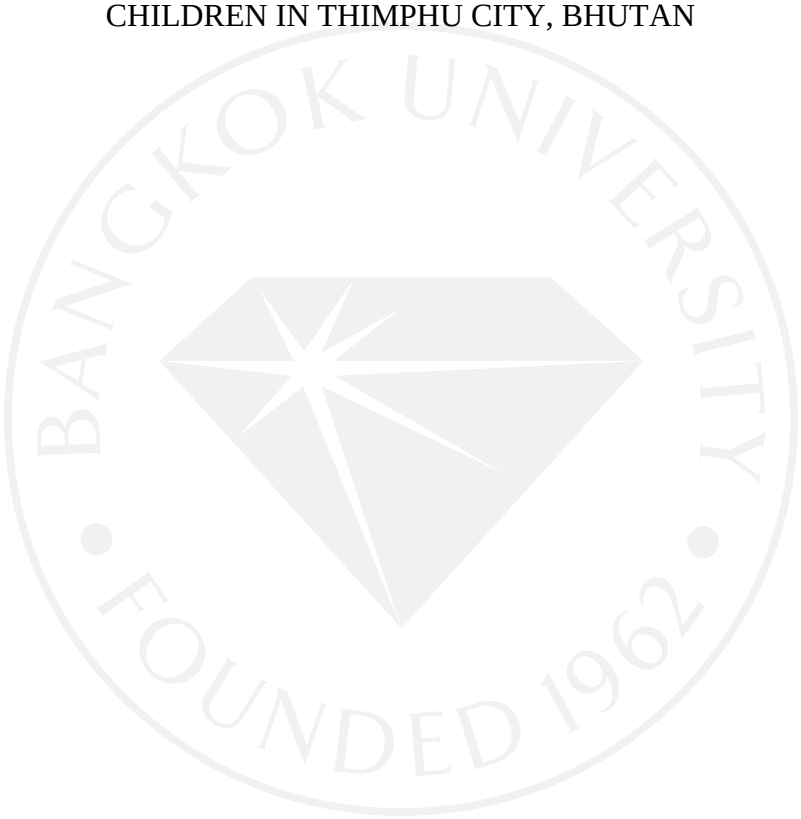
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' SELF-PERCEIVED FAMILY COMMUNICATION PATTERNS, SELF-REPORTED CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES, AND SELF-REPORTED RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION WITH THEIR CHILDREN IN THIMPHU CITY, BHUTAN



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The Relationship between Parents' Self-perceived Family Communication Patterns, Self-reported Conflict Management Styles, and Self-reported Relationship Satisfaction with their Children in Thimphu City, Bhutan (214 pp.)

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this survey research is to explore the relationships among Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and their perception of relationship satisfaction with their children. Four hundred educated parents currently living in Thimphu City, Bhutan, responded to the questionnaires. The sample was selected by using stratified sampling and convenience sampling methods. The data was tabulated and analyzed by using Chi-square, Multivariate of Analysis (MANOVA), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Multiple Regression at the significance level of .05. The findings revealed as follows: (1) The Bhutanese parents' income level difference was significantly correlated with their self-perceived family communication patterns, but were not significantly associated with gender, age, education level, occupation level, marital status, number of offspring, and family type. (2) The Bhutanese parents' gender difference, education level, and income level difference were significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles, but were not significantly associated with age, occupation level, marital status, number of offspring, and family

type. (3) The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns exhibited significantly different conflict management styles. The consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger avoiding style than the pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents, while consensual parents and protective parents exhibited stronger competing style than the pluralistic parents. The consensual parents also exhibited stronger compromising style and accommodating style than the protective parents, pluralistic parents, and laissez-faire parents, but protective parents and pluralistic parents exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than the laissez-faire parents. On the other hand, the consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited significantly stronger collaborating style than protective parents and laissez-faire parents. (4) The consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited a higher relationship satisfaction than protective parents and laissez-faire parents. (5) The Bhutanese parents who adopted collaborating style and accommodating style exhibited a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than compromising style, avoiding style, and competing style, respectively.

Keywords: Family communication patterns, Conflict management styles, Relationship satisfaction, Bhutanese parents

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research aims to examine how Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors influence their self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles. Further, the study examines the relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict styles. Finally, it examines how Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles predict their self-reported relationship satisfaction with their children. Thus, this chapter includes the following points:

1.1 Rationale and Problem Statement

Global communication has been a very important concept of discussion for many researchers as it involves exchanges of a large-scale of global information. Global communication is changing swiftly with the massive evolution of technologies. McPhail (2006, p.2) define international communication or global communication as, "the cultural, economic, political social and technical analysis of communication, media patterns and effects across and between nation-states." Global

communication has ushered numerous effects at the onset of 21st century, specifically in technological, economic, political, and culture spheres (Tehranian, 1997).The independently developed technologies are merging into a digital media and more established industries are combining with the bigger corporations to cater the new multimedia environment. The popular culture is hindering the traditional culture through massive influx of advertisements and the entertainment industries. Despite the major alteration caused in the society, Tehranian (1997, p. 39) mentioned that the, "global communication is empowering hitherto forgotten groups and voices in the international community. Its channels have thus become the arena for contestation of new economic, political, and cultural boundaries." It clearly indicates that if global communication is used effectively and cautiously, it can be the most powerful means to reach out to more people and bring a signifcant changes in the social relationship.

Global communication has become extremely significant to the different walks of life as it is only means to know and understand others and be appreciative of the differences all individuals have in terms of their values, thoughts and cultures. The global communication can be synonymous to a double-edged sword, it generates a significant interaction among different countries and helps in building a sustainable relationship with others. But, it also inundates society with the potentially harmful information which sometimes become a threat to ones own culture. Therefore, Piepenburg (2011) stated that the in the age of the globalization, there is an imperative need for the global society to understand the communication patterns of people from different cultures. The effects of global communication have not spared a tiny country, Bhutan, like all other countries in the world. The globalization is creeping into the Bhutanese lives at the fastest pace and rapidly changing the way of life of the

people in all aspects (Rapten, 2001). The society has become more open to communication and virtually connected to the outside world, but it has shown unimpressive alteration in the lives of many people in the society. Therefore, it has become a need to understand the family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction level of the Bhutanese parents with their children in the wake of ever-increasing effects of global communication on the cultural values of the people.

Bhutan is a small sovereign country in Asia situated in between north of India and south of China. It spreads over the area of 38,394 square kilometers with current population estimated at 758,766 in the twenty districts and out of which 122,389 people reside in Thimphu capital alone (National Statistics Bureau, 2015), describing it as the most densely inhabited city in Bhutan ("Is Thimphu overcrowded?", 2013). Bhutan is recognized as the last Buddhist kingdom in the world, which remained in self-imposed isolation for many years until Bhutan decided to open its door to the outside world in the 1970s with immense caution to maintain its culture and tradition safe from the face of modernization (Ramakant & Misra, 1996). The Bhutanese traditional values that are largely shaped by the Buddhist beliefs have an immense influence on the majority of Bhutanese people (Wangyal, 2001). The traditional values emphasize the need to live in a peaceful co-existence with all beings and nature (Wangyal, 2001). Apart from the traditional values, some of the basic fundamental values such as honesty, compassion, harmony, tolerance, and respect for all beings are considered significant in the Bhutanese culture (Wangyal, 2001). It is believed that the elderly Bhutanese parents used to transmit pivotal traditional values to their children through oral traditions of reading folktales, myths, and legend (Dorji, 2009).

Many folktales of Bhutan centers on the theme of preserving strong traditional values such as:

1. Sampa Zangpo (Good thoughts or intentions): One should have good thoughts and intentions towards others to accumulate good merits in life.

2. Drinlen Jelni (Repaying kindness): One should show gratitude and repay for the good deeds received from others.

3. Obedience to parents/filial piety: The parents expect their children to respect them and exhibit filial piety to all beings. Although given much importance to it, these values seem to be changing with the times.

4. Jampa dang Nyingje (Loving-kindness and compassion): One should show sympathy and wish others to be free from suffering (Dorji, 2009).

The Bhutanese people place enormous values on the relationship and relate others like a family deemed to the religious beliefs of interdependence with all living beings (Lokamitra, 2004). "The concept of ley jumdrey and tha damtshig is central to Bhutanese values. The concept of ley jumdrey essentially states that good begets good and vice versa and the idea of tha damtshig outlines the sacred commitment to others in society " (Wangyal, 2001, p.121). For instance, in a parent-child relationship, it is the parents' moral responsibility for the upbringing of their children and a filial obligation of children to look after the parents during their old age. The Bhutanese families are relatively large, extended families, and flexible when dealing with its members (Wangyal, 2001). Crins (2004) discovered the absence of gender discrimination as one of the unique traits of the Bhutanese society. Both men and women enjoy equal status and freedom in the society which otherwise is a very common sight in the rest of the world. There is hardly any particular work designed

for men and women, all members shared household chores.

Despite having strong family values, Bhutan has not escaped the tremendous effects of fast changing development like any country around the world. The rapid changes in the way of life in the societies are more or less due to the changing socioeconomic and political situation in the country (Rapten, 2001). The Bhutanese traditional values are, however, increasingly being challenged by the modern values that are detrimental to the society (Wangyal, 2001).The media influence on children have increasingly challenged the parents to establish positive attitudes and demeanor towards their children to prevent their children from developing a conduct that often lacks civility for the family values (Rinchen, 2007). The constant exposure to the internet and television has led to a deterioration of the family values such as the traditional practices of face-to-face interaction and the daily ritual of sitting together for the meals (Chua, 2008).

The work pressure and uncontrollable distractions in urban homes are other factors that have contributed to a diminution in the quality of parent-child relationship. The working parents in the urban areas leave their young children with their nannies at home and fail to provide a quality time to their children (Wangyal, 2001). In addition, youths who are traditionally dependent on their parents and relatives attempt to distance away from their parents and relatives. The strong traditional values that have beefed-up parent-child relationships in the past are slowly weakening (National youth policy, 2011). The increasing number of family conflicts, especially between parents and children have contributed to family fragmentation and social problems in the society (*"Youth concerns and social problems in Bhutan,"* 2012).

The social problems are the biggest challenge Bhutanese society is confronting today and some of the serious youth related issues are burglary, theft, and drug abuse, suicides (Chua, 2008). The pertinent grounds for such social behavior problems among youth are due to the lack of parental support and guidance, ample leisure time, abusive family, and parents who remain uninterested in their activities. Another most prominent system prevailing in urban regions is their shift of preference from nuclear family type to the traditional extended family type and such practices are ultimately loosening the strong bond existed among the family members (Wangyal, 2001). Considering the rapid changes in the family values and parent-child relationship in the Bhutanese family, this study chose to explore Bhutanese parents' communication patterns, their conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children. Chua (2008) indicated that the parents could take on a major part in enhancing effective communication within the family by providing moral support and ample time to their children.

The family communication is one of many factors that make the family relationship stronger (Cook & DeFrain, 2005). It fosters the development of the personalities and characteristics of children (Hajizadeh, Refahi, Bordbar, & Haghighi, 2012). The increase in positive family communication assists children in developing successful interpersonal and communication skills (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a), but failure to gain effective family communication and relationship skills within the household receives an untoward impression on their interpersonal relationship with others (Janeja, 2011). Open and free family communication environment enabled children to develop various communication skills (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997). Children who have a safe and healthy relationship with parents are better performer in

the school and in peer relationships (Sillars, Canary, & Tafoya, 2004). Miller-Day and Marks (2002) associated suicides cases and poor adjustment in the colleges among young adults with poor family relationships. Therefore, the type of interpersonal relationship children experience in family determines their quality of life in the society (Koerner & Kagawa, 2006).

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002a) supported the importance of family communication for the well-being and social development of all the family members. Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) stated, "Family communication is not just random but highly patterned based on particular schemes that determine how family members communicate with one another" (as cited in Littlejohn & Foss, 2008, p. 200). It is an individual knowledge of how to interact with others in the relationship (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002). The schemes include two orientations of high and low conversation and conformity. These two orientations define four types of family, such as, protective family (low conversation orientation and high conformity orientation), pluralistic family (high conversation orientation and low conformity orientation), consensual family (both high in conversation orientation and conformity orientation), and laissez-faire family (low in both conversation orientation and conformity orientation). Hence, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) stated that the families differ in their communication patterns depending on their high versus low family orientations and different family types exhibit different conflict behaviors (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997 as cited in Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002).

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002) emphasized the importance of understanding the family type of a person to determine their conflict behaviors in the family. Conflict is inescapable in the family and it could generate both positive satisfaction

and dissatisfaction among members based on how conflict is handled (Pacharaporn Iamsudha, 2001; Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). As a result, conflict plays crucial functions in the family and ineffective or inappropriate handling of conflict could be detrimental to the families and the members (Janeja, 2011). Thomas and Kilmann (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) identified two specific dimensions of high versus low assertiveness and cooperativeness to describe a person's conduct in a conflict situation. These two dimensions of behavior define five specific conflict management styles. Ting-Toomey and Oetzel (2001) discovered that the individuals exhibit different patterns of responses or clusters of behavior in a conflict situation known as styles. Thomas and Kilmann (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) discusses five conflict management styles such as (1) Avoiding style (both low in assertiveness and cooperativeness dimensions), (2) accommodating style (low in assertiveness and high in cooperativeness dimensions), (3) competing style (high in assertiveness and low in cooperativeness dimensions), (4) compromising style (intermediate in assertiveness and cooperativeness dimensions), and (5) collaborating style (both high in assertiveness and cooperativeness dimensions).

These conflict management styles are develop based on the individuals' experiences, family genetics and principle, and their personal beliefs. Janeja (2001) reported that conflict management style is one of the most important skills the individuals learn in the family. How children communicate and develop their conflict management styles within the family influences how they build a relationship with others (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Children adopt different types of conflict management styles depending on the way their parents respond to them in a conflict situation. Kobak and Duemmler (1994) reported that the open and friendly

conversations of parents enabled children to develop effective strategies to deal with conflict. Shearman and Dumlao (2008) observed that the family atmosphere facilitates members to develop their own conflict management styles through effective communication and the type of circumstances members have to endure in the family.

Noller and Fitzpatrick (1990) pointed out that the relationship satisfaction is the perceived outcome of the successful conflict communication in the family. Relational satisfaction is how an individual feel contented and confident about the relationship. The family members experienced a greater satisfaction in the relationship when their closest members communicate positively with them (Finkenauer, Engels, Branje, & Meeus, 2004). Different culture perceives relationship satisfaction differently, but people experience maximum life satisfaction when they have a satisfactory relationship (Burchfield, 2012).The social exchange theory proposed by Thibaut and Kelly (1959 as cited in Dainton & Zelly, 2005) supported that the individuals prefer a positive communication over negative communication as it builds positive relationship. The social exchange theory also assumes that the family members differ in terms of their perception of communication behaviors and their differences in values foster them to understand the reality of their family and share positive interactions (Charoenthaweesub & Hale, 2011). Therefore, differences in the characteristics of the family members have a major influence on their choices of family communication patterns and conflict management styles.

The prior studies have reported that gender differences (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004; Fitzpatrick &Vangelisti, 1995), age differences (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick (1990 as cited in Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004), and socioeconomic status (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002) influence the way the individuals communicate and handle

conflicts in the family. In addition, different communication scholars have reported significant relationship among children's preference of family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction. Shearman and Dumlao (2006) found that the young adults from consensual family used a higher integrative strategy, and accommodating style in a conflict with parents while those from the protective family preferred higher avoidance strategy. The young adults from consensual and pluralistic family preferred significantly a higher compromising style whereas the young adults from the pluralistic family type showed significantly a higher preference for a competing style. In respect to relationship satisfaction, Punyanunt-Carter (2008) reported that children of pluralistic parents or consensual parents achieved the highest level of satisfaction than children of laissez-faire or protective parents. Children also exhibited a greater degree of relationship satisfaction when they received enough love from both the parents (McHale & Grolnick, 2002). Similarly, Zhang (2007) reported that the Chinese children are more satisfied with compromising style collaborating style and accommodating style than competing style and avoiding style with their parents.

With reference to children's perception of family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction, the present study would thereby employ the Bhutanese parents as the sample to unveil their family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children. Rossler, Ting-Toomey, and Lee (2007) reported that the communication styles and behavioral patterns of the parents have tremendous effects on the development of children's social skills such as the conflict management, cooperation, and competition with others. Children express their emotions and

manage conflict according to how their parents exchange conflict interactions with them (Aquilino, 1997 as cited in Dumlao & Botta, 2000). The parents play paramount roles in changing the perception of their children by communicating positively and managing conflict effectively (Maximo, et al., 2011). As Bandura (1986) described that the parents are the role models for their children and children adopt the kind of behaviors their parents demonstrate in front of them. Children, whose parents exhibit constructive problem-solving behaviours, handle their relationship with peers and siblings more effectively than children whose parents exhibit ineffective problem-solving behaviours (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Therefore, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) suggested parents to use effective conflict management skills with others or with their children to encourage their children learn the most appropriate conflict management skills.

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) emphasized the importance of understanding cultural backgrounds of the people to understand their changing family patterns as each culture with its own value system directs individuals to appropriate behaviors of the society (Iamsudha, 2001). Different cultures have their own communication etiquette guided by their cultural values and norms that influences the way of handling conflicts and communicate (Fukushima & Tedeshi, 1999 as cited as in Hong, 2005; Huang, 2010). Koerner and Cvancara (2002) contend that the values and beliefs of the each family can have an immense effect on the ability of the family members to live in harmony with their social environment and on how they communicate outside the family. Hofstede (2011) indicated that Bhutan was a feminine, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance culture. Therefore, Bhutanese parents accustomed to its own unique cultural values will have their own individual

perception of family communication, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children. Although, this study does not study on how different cultural orientations can influence the communication patterns and conflict management styles of the parents, but due to different perception of an individual as shaped by their traditional values, family culture and their roles in the family, there must have an influence on the way the Bhutanese parents communicate, handle conflicts with their children. Thus, this research infers the Bhutanese parents will have different family communication patterns and conflict management styles and enjoy a different degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

To date, the research on family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction have remained untouched in the Bhutanese family despite "family being one of the first institutions that accompany us for longest time" (Charoenthaweesub & Hale, 2011, p. 84). The lack of literature on the Bhutanese parent-child relationship certainly adds to the limitation of this research, but the findings of this research will help in understanding Bhutanese parents' communication patterns, conflict management styles and their relationship satisfaction with their children. Hence, this becomes the primary reason for the researcher to conduct research on these topics.

Harp, Webb, and Amason (2007) suggested the inclusion of parents' perspective on their family communication patterns and conflict management styles as many researchers have identified parents' communication patterns and conflict management styles based on the perception of children. Similarly, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) suggested to research on parents' perspective of their relationship satisfaction with children as prior researchers have given immense attention to the

children and ignored parents' perspective on their relationship satisfaction with children.

The study also tries to fill the gap by exploring relationship among demographic variables of the Bhutanese parents, their self-perceived family communication patterns, and self-reported conflict management styles with their children. Even though, a handful of previous literature found an association among demographic factors with family communication patterns and conflict management styles, it was measured mostly through children's perspective of their parents. Hence, this study posits the following problem statement:

1. Do differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors affect their self-perceived family communication patterns in the Bhutanese family?

2. Do differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors affect their self-reported conflict management styles in the Bhutanese family?

3. Which primary family communication patterns were being perceived by majority of the Bhutanese parents?

4. Is there any significant relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and their self-reported conflict management styles?

5. Do parents' self perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles influence their self-reported relationship satisfaction with their children in the Bhutanese family?

1.2 Objectives of Study

1.2.1 To explore how differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors affect their self-perceived family communication patterns in the

Bhutanese family.

1.2.2 To explore how differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors influence their self-reported conflict management styles in the Bhutanese family

1.2.3 To examine the primary family communication patterns being perceived by majority of the Bhutanese parents.

1.2.4 To explore the relationship between parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and their self-reported conflict management styles.

1.2.5 To examine how parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles influence their self-reported relationships satisfaction with their children.

1.3 Scope of Study

Firstly, this study examined the relationship between demographic factors and family-related factors of the Bhutanese parents and their family communication patterns and conflict management styles. Therefore, demographic variables of parents and family related variables as an independent variable will measure the variation of Bhutanese parents self-perceived communication patterns and conflict management styles.

The Revised Family Communication Pattern (RFCP) of Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) and modified conflict management styles of Rahim and Magner (1995 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) were employed to examine the type of family communication patterns and conflict management styles perceived by the Bhutanese parents. The original scale of Rahim (ROCI-II) consisted of twenty-eight likert scale that measured integrating style, obliging style, dominating style, avoiding

style and compromising style, but Wilmot and Hocker (2001 as cited in Hong, 2005) modified scale of ROCI-II into twenty-five items that are measured by 5-point Likert scales ranging from (1 = never to 5 = always). Each of five items reflect the five conflict management styles of Thomas and Kilmann (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) such as avoiding style, competing style, compromising style, accommodating style, and collaborating style. Finally, the study used Burns and Sayers' (1988 as cited in Dumont, 2010) relationship satisfaction scale to examine Bhutanese parents' self-reported relationship satisfaction with children.

The study followed Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table to draw the sample size as it provided calculated sample size of the total population. With reference to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table, this study mandates 400 parents (mothers and fathers) of 29 years old to 50 years old or over and who have at least one child or more of age of 13-17 years old in grade 7, 8, 9, & 10 in five middle secondary schools under Thimphu city. The study examines the perception of fathers or mothers for each family considering the fact that each of them will have a different perception of their family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship with their children. The researcher assumes that this study being the pioneer study in the Bhutanese family, the parents who could write and read the English language well are determined as the samples to garner precise information about them. The stratified sampling method and convenience sampling methods were carried out in this study. Further, chapter 3 discusses the procedure of sampling methods in details. Furthermore, Thimphu city was prioritized for the survey based on the following criteria (*Violence against women*, 2007, p. 4):

1.3.1 Thimphu is the most district of Bhutan.

1.3.2 It has the largest urban agglomeration with 50% of the employees as civil servants (public servants) of the whole country.

