P < .01$) decreased, while experience ($\beta = .39$, $P < .01$) increase this style. In Model 2, except for cognitive, which decreased, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ increased collaborating. The results showed that independent variables make a significant contribution to dependent variables based on the regression analysis of Model 1 ($F = 6.60$, $P = .00$) and Model 2 ($F = 6.12$, $P = .00$), indicating that managers with higher experience, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ increased the impact of the dependent variables. Cognitive CQ decrease collaborating CMSs, because a number of Kosovo managers do not believe that the individual's personality can make a change between collaborating, legal, social, economic and educational matters, as well as personal experiences, which are part of cognitive CQ. Managers with higher motivational CQ levels increased the impact of collaborating, they reflect energy for learning and applying new things when they cooperated with other individuals from different cultures. Managers with better behaviour demonstrated stronger capabilities in communicating with people from different cultures. CQ is a good tool for individuals to use in adapting to and managing other people, based in considering possible differences between them in a cross-cultural context. In this case, the cognitive CQ sub-dimension decreased the impact on collaborating while motivational and behavioral CQ sub-dimensions increased their impact and reflected a statistical significance on collaborating. Kosovo managers were declared for this style because they are ready to accept the solution for two parties. Both parties seek acceptable solution which addressing the concerns and finding satisfy solution. The effects are from knowledge, experience and willingness to cooperate, while

there are not many initiatives to build a platform for collaborating (Ramirez, 2010; Rehg et al. 2012; Rosenblatt et al. 2013; Earley and Ang, 2003).

Hypothesis 4_{a-d} reflects that metacognitive CQ ($\beta = .18, P < .01$), cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.27, P < .01$) and motivational CQ ($\beta = .12, p < .01$) impact compromising, while behavioral CQ ($\beta = .08, p < .13$) was not reflected any significant statistical impact on compromising dependent variable. The results show that metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ increase compromising while cognitive CQ decreases this style. In Model 1, job experience ($\beta = .36, P < .01$) increased compromising, in Model 2, level of education ($\beta = -.14, P < .01$) decreased while experience ($\beta = .18, P < .01$) increased compromising. The results shows how independent variables make a significant impact on the dependent variables in the regression analyses of Model 1 ($F = 8.51, P = .00$) and Model 2 ($F = 9.58, P = .00$). Metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ increase this style, but cognitive CQ decreases compromising. Cognitive CQ decrease compromising CMSs, because managers do not believe in the concessions in order to reach an agreement, based in different levels of knowledge about legal, social, economic and educational matters, as well as personal experiences, which are part of cognitive CQ . Compromising is a moderate style which reflects a concern for both oneself and others; those who use it are prepared to make concessions in order to reach an agreement. It is usually used in situations in which considerable planning and energy has been invested. Metacognitive CQ and motivational CQ are used in conflict situations to identify expedient and acceptable solutions which satisfy both parties. It was also very interesting that the model indicated coordination of the mental aspect, the accumulation of energy and the desire to cooperate (Rahim, 1983; Ramirez, 2010; Stampele, 2010). Kosovo managers were

declared for this style because are ready to accept the solution for two parties which addressing the concerns and finding solution for two parties.

Hypothesis 5_{a-d} reflects that avoiding was statistically significant. In last analysis the situation is different because all of the CQ sub-dimension had an impact on avoiding: metacognitive CQ ($\beta = .14, P < .01$), motivational CQ ($\beta = .22, P < .01$) and behavioral CQ ($\beta = .22, p < .01$) increased and cognitive CQ ($\beta = -.39, P < .01$) decreased avoiding. Model 1 reflect, the job experience ($\beta = .32, P < .01$) increased avoiding while in Model 2 three sub-dimensions, metacognitive CQ, motivationa CQ and behavioral CQ increased while cognitive CQ decreased avoiding. The results shows that the independent variables make a significant contribution to the dependent variables in the regression analysis of Model 1 ($F = 5.44, P = .00$) and Model 2 ($F = 15.47, P = .00$). Avoiding means individuals who are in conflict do not seek a solution. For three dimensions metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ increased avoiding style, while Cognitive CQ decreased this style. This means this group of Kosovo managers disagree to be indifferent about problems. While three other factors increased avoiding style, these groups neglect the dispute in their business or deny the availability of conflict. In this situation the managers are not ready to deal with disputes and prefer to avoid and solve later. This means that they have a one-way commitment and do not try to resolve problems. The individuals who use this sub-dimension of CQ find it easier to avoid problems (Brewer et al., 2002; Stample, 2010; Ramirez, 2010; Gonçalves et al., 2016).