1.3.3 The urban growth rate for Thimphu is 13% which is very high.

1.3.4 The rapid urbanization is taking place in Thimphu, Bhutan leading to high in-migration.

1.3.5 There is increase in the prevalence of violence of any kind (*Violence against women*, 2007, p. 4).

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 Do differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors affect their self-perceived family communication patterns in the Bhutanese family?

1.4.2 Do differences in parents' demographic factors and family-related factors affect their self-reported conflict management styles in the Bhutanese family?

1.4.3 Which primary family communication patterns were being perceived by majority of the Bhutanese parents?

1.4.4 Is there any significant relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and their self-reported conflict management styles?

1.4.5 Do parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles influence their self-reported relationship satisfaction with their children in Bhutanese family?

1.5 Significance of the Study

1.5.1 The findings of the study will serve as a guide to the parents to use appropriate conflict management styles and family communication patterns with their

children so to have satisfied relationship with their children. The previous literature have shown that the kind of conflict styles and communication patterns children experienced at home will have an impact on their relationship with others in the future. Therefore, identifying the right type of conflict management styles and communication patterns will enable parents to develop healthy relationships with their children and others. Most importantly, the findings of the study will provide a practical understanding of conflict management styles, family communication patterns, and their relationship satisfaction of the Bhutanese parents.

1.5.2 This study aims to serve as a reference and guidelines for the schools and the teachers to communicate and manage conflict effectively with the students of different of family culture. The schools and teachers may educate parents on adopting effective family communication patterns and conflict management styles with their children, especially during parent-teacher meetings. It would also be beneficial to the researcher being a teacher to give firsthand knowledge on family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction to the parents.

1.5.3 The government would be able to identify the types of family that exist in Bhutanese family. Few studies that are available about families in Bhutan are limited to only extended and nuclear types of family. Hence, this study will shed some lights to government, and to some non-government organizations (NGOs) in Bhutan to work constantly in enhancing the lives of many unfortunate families of Bhutan. The findings may serve as a guide especially when it comes to implementing policies aiming to improving the parent-child relationship.

1.5.4 The lack of research on family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction in the Bhutanese context had been

the greatest limitation for the present study. Therefore, this aims to serve as the reference for future researchers who would be interested in exploring more on the family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 Parents demographic factors are the characteristics of parents based on the factors such as gender, age, income level, level of education, marital status, and occupations. Gender is the characteristics relating to sex of a person and age is the length of a time of a person from his/her birth to date. Income level is the degree of payment a person receives for his services. Education level is the degree of a formal instructions/learning a person received from the school or the university. Marital status is the state of a person in the relation to his or her married life, whether s/he is married, unmarried, divorce, and divorcee, etc. Occupation level is the degree to which a person earns a living by providing his service or a person who holds a certain position in his/her work place (Le, 2006).

1.6.2 Family-related factors in the study include the number of offspring (the sum of children in the family) and family type. The widely known family types are: (1) extended family refers to a social institution composed of father and mother, children, grand parents, and relatives who live together under one roof, and (2) nuclear family refers to a social institution composed of two parents and children (Le, 2006).

1.6.3 Self-Perceived family communication patterns describe the shared patterns of communications developed within the Bhutanese family according to the fathers and mother's perception of their family interaction. Chaffee and colleagues

originally conceptualized family communication patterns with two dimensions of socio-orientation and concept-orientation (Zhang, 2007). Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) later revised these two dimensions and relabeled socio-orientation to conformity orientation and concept orientation to conversation orientation (Zhang, 2007). The patterns of communication established within the family are classified according to the level of two orientations: (1) Conversation orientation family provides an environment for each member to involve in free communication on any of the topics (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). (2) Conformity orientation refers to the degree to which family members need to comply with the rules of family and are restricted to open interaction. Conformity oriented families place importance on the harmony in the family and expect obedience from children (Zhang, Hardwood & Hummert, 2005). Along these dimensions, Fitzpatrick and Ritchie (1994) created a typology of four types of family according to the high versus low scores on the two orientations: conformity and the conversation orientations (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Family communication patterns were classified into four types:

1.6 3.1 Consensual family refers to the type of family, which is high in both conversation and conformity orientation. The parents hold the power to make most of the family decision even though parents encourage free expression of ideas among members (Fitzpatrick & Koerner, 2005).

1.6.3.2 Protective family refers to the type of family, which is low in conversation but high in conformity orientation. In the protective families, the parents expect obedience from the children and discourage open interactions to avoid conflicts in the family (Fitzpatrick & Koerner, 2005).

1.6.3.3 Pluralistic family refers to the type of family, which is high in

conversation and low in conformity orientation. Pluralistic family encourages open interaction and provides emotional support to the family members (Fitzpatrick & Koerner, 2005). The parents share a great deal of unrestrained conversation with their children. The communication in pluralistic families is characterized as open and free discussion on varied topics (Zhang, 2007).

1.6.3.4 Laissez-faire family refers to the type of family, which is low in both conversation and conformity orientation. The parents in this family type neither involve in a decision-making nor take interest in conversation with their children. Thus, the outsiders easily influenced children (Fitzpatrick & Koerner, 2005).

1.6.4 Self-reported conflict management styles describe the behavioral responses of the Bhutanese parents in a conflict with their children according to the fathers and mother's perception of their conflict behaviours. According to Ting-Toomey and Oetzel (2001), the individuals display a similar conflict management styles in many conflict situations. The two dimensions that shape the conflict management styles are: (1) Assertiveness dimension and (2) Cooperativeness dimension. Assertiveness dimension concerns self-interest over other. A person attempts to satisfy his or her needs at the cost of others. Cooperativeness dimension concerns on others than self-interest. A person attempts to satisfy other person's needs than the self. Along with two dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness, Thomas and Kilmann (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) classified five conflict management styles such as:

1.6.4.1 Avoiding style is an approach to conflict where an individual withdraws or ignores conflict. It is both low in assertiveness and cooperativeness. The individuals who employ avoiding style show low concerns for themselves and others.

The individuals neither help others to attain their goals nor pursue their goals.

1.6 4.2 Competing style is an approach to conflict where an individual competes in a conflict situation with others and assert their viewpoints. It is high in assertiveness and low in cooperativeness. The individuals who employ competing style show least concern of conflict outcomes may affect others and pursue self-goal without seeking consent from others.

1.6.4.3 Compromising style is an approach to conflict where an individual sacrifices some of their demands to gain something from others. It is intermediate in assertiveness and cooperativeness. The individual who employs compromising style has concern for oneself and for others.

1.6.4.4 Accommodating style is an approach to conflict where an individual concedes with others and cooperates with others' views. It is high in cooperativeness and low in assertiveness. The individuals who employ accommodating style usually have high concerns for others and low concerns for oneself to preserve relationship.

1.6.4.5 Collaborating style is an approach to conflict where an individual seeks solution to achieve goals of both partners without having to make sacrifices. It is both high in assertiveness and cooperativeness. The individuals who employ collaborating style work together with others to achieve mutual goals.

1.6.5 The people of Bhutan are referred to as Bhutanese and the Bhutanese families are generally characterized as large, interdependent extended families (Wangyal, 2001). The family relationships is considered as an integral part of the Bhutanese family and members support both in good and bad times and especially during the worst crisis such as illness and death. The Bhutanese parents are also

authoritarian sometimes to their children and expect children to obey their parents (Leaming, 2004). Nonetheless, the Bhutanese family shares a very strong family bond within and with the members of extended families and communities (Dorji &Kinga, 2005).

1.6.6 Self-reported relationship satisfaction describes the degree of contentment and gratification the Bhutanese parents feel in their relationship with their children according to the fathers and mother's perception of their level of satisfaction in the relationship. Burns and Sayers' (1988) seven-item scales assess the degree of relationship satisfaction from the factors such as communication and openness, conflict resolution, degree of caring and affection, intimacy and closeness and satisfaction with roles in the relationship measure relationship satisfaction.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research examines the relationship of demographic factors and family-related factors, family communication patterns and conflict management styles. Additionally, this study investigates the relationship between parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles. Finally, this study examines the influence of parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles on relationship satisfaction with children. The summary of the chapter is listed in sequential order:

2.1 Related Theories and Synthesis of Past Studies

2.1.1 The Revised Family Communication Patterns Theory

2.1.1.1 The Two Orientations of the Revised Family Communication Patterns

2.1.1.2 Types of Family Communication Patterns

2.1.1.3 Past Studies Examining the Relationship of the Parents' Demographic Factors and their Family-Related Characteristics of their Family Communication Patterns

2.1.2 Conflict Management Styles, Conflict Model, and the Types of Conflict Management Styles

2.1.2.1 Past Studies Examining the Influence of the Parents' Demographic Factors and their Family-Related Characteristics of their Conflict Management Styles

2.1.2.2 Past Studies Examining the Relationships between Family

2.1 Related Theories and Synthesis of Past Studies

2.1.1 The Revised Family Communication Patterns Theory

The revised family communication pattern provides a deeper understanding of the existence of the communication patterns of the family (Punyanunt-Carter, 2008). Family communication patterns are "a set of norms governing the tradeoff between informational and relational objectives of communication" (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990, p. 524). The family communication patterns have two orientations originally propounded by McLeod, Atkin, Chaffee, and Stone in the early 1970s (as cited in Zhang, 2007). The two orientations were termed as socio-orientation and concept-orientation. The socio-oriented family encourages members to have harmonious interaction and avoid conflict in the family. The concept-oriented family support free expression of varied issues and encourages positive debates among the members (Zhang, 2007). Originally, these two orientations were developed to examine how

family communication influences children's use of media and interpretation of media messages (Fowler, 2007). Later, Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) revised and relabeled socio-orientation and concept orientation to conformity orientation and conversation orientation to explain how communication in the family of origin affects the lives and relationships of adolescents and young adults. Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) argued that socio-orientation and concept-orientation instrument reviewed family communication patterns solely from the parents' perception and left out to include children's perspective, hence, the revised instrument measures both parents and children's perspective of their family communication patterns.

2.1.1.1 Two Orientations of the Revised Family Communication Pattern

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) considered the two newest dimensions of conformity orientation and conversation orientation as the prime factors that would help individuals to build a sound family relationship.

1. Conversation Orientation: It refers to the degree to which family communication emphasizes on to provide a friendly environment to its members and encourage them to express their opinions (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004). Families aim to maintain harmony and happiness through frequent exchanges of individual ideas and views (Rossler, et al., 2007). There are high and low conversation orientations that identify the type of communication in a family. The high conversation-orientated families provide an environment for open discussions on varied issues and consider the opinion of the members. On the contrary, low conversation-orientated families do not value openness and free exchange of personal ideas and family members discuss only a few topics that they are comfortable with and spent less time with each other (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002).

2. Conformity Orientation: It refers to the degree to which family communication emphasizes obedience to parental authority (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004, 2006). The conformity-orientated families emphasize on the importance of family beliefs, values and attitude with family members (Hajizadeh, et al., 2012). Families emphasize family members to conform to the harmony, beliefs, obedience, and attitude as the core values. Families consider conflict as a threat and children need to comply with the decision of their parents in the conflict (Segrin & Flora, 2005). There are high and low conformity orientations that identify the type of communication in a family. The high conformity-orientated families emphasize on harmonious relationships with all members. Families are hierarchically organized and members have to make adjustment with their family time, which sometimes they have to sacrifice their personal interest in the interest of the family. Families avoid conflict as they interpret it as a threat to the family system (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002). The low conformity-oriented families promote freedom of speech and allow members to express their opinions without hesitation. The parents in such families do not expect their children to comply with their decision (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Shearman and Dumlao (2006) supported that families high on conformity orientation, expected their children to follow the shared family values and beliefs and families low on conformity orientation believe in the independence of family members.

The principles of two orientations may contradict each other, but families could be high versus low in conversation-orientation and conformity orientation (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994; McLeod & Chaffe, 1972 as cited in Fitzpatrick, 2004). The conformity orientation and conversation orientation theoretically define four types of family (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994) as discussed in the next section.

2.1.1.2 Types of Family Communication Patterns

The previous study by McLeod and Chaffee (1972 as cited in Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990) classified four types of families based on socio-oriented and concept-oriented dimensions. The communication environment varies from families according to their "norms of control and supportive messages" (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990, p. 525). The family theorists have argued that one cannot study family communication patterns without investigating both the effects of the conversation orientation and conformity orientation (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Thus, depending on high versus low scores on conformity orientation and conversation orientation, four types of family is classified as consensual family, pluralistic family, protective family, and laissez-faire family (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990). Huang (2010) illustrated the revised model of the fourfold typology of family communication patterns developed by Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990)

Conformity orientation High	Protective family (High in conformity and low in conversation)	Consensual family (Both high in conformity and conversation)
Low	Laissez-faire family (Both low in conformity and conversation)	Pluralistic family (Low in conformity and high in conversation)
	Low — Conversation orientation — High	

Figure1: Model of Family Communication Patterns

Source: Huang, Y. (2010). Family communication patterns, communication apprehension, and socio-communicative orientative orientation: A study of Chinese students. *Electronic Thesis or Dissertation*, 49, (University of Akron No.1279326521).

The principles of each family type are discussed below:

1. Consensual family: Consensual family is high in both conversation and conformity orientation. The consensual family emphasize win-win situation in a relationship and place high regard for an individual expression of ideas, but at the same time exhibit high concern for relationship in a family (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2005). Given the combination of both conversation orientation and conformity orientation, consensual parents provide their children a right to exercise their independent ideas on a wide range of topics, but they expect compliance from their children. Consensual parents are most likely to be the head of families (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994; Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004) and they value their own autonomy (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004).

2. Protective family: Protective family is low in conversation orientation and high in conformity orientation. The family members need to conform to parental decision and children are restricted to open disagreement with their parents to maintain harmony in the family (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004). Protective parents neglect communication and consider unimportant to discuss any issue with their children and due to limited involvement in the family discussion, children find difficulty in managing conflict later in their life as they distrust their own potential for making decisions (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2005). Protective parents often discourage children from discussing the family matters (Fitzpatrick, 2004; Koerner & Fitzpatrick,

2006), and make most of the family decisions (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002).Children have to sacrifice their interest to comply with their parent's decision. Children perceive family communication as the rules and learn to undervalue interaction with family members. Hence, due to lack of communication practices within the family, others persuade children and when conflict threatens harmony of the family, they easily resort to avoidance style (Fitzpatrick, 2004).

3. Pluralistic family*:* Pluralistic family is high in conversation and low in conformity orientation. The family promotes open communication to help members express their individual ideas (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994). Pluralistic parents support development of independent ideas by letting their children to express diverse views and opinions (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994; Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006). Pluralistic parents encourage their children to justify their rights and win conflict without the slightest fear of punishment and interference from them. Therefore, children engage in unrestrained conversation to achieve the desired outcome and parents do not restrict children from participating in a family decision-making (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004).

4. Laissez-faire family*:* Laissez-faire family is both low in conversation orientation and conformity orientation. The family members lack intimacy or closeness for each other (Harp, et al., 2007). Laissez-faire parents do not interact and promote active interaction with their children (Fitzpatrick, 2004). Therefore, members lack emotional support for one another and express less aggression in conflict situation (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 1997). Children are highly influenced by their social environment, as they mostly remain unsupervised and emotionally disconnected to one another (Rossler, et al., 2007). As the term "laissez-faire" implies, the children

challenge others views of little or no contribution from their parents and family. Children in this family lack experience of handling conflicts (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004). Due to lack of proper guidance and support of parents, children seek help from the external sources to manage conflict (Rossler, et al., 2007).

2.1.1.3 Past Studies Examining the Influence of the Parents' Demographic Factors and their Family-Related Characteristics of their Family Communication Patterns

Chan and McNeal (2003) stated that there are differences in the communication patterns in different demographic groups and different dyad relationships. Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) supported that members do not share everything with one another and, hence members may have different perception of their family orientations and communication behavior. The individual differences make members perceive differently about one another.

Noller and Fitzpatrick (1993 as cited in Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a) and Sheldon (2013) found that daughters perceive their mothers as high conversation-oriented, but high conformity-oriented by their sons. The mothers were found communicating genuinely with all family members regardless of high or low family conversation orientation, but only those fathers from high conversation-oriented families communicated with the members (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004). Similarly, the study by Fitzpatrick and Vangelisti (1995) reported that daughters perceived their fathers as less communicative and authoritative and mothers more open to communication. Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) found differences in mothers and son perception of their family orientation. Since mothers communicated with all members in the family, they perceived their families as conversation-oriented, whereas sons

perceived their families as conformity orientated as they sought independence from the families. Although, Miller-Day and Marks (2006) argued that each parent might communicate differently with their offspring to create a unique dyadic communication environment, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) discovered that children who expressed their opinion freely were the ones who shared close relationships with their parents and had a greater conversation orientation than children who rarely had a conversation with their parents.

The study by Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) compared parents' conversation orientation and conformity orientation with their children in grades 7, 9, and 11. The children in 7th grade and their mothers shared a similar perception of their family as conversation orientation, whereas, the children in 11th grade had a similar perception with their fathers. However, when it came to the conformity orientation, the younger children shared a similar perception with their fathers, and older children with their mothers. The study did not explicate the reason for the changes in children's perception of their parents' family orientation, but it certainly indicated that age differences affect individuals' perception of family orientations. The study by Lambert and McCain (1990) found no significant relationship between age and family communication patterns, but Chaffee et al. (1971 as cited in Lambert, 1990) discovered that the use of socio-orientation (conformity orientation) among young children decreased with age and use of concept-orientation (conversation orientation) increased with age.

The family communication patterns also differed according to their socioeconomic status in the society (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). Phoprayun (2013) confirmed the significant correlation between demographic characteristics and family

background of female students in Bangkok metropolitan, such as personal income, education of mother, occupation of father and mother, and family income with their family communication patterns. Additionally, Noller and Callan (1991 as cited in Chan & McNeal, 2003) found that the families with a higher education level have a higher preference for pluralistic family and consensual family and the families with a higher income level and educational level had a higher preference for pluralistic family and consensual family for parents in these family types discuss varied topics and encourage freedom of expression to their children (Chan & McNeal, 2003).Chan and McNeal (2003) reported the parents with a higher education level and higher household income were mostly concept-oriented families (Conversation oriented) and the parents from a lower social economic status families were likely to be conformity-orientated (Ritchie,1997 as cited in Miller-Day & McManus, 2009).

Interestingly, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2012) reported that the parents in structurally intact family enjoyed a greater emotional support from their partners when they were stressed related to their children. The emotional support each partner received from one another helped them to build a strong relationship with their children. Conversely, the parents from in non-intact family lacked emotional support from their partners and hence had to depend on the support of their children. The parents in such families ultimately felt impotency in their relationship with their children. Similarly, children who belonged to non-intact family experience more negative outcomes than those children who belonged to intact families (Wise, 2003). Such children from non-intact families faced difficulty in adjusting to the family rules, especially where there were a frequent inter-parental conflicts and poor parenting style (Lewis & Johnson-Reitz, 2004).

Although, aforementioned literature have revealed that the individuals characteristics does make difference in their choice of family communication patterns, but there still lacks enough literature on how demographic factors and family related factors influence four types of family communication patterns. Therefore, it would be significant to explore more on the demographic factors and family related factors of the Bhutanese parents to find abundant information of their family types.

2.1.2 Conflict Management Styles, Conflict Model, and the Types of Conflict Management Styles

Conflict had been the subject of interest to many researchers and they consistently asserted that conflict behaviors are the learned patterns that begin at an early age and it might carry into their later life (Dumlao & Botta, 2000). Wilmot and Hocker (2011) stated that conflict is unavoidable, which occurs in all kinds of situations and is bound to encounter in all the interactions. Therefore, it is necessary to study the conflict management behaviors of people. Owing to the possibility of the negative responses and violent behaviors during the interpersonal conflict, the communication researchers have given more importance of conflict processes (Dumlao & Botta, 2000). Rahim (1986 as cited in Hong, 2005) argued that it is uncommon to see a society without conflict and, therefore, conflict management skills are vital to maintain all relationships.

Wilmot and Hocker (2011) defined conflict as an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources, and interference from others in achieving their goals. Wilmot and Hocker (2011, p. 144) defines conflict style as, “The pattern of responses, or clusters of behavior, that people use in conflict is known as styles.” Wilmot and Hocker (2011) described these

conflict management styles as a behavioral response that the individuals employ in a conflict situation. Several taxonomies classified conflict management styles in many ways; Two styles (Duetsch, 1949; Tjosvold, 1990), Three styles (Putnam & Wilson 1882), Four styles (Gilmore & Fraleigh, 1992; Pruit, 1983b; Robert 1982; Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982), Five styles (Kilmann and Thomas, 1975; Rahim 1983; Rahim & Magner 1995; Thomas, 1976 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011, p. 145). Although there are different types of interpersonal conflict management styles developed by different communication scholars, they convey the same meaning. For instance, Rahim and Magner (1995) labeled integrating for collaborating style, yielding or obliging for accommodating style, dominating for competing style (Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). Kilmann and Thomas (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) develop one of the acclaimed models of conflict management styles. Thomas and Kilman's (1974) original model of conflict management styles has been slightly modified to fit Rahim and Magner's (1995) questionnaire that measured five conflict management styles (as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011). Wilmot and Hocker (2001) classified conflict management styles into five styles including avoiding style, competing style, compromising style , accommodating style, and collaborating style. This study includes conflict management styles of Kilmann and Thomas adapted by Wilmot and Hocker (2011). Kilmann and Thomas (1975 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011) categorized conflict management styles along the two dimensions of the behaviors of the person: (1) Assertiveness refers to a degree of concern a person has for oneself than for the other party; (2) Cooperativeness refers to the degree of concern a person has for others than for self.

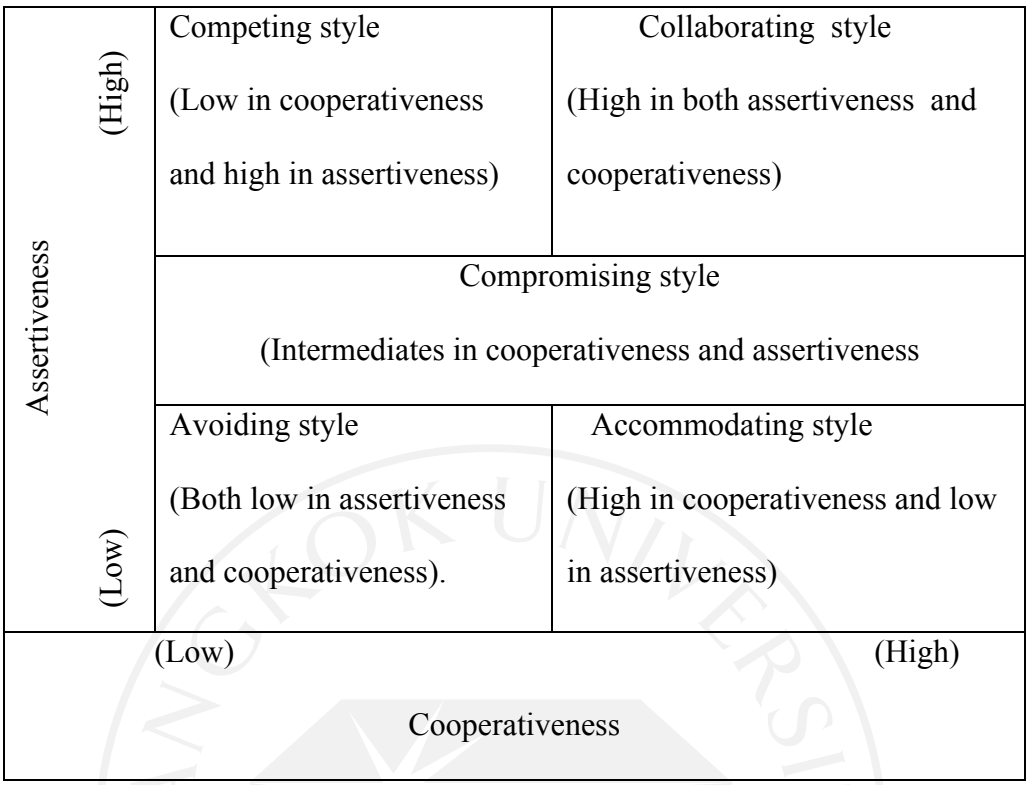

Figure 2: Model of Conflict Management Styles

Source: Wilmot, W., & Hocker, J. L. (2011). *Interpersonal conflict* (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

The two dimensions of assertiveness and cooperativeness describe conflict behaviours of the individuals in a conflict situation (Kilmann & Thomas, 1975, as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011).

Avoiding style is both low on assertiveness and cooperativeness. Avoiding style represents a low concern for self and others. The avoiding style provides sufficient time for the individuals to think of alternative responses to the conflict. The individuals avoid conflict by diverting topics and are reluctant to discuss problems to protect the relationship. Thus, conflict prolongs and unresolved conflicts build the

negative impression for one another. Since conflict remains unresolved in the first place, it sets the stage for a future conflict.

Competing style is high on assertiveness and low on cooperativeness. The individuals have high regard for oneself and very low regard for others with least concern of how the conflict outcome will affect the others. A competing style serves a useful function for people who value competition as the foremost strength and natural behavior to stand by one's opinion and argue with other parties. The individuals who employ competing style safeguard their opinion from suppression.

Compromising style is intermediate in both assertiveness and cooperativeness. This style shows "moderate concern for self-interests and a moderate concern for other interests" (Rossler, et al., 2007, p. 13). The individuals use compromising style in conflict situations as a temporary solution to reach an agreement (Barbato, Graham, & Perse, 2003). The individuals who use compromising try to find solutions that satisfy both of the parties (Dumlao & Botta, 2000). The individuals give up something to achieve mutual benefits and to generate healthy family relationship (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006).

Accommodating style is low on assertiveness and high on cooperativeness. The individuals have a low concern for oneself and high concern for others. The individuals usually give up their opinions to discontinue conflict with others. The individuals who employ accommodating style try to minimize probable loss for any of the parties in a conflict situation and prevent harming each other. The main priority of individuals who use accommodation style in conflict situations is to maintain the harmony and relationship between the parties. Therefore, accommodating style is the relation-oriented approach for dealing with the conflict.

Collaborating style is both high on assertiveness and cooperativeness. It is a win-win situation where the individuals focus on one's goal and other's goal at the same time to maintain a relationship. This style mainly concerns on the relational goals and the content goals that builds good teamwork towards productive conflict management. Collaborating style limits individuals of trying to exercise other styles in conflict situation as individuals show high concern for oneself and others.

Oetzel and Ting-Toomy (2001) clearly mentioned that, albeit the different names coined for conflict management styles by different communication scholars, and have varied conflict management styles ranging from the two-ways to five-ways approach, all terminology describe similar ideas and principles. Thus, Oetzel and Ting-Toomy (2001) asserted that having sound knowledge of the different conflict management styles would help the individuals to manage any problems emerging in the family. The description of five conflict management styles purely indicates that collaborative style is a better solution to both parties than other conflict management styles. Thomas (1977 as cited in Vokiý & Sontor, 2010) suggested collaborating style as one effective style among five conflict management styles that brings higher quality solutions. However, it depends on the choice of individual's behaviors and characteristics toward conflict.

2.1.2.1 Past Studies Examining the Influence of the Parents' Demographic Factors and their Family-Related Characteristics of their Conflict Management Styles

Martin and Nakayama (2013) asserted that the conflict management styles most people used were mainly the skills they have acquired while growing up in their family. The supportive behavior and conflict management styles of the family reflected clearly in ones communication patterns. However, children did not imitate

the conflict management styles of their parents who rarely discussed conflict in the family (Martin & Nakayama, 2013). These children instead learnt to avoid conflict and often faced difficulties to manage conflict with the people who express conflict openly (Cai & Fink, 2002). Therefore, the type of conflict and the relationship a person shares with the other person determines the effectiveness and success of conflict management within the family (Cai & Fink, 2002). Friedman, Tidd, Currall, and Tsai (2000) mentioned that an individual's preference for the use of conflict management styles vary from each individual to the other according to what they perceive to be the better style to others.

Paikoff and Brooks-Gunn (1991) found that the adolescent boys showed an assertive behavior to their mothers than to their fathers. The mothers showed less dominating trait in controlling their children's behaviors. Furthermore, Pickhardt (2010) found that the mothers and fathers approached conflict differently with their adolescent children. The mothers exhibited more tolerance to the conflict than the fathers who avoided it. The mothers employed collaborative approach to find collaborative solution. Fathers, in turn employed competitive approach to assert their power and control over children. Similarly, Canary, Cupach and Messman (1995 as cited in Janeja, 2011) pointed out that fathers were more assertive with their adolescent sons and mothers were less dominant to their son, due to which mothers experienced more conflict with their adolescent children than the fathers.

Gbadamosi, Baghestan and Al-Mabrouk (2014) discovered interesting differences in the use of conflict management styles among postgraduate university students in Malaysia. The men did not show significant differences in accommodating style and collaborating style, but the women used more competing style and less

avoiding style and compromising style than the men. Vokiý and Sontor (2010 found out that female used a higher accommodating style and compromising style than did their male counterparts.

Perveen, Usman and Aftab (2013) observed that the age gap between parents and children caused more problems in the family and created distance in their relationship. The aggressive parents exhibited less tolerance to their children who committed mistakes and children refused to comply with their authoritative parents. The study by Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) confirmed that the younger children had more conflicts with their fathers than their mothers, whereas the older children faced more conflict with their mothers. Interestingly enough, Gelles (1993) and Harris (1996 as cited in Daviso, 1997) pointed out that younger individuals had a greater chance of having violence in a conflict situation, but less violence among older individuals especially those who were under thirty years old are more (Warner, 1981 as cited in Daviso,1997). In addition, Gbadamosi, Baghestan, and Al-Mabrouk (2014) found that the older post graduate students used more avoiding style than the younger students who used more competing style, accommodating style and compromising style.

The previous literature has also provided evidences that education level of the individuals influence their choice of conflict management styles. Kurdek (1991 as cited in Daviso, 1997) pointed out that the individuals with a lower education level lacked conflict management skills compared to those with higher education and Warner (1981 as cited in Daviso, 1997) confirmed that individuals with lower education, income, and occupation level created more violence in their family. Zhang, et al. (2005) explored inter-generational differences in the choice of the conflict styles

between young and old generations of a Chinese family. The individuals with a higher educational level had a higher preference for competing styles.

Furthermore, Harp, et al. (2007) studied the influence of young adults' communicative behavior during conflicts with their romantic partners and parents. They employed one-child versus those with siblings and single parent versus two-parent households. The *T*-test scores indicated that the only child in the family employed avoiding style with both fathers and mothers than younger adults with many siblings. In addition, young adults from two-parent households used collaborating style and compromising style with their fathers than the young adults from single-parent households. However, their study did not discuss the parent's preferences of conflict management styles in these two varied demographic factors. Vokiý and Sontor's (2010) study indicated that the people who had children were likely to use stronger avoiding style and accommodating style than those married people who do not have children.

Even though many family members manage incessantly the tensions existed in between parents and children, but one of the reasons Sherman and Dumlao (2008) accounted to family conflict was the change in the family structure, when the number of members increased, and when children sought independence from the family members concerning their roles and relationships (Noller, Atkin, Feeney, & Peterson, 2006). Likewise, Connelly and Straus (1992 as cited in Daviso, 1997) found that with more children in the family came with a greater pressure and demands that brought more violence during conflict situation. Therefore, the changes in parent-child interactions and increase in conflicts between parents were some of the reasons why adolescents sought more attentions from their peers than their family (Sherman &

Dumlao, 2008).

Despite abundant literature on the conflict management styles, there lacks enough evidence that support influence of demographic factors and family related factors of the parents on conflict management styles. Therefore, this study employs Bhutanese parents to explore more on the influence of demographic variables on conflict management styles.

2.1.2.2 Past Studies Examining the Relationships between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

Family communication patterns and its orientations have shown a direct impact in the parent-child conflicts. The parent-child communication that involved open expression and supportive behaviour had a positive influence on the conflict styles of the child (Rueter & Koerner, 2008). Children imitated the conflict management styles of their parents and used it with other siblings (Oetzel &Ting-Toomey, 2003). Therefore, the communication scholars had given the immense attentions to children's perspective of family communication patterns and conflict management styles and they had discovered a good association between conflict management styles and family communication patterns.

Koerner and Fitzpatrick (1997) observed that high conformity orientation families were more likely to practice conflict avoidance while those high in conversation orientation were less likely to practice avoidance. Shearman and Dumlao (2008) supported that the families high in conformity orientation such as consensual family and protective family showed a higher preference for avoiding style than pluralistic family and laissez-faire family. The consensual families and pluralistic family significantly exhibited a higher obliging (accommodating style) than protective

family and laissez-faire family. Koerner and Cvancara (2002) found that young adults in a conversation orientation families managed conflicts by adopting integrating and compromising strategies with their parents.

Dumlao (1997) found that the young adults from different family types reported different conflict management styles. The young adults of pluralistic families practiced higher level of collaborating style and confronting style with their fathers, while the young adults from consensual families used more compromising style. The young adults of the laissez-faire families practiced confronting style, while the young adults from the protective families used both avoiding style and accommodating style. Shearman and Dumlao (2006) found the similar findings in their study. The young adults from the consensual family used higher integrative strategy, and accommodating style in a conflict with parents while those from the protective family preferred a higher avoidance strategy. The young adults from the pluralistic family type also showed significantly a higher preference to competing strategy, collaborating style than protective family. The young adults from consensual family and pluralistic family preferred a higher compromising style than the young adults did from protective family and laissez-faire family. Therefore, Rossler, Ting-Toomey, and Lee (2007) concluded that the individuals in the consensual family were likely to use a compromising style to work on for the mutual benefits.

In parallel, Janeja (2011) found interesting preferences of conflict management styles of the young adult children, according to the family types of their parents. The young adults with pluralistic and consensual fathers used more collaborating style, accommodating style, and compromising style than those adult children of protective fathers and laissez-faire fathers. The young adults of consensual

fathers employed a higher avoiding style compared to the young adults of pluralistic fathers. The young adult children of protective mothers used more avoiding style compared to those young adults of laissez-faire mothers, consensual mothers, and pluralistic mothers. The young adults of protective fathers used more avoiding style and accommodating style whereas the young adults of laissez-faire fathers used avoiding style but lower than others.

Zhang (2007) found differences in the preference of conflict management styles and four family types of family communication patterns among Chinese children. The Chinese children from consensual family used accommodating style and children from the pluralistic family used more avoiding style. Children from consensual family and protective family used more competing style. Children from pluralistic family and consensual family also used more collaborating style and compromising style. Rossler, Ting-Toomey, and Lee (2007) supported the possibility of having a positive association between consensual families and collaborating style as both focus on win-win situation in conflict.

According to Dumlao and Botta (2000), the young adults of pluralistic father used collaborating style with their fathers, while those young adults of protective father used more avoiding style and accommodating style with their fathers. The young adults of protective father used a higher accommodating style and avoiding style. The young adults of consensual father used a higher collaborating style, but a lower accommodating style. Their findings also indicated the young adults from laissez-faire family did not use accommodating style, collaborating style, and competing style (Dumlao & Botta, 2000), but they were likely to use avoiding style (Zhang, 2007). Dumlao and Botta (2000) also pointed out that the young adults from

laissez-faire families employed different types of conflict management styles with their fathers based on how other influenced them in the particular situation. In addition, the lack of cohesiveness within laissez-faire family encouraged children to sought advice from others apart from their family members (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1997). Dumlao and Botta (2000) examined the relationships of father-child communication patterns with the children's conflict management styles. They found out that protective fathers adopted accommodating style and the pluralist fathers employed avoiding styles and collaborating style. Thus, Fowler (2007) supported that parental communication has an immense impact on the children. Due to less communication with family members in the family, the children from laissez-faire are problematic in nature. The findings suggested that appropriate use of communication patterns and conflict management styles in the family could be useful instrument to develop a healthy and harmonious relationship among members and manage conflict in a meaningful way (Pacharaporn Iamsudha, 2001).

2.1.2.3 Past Studies Examining the Implication of Family Communication Patterns on Relationship Satisfaction

Burns and Sayers (1988 as cited in Dumont, 2010) defined relationship satisfaction as the degree of closeness or the quality of relationship of the partner dyad, specifically the amount of happiness or contentment one have in the relationships. Han (2011) carried out the study on parental involvement and its effects on satisfaction with parent-child relationships. The findings revealed that when fathers engaged more time in expressing and mentoring their children, they achieved a higher level of satisfaction. Children reported more satisfaction with their fathers and mothers when both parents were involved with their emotions and were open to

expression. In addition, Barney (2012) found that children of divorce parents experienced a higher relationship satisfaction when their parents spent quality time with them. Hence, the study by Dixson (1991 as cited in Perry-Jenkins, Pierce, & Goldberg, 2004) posited that the quality of communication is more important than the measure of communication to derive relationship satisfaction in the parent-child relationships. The study revealed that having positive interaction created positive images in parent-child relationships and daily positive interaction between parents and children helped in developing self-esteem of children. Therefore, parents are the most potent figures of children as they depend on them throughout their life or until they reach 18 years or more in other cultures. Parents' love towards their children has a great impact on children's life. Life experiences and relationships adult children share within the family influence their relationship satisfaction with others. Even though children spent most of their time with their peers, the quality of relationship parents demonstrates to their children have a greater influence on their relationship satisfaction (Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990).

Janeja (2011) regarded that the effective communication is utmost important to have satisfying relationships. Individuals who are satisfied with their relationship share positive interactions with their partners and express positive emotions for one another. Koerner (2007); Sillars, Canary and Tafoya (2004) found that the families which practiced free and supportive communication experienced a higher relationship satisfaction than those families who restrict communication in a relationship. Lin, Rancer, and Kong (2007) reported that the members from conversation-oriented families were more satisfied in the relationships than those members who exchanged negative communication such as arguing or fighting in the relationships. Similarly,

Zhang (2007) investigated family communication patterns of the Chinese parent-child relationship satisfaction. The findings indicated that Chinese children were more satisfied with the conversation orientation than the conformity orientation. Likewise, Fowler (2007) found that children of pluralistic parents or consensual parents exhibited a higher level of relationship satisfaction, whereas children of laissez-faire and protective parents exhibited a lower level of relationship satisfaction. In addition, Frisby, Byrnes, and Myers (2010) and Punyanunt-Carter (2008) reported that individuals from consensual family and pluralistic family achieved a higher relationship satisfaction compared to the individuals from laissaz-faire family and protective family.

Numerous studies have shown importance of effective communication to achieve a higher relationship satisfaction. The most of the prior findings associated consensual family and pluralistic family with a higher relationship satisfaction and protective family and laissez-faire family with a lower degree of relationship satisfaction. The study would further explore the influence of Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns on their relationship satisfaction with their children.

2.1.2.4 Past Studies Examining the Implication of Conflict Management Styles on Relationship Satisfaction

Valley and Guerrero (2012) conducted a study of dyadic data to examine associations between attachment, relational satisfaction, and perceptions of conflict style in adult child–parent relationships. Some of the hypotheses posited significantly correlated with relational satisfaction between parent and children. For example, both parents and children achieved a higher level of relationship satisfaction when both perceived the other using collaborating style than competing and indirect fighting

strategies. The study concluded collaborating style scored a higher relational satisfaction than avoiding style and competing style. Sillars, et al. (2004) found compromising style and collaborating style generated positive associations with relational satisfaction. Overall, in the parent-child relationship, constructive conflict communication had shown satisfactory relationship than destructive conflict communication (Van Doom, Branje, Hox, & Meeus, 2009 as cited in Sillars, et al., and 2004).

Roggero, Rabaglietti, Settanni, and Ciairano (2012) explored the similarities and differences of the adolescents' communication, conflict styles, conflict resolution, and satisfaction with parents, best friends, and boy/girlfriend. The study found that the adolescents who had a satisfying family relationship shared satisfactory relationship with others. The free interaction and collaborative efforts to resolve conflicts were some of the reasons attributed to relationship satisfaction with both family and peers. The adolescent, however showed different taste for conflict styles with different groups. Adolescents preferred compromising and negotiation styles with friends while they try to resolve conflict with the family and the romantic partners. Stewart (2012) stated that way a person handles conflict is another indication of the relationship satisfaction. Dumlao and Botta (2000) found that the fathers who encouraged free communication and employed constructive conflict management styles with their children experienced a greater satisfaction in a relationship. Zhang (2007) found that the Chinese children were more satisfied with collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style than competing style and avoiding style with their parents.

Most of the studies on family communication patterns, conflict management

styles, and relationship satisfaction have focused mostly on the perception of children and there is need to include the parents' perspective of their conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction with their children. Fukushima and Tedeshi (1999 as cited as in Hong, 2005) noted that people from different cultures will have their own etiquette of conversing with others which are guided by their own cultural values and norms that could influence the way they handle conflicts. Therefore, this research assumes that the Bhutanese parents will have its own family culture and ways to communicate and handle conflicts. Referring to the prior studies on children perspectives of family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction, the present study chooses Bhutanese parents as the sample to explore more on their perspective of family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children.

2.1.3 Assumptions of the Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social Exchange Theory (SET) explains why people communicate and what makes them satisfied or unsatisfied in the relationships. Thibaut and Kelly (1959 as cited in Dainton & Zelly, 2005) originally developed social exchange theory. The theory assumes that people try to balance the rules and requirements among relational partners and most people prefer positive relationship to negative relationship. The individuals believe that positive communication will build positive relationships. One of the core assumptions of this theory is people negotiate their goal based on the relational rewards and cost of outcomes. The assumptions that guide the social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959 as cited in Dainton & Zelly, 2005) are:

1. The personal relations function of the means to benefit from the relationship by assessing the worth and loss.

2. The people interact with others to maximize rewards and lessen the costs by weighing pros and cons of their interactions to attain positive outcomes.

3. People tend to look for the benefit of one-self and theory claims that people are self-centered as they interact to cater ones' need from the relational partners. However, Dainton and Zelly (2005) stated that SET explains more clearly with its three core components.

Firstly, Social exchange theory is a system of rewards and costs. If people perceive that their relationship generates outcomes that are more negative and less rewards, they are likely to discontinue the relationship or if they perceive that they are benefited from the relationships, they will experience positive outcomes. Therefore, a simple equation was formulated to measure the outcomes of the relationships: Rewards-Costs= Outcomes.

Secondly, this theory is a comparison level (CL). A person expects from the relational partners or other in relationships to the reward. When people perceive that they are rewarded more than what they have expected from the relationship, they perceive satisfaction in relationships (Outcome > CL). Conversely, when people perceived that their reward is less than what he had expected, comparison level predicts that they are unsatisfied or will experience dissatisfaction in relationships.

Thirdly, SET is comparison level of alternatives. Any relationship to continue or discontinue, one must examine the comparison level (CL) and alternative CL. For example, what is the best option or alternative to continue the relationship? Is it good or bad to end the relationship? If the perceived alternative outcomes satisfied the person more than the outcomes, it is likely a person will end the relationship (Dainton & Zelly, 2005).

In short, the social exchange theory states that people analyze the benefits of their relationships. “We communicate and build relationships to gain rewards, and we stay with relationships that are more rewarding than they are costly” (Wood, 2000, p. 1990).

2.1.4 Hofstede’s Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede (1980 as cited in Dainton & Zelly, 2005) designed the cultural dimensions to determine the values of different cultures. The type of culture that exists on the particular society shapes the type of relationship people shares with others. Five cultural dimensions identify the differences in the values of the countries:

1. Individualism and collectivism: “Individualism-Collectivism is defined as the relative emphasis placed on the self versus a group or a society (Shearman & Dumlao, 2008, p. 190). In an individualism culture, people emphasize more on self-interest than the groups. On the contrary, in the collectivistic culture, people emphasize more on group interest than the self-interest (Dainton & Zelly, 2005). The individualistic societies show concern on themselves and their immediate families whereas the collectivistic societies show concern beyond themselves and involve large groups such as extended families or the entire village (Aumüller, 2007). Individualistic society emphasizes the personal success and reward whereas collectivistic society focuses on harmonious relationship. Japan is collectivistic society and USA is an individualistic society (Harris, 2003).