The results from research questions about the difference in terms of demographic variables on sub-dimensions of two main variables which are CQ and CMS are impressive. The analyses of empirical data reflects that there are no differences between

managers in CQ sub-dimensions in age groups, because all results from variables did not find any statistical significance. According by Schwarzenthal et al. (2017), in their study on the impact of CQ sub-dimensions on cultural heritage experiences, found that age did not have any correlations with CQ sub-dimensions.

In the second case, gender and marital status did not reflect any difference between managers in CQ sub-dimensions. After that, examined the level of education, this variable has reflected the difference in the metacognitive CQ ($P = .00 < .05$) and motivational CQ ($P = .03 < .05$). The respondents with master's degrees had the mean value of ($M = 5.82$, $SD = .78$) while the managers with graduate degrees had the mean value ($M = 5.53$, $SD = .78$) and other ($M = 5.40$, $SD = .73$). It means that managers with master's degrees had a higher average than two other groups. The level of education is important factor which also was found differences significant in CQ sub-dimensions. The results have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of CQ than the two other groups. The effects are from ability and individual energy for learning and applying new things in a multicultural environment. It means that the education reflected the essential difference between groups, the individuals with a higher level of education found higher level of motivational CQ (Balli, 2017).

The differences were presented in work experience, where CQ sub-dimensions reflected a significant value in four groups. Work experience reflected the difference in four groups as; metacognitive CQ ($P = .00 < .05$), cognitive CQ ($P = .00 < .05$), motivational CQ ($P = .00 < .05$) and behavioral CQ ($P = .01 < .05$). In metacognitive CQ sub-dimension, the difference between three to five years job experience were the mean value of ($M = 5.37$, $SD = .91$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 5.42$, $SD = .66$),

nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 5.63$, $SD = .75$) and up 15 years the mean value was ($M = 5.82$, $SD = .75$). While cognitive CQ sub-dimension difference between three to five years' work experience was the mean value of ($M = 5.50$, $SD = .83$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 5.60$, $SD = .91$), nine to 14 years the mean value ($M = 5.22$, $SD = .96$) and up 15 years the mean value ($M = 5.10$, $SD = .92$). Motivational CQ sub-dimension reflects the difference between three to five years job experience the mean value was ($M = 5.80$, $SD = .56$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 5.80$, $SD = .60$), nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 5.86$, $SD = .61$) and up 15 years the mean value was ($M = 6.20$, $SD = .43$).

Finally, the behavioral CQ sub-dimension difference between three to five years job experience the mean value was ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 1.21$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.15$), nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 1.20$) and over 15 years the mean value was ($M = 4.96$, $SD = 1.28$). In this level the higher mean value was in group over 15 years, following by nine to 14 years, six to eight years and three to five years. The results have showed that managers with over 15 years work experience had higher values in CQ sub-dimensions than three to five, six to eight and nine to 14 years. The effect of work experience on cultural intelligence factors, including versatility, may help in selecting an appropriate. While author Balli (2017) said in the experience aspect the results reflected the young managers were oriented in the duties reflected increased motivational CQ.

In the second analysis, the empirical results did not reflect any difference between managers in CMS in age groups, because the results did not show any significant. In the second case with gender and marital status did not reflect the difference between

managers in CMS sub-dimensions. In a conflict situation the individual characteristics (example age and status) there is not a significant statistical difference between groups (Pinto & Ferrer, 2002; Havenga & Visagie, 2006). But in level of education variable reflected the difference, where collaborating had a difference on level of education ($P = .00 < .05$) and avoiding ($P = .02 < .05$). The respondents with master degrees had the mean value ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .44$), while the managers with graduate degrees had the mean value ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .55$) and other ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .77$). This implies that managers with a master's degree show higher level in collaborating when reporting for this style than the other two groups. Also, the results have showed that managers with master's degree have higher level of avoiding than the two other groups. The effects of high level of education are from capability and willingness to collaborating, while there are not many initiatives. In contrast, in a study in Pakistan with one hundred and forty-five ($N = 145$) educational managers had not reflect any effects on their using CMSs (Tahir Farooqi, 2015).

In the last analysis, work experience reflected the difference on CMS. Work experience on collaborating ($P = .00 < .05$), following by avoiding ($P = .00 < .05$) and compromising ($P = .00 < .05$). Collaborating difference between, three to five years was with mean value ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .61$), from six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .59$), nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .58$) and up to 15 years the mean value was ($M = 4.44$, $SD = .43$). The results have showed that managers with over 15 years work experience had higher values in collaborating style than three to five, six to eight and nine to 14 years.