2. Uncertainty Avoidance: This dimension is the degree to which society accepts uncertainty in the society (Aumüller, 2007). “People within a culture become nervous by situations which they perceive as unstructured, unclear or unpredictable” (Hofstede, 1986 as cited in Dainton & Zelly (2005, p. 78). The high uncertainty

avoidance culture avoids unfamiliar situation, whereas low uncertainty avoidance culture accept unfamiliar situation. The high uncertainty avoidance culture follow the rigid rules and behaviors in the work place and the low uncertainty avoidance culture follow flexible rules and take risks to try new things (Dainton & Zelly, 2005). France, was identified as high uncertainty avoidance culture and Sweden, Britain, and Norway as low uncertainty societies (Harris, 2003).

3. Masculinity–Femininity: This dimension focuses on the "relationship between biological sex and the sex appropriate behavior" (Dainton & Zelly, 2005, p. 79). Masculine society values achievement, power, competition, and success while feminine society values harmony in relationship, cooperation, and modesty (Aumüller, 2007). There are designated role for men and women in a masculine culture. Men should be competitive, outspoken, and ambitious, while women should be caring, supportive, and un-daring. In a feminine culture, both fathers and mothers care about feelings and harmony of the family (Dainton & Zelly, 2005). Hofstede (2011) indicated that the feminine countries place a higher value on equality in the society and conflicts are mostly resolved through the means of compromising and negotiation. Japan and Austria, USA were identified as masculine societies and Sweden and Norway as feminine societies (Harris, 2003).

4. The long-term and short-term orientations: A long-term orientated societies work hard to achieve long-term goals. Short-term oriented societies seek for immediate benefits and spend money to satisfy their needs (Dainton & Zelly, 2005). The long-term orientation society gives more importance to the long-term benefits and values persistence to the new change whereas the short-term orientation society respects traditions, emphasize more on present and look for the short-term benefits.

Japan, China and Singapore were identified as long-term oriented society and USA as short-term oriented society (Harris, 2003).

5. Power Distance: This dimension expresses the degree to which society accepts the power differences in the society. The high power distance society accepts the power differences in the society and respect the authority. Such high power distance society is hierarchically organized where the people who are at the top level are more powerful than people on the low level in the organization. On contrarily, low power distance society emphasizes to make society equal by distributing powers among people and they do not accept inequality in the society (Harris, 2003). The high power distance culture places immense importance on status and hierarchy, and accepts differences of power among members in the society. On the other hand, low power distance culture considers all people as equal in the society (Dainton & Zelly, 2005). Philippines, Singapore, and France were identified as high power distance society and Britain, Sweden, and New Zeeland as low power distance society (Harris, 2003).

Interestingly, Hofstede's (2011) five cultural dimensions were explored on the Bhutanese culture and Bhutan indicated as a high power distance society, feminine society and high uncertainty avoidance society. However, Bhutan's score on individualism could not concluded whether it was individualistic or collectivistic culture as it scored only 52 on the individualism/ collectivism dimension. Cai and Fink (2002), and Tinsley (1998 as cited in Hong, 2005), regarded that the way people handle conflicts will differ from culture to culture and so does their preferences for conflict management styles.

Although, this study does not stress on the influence of cultural values on the

conflict management styles and family communication patterns, yet cultural values or family values the Bhutanese parents are accustomed to with all their life would certainly influence the way they embrace conflict management styles and communication patterns with their children. Fukushima and Tedeschi (1999 as cited in Hong, 2005) mentioned that cultural values are the main elements in influencing the way people manage conflicts. People considered conflict management styles that adhere to their culture norms and expectations. In addition, Chang (2007) regarded that the type of parenting styles used by most of the parents were influenced by their own cultural heritage.

Therefore, the type of conflict management styles and family communication patterns, the Bhutanese parents adopt with their children may depend on their own family, cultural values and might exhibit different patterns of family communication and handle different conflict management styles with their children.

2.2 The Bhutanese Family and its Cultural Values

The Bhutanese family is more relaxed and lenient compared to the other countries in the Southeast Asia. The family follows a very realistic approach to run their daily family life. For instance, the family who nurtures their relative's children is considered as a normative value in the Bhutanese society (Leaming, 2004). Children who have lost their parents or whose parents are economically poor seek assistance from their grandparents, siblings, and relatives, and relate them as the second parents (Dorji & Kinga, 2005). The feeling of belonging and attachment among family members and a well-knit bond shared with extended families and communities are very much noticeable in the Bhutanese society (Dorji & Kinga, 2005). As family relationship is an integral part of the Bhutanese family, the members of the family

support each other both in good and bad times, especially in the worst crises, such as illness and death. The family shares burden of other members and maintain harmonious relationship. Although Wangyal (2001) observed that the Bhutanese parents were authoritarian and expected their children to respect their parents, grandparents and elders, Leaming (2004) found that children enjoyed a great deal of their personal freedom which in fact lacked in other culture (Leaming, 2004).

In addition, “Family is considered important and there is hardly any strict labour division: men and women do all the chores" (Crins, 2008, p.143). In fact, in the traditional setting women were the head of the households as they took major decisions of the family such as “decision about farms, shops, house, and money matters” (Crins, 2008, p.143). With the rapid changes in the country, the educated parents and parents in the cities were found making their family decisions collectively (Crins, 2008). Men and women have equal rights to live the life they wanted to and most importantly, “divorce or separation was easy and not stigmatized” Crins (2008, p.180). In addition, the number of households also differed from families to families. The members in the family would exceed more than seven to eight in the traditional extended families but most of the urban society has now embraced nuclear families over the most preferred extended families in the past (Crins, 2004).

Despite a strong cultivated bond among the family members, Rapten (2001) noticed that mass media has ushered a greater threat to the country’s culture and value system. It has become a powerful tool for an easy entry into a global culture. Bhutan has opened its door to the mass media, mainly to incur the benefits of it, but the society is already experiencing the negative effect of it. After the launch of television in Bhutan, people living in Thimphu city have observed the drastic changes in their

way of living (Rapten, 2001). Prior to the launch of television, families sat together for meals, shared stories and their experiences. However, people did not take ample time to alter their way of living, which began from sitting patterns, mealtime, communication patterns, and other social activities. In parallel, Chua (2008) noticed that ever since the introduction of mass media and internet in 1999, the families, who once seated together at the same table for the evening meals dines separately with the television sets in front of them. Further, the widespread of the internet facilities have undeniably created a distraction, especially, the youths were found glued to online forums for hours. These patterns of engaging most of their time in the social media and television have started to cause family fragmentation and the verbal communication among members is near to the end.

Therefore, the way of life of many people is changing significantly, as the country steps into modernization. Traditionally, it was believed that the elderly parents used to impart most of the essential values to the children through face-to-face interaction and art of storytelling. These roles of the elderly parents in providing good moral values to their children were found certainly disappearing over time (Pek-Dorji, 2008). Wangyal (2001) pointed out that the Bhutanese parents living in urban areas are failing to perform their duty as a parent. Thus, the lack of daily communication in the family is a contributing factor for the weak family relationship shared among members. Moreover, the work pressure and interference in the urban areas are further diminishing a strong bond shared between parents and children. The working parents are forced to keep their young children at home to the nannies and children spend most of their day's time watching television. Hence, children deprives from learning good values of their parents. Chua (2004) interviewed Pema Wangchuk, Planning

Officer for the Department of the Department of Youth, Culture, and Sports, who expressed the urgency to educate the parents about the dying rich culture in the society. Children spend most of their time with their family and a very small portion of their time in the schools; therefore, they learn most of the things from the parents. He added that the family plays a crucial role in instilling strong traditional morals and ethics in children. Pema Wangchuk regarded importance of parents to spend quality time with their children for the amplification of conversation with family members and most important, to build stronger and finer social support within the family.

With the increasing changes in the traditional values of the Bhutanese family as mentioned by few researchers, it is difficult to describe the way Bhutanese parents communicate with their children. Although, the prior literature did not discuss explicitly about the Bhutanese parent-child relationship, it was a clear indication that there was conflict between the parents and children. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the patterns of communication of the Bhutanese parents, their ways of handling conflict, and which of their perceived family types and conflict management styles yield satisfaction in the parent-child relationship. Besides, Janeja (2011) stated that both family communication patterns and conflict management styles have shown a greater influence on the relationship outcomes such as relationship satisfaction. Nonetheless, Charoenthaweesub and Hale (2011) suggested that most of the existing studies have been either borrowed or adapted from the West or Europe and such "imported models may not accurately describe Asian family communication" (p. 84).

Although prior research stressed on the importance of promoting positive parent-child relationships, family communication patterns, followed by conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction have been so far unexplored in the

Bhutanese family. Perhaps, one essential reason could be, “In Bhutan, as a society that has just evolved from an oral medium, and where a literary medium is still in its infancy, information on different villages and people, their habits, norms, beliefs, traditions (ethnography) still exist in oral form, and have never been committed to writing” (Penjore, 2007, p. 265). Therefore, it is assumed that this study being first of its kind would provide enough information on the family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction of the Bhutanese parents, in particular, the parents of Thimphu city, Bhutan.

More importantly, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2012) urged to consider the perspectives of parents because family centers on parents and what affect them will ultimately affect the rest of the family.Yeh and Bedford (2004) also proclaimed that parents who show appropriate behavior to their children and demand least compliance from children might help their children in developing a deep respect for their parents. Children develop a sense of respect for their parents when they find their parents fulfilling their role as parents. Chaffee, McLeod, and Atkin (1971 as cited Barbato, Graham, & Perse, 2003) regarded that the successful socialization of children with others depended on the way parents communicated with their children. The parents who adapt to the changing patterns of the adolescent aspirations will be likely to benefit a healthy and conflict free relationship with their adolescent (Eisenberg, et al., 2008). These positive feelings in children enable them to have successful relationships with others later in their life (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). In other words, children who have a healthy relationship with their parents have a healthy relationship with others or vice versa. Chang (2007) addressed the importance of a parent’s role in uplifting their children’s self-esteem and self-satisfaction in the relationship. Chang

regarded parents as the most influential people in the lives of children, especially during the teen years. Barbato and Perse (1999 as cited in Barbato, Graham & Perse, 2003) indicated that teenagers are very fragile and might bring more problems in the parent-child relationship, but as they grow older, both parents and children viewed their relationship more positively. These findings hint on how vital is the role of the parents in promoting positive conflict communication within family to build positive social relationship with their children.

Having felt the importance of the communication patterns and conflict management styles, there is a need to study the family types that exist in the Bhutanese family, whether the type of conflict management styles and communication patterns the Bhutanese parents adapt with their children generate relationship satisfaction or not. Because, the type of communication patterns and conflict management styles parents adopt in a family, especially with children, have shown to affect children relating to their behavior, psychological and emotional problems (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002b). Moreover, this study fills the gap by studying more demographic variables of parents in relation to their family communication patterns and conflict management styles. Hence, the researcher infers the following hypotheses.

2.3 Hypothesis (s)

Hypothesis 1: Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1a: Bhutanese parents' gender differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1b: Bhutanese parents' age differences will significantly correlate with their

self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1c: Bhutanese parents' education level differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1d: Bhutanese parents' income level differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1e: Bhutanese parents' occupation level differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1f: Bhutanese parents' marital status differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1g: Bhutanese parents' number of offspring will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1h: Bhutanese parents' family type will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

Hypothesis 2: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in demographic factors and family-related factors will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2a: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in gender will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2b: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in age will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2c: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in education level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2d: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in income level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2e: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in occupation

level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2f: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in marital status will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2g: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the number of offspring in a family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2h: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the family type in the family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Hypothesis 3: The Bhutanese parents self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different self-reported conflict management styles with their children.

Hypothesis 4: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit a different degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

H4a: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived consensual family and pluralistic family will exhibit significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

H4b: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire family will exhibit significantly a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self-reported conflict management styles and their self-reported relationship satisfaction.

H5a: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style will exhibit significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

H5b: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported competing style and avoiding style will exhibit significantly a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with the children

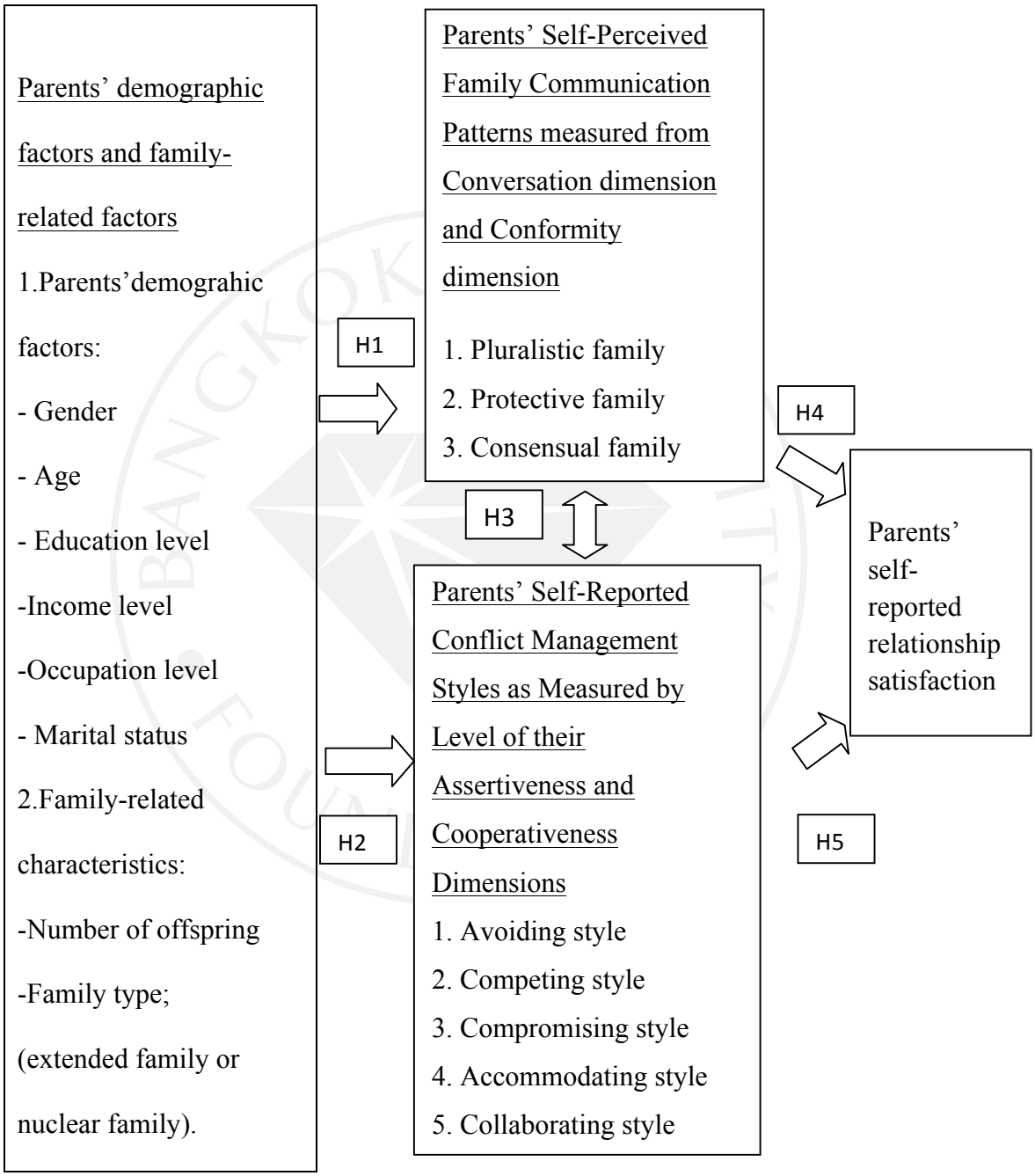

Figure 2.4: Theoretical Framework of the Study

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design used in this study, the steps carried out in the sample selection and the sampling method, types of research instruments used to measure the hypotheses and summary of demographic factors of parents. Finally, it describes the interpretation of data using Chi-square, Multivariate of Analysis (MANOVA), Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Regression. The chapter included the following components:

3.1 Research Design

The survey research method was used mainly to draw numbers of respondents to make generalizations of the intended objective of the study. The English translated survey questionnaire was used mainly because Wangyal (2001) found that despite constant effort from the government's side to improve reading and writing skills of the Dzongkha language (the national language of Bhutan), people still found difficulty in learning the Dzongkha language. One of the most pertinent reasons that contributed

to the weakness in the Dzongkha language skills among people is devoid of attention given to the Dzongkha language in the education curriculum. For instance, out of forty-three classes in a week, the students attend only nine classes in learning the Dzongkha language. This could be the reason why people find difficulty in learning the Dzongkha language (Wangyal, 2001). Therefore, the study used the original questionnaire without translating in the national language.

3.2 Population and Sample Selection

The study involved parents (both fathers and mothers) who were currently residing in Thimphu city because (*Violence against women*, 2007, p. 4):

3.2.1 Thimphu is the most district of Bhutan.

3.2.2 It has the largest urban agglomeration with 50% of the employees as civil servants (public servants) of the whole country.

3.2.3 The urban growth rate for Thimphu is 13% which is very high.

3.2.4 The rapid urbanization is taking place in Thimphu, Bhutan leading to high in-migration.

3.2.5 There is increase in the prevalence of violence of any kind. (*Violence against women*, 2007, p. 4).

The parents of age 29 years old to 50 years old or over, who could read and write in English, who had a minimum qualification of high school to the highest level of their education level and who had at least one teenage child (age of 13-17) were determined as the eligible samples to provide information about their family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction with their children. The researcher intentionally targeted the parents who had attended high school and above as the education level of the parents had shown a strong influence

on the children's lives since their early age. The parents with high school education and above were found interacting with their children more positively than the parents who did not complete high school (Sclafani, 2004 as cited in Gratz, 2006). Moreover, most of the Bhutanese parents of age 29 years old and above had teenage children or older. Therefore, either fathers or mothers for each family were included in the study considering the fact that each of them would have different perception of their family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction with their children and these topics are very new to the Bhutanese families.

The study followed sampling method developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). They have devised a formula to set the sample size of the entire population and calculated the sample size needed for the given populations in the table.

$$S = \frac{X^2\ NP\ (1-P)}{d^2\ (N-1) + X^2\ P\ (1-P)}$$

When s = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for one degree of Freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)

Table 1: Table for Determining the Sample Size from a given Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	130	97	300	169	850	265	3000	341
15	14	140	103	320	175	900	269	3500	346
20	19	150	108	340	181	1000	278	4000	351
25	24	160	113	360	186	1100	285	4500	354
30	28	170	118	380	191	1200	129	5000	357
40	36	180	123	440	205	1300	297	6000	361
45	40	190	127	420	201	1400	302	7000	364
50	44	200	132	440	205	1500	306	8000	367
55	48	210	136	460	210	1600	310	9000	368
60	52	220	140	480	214	1700	313	10000	370
70	59	230	144	500	217	1800	317	15000	375
80	66	240	148	550	226	1900	320	20000	377
90	73	250	152	600	234	2000	322	30000	379
95	76	260	155	650	242	2200	327	40000	380
100	80	270	159	700	248	2400	331	50000	381
110	86	280	162	750	254	2600	335	75000	382
120	92	290	165	800	260	2800	338	1000000	384

Note: N = population size and S = sample size

Source: Krejcie, R. V. & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *30,* 607-610.

According to the survey conducted by the Office of the Census Commissioner, Thimphu (2006), the total number of households or families (N) in Thimphu city, Bhutan is 15,728. With reference to Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for determining sample size for a given population (see Table 1), this study mandated a sample size (s) of 377, excluding 50 samples that were examined to test the reliability of the scales.

Stratified sampling and convenience sampling methods were employed to collect data from the samples selected for this work. The next steps were observed to be more precise:

Step 1: Since, there lacked the statistical data for the number of educated parents who had teenage children in Thimphu city, the researcher visited five middle secondary schools in Thimphu city and requested the principals to grant access to the information of the parents of grade 7 (seven), 8 (eight), 9 (nine) and 10 (ten) children.

According to the Statistical Yearbook of Bhutan (2013), there are thirty schools under Thimphu city, out of which four are private higher secondary school, two are public higher secondary school, five are public lower secondary school, two are private middle secondary school, five are public middle secondary school, six are private primary school and six are public primary schools. The five middle secondary schools that are under Thimphu city are Lungtenzampa MSS, Dechencholing MSS, Zilukha MSS, Babesa MSS, and Changangkha MSS. These five public middle secondary schools were included for this study considering the fact that many children live with their parents, unlike other private middle secondary schools. In addition, most of the Bhutanese students who went to middle secondary schools were of age 13-17 and in grade 7-10.

Only the parents (both fathers and mothers) of 7, 8, 9, and 10 grade children from five public middle secondary schools were selected equally using stratified sampling method. The parents who had obtained high school and above were selected from the information provided by the principals of five different schools.

Although, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sampling table required 377 samples with the given population, the present study had increased the sample size from 377 to

400 to provide equal opportunity to all the parents of five middle secondary schools to be part of this study. Consequently, the following formula was designed to stratify the students from five different schools:

Formula: $S = \frac{N}{T}$

S = number of students

N = Number of sample size

T = Total number of schools

$S = \frac{400}{5}$

S = 80

Thus, sample size per school will be set at 80.

The samples from the five schools: 80x5 = 400

Step 2: In order to be draw equal number of both fathers and mothers, following formula was utilized:

Formula: $S = \frac{T}{N}$

S = sample size of fathers and mothers

T = total sample size per school

N = number of parents from each grade (7, 8, 9 & 10)

$S = \frac{80}{4}$

S = 20

Therefore, 20 parents (10 fathers and 10 mothers) from each grade were selected as samples by using convenience-sampling method. The distribution of samples is shown in the table below:

Table 2: Distribution of the Samples from Five Middle Secondary School

Name of the school	Grade	Number of samples	Total
Lungtenzampa MSS	7, 8, 9 & 10	10 fathers and 10 mothers = 20 parents from each grade.	80 (20x4)
Dechencholing MSS	7, 8, 9 & 10	10 fathers and 10 mothers = 20 parents from each grade.	80 (20x4)
Zilukha MSS	7, 8, 9 & 10	10 fathers and 10 mothers = 20parents from each grade.	80 (20x4)
Babesa MSS	7, 8, 9 & 10	10 fathers and 10 mothers = 20 parents from each grade.	80 (20x4)
Changangkha MSS	7, 8, 9 & 10	10 fathers and 10 mothers = 20 from each grade.	80 (20x4)
		Total=	400

3.3 Protecting the Rights of the Sample

The researcher informed the heads of five different schools that the Institutional Review Board, Bangkok University had approved the study prior to data collection and would not do any harm to their students and the parents in particular. The survey was carried out upon the willingness and acceptance of the respondents to participate and had not coerced or influenced anyone to give in their responses. Moreover, the researcher had personally handed over the questionnaires to only those parents who were willing to participate in the study. Those parents who took part in this study were reassured that the findings of the study will not have implications for them. The researcher explained the objectives of the study to the respondents and administered personally while they filled up the questionnaires.