While avoiding sub-dimension show the difference between three to five years

with the mean value of ($M = 2.51$, $SD = .53$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 2.45$, $SD = .58$), nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .65$) and up to 15 years the mean value was ($M = 2.89$, $SD = .62$). Also results have showed that managers with over 15 years work experience had higher values in avoiding style than three to five, six to eight and nine to 14 years.

Compromising sub-dimension reflect the difference between three to five years ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .65$), six to eight years the mean value was ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .61$), nine to 14 years the mean value was ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .74$) and up to 15 years the mean value was ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .73$). Finally, the results have showed that managers with over 15 years work experience had higher values in compromising style than three to five, six to eight and nine to 14 years. Managers with over 15 years work experience had higher values in the second analysis difference between managers in CMS. This means that job experience over 15 years has higher values on collaborating, following by compromising and last was avoiding sub-dimensions of CMS. The effects of work experience over 15 years on collaborating, compromising and avoiding may help managers in selecting an appropriate style but there are not many initiatives to build a platform to satisfy both parties while the group of managers which are affected by avoiding believe that the conflict will not resolved and ignored. Scholars Cetin and Hacifazlioglu, (2004) was found relationship difference in terms of experience because the older personnel use more collaborating. At last, the research questions had significant differences in level of education and work experience groups.

6.1 Conclusions

The business sector is an integral part of the world's economy: It is huge and encompasses many differences in quantity and quality at the national and local levels. This study constitutes a serious effort to determine whether CQ sub-dimensions affect how interpersonal conflicts are handled in a business environment. The process of influencing CQ dimensions in the CMS was presented through the introduction of four sub-dimensions of CQ as follows: Metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ and their impacts on CMSs. Results from the testing of all five hypotheses showed that metacognitive CQ increases compromising and avoiding; cognitive CQ decreases collaborating, compromising and avoiding; motivational CQ increases collaborating, compromising and avoiding, while behavioral CQ increases collaborating and avoiding. Therefore, it is concluded that with metacognitive CQ enhancement we will have an increased role of compromising and avoiding. Metacognitive CQ is an important sub-dimension which reflects an individual's ability for cultural adaptation in terms of adopting new models of collaborating and influencing behavioral (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008, p. 5). This means that metacognitive CQ increases compromising, because this style is generally perceived positively in cooperation. In general, cases resolved in this way are defused faster and with more acceptable results (Stample, 2010). The metacognitive CQ also influences the growth of avoiding, this style of model implies when an individual does not try to resolve the conflict but rather the present situation with it. People who use this approach tend not to care about their own interests or those of others (Stample, 2010; Gonçalves et al., 2016).

Another finding in this study was that cognitive CQ decreased collaborating,

compromising and avoiding. Based in the results Cognitive CQ decrease collaborating, compromising and avoiding of CMSs because a number of Kosovo managers do not believe that the individual's personality can make changes through their contributions and psychological barriers can overcome. Kosovo managers do not believe that the individual's personality can make a change between collaborating, legal, social, economic and educational matters, as well as personal experiences, are part of cognitive CQ. The cognitive CQ factor is related to recognition of political, economic and legal circumstances in one hand while on the other hand with the recognition of new developments, in Kosovo circumstances; a long political, legal and economical transition, preventing full involvement in the international developments due to political situation has created a confusion on this case. On the other factors there are not a lot of collective emotions, so the other three factors increases three styles of conflict management. Also, Kosovo managers had not enough information about theories of personality, cultural intelligence sub-dimensions and their relation with CMS. They need to have more knowledge about four factors of CQ which are fundamental principles to function in cross-cultural situations and to believe that the psychological barriers can overcome. Cognitive CQ reflected ability about norms, including written and unwritten norms, personal experiences and all experience gained from life-long learning or long-life practice. This CQ sub-dimension is interesting because ideas and individuals' actions are associated with knowledge, education and life experiences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). This sub-dimension takes into account an individual's ability to decipher new cultural situations and adapt based on their past experiences (Brislin et al., 2006; Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Although cognitive CQ is related to knowledge about legal, social,

economic, education and personal experiences, managers think that collaborating offers little chance to combine different experiences and practices in order to resolve disputes. This style is commonly used in complicated situations and with special individuals (Riasi & Asadzadeh, 2015; Gonçalves et al., 2016). People who engage in compromising have some special characteristics which can easily be considered weaknesses because they can easily create new conflicts in the future. Compromising offers an effective solution to manage or overcome a conflict with very few negative consequences. However, cognitive CQ was also found to decrease avoiding. Experience and long practice resulted in less disturbance, both of the managers themselves and other people.