3.4 Research Instruments

The research instrument consisted of four sections. The first section concerned with the questions related to their individual demographic factors and family-related characteristics. The nine demographic questions represented nominal and ordinal scales as follows:

3.4.1 Demographic question

1. What is your gender? (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. Male ☐ 2. Female

2. What is your age? (Ordinal scale)

☐ 1. 29-39 years old ☐ 2. 40- 49years old

☐ 3. 50 years old and over

3. What is your level of education? (Ordinal scale)

☐ 1. High School ☐ 2. Bachelor's degree

☐3. Master's degree and higher

4. What is your current marital status? (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. Married ☐ 2. Single parent

5. What is your current occupation? (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. Government employee ☐ 2. Private employee

☐ 3. Corporate employee ☐ 4. Entrepreneurs/ Business owner

☐ 5. Others (specify) _____

6. What is your monthly household income in Ngultrum (Bhutanese currency) per month? (Ordinal scale)

☐ 1. Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu

☐ 2. 10, 001- 20,000 Nu ☐ 3. 20,001- 50,000 Nu

☐ 4. 50,001 and higher

7. How many children do you have in your family? (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. One child ☐ 2. Two children

☐ 3. Three children ☐ 4. Four children

☐ 5. Five children or more

8. What best describes your current family? (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. Nuclear family (living with two parents and a child or children)

☐ 2. Extended family (living with two parents, children, relatives, grandparents, mother-in-law, father-in-law)

☐ 3. Others (specify)

9. You are currently living in…….. (Nominal scale)

☐ 1. Lungtenzampa Area ☐ 2. Dechencholing Area

☐ 3. Zilukha Area ☐ 4. Babesa Area

☐ 5. Changangkha Area

3.4.2 Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP)

The second section included Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP) instrument (Ritchie & Fitzpatrick, 1990) that measured conformity orientation and conversation orientation for both children and parents. The original scale consisted of 26 items in the section with scale ranging from 1 “Never” to 5 “Always.” Since the survey concentrated solely on the perspectives of the parents, the study included the parents’ version of revised family communication patterns. In addition, some of the items in conversation orientation and conformity orientation were modified to simpler statements and additional four statements in conformity and conversation scale

resulted in having 30 items (15 items for conversation orientation and 15 items for conformity orientation. Some of direct statements in conversation orientations, which started with "I" were changed to "we, our family and my children etc." A few examples provided below would give a better insight of the modified questions.

1. I often say things like "Every member of the family should have some say in family decision." The statement was modified to, "Every member of our family is encouraged to have some say in family decisions."

2. I often ask my child's opinion when the family is talking about something. The statement had been changed to, "We often care to ask the child's opinion when the family is talking about something."

The additional four statements for conformity orientation were:

1. It is good for parents to be strict with their children to live harmoniously.
2. Children are expected to respect parents and adults.
3. Parents expect their children to do as instructed even outside the family.
4. The parents believe that they are always right.

The sum and mean of each orientation were then divided into high, medium, and low level as follow:

Table 3: Sum and Mean of Conversation Orientation (15 questions: Question1-15)

Total sum	Mean	Interpretation
55-75	3.67-5.00	High frequency
35-54	2.34-3.66	Medium frequency
15-34	1.00-2.33	Low frequency

As shown in Table 3, the conversation orientation consisted of 15 statements with 5-point likert scale. The scores 75 stand for the highest score and 15 stand for the

minimum scores. Therefore, the frequency level of interaction was calculated by subtracting the lowest score from the highest scores and then it was divided by three levels (high, middle, and low level of interaction). Therefore, the mean range for high, medium and low frequency of interaction was 20 scores.

Sum range = (Highest score - lowest score) / Numbers of levels

Sum range = (75-15)/3 = 20 for each level

The mean range for each frequency was divided by using the formula: (5-1)/3= 1.335). Five (5) represented the highest point in likert scale and one (1) represented the lowest scale. Thus, the highest and the lowest likert scale were divided to get the mean range for each level. Therefore, each frequency consisted of 1.33 mean range.

Mean range = (Highest likert scale- Lowest likert scale)/ Numbers of levels.

Mean range= (5-1)/3= 1.33

Table 4: Sum and Mean of Conformity Orientation (15 questions: Question 16-30)

Total sum	Mean	Interpretation
55-75	3.67-5.00	High frequency
35-54	2.34-3.66	Medium frequency
15-34	1.00-2.33	Low frequency

As shown in Table 4, the conformity orientation consisted of 15 statements with 5-point likert scale. Therefore, the frequency level of interaction was calculated by subtracting the lowest score from the highest scores and then it was divided by three levels (high, middle, and low level of interaction). Therefore, each frequency consisted of 20 sum ranges to categorize as high, medium and low frequency.

Sum range = (Highest score - lowest score) / Numbers of levels

Sum range = (75-15)/3= 20 for each level.

The mean range for each frequency was divided by using the formula: (5-1)/3= 1.335). Five (5) represented the highest point in likert scale and one (1) represented the lowest. The highest and the lowest likert scale were divided to get the mean range for each frequency. Therefore, each frequency consisted of 1.33 mean range.

Mean range = (Highest likert scale- Lowest likert scale)/ Numbers of levels.

Mean range= (5-1)/3= 1.33

Table 5: Classification of Family Communication Patterns

Conversation Orientation	Conformity Orientation	
	High frequency level Score 45-75	Low frequency level Score 15-44
High frequency level Score 45-75	Consensual family	Pluralistic family
Low frequency level Score 15-44	Protective family	Laissez-faire family

As shown in Table 5, the levels of conversation orientations and conformity orientation were classified into four types of family communication patterns according to the sum of each orientation as follows:

Sum range = (Highest score - lowest score) / Numbers of levels

Sum range of conversation orientation = (75-15)/2= 30 for each level.

Sum range of conformity orientation = (75-15)/2=30 for each level.

The scores 75 and 15 represented the highest scores and lowest scores of conversation orientation and two (2) represented the levels: high level and low level.

The highest and the lowest scores were subtracted and then divided by two (2) levels to get sum range of the conversation orientation. Therefore, high and low level consisted of 30 sum ranges each. Therefore, 15- 44 scores were categorized as low level and score of 45-75 will be categorized as high level for conversation orientation.

Similarly, The scores 75 and 15 represented the highest and the lowest scores of conformity orientation and two (2) represented the two levels, high and low level. The highest and the lowest scores were subtracted and then divided by two (2) levels to get sum range of the conformity orientation. The high level and low level consisted of 30 sum range each. Therefore, 15-44 scores were categorized as low level and score of 45-75 as high level for conformity orientation.

The four types of families were classified according to the high and low level of conversation and conformity orientation. For instance, participants who scored both high on conversation orientation and conformity orientation were identified as consensual family type. The participants who scored low on conversation orientation but high on conformity orientation were identified as the protective family type. Likewise, participants who scored high on conversation orientation, but scored low on conformity orientation were classified as the pluralistic family type. On the contrary, participants who scored low on both conversation and conformity orientation were identified as laissez-faire family type.

3.4.3 Conflict Management Styles (CMS)

Third section included modified instrument adapted from Rahim and Magner (1995 as cited in Wilmot & Hocker, 2011), to gather the perception of the parents' conflict styles during conflict. Originally the scale was developed by Rahim (1983) and Rahim and Magner (1995) which consisted of twenty eight items representing

seven items for the integrating style, six items for the avoiding style, the five items for the dominating style, six items for the accommodating style, and four items for the compromising style (as cited in Hong, 2005). However, due to the unequal distribution of items in the scale, Wilmot and Hocker (2001) modified the 28 items scale to 25 items scale.

The modified instrument assessed five different conflict behaviors such as accommodating style, avoiding style, collaborating style, competing style and compromising style. The 25 items scale was measured by 5-point Likert scale such as 5- Always, 4-Often, 3- Sometimes, 2- Seldom, and 1-Never. This study employed modified the scale of Rahim and Magner (1995) by Wilmot and Hocker (2001) mainly due to its equal distribution of items among five conflict styles. Nevertheless, few items in the scale were changed slightly to make it comprehensible for the samples. For instance, the statement, "I avoid being put on the spot, I keep conflicts to myself," was kept it short as "I keep conflicts to myself." The statement, "I usually try to split the difference in order to resolve an issue" was kept it as, "I usually try to keep aside our individual differences in order to resolve an issue."

The conflict items identified conflict management styles of a person by comparing the total scores for the different styles and these scores determined how a person responded to conflict styles in a particular conflict situation. The conflict management styles scale attempted to find out the most dominant and the least dominant styles a person employed in the conflict situation. There are 25 varied statements represents five different types of conflict styles. For instance, statement number 1, 6, 11, 16, and 21 represented avoiding styles and likewise other statements provided in the table represented other four conflict styles. The scores of each conflict

style were summed up to determine the strong conflict styles of the sample. The statements to measure the conflict styles of the samples were summarized below:

Table 6: Statements for Measuring Conflict Management Styles of the Samples

Conflict management styles	Statements no.
Avoiding style	1, 6, 11, 16 and 21
Competing style	2,7,12, 17 and 22
Compromising style	3, 8, 13, 18 and 23
Accommodating style	4, 9, 14, 19 and 24
Collaborating style	5, 10, 15, 19 and 25

As shown in Table 6, the scores indicated the sum of the scores of the five conflict management styles. By comparing the total scores of five conflict management styles, we identified very strong to a very weak conflict management style an individual use in the conflict situation. For example, the participants who scored in between 21-25 in any one the five conflict styles represented a very strong conflict management style (see Table: 7).

Table 7: The Interpretations of Scores for Conflict Management Styles

Scores	Conflict management styles
21-25	represents a very strong style
16-20	represents a strong style
11-15	represents an average style
6-10	represents a weak style
1-5	represents a very weak style

3.4.4 Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

The fourth section included the Relationship Assessment Scale by Burns and Sayers (1988 as cited in Dunmont, 2010). Their original scale consisted of 7-items

scale designed to measure relationship satisfaction with seven- point likert scale ranging from 0- Very Dissatisfied to 6-Very Satisfied. However, to suit to this study, the scale was modified to likert scale ranging from 5-Very Satisfied to 1-Very Dissatisfied. Moreover, the qualities in the scale were altered into the statements for the sample to comprehend the meaning of each quality of the scale, because the original scale assessed the degree of relationship satisfaction from the factors such as communication and openness, conflict resolution, degree of caring and affection, intimacy and closeness and satisfaction with the roles in relationship. In addition, having seen the impact of globalization and new social media on the Bhutanese parents' relationship with their children, three additional statements were included on the existing seven items of relationship scale. The additional statements included in the relationship satisfaction scale are:

1. I feel satisfied to keep my children with my relatives or nannies when I go out for my work.

2. I am satisfied with the time my children spend on the social networking sites (such as Face book, LINE, Wechat, etc.).

3. I am fully satisfied with our family relationship as parent and children. The sample's was added to indicate the degree of satisfaction in a relationship. An individual with the score of 31-40 or above were considered experiencing relationship satisfaction. The following table best interprets the degree of satisfaction of an individual in a relationship:

Table 8: The Interpretations of Scores for Relationship Satisfaction

Scores	Conflict management styles
41-50	Very Satisfied
31-40	Satisfied
21-30	Neutral
11-20	Dissatisfied
1-10	Very Dissatisfied

3.5 Analysis of the Instrument

3.5.1 Revised Family Communication Patterns (RFCP)

Ritchie and Fitzpatrick (1990) found the high reliability of the conversation-orientation and conformity orientation instrument. It has cronbach's alphas of .84 and .76, respectively. Dumlao and Botta (2000) found an alpha coefficient of α = .90 for conversation orientation and α = .84 for conformity orientation. Similarly, Zhang (2007) reported an alpha for the scale was .75 for conversation orientation, the alpha was .83 and for conformity orientation, the alpha was .86.

The present study conducted the pilot test to ascertain the reliability of the questionnaire with 50 educated parents and found cronbach's alpha (the level of reliability) for Ritchie and Fitzpatrick's (1990) Revised Family Communication Patterns an acceptable range of above .7. The conversation orientation concluded high reliability coefficients with cronbach's alpha of .877 and conformity orientation obtained α = .812. The reliability test was likewise carried out from the data gathered from 400 samples and it received a reliable of α =.820 for conversation orientation and α =. 812 for conformity orientation. Thus, findings showed an acceptable cronbach's alpha to measure Revised Family Communication Patterns.

3.5.2 Conflict Management Style (CMS)

Hong (2005) compared conflict management styles (CMS) between Koreans and Americans involving intra-cultural and intercultural interactions by using the modified Rahim Organizational Conflict Instrument-II (ROCI-II) suggested by Wilmot and Hocker (2001). Wilmot and Hocker (2011) suggested that the modified ROCI-II can be measured in two different situations: situation A and situation B. The situation A measured conflict management styles of a person with their personal relationship such as friend, romantic partners or family members. Whereas, the situation B measured conflict management styles of a person with people who were not so close. Since, this study measured parents' self- perceived conflict styles with their children, it used situation A. Hong (2005) measured modified ROCI-II for Korean samples and U.S. samples, and found Cronbach's alphas of .87 and .83, respectively.

The pilot test to determine the reliability for conflict management styles with 50 educated parents found reliable with Cronbach's alpha of .758, and the reliability test carried out for 400 samples also received a reliable α =.794.

3.5.3 Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

Burns and Sayers (1988) measured satisfaction in the individual's closest adult relationship. Internal consistency for this scale has been respectable with a coefficient alpha of .97 (Beesley & Stoltenberg, 2002; Heyman, et. al., 2001; Heyman, Sayers, & Bellack, 1994, as cited in Dumont, 2010).

Overall, the pilot test to determine the reliability for relationship satisfaction with 50 educated parents was found reliable with Cronbach's alpha of .832. The reliability test carried out for 400 samples also identified reliable α = .793. Nunnaly

(1978 as cited in Hong, 2005) considered 0.7 as an acceptable reliability coefficient. Therefore, the present study received a reliable Cronbach's alpha for all scales. The summary of the results of reliability test for the all the instruments from both pretest and the real test is as shown in the Table 9.

Table 9: Reliability of Instrument for Revised Family Communication Patterns Conflict Management Styles and Relationship Satisfaction

	Number of Items	α (N = 50)
1. Family Communication Patterns		
1.1. Conversation orientation	15	.877
1.2. Conformity orienntation	15	.812
2. Conflict management styles	25	.7583.
Relationship satisfaction	10	.832
	Number of Items	α (N=400)
1. Family Communication Patterns		
1.1 Conversation orientation	15	.820
1.2 Conformity Orientation	15	.812
2. Conflict Management Styles	25	.794
3. Relationship Satisfaction	10	.793

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The following procedures described data collection for the survey:

3.6.1 Five public middle secondary schools in Thimphu city were selected for this survey by using a stratified sampling method. Among 30 schools in Thimphu city, five public middle secondary schools were selected to draw the samples size of 400 parents.

3.6.2 The official permission were sought from the heads of five different public middle, secondary schools in Thimphu city to access to the information of the educated parents of 7, 8, 9 and 10 grade children from five selected schools to take constituent in this inquiry.

3.6.3 Only the educated parents of 7, 8, 9, and 10 grade children from five selected middle, secondary schools were randomly selected using a convenience sampling method and the researcher contacted personally and visited their house for the survey.

3.6.4 The questionnaires were distributed to both fathers and mothers and requested them to complete the survey within 20 to 30 minutes. The researcher ensured parents to fill up the questions separately, especially those who were couple and give in their own responses.

3. 8 Demographic Data of the Sample

The demographic information of 400 parents (fathers and mothers) responded to the questionnaire include gender, age, education level, occupation level, income level, marital status, number of offspring, family types and their current living area. The descriptive analysis of the frequency and percentage of the samples is summarized in the following tables:

Table 10: Gender of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	200	50.0
Female	200	50.0
Total	400	100.0

As shown in Table 10, there were equal number of male (50%, N = 200) and female (50%, N = 200) who have responded the survey.

Table 11: Age of the Samples.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
29-39	180	45.0
40-49	185	46.25
50 or over	35	8.75
Total	400	100.

As shown in Table 11, descriptive finding revealed that the majority of the samples were between the age ranges of 40-49 years old (46.25%, N = 185), followed by age between 29-39 years old (45%, N = 180) and 50 years old or over (8.75%, N = 35), respectively. The findings indicated that the most of the samples aged between 29 years to 49 years old have teenage children.

Table 12: Education Level of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
High school	231	57.75
Bachelor's degree	110	27.5
Master's degree or higher	59	14.75
Total	400	100.0

As shown in Table 12, descriptive finding identified that the majority of the samples attended high school (57.75%, N = 231), followed by those who obtained bachelor degree (27.5%, N = 110) and master's degree or higher (14.75%, N = 59), respectively.

Table 13: Occupation Level of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Government employee	173	43.25
Private employee	85	21.25
Corporate employee	49	12.25
Entrepreneur/business owner	47	11.75
Others	46	11.5
Total	400	100.00

As shown in Table 13, descriptive findings indicated that majority of the samples represented government employee (43.25%, N = 173), followed by private

employee (21.25%, N = 85), corporate employee (12.25%, N = 49), entrepreneur/business owner (11.75%, N = 47) and others (11.5%, N = 46), respectively.

Table 14: Income Level of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Lower than and equal to10,000 Nu	87	21.75
10, 001- 20,000 Nu	128	32.0
20,001- 50,000 Nu	135	33.75
50,001Nu and higher	50	12.5
Total	400	100.00

As shown in Table 14, descriptive findings indicated that majority of the samples earned a monthly income of 20,000-50,000 Nu (33.75%, N = 135), followed by samples with income in between 10,000-20,000 Nu (32.0%, N = 128), samples with income of lower than and equal to10,000 Nu (21.75%, N = 87), and samples with income of 50,000 Nu and higher (12.5%, N = 50), respectively.

Table 15: Marital Status of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Married	359	89.75
Single-parent	41	10.25
Total	400	100.00

As shown in Table 15, descriptive findings indicated that majority of the

samples were married (89.75%, N = 359), and a very minimal samples represented as single parents (10.25%, N = 41).

Table 16: Number of Offspring of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
One child	39	9.75
Two children	151	37.75
Three children	107	26.75
Four children	65	16.25
Five children or more	38	9.5
Total	400	100.00

As shown in Table 16, descriptive findings revealed that the majority of the samples had two children (37.75%, N = 151), followed by samples of three children (26.75%, N = 107), samples of four children (16.25%, N = 65), samples of one child (9.75%, N = 39), and finally samples who have more than five children (9.5%, N = 38), respectively.

Table 17: Family Type of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Nuclear family	240	60.0
Extended family	113	28.25
Others	47	11.75
Total	400	100.00

As indicated in the Table 17, descriptive findings found that majority of the samples represented nuclear family (60%, N = 240), concluding it as the dominant family type. It was followed by extended family (28.25%, N = 113) and others (11.75 %, N = 47).

Table 18: Living Areas of the Samples

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Lungtenzampa Area	80	20.0
Dechencholing Area	80	20.0
Zilukha Area	80	20.0
Babesa Area	80	20.0
Changangkha Area	80	20.0
Total	400	100.0

As shown in Table 18, the samples that represented from four areas in Thimphu city were Lungtenzampa area (20%, N = 80), Dechencholing area (20%, N = 80), Zilukha area (20%, N = 80), Babesa area (20%, N = 80) and Changangkha (20%, N = 80), respectively.

3.9 Data Analysis and Interpretation

The data was analyzed using SPSS window 17.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The statistics used for the present study included Chi-square, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Regression.

Hypothesis 1: Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication

patterns.

H1a: Bhutanese parents' gender difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1b: Bhutanese parents' age difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1c: Bhutanese parents' education level difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1d: Bhutanese parents' income level difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1e: Bhutanese parents' occupation level difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1f: Bhutanese parents' marital status difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1g: Bhutanese parents' number of offspring will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1h: Bhutanese parents' family type will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The independent variable was the Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors. The lists of nominal and ordinal scale were used to measure independent variable. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns. The interval scales of the conversation and conformity orientation were recoded into a nominal scale to discover the family communication patterns exhibited. Therefore, Chi-square analysis was utilized to determine the correlation among Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-

related factors with Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns

Hypothesis 2: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in demographic factors and family-related factors will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2a: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in gender will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2b: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in age will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2c: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in education level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2d: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in income level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2e: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in occupation level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2f: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in marital status will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2g: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the number of offspring in a family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2h: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the family type in the family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

The independent variable was the Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors. The lists of nominal and ordinal scale were used to measure independent variable. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-reported conflict management styles. The interval scale of assertiveness and

cooperativeness dimension was calculated to find the sum of the most dominant and the least dominating conflict styles of the sample. Independent variables were categorize into nominal and ordinal variables and five interval dependent variables, thus, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was utilized to determine the differences in the Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors influence parents' self-reported conflict management style**s.**

Hypothesis 3: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different self-reported conflict management styles with their children.

The independent variable was Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns, and the dependent variable was self-reported conflict management styles. The interval scales of the conversation and conformity orientation were recoded into a nominal scale to see the family communication patterns displayed. The dependent variable is the Bhutanese parents' self-reported conflict management styles. The 5 points-interval scale of assertiveness, and cooperativeness dimension was calculated to determine the essence of the most prevalent and the least dominating conflict styles of the sample. Since there were four nominal independent variables and five interval dependent variables, Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to examine the influence of Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns of Bhutanese parents' self-reported conflict self-reported conflict management styles.

Hypothesis 4: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

Hypothesis 4a: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived consensual family and pluralistic family will exhibit a significantly higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

The independent variables were the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived consensual family and pluralistic family. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction. The 5 point-interval scales of the conversation and conformity orientation were recoded into a nominal scale to discover the family communication patterns exhibited. The interval scale of relationship satisfaction was used to measure the dependent variable. Therefore, One-Way ANOVA was used to find the nominal independent variables and an interval dependent variable.

H4b: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire family will exhibit significantly lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

The independent variables were the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction. The 5 point-interval scales of the conversation and conformity orientation were recoded into a nominal scale to discover the family communication patterns exhibited. And, interval scale of relationship satisfaction was used to measure the dependent variable. Therefore, Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) was employed to determine two nominal independent variables and an interval variable of the dependent variable.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self-reported conflict management styles and the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived

relationship satisfaction.

The independent variables were the Bhutanese parents' self reported conflict management styles. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction. The 5 point-interval scale of assertiveness and cooperativeness dimensions was calculated to find the sum of the most dominant and the least dominating conflict styles of the sample. The interval scale of relationship satisfaction was used to measure the dependent variable. Since there were five interval independent variables and one interval dependent variable, Multiple regression analysis was used to find the significant predictor of dependent variable.

H5a: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style will exhibit a significantly higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

The independent variables were the Bhutanese parents' self-reported collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction. The 5 point-interval scale of assertiveness and cooperativeness dimension was calculated to find the sum of the most dominant and the least dominating conflict styles of the sample. The interval scale of relationship satisfaction was used to measure the dependent variable. Since there were three interval independent variables and one interval dependent variable, multiple regression analysis was conducted to find the significant predictor of dependent variable.

H5b: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported competing style and avoiding style will exhibit significantly lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

The independent variables were the Bhutanese parents' self-reported

competing style and avoiding style. The dependent variable was the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction. The 5 point-interval scale of assertiveness and cooperativeness dimension was calculated to find the sum of the most dominant and the least dominating conflict styles of the sample. The interval scale of relationship satisfaction was used to measure the dependent variable. Since there were two interval independent variables and one interval dependent variable, Multiple regression analysis was employed to find the most significant predictor of the dependent variable. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) package was used to carry out all the analyses.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents data analysis and data interpretation on the relationship between parents' self-perceived family communication patterns, self-reported conflict management styles and their relationship satisfaction with their children in Thimphu city, Bhutan. The data gathered from 400 respondents were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as sum, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics such as Chi-square, Multivariate of Analysis (MANOVA), Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) and Multiple Regression. The findings presented in this chapter are divided into two parts. The first part provides the descriptive statistics such as sum, mean, and percentage of dependent and independent variables. The second part discusses the hypotheses testing of the study.

The topics outlined below encompass the detail of this chapter:

4.1 Summary on Findings of Descriptive Statistics

4.2 Hypotheses Findings and Testing

4.1 Summary on Findings of Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1.1: Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Gender

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Male	Count	157	20	21	2	200
	% within family type	50.6%	45.5%	56.8%	22.2%	50.0%
	% of Total	39.3%	5.0%	5.3%	.5%	50.0%
Female	Count	153	24	16	7	200
	% within family type	49.4%	54.5%	43.2%	77.8%	50.0%
	% of Total	38.3%	6.0%	4.0%	1.8%	50.0%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within gender	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.1, the descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents, who were male (50%, N = 157) and female (49.4 %, N = 153). There were 44 protective parents who were male (45.5%, N = 20) and female (54.5%, N = 24). There were 37 pluralistic parents, who were male (56.8%, N = 21) and female (43.2%, N = 16). There were nine pluralistic parents, who were male (22.2%, N = 2) and female (77.8%, N = 7).

Table 4.1.2: Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Age

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
29-39	Count	141	22	14	3	80
	% within family type	45.5%	50.0%	37.8%	33.3%	45.0%
	% of Total	35.3%	5.5%	3.5%	.8%	45.0%
40-49	Count	141	19	20	5	185
	% within family type	45.5%	43.2%	54.1%	55.6%	46.3%
	% of Total	35.3%	4.8%	5.0%	1.3%	46.3%
	50 or over Count	28	3	3	1	35
	% within family type	9.0%	6.8%	8.1%	11.1%	8.8%
	% of Total	7.0%	.8%	8%	.3%	8.8%
	Total Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.2, the descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents of aged 29-39 years old (45.5%, N = 141), 40-49 years old (45.5%, N = 141) and 50 years old or over (9.0%, N = 28), respectively. There were 44 protective parents of aged 29-39 years old (50.0%, N = 22), 40-49 years old (43.2%, N = 19) and 50 or over (6.8%, N = 3).There were 37 pluralistic parents of aged 29-39 years old (37.8%, N = 14), 40-49 years old (54.1%, N=20) and 50 years

old or over (8.1%, N = 3). There were 9 laissez-faire parents of aged 29-39 years old (33.3%, N = 3), 40-49 years old (55.6%, N = 5) and 50 or over (11.1%, N = 1).

Table 4.1.3: Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Education level

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
High school						
	Count	186	26	14	5	231
	% within family type	60.0%	59.1%	37.8%	55.6%	57.8%
	% of Total	46.5%	6.5%	3.5%	1.3%	57.8%
Bachelor's degree						
	Count	76	13	17	4	110
	% within family type	24.5%	29.5%	45.9%	44.4%	27.5%
	% of Total	19.0%	3.3%	4.3%	1.0%	27.5%
Master's degree or higher						
	Count	48	5	6	0	59
	% within family type	15.5%	11.4%	16.2%	.0%	14.8%
	% of Total	12.0%	1.3%	1.5%	.0%	14.8%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within education	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu						

(Continued)

As shown in Table 4.1.3, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents who had obtained high school (60.0%, N = 186), bachelor's degree (24.5%, N = 76) and master's degree or higher (15.5%, N = 48). There were 44 protective parents who had obtained high school (59.1%, N = 26), bachelor's degree (29.5%, N = 13) and master's degree or higher (11.4%**,** N = 5). There were 37 pluralistic parents who had obtained high school (37.8%, N = 14), bachelor's degree (45.9%, N = 17) and master's degree or higher (16.2%, N = 6)**.** There were 9 laissez-faire parents who had obtained high school (55.6%, N = 5) and bachelor's degree (44.4%, N = 4).

Table 4.1.4: Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Income Level

Independent variables	Family Communication Patterns				
	Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Count	64	17	2	4	87
% within Family type	20.6%	38.6%	5.4%	44.4%	21.8%
% of Total	16.0%	4.3%	.5%	1.0%	21.8%
10, 001- 20,000 Nu					
Count	107	12	8	1	128
% within Family type	34.5%	27.3%	21.6%	11.1%	32.0%
% of Total	26.8%	3.0%	2.0%	.3%	32.0%
20,001- 50,000 Nu					
Count	100	12	20	3	135 %

(Continued)

Table 4.1.4 (Continued): Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Income level

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
	within Family type	32.3%	27.3%	54.1%	33.3%	33.8%
	% of Total	25.0%	3.0%	5.0%	.8%	33.8%
50,001 Nu and higher						
	Count	39	3	7	1	50%
	%within Family type	12.6%	6.8%	18.9%	11.1%	12.5%
	% of Total	9.8%	.8%	1.8%	.3%	12.5%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within income	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.4, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents who earned a monthly income between lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu (20.6%, N = 64), income between 10, 001- 20,000 Nu (34.5%, N = 107), income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu (32.3%, N = 100) and income between 50,001 Nu and higher (12.6%, N = 39). There were 44 protective parents who earned a monthly income between lower than and equal to 10,000 (38.6%, N = 17), income between 10, 001- 20,000 Nu (27.3%, N = 12), income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu (27.3%, N = 12) and income between 50,001 Nu and higher (6.8%, N = 3).

There were 37 pluralistic parents who earned a monthly income between lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu (5.4%, N = 2), income between 10, 001- 20,000 Nu (21.6%, N = 8), income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu (54.1%, N = 20) and income between 50,001 Nu and higher (18.9%, N = 7). There were 9 laissez-faire parents who earned a monthly income between lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu (4.4%, N = 4), income between 10, 001-20,000 Nu (11.1%, N = 1), income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu (33.3%, N = 3) and income between 50,001 Nu and higher (11.1%, N = 1).

Table 4.1.5: Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Occupation Level

Independent variables	Family Communication Patterns				
	Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Government employee					
Count	133	20	16	4	173
% within Family type	42.9%	45.5%	43.2%	44.4%	43.3%
% of Total	33.3%	5.0%	4.0%	1.0%	43.3%
Private employee					
Count	62	11	11	1	85
% within Family type	20.0%	25.0%	29.7%	11.1%	21.3%
% of Total	15.5%	2.8%	2.8%	.3%	21.3%
Corporate employee					
Count	38	5	4	2	49
% within Family type	12.3%	11.4%	10.8%	22.2%	12.3%
% of Total	9.5%	13%	1.0%	.5%	12.3%

(Continued)

Table 4.1.5 (Continued): Sum and Percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Occupation Level

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Entrepreneur/business owner						
	Count	41	3	3	0	47
	% within Family type	13.2%	6.8%	8.1%	.0%	11.8%
	% of Total	10.3%	8%	.8%	.0%	11.8%
Others	Count	36	5	3	2	46
	% within Family type	11.6%	11.4%	8.1%	22.2%	11.5%
	% of Total	9.0%	1.3%	.8%	.5%	11.5%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.5, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents who were government employee (42.9%, N = 133), private employee (20.0%, N = 62), corporate employee (12.3%, N = 38), entrepreneur/business owner (13.2 %, N = 41) and others (11.6 %, N = 36). There were 44 protective parents who were government employee (45.5%, N = 20), private employee (25.0%, N = 11), corporate employee (11.4%, N = 5), entrepreneur/business owner (6.8%, N = 3) and others (11.45%, N = 5). There were 37 pluralistic parents who were government employee (43.2 %, N = 16), private employee (29.7%, N = 11),

corporate employee (10.8%, N = 4), and entrepreneur/business owner (8.1%, N = 3) and others (8.1%, N = 3).

There were 9 laissez-faire parents who were government employee (44.4%, N= 4), private employee (11.1%, N = 1), corporate employee (22.2%, N = 2), and others (22.2%, N = 2).

Table 4.1.6: Sum and percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Marital Status

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Married	Count	275	41	35	8	35
	% within Family type	88.7%	93.2%	94.6%	88.9%	89.8%
	% of Total	68.8%	10.3%	8.8%	2.0%	89.8%
Single parent	Count	35	3	2	1	41
	% within Family type	11.3%	6.8	5.4%	1.1%	10.3%
	% of Total	8.8% .	8%	.5%	.3%	10.3%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within marital status	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.6, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents who were married (88.7%, N = 275) and single parents (11.3%, N = 35). There were 44 protective parents who were married parents (93.2%, N = 41) and single parents (6.8%, N= 3). There were 37 pluralistic parents who were married

(88.9%, N = 35) and single parents (5.4%, N = 2). There were 9 laissez-faire parents, who were married (88.9%, N = 8) and single parent (11.1%, N = 1)

Table 4.1.7: Sum and percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Number of Offspring

Independent variables	Family Communication Patterns				
	Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
One child					
Count	28	6	3	2	39
% within Family type	9.0%	13.6%	8.1%	22.2%	9.8%
% of Total	7.0%	1.5%	.8%	.5%	9.8%
Two children					
Count	122	13	13	3	151
% within Family type	39.4%	29.5%	35.1%	33.3%	37.8%
% of Total	30.5%	3.3%	3.3%	.8%	37.8%
Three children					
Count	76	14	15	2	107
% within Family type	24.5%	31.8%	40.5%	22.2%	26.8%
% of Total	19.0%	3.5%	3.8%	.5%	26.8%
Four children					
Count	51	8	6	0	65
% within Family type	16.5%	18.2%	16.2%	.0%	16.3%
% of Total	12.8%	2.0%	1.5%	.0%	16.3%
Five children or more					

(Continued)

Table 4.1.7 (Continued): Sum and percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Number of Offspring

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
	Count	33	3	0	2	38
	% within Family type	10.6%	6.8%	.0%	22.2%	9.5%
	% of Total	8.3%	.8%	.0%	.5%	9.5%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within children	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.7, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents who had one child (9.0%, N = 28), two children (39.4%, N = 122), three children (24.5%, N = 76), four children (16.5%, N = 51), and five children or more (10.6%, N = 33). There were 44 protective parents who had one child (13.6%, N = 6), two children (29.5%, N = 13), three children (31.4%, N = 14), four children (18.2%, N = 8), and five children or more (6.8%, N = 3). There were 37 pluralistic parents who had one child (8.1%, N = 3), two children (35.1%, N = 13), three children (40.5%, N = 15), and four children (16.2%, N = 6). There were 9 laissez-faire parents who had one child (22.1%, N = 2), two children (33.3%, N = 3), three children (22.2%, N = 2), and five children or more (22.2%, N = 2).

Table 4.1.8: Sum and percentage of the Sample's Family Communication Patterns based on the Family Type

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Nuclear family						
	Count	191	22	21	6	240
	% within Family type	61.6%	50.0%	56.8%	66.7%	60.0%
	% of Total	47.8%	5.5%	5.3%	1.5%	60.0%
Extended family						
	Count	83	17	11	2	113
	% within Family type	26.8%	38.6%	29.7%	22.2%	28.3%
	% of Total	20.8%	4.3%	2.8%	.5%	28.3%
	Others Count	36	5	5	1	47
	% within Family type	11.6%	11.4%	13.5%	11.1%	11.8%
	% of Total	9.0%	1.3%	1.3%	.3%	11.8%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within family	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

As shown in Table 4.1.8, descriptive findings indicated that there were 310 consensual parents from nuclear family parent (1.6%, N = 191), extended family (26.8%, N = 83) and other type of family (11.6%, N = 36). There were 44 protective parents from nuclear family (50.0%, N = 22), extended family (38.6%, N = 17) and other type of family (11.4%, N = 5). There were 37 pluralistic parents from nuclear

family parents (56.8%, N = 21), extended family (29.7%, N = 11) and other type of family (13.5%, N = 5). There were 9 laissez-faire parents who were from nuclear family (66.7%, N = 6), extended family (22.2%, N = 2) and other type of family (11.1%, N = 1).

Table 4.1.9: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Gender

Conflict Management Styles	Gender	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	Male	16.61	3.204	200	Strong style
	Female	15.90	2.811	200	Average style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	Male	14.08	3.693	200	Average style
	Female	13.93	3.510	200	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	Male	16.65	3.237	200	Strong style
	Female	16.35	3.838	200	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	Male	20.44	2.856	200	Strong style
	Female	19.72	3.175	200	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Male	20.02	2.964	200	Strong style
	Female	19.02	3.232	200	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.9, descriptive findings indicated that the male parents exhibited strong conflict management styles including, avoiding style (Sum = 16.61, *SD* = 3.204), compromising style (Sum = 16.65, *SD* = 3.237), accommodating style

(Sum = 20.44, *SD* = 2.856), and collaborating style (Sum =20.02, *SD* = 2.964), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.08, *SD* = 3.693), respectively. The female parents exhibited strong compromising style (Sum = 16.35, *SD* = 3.838), accommodating style (Sum = 19.72, *SD* = 3.175), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.02, *SD* = 3.232), but an average for avoiding style (Sum = 15.90, *SD* = 2.811) and competing style (Sum = 13.93, *SD* =3.509), respectively.

Table 4.1.10: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Age

Conflict Management Styles	Age	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	29-39	16.68	3.181	180	Strong style
	40-49	15.83	2.888	185	Average style
	50 or over	16.34	2.733	35	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	29-39	14.08	3.598	180	Average style
	40-49	13.90	3.666	185	Average style
	50 or over	14.17	3.312	35	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	29-39	16.65	3.041	180	Strong style
	40-49	16.40	4.088	185	Strong style
	50 or over	16.23	2.911	35	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	29-39	20.21	3.051	180	Strong style
	40-49	20.08	2.934	185	Strong style
	50 or over	19.40	3.483	35	Strong style

(Continued)

Table 4.1.10 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Age

Conflict Management Styles	Age	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	29-39	19.63	3.118	180	Strong style
	40-49	19.42	3.190	185	Strong style
	50 or over	19.46	3.023	35	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.10, descriptive findings indicated that parents who were between 29-39 years old exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.68, *SD* = 3.181), compromising style (Sum = 16.65, *SD* = 3.041), accommodating style (Sum = 20.21, *SD* = 3.051), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.63, *SD* = 3.118), but an average for competing style (Sum = 14.08, *SD* = 3.598), respectively. The parents who were between 40-49 years old exhibited strong compromising style (Sum = 16.4000, *SD* = 4.08763), accommodating style (Sum = 20.08, *SD* = 2.934), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.42, *SD* = 3.190), but an average for avoiding style (Sum = 15.83, *SD* = 2.888), and competing style (Sum = 13.90, *SD* = 3.666), respectively.

The parents who were 50 years old or over years old exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.34, *SD* = 2.733), compromising style (Sum = 16.23, *SD* = 2.911), accommodating style (M = 19.40, *SD* = 3.483), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.46, *SD* = 3.023), but an average for competing style (Sum = 14.17, *SD* = 3.312), respectively.

Table 4.1.11: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Education Level

Conflict Management Styles	Education level	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	High school	16.48	3.264	231	Strong style
	Bachelor's degree	15.91	2.691	110	Average style
	Master's degree or higher	16.03	2.626	59	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	High school	13.83	3.615	231	Average style
	Bachelor's degree	14.09	3.601	110	Average style
	Master's degree or higher	14.54	3.530	59	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	High school	16.19	3.230	231	Strong style
	Bachelor's degree	16.83	4.347	110	Strong style
	Master's degree or higher	17.07	2.976	59	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	High school	20.45	2.995	231	Strong style
	Bachelor's degree	19.45	3.236	110	Strong style
	Master's degree or higher	19.80	2.612	59	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	High school	19.78	3.067	231	Strong style
	Bachelor's degree	18.83	3.458	110	Strong style
	Master's degree or higher	19.76	2.589	59	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.11, descriptive findings indicated that parents who had obtained high school exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.48, *SD* = 3.264),

compromising style (Sum = 16.19, *SD* = 3.230), accommodating (Sum = 20.45, *SD* = 2.995), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.78, *SD* = 3.067), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.83, *SD* = 3.615), respectively.

The parents who had obtained a bachelor's degree exhibited strong compromising style (Sum = 16.83, *SD* = 4.347), accommodating style (Sum = 19.44, *SD* = 3.23566), and collaborating style (Sum = 18.83, *SD* = 3.458), but exhibited an average avoiding style (Sum = 15.91, *SD* = 2.691), and competing style, (Sum = 14.09, *SD* = 3.601), respectively. The parents who had obtained master's degree or higher exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.03, *SD* = 3.031), compromising style (Sum = 17.07, *SD* = 2.976), accommodating style (Sum = 19.45, *SD* = 3.236), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.76, *SD* = 2.589), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.54, *SD* = 3.530), respectively.

Table 4.1.12: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Income Level

Conflict Management Styles	Income Level	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	16.22	3.384	87	Strong style
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	16.27	3.101	128	Strong style
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	16.35	2.876	135	Strong style
	50,001Nu and higher	16.04	2.665	50	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	Lower than and equal to	14.53	3.812	87	Average style

(Continued)

Table 4.1.12 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Income Level

Conflict Management Styles	Income Level	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
	10,000 Nu				
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	13.84	3.637	128	Average style
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	13.73	3.587	135	Average style
	50,001 Nu and higher	14.28	3.104	50	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	15.93	3.143	87	Average style
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	16.07	3.031	128	Strong style
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	16.73	3.284	135	Strong style
	50,001 Nu and higher	17.96	5.345	50	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	20.21	3.397	87	Strong style
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	20.35	2.782	128	Strong style
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	19.88	2.930	135	Strong style
	50,001 Nu and higher	19.70	3.297	50	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	19.24	3.660	87	Strong style
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	19.73	2.682	128	Strong style
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	19.64	3.080	135	Strong style
	50,001 Nu and higher	19.14	3.411	50	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.12, descriptive findings indicated that parents with income lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu in a month exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.22, SD = 3.384), accommodating style (Sum = 20.21, SD = 3.397), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.24, SD = 3.660), but exhibited an average compromising style (Sum=15.93, SD = 3.143) and competing style (Sum = 14.53, SD = 3.812), respectively. The parents with income between 10, 001- 20,000 Nu exhibited strong accommodating style (Sum = 20.35, SD = 2.782), followed by collaborating style (Sum = 19.73, SD = 2.682), avoiding style (Sum = 16.27, SD = 3.101), and compromising style (Sum = 16.07, SD = 3.031) and but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.84, SD = 3.637), respectively.

The parents with income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu exhibited strong collaborating style (Sum = 19.64, SD = 3.080), followed by accommodating style (Sum = 19.88, SD = 2.930), compromising style (Sum = 16.73, SD = 3.284), avoiding style (Sum = 16.35, SD = 2.876), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.73, SD = 3.5872). The parents with income between 50,001 Nu and higher exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.04, SD = 2.665), compromising style (Sum = 17.96, SD = 5.345), accommodating style (Sum = 19.70, SD = 3.297), and followed by collaborating style (Sum = 19.14, SD = 3.411), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.28, SD = 3.104).

Table 4.1.13: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Occupation Level

Conflict Management Styles	Occupation Level	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding Style	Government employee	16.35	3.110	173	Strong style
	Private employee	16.22	3.223	85	Strong style
	Corporate employee	15.84	2.771	49	Average style
	Entrepreneur/business owner	16.91	2.693	47	Strong style
	Others	15.76	2.930	46	Average style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing Style	Government employee	14.06	3.543	173	Average style
	Private employee	14.01	3.762	85	Average style
	Corporate employee	13.84	3.281	49	Average style
	Entrepreneur/business owner	13.57	3.734	47	Average style
	Others	14.43	3.775	46	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising Style	Government employee	16.40	3.162	173	Strong style
	Private employee	16.35	3.150	85	Strong style
	Corporate employee	16.80	5.612	49	Strong style
	Entrepreneur/business owner	16.21	3.375	47	Strong style
	Others	17.11	3.013	46	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating Style	Government employee	19.97	2.868	173	Strong style
	Private employee	19.88	3.190	85	Strong style
	Corporate employee	19.37	3.450	49	Strong style
	Entrepreneur/business owner	20.85	2.670	47	Strong style
	Others	20.83	3.086	46	Strong style

(Continued)

Table 4.1.13 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Occupation Level

Conflict Management	Occupation Level	Sum	SD	N	Meaning Style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Government employee	19.66	2.967	173	Strong style
	Private employee	19.01	3.382	85	Strong style
	Corporate employee	19.10	3.362	49	Strong style
	Entrepreneur/business owner	19.91	2.765	47	Strong style
	Others	19.93	3.363	46	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.13, descriptive findings indicated that parents who were government employee exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.35, SD = 3.110), compromising style (Sum = 16.40, SD = 3.162), accommodating style (Sum = 19.97, SD = 2.868), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.66, SD = 2.967), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.06, SD = 3.543).