Motivational CQ increases collaborating, compromising and avoiding, indicating that it supports emotional balance, adaptability and energy to function (Ang et al., 2011). This sub-dimension with these characteristics has a particularly strong impact on cooperation because it reflects an open mind and the exchange of all differences which generate strategic solutions acceptable to both parties (Afzalur et al., 1992; Sample, 2010). It also increases the compromising that offers an effective solution to manage or overcome a conflict situation with very little negative consequences. Finally, behavioral CQ increases collaborating and avoiding. Business managers are able to exhibit appropriate behavioral by interacting with others, through verbal and non-verbal behaviours and by increasing collaborating and avoiding.

The results have showed that accommodating and competing dimensions were not significant while the others are significant. Maybe, this means that Kosovo managers are not ready to make any concessions for other and to give up from his/her needs and goals, as they lack confidence and have doubts in the career system. This comes because the

competition strategy and business system function have many flaws and believe that the psychological barriers cannot overcome. Also, accommodating and competing dimensions were not significant while others are significant because the managers can see the work life related only in these three dimensions. When managers will be more aware of their behaviour patterns, can lead to change of behaviour and their style.

Moreover, the CQs of metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ and the CMSs of collaborating, avoiding and compromising differ in terms of education and job experience. In this analysis, it may be concluded that there was a difference between CQ sub-dimensions in the demographic characteristics, particularly education level and experience. The CMS sub-dimensions also differed in education and experience. Those managers with master's degrees had a higher average than two other groups, while managers with over 15 years of experience scored higher in CQ sub-dimensions. Furthermore, managers with a master's degree scored higher on collaborating when reporting for this style than the other two groups; managers with over 15 years of experience also scored higher on collaborating, followed by compromising and avoiding.

Based on results, there are some recommendations which can impact daily management routines and promote good practices in conflict management. First, employees should increase their knowledge of CQ sub-dimensions and their role in CMS. Second, based on the multicultural backgrounds of staff, is important for businesses to understand the role of CQ in the new staff selection process. New staff in the business should have good skills in a multicultural context. Third, increasing the role of CQ sub-dimensions in daily communication with people from different cultural background can

bring a positive effect in functional structure in workplace.

Today it is impossible for every employee of a company to be thoroughly prepared for any task, but it is possible to find innovative managers who are ready to supply the more demanding customer needs. In summary, it would be valuable for managers to improve their CQ to manage conflicts in Kosovo businesses. Accomplishing this requires essential planning activities, such as preparing a strategy with an action plan for improving CQ ability. Second, advice on how to improve conflict management skills should be included in a separate annex of any job description. Third, training should be organised for staff in order to improve good practices. Fourth, a document plan should be drafted regarding how to recruit new staff with good CQ capabilities, and finally a plan for daily meetings with peer-to-peer interviews should be created to share experiences featuring CQ and CMS.

In conclusion, four sub-dimensions of CQ predict maintaining the positions of businesses in all respects, starting with planning, action and control in local and multicultural contexts. Planning for and managing with people from different cultures helps those involved in a conflict directly manage or control their inner emotions, as a strategy for overcoming the conflict (Tay et al., 2008; Jeanne, 2018). Metacognitive CQ offers opportunities for new ideas, good cooperation between parties (no matter where they operate) and illuminates the differences between them (Chua et al., 2012). Metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ improve individual performance, enabling the implementation of work plans and improving the managerial performance of anyone equipped with relevant knowledge (Van Dyne et al., 2008; Rocksthul & Van Dyne, 2018). The CQ sub-dimensions are also important in the transfer of leadership, as

the knowledge of global developments based on the new rules which help a leader to be transformed in modern leader. This means that CQ is positively connected to every transforming behaviour of global leaders based on international experience (Ramsey et al., 2017).

CQ sub-dimensions are related to and impact individuals' performance because they allow better communication, cooperation and interaction with new cultural experiences in multicultural environments. These sub-dimensions are important in work, producing attractive effects and sustaining employees' professional commitment, and affecting the growth of satisfaction and reducing pressure. For example, professional staff with a high level of CQ are more motivated and satisfied with work.