Similarly, the parents who were private employee exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.22, SD = 3.223), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.35, SD = 3.150), accommodating style (Sum = 19.88, SD = 3.190), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.01, SD = 3.382), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.01, SD = 3.762). The parents who were corporate employee exhibited strong compromising style (Sum = 16.80, SD = 5.612), followed by accommodating style (Sum = 19.37, SD = 3.450), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.10, SD = 3.362), but

exhibited an average avoiding style (Sum = 15.84, SD = 2.771) and competing style (Sum = 13.84, SD = 3.281). The parents who were entrepreneur/business owner exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.91, SD = 2.693), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.21, SD = 3.47469), accommodating style (Sum = 20.85, SD = 2.670), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.91, SD = 2.765), but an average competing style (Sum = 13.57, SD = 3.734).

The remaining parents who were in others exhibited strong compromising style (Sum = 17.11, SD = 3.013), followed by accommodating style (Sum = 20.83, SD = 3.086) and collaborating style (Sum = 19.93, SD = 3.363), but an average avoiding style (Sum = 15.76, SD = 2.930) and competing style (Sum = 14.43, SD = 3.775).

Table 4.1.14: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Marital Status

Conflict Management Styles	Marital status	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	Married	16.22	3.078	359	Strong style
	Single-parent	16.56	2.599	41	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	Married	13.91	3.564	359	Average style
	Single-parent	14.90	3.820	41	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	Married	16.42	3.598	359	Strong style
	Single-parent	17.15	3.046	41	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	

(Continued)

Table 4.1.14 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on Marital Status

Conflict Management Styles	Marital status	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Accommodating style	Married	20.08	3.068	359	Strong style
	Single-parent	20.10	2.791	41	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Married	19.50	3.207	359	Strong style
	Single-parent	19.63	2.477	41	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.14, descriptive findings indicated that parents who were married exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.22, *SD* = 3.078), compromising style (Sum = 16.42, *SD* = 3.598), accommodating style (Sum = 20.08, *SD* = 3.068), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.50, *SD* = 3.207), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.91, *SD* = 3.564). In parallel, the samples who were single parent exhibited strong avoiding style (M = 16.56, *SD* = 2.599), followed by compromising style (Sum = 17.15, *SD* = 3.046), accommodating style (Sum = 20.10, *SD* = 2.971) and collaborating style (Sum = 19.63, *SD* = 2.477), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.90, *SD* = 3.820).

Table 4.1.15: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on the Number of Offspring

Conflict Management Styles	Number of offspring	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	One child	16.62	2.768	39	Strong style
	Two children	16.09	3.034	151	Strong style
	Three children	16.27	3.122	107	Strong style
	Four children	16.34	2.933	65	Strong style
	Five children or more	16.37	3.291	38	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	One child	14.51	3.684	39	Average style
	Two children	13.66	3.371	151	Average style
	Three children	13.84	3.727	107	Average style
	Four children	13.75	3.307	65	Average style
	Five children or more	15.79	4.088	38	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	One child	16.49	3.260	39	Strong style
	Two children	16.54	3.384	151	Strong style
	Three children	16.37	4.158	107	Strong style
	Four children	15.83	3.160	65	Average style
	Five children or more	17.84	3.000	38	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	One child	19.74	3.135	39	Strong style
	Two children	20.28	2.979	151	Strong style
	Three children	19.87	3.099	107	Strong style
	Four children	20.25	3.062	65	Strong style

(Continued)

Table 4.1.15 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on the Number of Offspring

Conflict Management Styles	Number of offspring	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
	Five children or more	19.92	3.035	38	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	One child	19.05	2.973	39	Strong style
	Two children	19.62	3.229	151	Strong style
	Three children	19.36	3.124	107	Strong style
	Four children	19.62	3.141	65	Strong style
	Five children or more	19.87	3.051	38	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	Strong style

As shown in Table 4.1.15, descriptive findings indicated that parents of one child exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.62, SD = 2.768), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.49, SD = 3.260), accommodating (Sum = 19.74, SD = 3.135), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.05, SD = 2.973), and but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.51, SD = 3.684), respectively.

The parents of two children exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.09, SD = 3.034), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.54, SD = 3.384), accommodating style (Sum = 20.28, SD = 2.979), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.62, SD = 3.229), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.66, SD = 3.371), respectively.

The parents of three children exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.27, SD = 3.122), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.37, SD = 4.158), accommodating

style (Sum = 19.87, SD = 3.099), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.36, SD = 3.124), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.84, SD = 3.727), respectively. The parents of four children exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.34, SD = 2.933), followed by accommodating style (Sum = 20.25, SD = 3.062) and collaborating style (Sum = 19.62, SD = 3.141), but exhibited an average compromising style (Sum = 15.83, SD = 3.160) and competing style (Sum = 13.75, SD = 3.307), respectively. The parents of five children exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.37, SD = 3.29), followed by compromising style (Sum = 17.84, SD = 3.000), accommodating style (Sum = 19.92, SD = 3.035), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.87, SD = 3.051), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 15.79, SD = 4.088), respectively.

Table 4.1.16: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on the Family Type

Conflict Management Styles	Family type	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	Nuclear family	16.21	3.017	240	Strong style
	Extended family	16.47	3.218	113	Strong style
	Others	16.00	2.646	47	Strong style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	Nuclear family	13.88	3.582	240	Average style
	Extended family	14.26	3.435	113	Average style
	Others	14.09	4.085	47	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	

(Continued)

Table 4.1.16 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of the Sample's Conflict Management Styles based on the Family Type

Conflict Management Styles	Family type	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Compromising style	Nuclear family	16.21	3.251	240	Strong style
	Extended family	17.12	4.147	113	Strong style
	Others	16.47	3.329	47	Strong style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	Nuclear family	20.17	3.027	240	Strong style
	Extended family	19.83	3.235	113	Strong style
	Others	20.23	2.598	47	Strong style
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Nuclear family	19.68	3.149	240	Strong style
	Extended family	19.08	3.227	113	Strong style
	Others	19.77	2.799	47	Strong style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in Table 4.1.16, descriptive findings indicated that parents from nuclear family exhibited strong avoiding style ((Sum = 16.61, SD = 3.017), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.21, SD = 3.251), accommodating style (Sum = 20.17, SD = 3.027), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.68, SD = 3.149), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 13.88, SD = 3.582), respectively. The parents from extended family exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.21, SD = 3.017), followed by compromising style (Sum = 17.12, SD = 4.147), accommodating style (Sum = 19.83, SD = 3.235), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.08, SD = 3.227), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.26, SD = 3.435), respectively.

The parents from others family exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.00, SD = 2.646), followed by compromising style (Sum = 16.47, SD = 3.329), accommodating style (Sum = 20.23, SD = 2.598), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.77, SD = 2.799), but exhibited an average competing style (Sum = 14.09, SD = 4.085), respectively.

Table 4.1.17: Sum and Standard Deviation of Conflict Management Styles on Family Communication Patterns

Conflict Management styles	Family Communication Patterns	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	Consensual family	16.58	2.906	310	Strong style
	Protective family	15.55	3.106	44	Average style
	Pluralistic family	14.97	3.508	37	Average style
	Laissez-faire family	13.89	2.028	9	Average style
	Total	16.26	3.031	400	
Competing style	Consensual family	14.37	3.564	310	Average style
	Protective family	14.48	2.937	44	Average style
	Pluralistic family	10.68	3.127	37	Weak style
	Laissez-faire family	13.00	2.500	9	Average style
	Total	14.01	3.599	400	
Compromising style	Consensual family	17.06	3.519	310	Strong style
	Protective family	15.09	2.640	44	Average style
	Pluralistic family	14.35	3.093	37	Average style
	Laissez-faire family	12.89	3.219	9	Average style
	Total	16.50	3.549	400	
Accommodating style	Consensual family	20.63	2.622	310	Strong style
	Protective family	18.30	2.858	44	Strong style
	Pluralistic family	18.70	3.650	37	Strong style
	Laissez-faire family	15.44	5.341	9	Average style

(Continued)

Table 4.1.17 (Continued): Sum and Standard Deviation of Conflict management Styles on Family Communication Patterns

Conflict Management styles	Family Communication Patterns	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
	Total	20.08	3.038	400	
Collaborating style	Consensual family	20.06	2.770	310	Strong style
	Protective family	17.14	3.115	44	Strong style
	Pluralistic family	18.89	3.478	37	Strong style
	Laissez-faire family	14.89	4.400	9	Average style
	Total	19.52	3.138	400	

As shown in the Table 4.1.17, descriptive findings indicated that consensual parents exhibited strong avoiding style (Sum = 16.58, *SD* = 2.906), followed by compromising style (Sum = 17.06, *SD* = 3.519), accommodating style (Sum = 20.63, *SD* = 2.622), and collaborating style (Sum = 20.06, SD = 2.770), but exhibited an average for competing style (Sum = 14.37, *SD* = 3.564), respectively. Protective parents exhibited strong accommodating style (Sum = 18.30, *SD* = 2.858) and collaborating style (Sum = 17.14, *SD* = 3.115), but exhibited an average avoiding style (Sum = 15.55, *SD* = 3.106), compromising style (Sum = 15.09, *SD* = 2.640),) and competing style (Sum = 14.48, *SD* = 2.937), consecutively.

Pluralistic parents exhibited strong accommodating style (Sum = 18.70, *SD* = 3.650), and collaborating style (Sum = 18.89, *SD* = 3.478), but exhibited an average avoiding style (Sum = 14.97, *SD* = 3.508), and compromising style (Sum = 14.35, *SD* = 3.093) and weak competing style (Sum = 10.68, *SD* = 3.127). Laissez-faire parents

exhibited an average avoiding style (Sum = 13.89, *SD* = 2.028), competing style (Sum = 13.00, *SD* = 2.500), compromising style (Sum = 12.89, *SD* = 3.219), accommodating style (Sum = 15.44, *SD* = 5.341), and collaborating style (Sum = 14.89, *SD* = 4.400), consecutively.

Table 4.1.18: Sum and Standard Deviation of Relationship Satisfaction on Family Communication Patterns

Family Communication Patterns	Relationship scale			
	Sum	SD	N	Meaning
Consensual family	40.79	4.443	310	Satisfied
Protective family	35.80	5.877	44	Satisfied
Pluralistic family	40.59	5.639	37	Satisfied
Laissez-faire family	34.22	5.805	9	Satisfied
Total	40.07	5.076	400	

The descriptive findings in table 4.1.18 showed that consensual parents (Sum = 40.79, *SD* = 4.443, N = 310) and pluralistic parents (Sum = 40.59, *SD* = 5.639, N = 37), protective parents (Sum = 35.80, *SD* = 5.877, N = 44) and laissez-faire parents (Sum = 34.22, *SD* = 5.805, N = 9) reported satisfied in their relationship, respectively.

Table 4.1.19: Sum and Standard Deviation of Relationship Satisfaction on Conflict Management Styles

Conflict management styles	Sum	SD.	N	Meaning
Avoiding style	16.2575	3.03136	400	Dissatisfied
Competing style	14.0075	3.59859	400	Dissatisfied
Compromising style	16.4975	3.54915	400	Dissatisfied
Accommodating style	20.0800	3.03754	400	Dissatisfied
Collaborating style	19.5175	3.1375	400	Dissatisfied

The descriptive findings in Table 4.1.19 indicated that only parents self-reported conflict management styles such as avoiding style (Sum = 16.257, *SD* = 3.0314), competing style (Sum = 14.007, *SD* = 3.598), compromising style (Sum = 16.4975, *SD* = 3.549), accommodating style (Sum = 20.080, *SD* = 3.0375), and collaborating style (Sum = 19.517, *SD* = 3.137) dissatisfied in the relationship.

4.2 Hypotheses Findings

Hypothesis 1: Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family-related factors such as gender, age, education level, income level, occupation level, marital status, number of children and family type will significantly correlate with their perceived family communication pattern. The chi-square analysis was conducted to determine the correlation between demographic factors and family-related factors and family communication patterns. Therefore, Chi-square test was performed for hypothesis H1 and its sub-hypotheses.

Table 4.2.1**:** Chi-square Test on the Influence of Demographic Factors and Family-Related Factors on the Samples' Self-Perceived Family Communication Patterns

Independent variables	χ^2	*df*	*p*
Gender	3.869	3	.276
Age	2.030	6	.917
Education level	11.258	6	.08
Income level	23.654**	9	.005**
Occupation level	7.324	12	.836
Marital status	1.879	3	.598
Number of offspring	14.574	12	.266
Family type	3.175	6	.787

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2, Chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant relationship between parents' income level differences and self-perceived family communication patterns ($\chi^2_{(9,400)} = 23.654$, $p < .01$), but yielded not significant relationship with other demographic variables, including gender ($\chi^2_{(3, 400)} = 3.869$, $p > .05$), age ($\chi^2_{(6, 400)} = 2.030$, $p > .05$), education level ($\chi^2_{(6, 400)} = 11.258$, $p > .05$), occupation level ($\chi^2_{(12, 400} = 7.324$, $p > .05$), marital status ($\chi^2_{(3, 400)} = 1.879$, $p > .05$), number of offspring ($\chi^2_{(12)} = 14.574$, $p > .05$), and family type ($\chi^2_{(6, 400)} = 3.175$, $p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H1 was partially accepted.

Table 4.2.2: Sum and Percentage of the Income Level of the Samples and their Self-Perceived Family Communication Patterns

Independent variables		Family Communication Patterns				
		Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total
Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu						
	Count	64	17	2	4	87
	% within Family type	20.6%	38.6%	5.4%	44.4%	21.8%
	% of Total	16.0%	4.3%	.5%	1.0%	21.8%
10, 001- 20,000 Nu						
	Count	107	12	8	1	128
	% within Family type	34.5%	27.3%	21.6%	11.1%	32.0%
	% of Total	26.8%	3.0%	2.0%	.3%	32.0%
20,001- 50,000 Nu						
	Count	100	12	20	3	135
	% within Family type	32.3%	27.3%	54.1%	33.3%	33.8%
	% of Total	25.0%	3.0%	5.0%	.8%	33.8%
50,001 Nu and higher						
	Count	39	3	7	1	50
	% within Family type	12.6%	6.8%	18.9%	11.1%	12.5%
	% of Total	9.8%	.8%	1.8%	.3%	12.5%
Total	Count	310	44	37	9	400
	% within income	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%
	% within Family type	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	77.5%	11.0%	9.3%	2.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square = 23.654, df = 9, Sig = .005 (two sided), $p < .01$

Table 4.2.2 (Continued): Sum and Percentage of the Income Level of the Samples and their Self-Perceived Family Communication Patterns

Independent variables	Family Communication Patterns				
	Consensual Family	Protective Family	Pluralistic Family	Laissez-faire Family	Total

Chi-Square = 23.654, df = 9, Sig = .005 (two sided), $p < .01$

As shown in Table 4.2.2, the parents with different income levels proportionately perceived different family communication patterns. It appeared that the proportions of consensual parents who are in income lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu, 10, 001- 20,000 Nu, 20,001- 50,000 Nu and 50,001Nu and higher were .206, .345, .323, and .126, respectively.

The proportions of protective parents who are in income lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu, 10, 001- 20,000 Nu, 20,001- 50,000 Nu and 50,001Nu and higher were .386, . 273, .273, and .068, respectively. The proportions of pluralistic parents who are in income lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu, 10, 001- 20,000 Nu, 20,001- 50,000 Nu and 50,001Nu and higher were .541, . 216, .189 and .054, respectively. The proportions of laissez-faire parents who are in lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu, 10, 001- 20,000 Nu, 20,001- 50,000 Nu and 50,001Nu and higher were .444, .111, .333 and .111, respectively. Thus, Chi-square analysis concluded that, there is a significant correlation between parents self-perceived family communication patterns and income level ($\chi^2_{(9, 400)} = 23.654$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 2: Bhutanese parents' who are characterized by differences in demographic factors and family-related factors such as gender, age, education level, income level, occupation level, marital status, number of children and family types will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) test was used to identify the find the significant difference in demographic factors and family-related factors on conflict management styles.

Table 4.2.3: Summary of Wilks' Lambda Tests on the Influence of the Demographic Factors and Family-Related Factors on Conflict Management Styles

Effect	F	df	Error df	p
Gender	2.655*	5.000	394.000	.022*
Age	1.148	10.000	786.000	.323
Education level	2.636**	10.000	786.000	.004**
Income level	2.182**	15.000	1082.541	.006**
Occupation level	.1.279	20.000	1297.750	.182
Marital status	.673	5.000	394.000	.644
Number of offspring	1.166	20.000	1297.750	.276
Family type	1.389	10.000	786.000	.180

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.3, MANOVA analysis using Wilks' Lambda tests indicated that parents' gender differences ($F_{(5, 400)} = 2.655$, $p < .05$), educational level ($F_{(5, 400)} = 2.636$, $p < .01$) and income level ($F_{(15, 400)} = 2.182$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles, but

unassociated with age ($F_{(10, 400)}$ =.1.148, $p > .05$), and occupation level ($F_{(20, 400)}$ = 1.276, $p > .05$), marital status ($F_{(5, 400)}$=.673, $p > .05$), number of offspring ($F_{(20, 400)}$ = 1.166, $p > .05$) and family type ($F_{(10, 400)}$ = 1.396, $p > .05$). Therefore, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) or Post-hoc analyses on each dependent variable were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA.

H2a: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in gender will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Table 4.2.4: Tests of Between-Subjects Effect of Gender and Conflict Management Styles

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Avoiding style	51.122*	1	51.122 5	5.628	.018*
Competing style	2.403	1	2.403	.185	.667
Compromising style	9.302	1	9.302	.738	.391
Accommodating style	51.840*	1	51.840	5.684	.018*
Collaborating	101.002**	1	101.002	10.504	.001**

Note. ** p < .01, * p < .05

As shown in Table 4.2.4, Analysis of Variance test revealed that the parents' gender differences exhibited significantly different conflict management styles including avoiding style ($F_{(1, 400)}$ = 5.628, $p < .05$), accommodating style ($F_{(1, 400)}$ = 5.684, $p < .05$) and collaborating style ($F_{(1, 400)}$ = 10.504, $p < .01$), but did not exhibit different competing style ($F_{(1, 400)}$ =.185, $p > .05$) and compromising style ($F_{(1, 400)}$ = .738, $p > .05$).

Table 4.2.5: Sum and Standard Deviation of the Gender of the Parents and their Self-Reported Conflict Management Styles

Conflict Management Styles	Gender	Sum	SD	N
Avoiding style	Male	16.61	3.204	200
	Female	15.90	2.811	200
	Total	16.26	3.031	400
Accommodating style	Male	20.44	2.856	200
	Female	19.72	3.175	200
	Total	20.08	3.038	400
Collaborating style	Male	20.02	2.964	200
	Female	19.02	3.232	200
	Total	19.52	3.138	400

As shown in Table 4.2.5, Pairwise Comparison indicated that male parents exhibited stronger conflict management styles, including avoiding style (Sum = 16.61, *SD* = 3.204), accommodating style (Sum = 20.44, *SD* = 2.856), and collaborating style (Sum = 20.02, *SD* = 2.964) than the female parents who exhibited lower avoiding style (Sum = 15.90, *SD* = 2.811), accommodating style (Sum =19.72, *SD* = 3.175), and collaborating style (Sum =19.01, *SD* = 3.232), respectively.

H2b: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in age will exhibit different conflict management styles

MANOVA analysis indicated that parents' age differences was unassociated with their self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(10, 400)} = 1.148$, $p > .05$). Thus,

hypothesis H2b was not supported.

H2c: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in education level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Table 4.2.6: Tests of Between-Subjects Effect of Education Level and Conflict Management Styles

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Avoiding style	27.792	2	13.896	1.516	.221
Competing style	24.827	2	12.413	.958	.384
Compromising style	52.317	2	26.158	2.088	.125
Accommodating style	81.435*	2	40.718	4.490	.012*
Collaborating style	72.304 *	2	36.152	3.722	.025*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.6, Analysis of Variance test revealed that parents' education level differences significantly exhibited different conflict management styles including accommodating style ($F_{(2, 400)} = 4.490$, $p < .05$) and collaborating style ($F_{(2, 400)} = 3.722$, $p < .05$), but did not exhibit different avoiding style ($F_{(2, 400)} = 1.516$, $p > .05$) competing style ($F_{(2, 400)} = .958$, $p > .05$), and compromising style ($F_{(2, 400)}=2.088$, $p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H2c was partially supported.

Table 4.2.7: Multiple Comparison of Education Level on Collaborating Style and Accommodating Style

(I) Education	(J) Education	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std Error	*p*
Accommodating style				
High school	Bachelor's degree	1.01*	.349	.012*
	Master's degree or Higher	.66	.439	.405
Bachelor's degree	High school	-1.01*	.349	.012*
	Master's degree or Higher	-.35	.486	1.000
Master's degree or Higher	High school	-.66	.439	.405
	Bachelor's degree	.35	.486	1.000
Collaborating style				
High school	Bachelor's degree	.96*	.361	.025*
	Master's degree or Higher	.02	.455	1.000
Bachelor's Degree	High school	-.96*	.361	.025*
	Master's degree or Higher	-.94	.503	.191
Master's degree Or higher	High school	-.02	.455	1.000
	Bachelor's degree	.94	.503	.191

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.7, Pairwise Comparison indicated that parents who have obtained high school exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than the samples who have obtained bachelor's degree (MD = 1.01, $p < .05$), but showed

no significant difference with the samples who have obtained masters' degree or higher (MD = .66, $p > .05$). Similarly, parents who have obtained high school exhibited significantly stronger collaborating style than the parents who have obtained bachelor's degree (MD = .96, $p < .05$), but showed no significant difference with parents who have obtained masters' degree or higher (MD = .02, $p > .05$).