These sub-dimensions are also important for each individual because they reduce pressure and stress at work (Eisenberg & Williams, 2012; Safari & Radmehr, 2013). Four CQ sub-dimensions served as predictors for increased CMS ability. A higher level of CQ positively affects and predicts whether a manager will select an appropriate CMS and whether the chosen CMS is suitable for the cultural background associated with the conflict (Ramirez, 2010).

6.2. Suggestions for Future Research

The importance of distinguishing this study from other research consists in fact that there are no studies related to CQ sub-dimension and CMS. The fact that this study was conducted in Kosovo and involved a significant number of businesses enabled a wide range of participants, thereby increasing the regional generality and power of the sample. This study is the first research in this field to deal with the effect of CQ sub-dimensions on CMS, and it is hoped that the results will be useful for future researchers.

The value of managing conflict in a business is self-evident, but the valuable role managers play in a business is not always so clear. The results of this study reflect the necessity of strong CQ and predict whether a manager will select an appropriate CMS when dealing with a conflict.

Additional studies are needed to detect different results for the CQ sub-dimensions and CMS sub-dimensions. In future studies, sample populations can be gathered from different sectors, which would improve the generalisability of the findings. It is possible that other factors have an influence on CMS as well. Most important is the need for further study on the impact of CQ sub-dimensions on CMS using a sample population of individuals who work for cultural heritage organisations, because people who work with cultural heritage have different perspectives on conflict. Such a study would be very interesting, so it should be the next topic covered by research in this field.

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APPENDIX 1 – QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant,

I am Fatmir Hoxha and I am a student in Nigde University Turkey in the Department of Business administration and I currently writing my PHD thesis about Cultural Intelligence on Conflict Management Style.

I would really appreciate if you could help me by filling in this short questionnaire. It will take about 10-15 minutes to complete it. The questionnaire can be filled in anonymously and the responses of individuals cannot be traced back. All data gathered absolutely confidentially. In order to proceed with the research quickly it would be very helpful if you could fill in the questionnaire till the _____ of _____.

If you have any questions, please feel to contact me at hoxha_fatmir@hotmail.com.

Thank you very much in advance for your help!

Fatmir Hoxha

Cultural Intelligence Scale

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities;	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.							
2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.							
3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.							
4. I check the accuracy of my knowledge as I interact with people from different culture.							
5. I know the legal and economic system of the other culture.							
6. I know the rules of other languages.							
7. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.							
8. I know the marriage systems of the other cultures.							
9. I know the arts and crafts of the other cultures.							
10. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviours in others culture.							
11. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.							
12. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.							
13. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a cultural that is new to me.							
14. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.							
15. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.							
16. I change my verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							
17. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.							
18. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.							
19. I change my non-verbal behaviour when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							
20. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							

ROCI-II, Form B

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities, to indicate how you handle your disagreement or conflict with your subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5
1. I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us. 2. I generally try to satisfy the needs of my subordinates. 3. I attempt to avoid being put on the spot and try to keep my conflict with my subordinates to myself. 4. I try to integrate my ideas with those of my subordinates to come up with a decision jointly. 5. I try to work with my subordinates to find solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations. 6. I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my subordinates. 7. I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse. 8. I use my influence to get my ideas accepted. 9. I use my authority to make a decision in my favor. 10. I usually accommodate the wishes of my subordinates. 11. I give in to wishes of my subordinates. 12. I exchange accurate information with my subordinates to solve a problem together. 13. I usually allow concessions to my subordinates. 14. I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlock. 15. I negotiate with my subordinates so that a compromise can be reached. 16. I try to stay away from disagreement with my subordinates. 17. I avoid an encounter with my subordinates. 18. I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor. 19. I often go along with the suggestions of my subordinates. 20. I use give and take so that a compromise can be made. 21. I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue. 22. I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way. 23. I collaborate with my subordinates to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	

24. I try to satisfy the expectations of my subordinates.
25. I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.
26. I try to keep my disagreement with my subordinates to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.
27. I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my subordinates.
28. I try to work with my subordinates for a proper understanding of problem.
-

Demographic Questions

1. What is your age?

- ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 65+

2. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male ☐ Female

3. Marital Status

- ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed

4. What is your level of education?

- ☐ Graduate degree ☐ Master degree ☐ Other

5. Working experience?

- ☐ 3-5 ☐ 6-8 ☐ 9-14 ☐ 15+

Thank you very much for filling this questionnaire!

RESUME

PERSONAL INFORMATION

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2010-2014 Director of Human Resources in MCYS
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