H2d: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in income level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Table 4.2.8: Tests of Between-Subjects Effect of Income Level and Conflict Management Styles

Dependent Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Avoiding style	3.640	3	1.213	.131	.942
Competing style	41.265	3	13.755	1.063	.365
Compromising style	165.265**	3	55.088	4.488	.004**
Accommodating style	23.381	3	7.794	.844	.471
Collaborating style	21.282	3	7.094	.719	.541

Note. ** p < .01, * p < .05

As shown in Table 4.2.10, Analysis of Variance test revealed that the parents' income level differences significantly exhibited different conflict management styles including compromising style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 4.488$, $p < .01$), but did not exhibit different avoiding style ($F_{(3, 400)} = .131$, $p >. 05$), competing style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 1.063$, $p > .05$), accommodating style ($F_{(3, 400)} = .844$, $p > .05$), and collaborating style ($F_{(3, 400)} = .719$,

$p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H2d was partially supported.

Table 4.2 9: Multiple Comparison of Income Level on Compromising Style

(I) Income	(J) Income	Mean Differnce (I-J)	Std Error	*p*
Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	-.14	.487	1.000
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	-.79	.482	.598
	50,001Nu and higher	-2.03	622	.007**
10, 001- 20,000 Nu	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	.14	.487	1.000
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	-.66	.432	.781
	50,001Nu and higher	-1.89	.584	.008**
20,001- 50,000 Nu	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	.79	.482	.598
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	.66	.432	.781
	50,001Nu and higher	-1.23	.580	.204
50,001Nu and higher	Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu	2.03	.622	.007**
	10, 001- 20,000 Nu	1.89	.584	.008**
	20,001- 50,000 Nu	1.23	.580	.204

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.9, Pair wise Comparison indicated that the parents who earned income of 50,001Nu and higher exhibited significantly stronger compromising style than the parents who earned income of lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu (MD = 2.03, $p < .01$) and the parents who earned income of 10, 001-20,000 Nu (MD = 1.89, $p < .01$).

H2e: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in occupation level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

MANOVA analysis indicated that the parents' occupation level was unassociated with their self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(20, 400)} = 1.276$, $p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H2e was not supported.

H2f: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in marital status will exhibit different conflict management styles.

MANOVA analysis indicated that the parents' marital status was unassociated with their self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(5, 400)} = .673$, $p > .05$).Thus, hypothesis H2f was not supported.

H2g: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the number of offspring in a family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

MANOVA analysis indicated that the parents' number of offspring was unassociated with their self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(20, 400)} = 1.166$, $p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H2g was not supported.

H2h: Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the family type in the family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

MANOVA analysis indicated that the parents' family type was unassociated with their self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(10, 400)} = 1.396$, $p > .05$). Thus, hypothesis H2h was not supported.

Table 4.2 10: Summary Table for Hypotheses 1 and 2

Independent variables:	Demographic Factors of Samples
Revised family communication patterns	1. Income level: Chi-square analysis revealed significant relationship between parents self-perceived family communication patterns and income level
Conflict management styles	1. Gender: MANOVA analysis revealed that male parents exhibited stronger avoiding style, accommodating style and collaborating style than their female counterparts. 2. 2 Educational level: The parents who have obtained high school exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style and collaborating style than the parents who have obtained bachelor's degree. 3. Income level: The parents who earned income of 50,001Nu and higher exhibited significantly stronger compromising style than the parents who earned income of lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu and the parents who earned income of 10, 001-20,000 Nu.

Hypothesis 3: The Bhutanese parents self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different self-reported conflict management styles with their children.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was employed to examine if four family types of family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different

self-reported conflict management styles.

Table 4.2.11: Multivariate Tests of Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

Dependent Variable	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	p
Pillai's Trace	8.284	15.000	1182	.000**
Wilks' Lambda	8.624	15.000	1082	.000**
Hotelling's Trace	8.895	15.000	1172	.000**
Roy's Largest Root	19.149	5.000	394	.000**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.11, MANOVA analysis using Wilks' Lambda tests indicated that parents' self-perceived family communication patterns significantly exhibited different self-reported conflict management styles ($F_{(15, 400)} = 8.624$, $p < .01$). It should be noted that Pillai's Trace, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root also yielded similar results.

Table 4.2.12: Tests of Between-Subjects effect of Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Style

Dependent Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Avoiding style	166.223	3	55.408	6.269	.000**

(Continued)

Table 4.2.12 (Continued): Tests of Between-Subjects effect of Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Style

Dependent Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Competing style	469.815	3	156.605	13.203	.000**
Compromising style	472.085	3	157.362	13.684 .	000**
Accommodating style	498.252	3	166.084	20.661	.000**
Collaborating style	549.530	3	183.177	21.471	.000**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.12, Analysis of Variance test revealed that the parents' self-perceived family communication patterns significantly exhibited different self-reported conflict management styles including avoiding style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 6.269$, $p < .01$), competing style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 13.203$, $p < .01$) compromising style ($F_{(3)} = 13.684$, $p < .01$), accommodating style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 20.661$, $p < .01$) and collaborating style ($F_{(3, 400)} = 21.471$, $p < .01$). Post-hoc analysis using Bonferroni method was carried out to determine significant difference in parents' self-perceived family communication patterns on self-reported conflict management styles.

Table 4.2 13: Multiple Comparisons between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

(I) family	(J) family	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p
Avoiding style				
Consensual family	Protective family	1.04	.479	.188
	Pluralistic family	1.61	.517	.012*
	Laissez-faire family	2.69	1.005	.046*
Protective family	Consensual family	-1.04	.479	.188
	Pluralistic family	.57	.663	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	1.66	1.088	.771
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-1.61	.517	.012*
	Protective family	-.57	.663	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	1.08	1.105	1.000
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-2.69	1.005	.046*
	Protective family	-1.66	1.088	.771
	Pluralistic family	-1.08	1.105	1.000

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.13, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger avoiding style than pluralistic parents (MD = 1.61, $p < .05$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 2.69, $p < .05$).

Table 4.2 14: Multiple Comparisons between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

(I) family	(J) family	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*p*
Competing style				
Consensual family	Protective family	-.11	.555	1.000
	Pluralistic family	3.69	.599	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	1.37	1.165	1.000
Protective family	Consensual family	.11	.555	1.000
	Pluralistic family	3.80	.768	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	1.48	1.260	1.000
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-3.69	.599	.000**
	Protective family	-3.80	.768	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	-2.32	1.280	.421
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-1.37	1.165	1.000
	Protective family	-1.48	1.260	1.000
	Pluralistic family	2.32	1.280	.421

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.14, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger competing style than pluralistic parents (MD = 3.69, $p < .01$). In addition, protective parents exhibited significantly stronger competing style than pluralistic parents (MD = 3.80, $p < .01$).

Table 4.2 15: Multiple Comparisons between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

(I) family	(J) family	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*p*
Compromising style				
Consensual family	Protective family	1.97	.546	.002**
	Pluralistic family	2.71	.590	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	4.17	1.147	.002**
Protective family	Consensual family	-1.97	.546	.002**
	Pluralistic family	.74	.756	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	2.20	1.241	.460
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-2.71	.590	.000**
	Protective family	-.74	.756	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	1.46	1.260	1.000
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-4.17	1.147	.002**
	Protective family	-2.20	1.241	.460
	Pluralistic family	-1.46	1.260	1.000

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.15, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger compromising style than protective parents (MD = 1.97, $p < .01$), pluralistic parents (MD = 2.71, $p < .01$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 4.17, $p < .01$).

Table 4.2.16: Multiple Comparisons between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

(I) family	(J) family	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*p*
Accommodating style				
Consensual family	Protective family	2.34	.457	.000**
	Pluralistic family	1.93	.493	.001**
	Laissez-faire family	5.19	.959	.000**
Protective family	Consensual family	-2.34	.457	.000**
	Pluralistic family	-.41	.632	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	2.85	1.037	.038*
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-1.93	.493	.001**
	Protective family	.41	.632	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	3.26	1.054	.013*
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-5.19	.959	.000**
	Protective family	-2.85	1.037	.038*
	Pluralistic family	-3.26	1.054	.013*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.16, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than protective parents (MD = 2.34, $p < .01$), pluralistic parents (MD = 1.93, $p < .01$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 5.19, $p < .01$). In addition, protective parents (MD = 2.85, $p < .05$) and pluralistic parents (MD = 3.26, $p < .05$) exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than laissez-faire parents.

Table 4.2.17: Multiple Comparisons between Family Communication Patterns and Conflict Management Styles

(I) family	(J) family	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*p*
Collaborating style				
Consensual family	Protective family	2.93	.471	.000**
	Pluralistic family	1.17	.508	.129
	Laissez-faire family	5.18	.988	.000**
Protective family	Consensual family	-2.93	.471	.000**
	Pluralistic family	-1.76	.652	.044*
	Laissez-faire family	2.25	1.069	.216
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-1.17	.508	.129
	Protective family	1.76	.652	.044*
	Laissez-faire family	4.00	1.086	.002*
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-5.18	.988	.000**
	Protective family	-2.25	1.069	.216
	Pluralistic family	-4.00	1.086	.002**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.17, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger collaborating style than protective parents (MD = 2.93, $p < .01$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 5.18, $p < .01$).Pluralistic parents also exhibited significantly stronger collaborating style than protective parents (MD = 1.76, $p < .05$), and laissez-faire parents (MD = 4.00, $p < .01$).

Table 4.2.18: Summary Table for Hypothesis 3

Avoiding style	Consensual family	Consensual parents exhibited stronger avoiding style than pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents
Competing style	Consensual family and Protective family	The consensual parents and protective parents exhibited significantly stronger competing style than pluralistic parents.
Compromising style	Consensual family	Consensual parents exhibited significantly stronger compromising style and accommodating style than the pluralistic parents, protective parents and laissez-faire parents.
Accommodating style	Consensual Family	Consensual parents also exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than protective parents, pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents.
	Protective family and pluralistic family	Protective parents and pluralistic parents exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than laissez-faire parents
Collaborating style	Consensual family and pluralistic family	Consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited stronger collaborating style than protective parents and laissez-faire parents.

Hypothesis 4: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns will significantly exhibit different degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

One-Way ANOVA was conducted to examine which family communication patterns exhibit higher relationship satisfaction. The findings indicated a significant

relationship between family types of family communication patterns and relationship satisfaction at .05 level.

Table 4.2.19: One-way ANOVA Analysis of Family Types of Family Communication Patterns on Relationship Satisfaction

Dependent Variable:	Relationship Satisfaction				
Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Corrected Model	1281.316	3	427.105	18.794	.000**
Intercept	139689.187	1	139689.187	6146.610	.000**
Family type	1281.316	3	427.105	18.794	.000**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.19, Analysis of Variance revealed that parents' self-perceived family communication patterns significantly exhibited different degree of relationship satisfaction ($F_{(3, 400)} = 18.794$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 4a: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived consensual family and pluralistic family will exhibit significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

Post-hoc analysis using Bonferroni method was carried out to determine the most significant difference in the degree of relationship satisfaction among parents' self-perceived family communication patterns.

Table 4.2.20: Multiple Comparison among Family Types of Family Communication Patterns on Relationship Satisfaction

(I) Family types	(J) Family types	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	*p*
Consensual family	Protective family	4.99	.768	.000**
	Pluralistic family	.19	.829	1.000
	Laissez-faire family	6.56	1.612	.000**
Protective family	Consensual family	-4.99	.768	.000**
	Pluralistic family	-4.80	1.063	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	1.57	1.744	1.000
Pluralistic family	Consensual family	-.19	.829	1.000
	Protective family	4.80	1.063	.000**
	Laissez-faire family	6.37	1.772	.002**
Laissez-faire family	Consensual family	-6.56	1.612	.000**
	Protective family	-1.57	1.744	1.000
	Pluralistic family	-6.37	1.772	.002**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.20, Multiple Comparison indicated that consensual parents exhibited significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than protective parents (MD = 4.99, $p < .01$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 6.56, $p < .01$). Likewise, pluralistic parents exhibited significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than protective parents (MD = 4.80, $p < .01$) and laissez-faire parents (MD = 6.37, $p < .01$). Therefore, hypothesis H4a received a significant support.

H4b: The Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire family will exhibit significantly a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

As also shown in Table 4.2.20, Multiple Comparison indicated that protective parents exhibited a lower degree of relationship satisfaction than consensual parents (MD = -4.99, $p < .01$), and pluralistic parents (MD = -4.80, $p < .01$). Similary, laissez-faire parents exhibited a lower degree of relationship satisfaction than consensual parents (MD = -6.56, $p < .01$) and pluralistic parents (MD = -6.37, $p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis H4b received was supported.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between the Bhutanese parents' self- reported conflict management styles and the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived relationship satisfaction.

Table 4.2.21: Multiple Regression Model on the Relationship between Samples' Self-reported Conflict Management Styles and Relationship Satisfaction

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Standard Error	F	p
1	.559	.313	.304	4.23411	35.893	.000**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

As shown in table 4.2.21, Multiple Regression model indicated that the parents' self-reported conflict management styles revealed as the significant predictor of relationship satisfaction ($R^2 = .313$, $p < .01$). Further, the prediction of each conflict management styles was analyzed to determine the most significant predictor

of relationship satisfaction.

Table 4.2.22: Coefficients of the Samples' Self-Reported Conflict Management Styles on Relationship Satisfaction

Model	B	S.E	Beta	*t*	*p*
Avoiding style	.027	.078	.016	.341	.734
Competing style	-.080	.064	-.057	-1.241	.215
Compromising style	.088	.069	.062	1.275	.203
Accommodating style	.373	.099	.223	3.763	.000**
Collaborating style	.567	.098	.350	5.766	.000**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

H5a: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style will exhibit significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children

As shown in Table 4.2.22, the parents who adopted collaborating style ($\beta = .350$, $p < .01$) and accommodating style ($\beta = .223$, $p < .01$) exhibited significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction. However, parents who adopted compromising style ($\beta = .062$, $p > .05$) did not exhibit significant satisfaction in the relationship. Thus, hypothesis H5a indicated partial support.

H5b: The Bhutanese parents' self-reported competing style and avoiding style will exhibit significantly a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

As shown in Table 4.2.19, indicated that parents who adopted avoiding style ($\beta = .016$, $p > .05$) and competing style ($\beta = -.057$, $p > .05$) were not the significant predictors of relationship satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis H5b was not supported.

Table 4.2.23: Summary Table for Hypotheses 4 and 5

	Dependent variable: Relationship satisfaction
Family communication patterns	One-Way ANOVA analysis indicated that consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than protective parents and the laissez-faire parents.
Conflict management styles	Multiple Regression analysis indicated that the parents who adopted collaborating style and accommodating style exhibited significantly a higher degree of relationship satisfaction. However, parents who adopted avoiding style, competing style and compromising style were not significant predictors of relationship satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the summary of hypotheses and discussion on the findings of the study. In addition, this chapter provides the limitations of the study, and recommendations for application and for future research. The summary of the chapter is as follows:

5.1 Hypotheses Summary and Discussion

5.2 Limitations of the Study

5.3 Recommendation for Further Application

5.4 Recommendation for Further Research

5.1 Hypotheses Summary and Discussion

Hypothesis 1stated that the Bhutanese parents' demographic factors and family related factors will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

Chi-square analysis confirmed that the Bhutanese parents' income level significantly correlated with their self-perceived family communication patterns, but gender, age, education level, and occupation level, number of offspring, marital status, and family type did not reveal a significant correlation with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

H1a stated that the Bhutanese parents' gender differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The Bhutanese parents' gender differences did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. However, the study carried out by Ritchie

and Fitzpatrick (1990) found that the daughters perceived their mothers to be more conversation-oriented, but more conformity-oriented by their sons. The daughters perceived their fathers as less communicative and authoritative than their mothers (Fitzpatrick &Vangelisti, 1995). Although daughters and sons had the unparallel perceptions of their mothers' family orientation, mothers perceived themselves as more conversation-oriented as they communicated openly with the family members (Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1993 as cited in Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002a; Sheldon, 2013). Interestingly, the study carried out by Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) revealed that only those fathers from a high conversation-oriented family communicated openly with their children. Despite clear evidences of gender differences from the previous literatures, the Bhutanese parents' gender differences did not reveal significant correlation with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The first explanation to the non-significant relationship between gender differences and self-perceived family communication patterns could be due to the sample differences used in the study. Most of the prior researches had studied young adults' perspective to study their parents' family communication patterns, but the present study focused only on the parents' perspectives of their family communication patterns. Further, the findings of the present study would have been different if not similar had the Bhutanese children been included as the sample. Therefore, future research needs to consider including the Bhutanese children's perspective to study their parents' family communication patterns.

Second, culture values play a vital role in the Bhutanese society and people emphasize equality among members and treat others like one family. Cultural values might have influenced the perception of the Bhutanese parents about their family

communication patterns with their children. One of the unique traits of the Bhutanese society is the absence of gender discrimination (Crins, 2004). Both men and women enjoy equal status and freedom in the society which otherwise is a very common sight in the rest of the world. There is hardly any particular work designed for men and women and all members irrespective of their gender do all household chores (Crins, 2008, p.143). Traditionally, women in Bhutan were considered as the head of the household as they took most of the responsibility in the family such as "decision about farms, shops, houses, and money matters" (Crins, 2008, p.143). Nevertheless, the educated households and families in the cities had welcomed the changes in the gender roles as most of family decisions were made collectively (Crins, 2008). Since most of the studies identified that the Bhutanese men and women enjoyed equal status in the society and had equal rights to make decisions over their family matters, the Bhutanese parents' communication patterns specifically with their children may not be significantly different from each other. Therefore, the future research needs to affirm on the influence of cultural variables on the parents' family communication and provide insightful findings about the Bhutanese parents.

H1b stated that the Bhutanese parents' age differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The Bhutanese parents' age differences did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns even though prior findings indicated that the socio-orientation among young children decreases with the age while use of concept-orientation increases with the age (Chaffee et al., 1971 as cited in Lambert & McCain, 1990). Perhaps, the cultural values could be the significant factors that have influenced the perception of the Bhutanese parents about their family communication

patterns. The family relationship is as an integral part of the Bhutanese society and the parents ensure to maintain harmony in the family. Moreover, Leaming (2004) discovered that the Bhutanese families were more relaxed and lenient compared to the countries in the Southeast Asia. The Bhutanese families considered raising their relative's children whose parents were either dead or economically poor as the very normative values of the families (Dorji and Kinga, 2005). Chua (2008) however noticed drastic changes in the lives of the Bhutanese society due to the influence of mass media and internet. Some of the most pertinent values that were degrading in the Bhutanese families were the seating patterns during meals and verbal communication among members. Despite ample changes had been noticed in the Bhutanese families, especially the family values by the few researchers, this study could not conclude if there is a positive or negative communication patterns in the Bhutanese families. So, further research needs to consider the media effects on the family communication patterns of the Bhutanese parents.

H1c stated the Bhutanese parents' education level differences will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The Bhutanese parents' education level differences did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. The study by Chan and McNeal (2003) evidently reported that the parents with a higher education level and a higher household income were mostly concept-oriented families whereas the families with a higher education level perceived themselves as pluralistic family and consensual family (Noller & Callan, 1991 as cited in Chan & McNeal 2003). Likewise, the families with a lower social economic status were likely to be conformity-orientated than those families with a higher social economic status (Ritchie, 1997 as cited in

Miller-Day & McManus, 2009). In fact, it is very reasonable to find a positive association between a higher education level and higher conversation-oriented family such as pluralistic family and consensual family because the higher educated parents would have sound knowledge of promoting a positive communication in the family and they would communicate more with their children. Despite clear evidences of positive correlation between education level and family communication patterns, the study showed that the Bhutanese parents' education level differences did not correlate with their family communication patterns with their children.

The reason for such insignificant correlation between education level differences and family communication patterns could be attributed to the cultural differences. Culturally, the Bhutanese people exhibit a very strong reverence to the authority and people follow a very realistic approach of communicating with different people. For instance, people communicate politely using honorific terms with their elders and the higher official people, but people communicate more openly and friendly with others who are equal or younger to them. Since, children being the closest members in the family, the parents' education level may not affect their communication patterns with their children. Evidently, Crins (2008, p. 179) discovered that, "The social power and achievement domains are not recognized by the conversation partners in the Bhutanese family and social recognition is a power, and is regarded as freedom to do what one wants." Therefore, if social power does not interfere between relational partners, it is unlikely that the parents' education level differences will affect their communication patterns with their children. However, had the sample been the children for the present study, the findings might have had indicated different perspective of their family communication patterns if individual

differences need to be considered. The findings of the parents indicated clearly that their education level had no variation in their family communication patterns with their children.

H1d stated that the Bhutanese parents' income level difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The findings evidently showed a significant correlation between parents' income level difference and their self-perceived family communication patterns. The study found that Bhutanese parents with a monthly income of lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu perceived themselves to be in a laissez-faire family the most, followed by protective family, consensual family, and pluralistic family. The parents with an income between 10, 001- 20,000 Nu perceived themselves to be in a consensual family the most, followed by protective family, pluralistic family, and laissez-faire family. The parents with an income between 20,001- 50,000 Nu perceived their family to be in a pluralistic family the most, followed by laissez-faire family, consensual family and protective family. In addition, the parents with an income between 50,001Nu and higher perceived their family to be pluralistic family the most, followed by consensual family, laissez-faire family and protective family.

These findings suggested that higher income Bhutanese parents practiced open communication patterns with their children than the Bhutanese parents with the lower income. The present finding remained consistent with the findings of Ritchie (1997 as cited in Miller-Day & McManus, 2009) that lower social economic status families were likely to be conformity-orientated than those parents from a higher social economic status. Miller-Day and McManus (2009) found that the lower income families practiced a rigid communication patterns with their members as the parents in

such families had multiple jobs and spent most of their time away from home. Consistently, the Bhutanese parents with a monthly income of lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu perceived themselves to be in a laissez-faire family the most, followed by protective family, consensual family, and pluralistic family. The present findings also corresponded with the prior findings that the parents with a higher education level and a higher income level were mostly concept-oriented families (Chan & McNeal, 2003 and Ritchie,1997 as cited in Miller-Day & McManus, 2009). Correspondingly, the Bhutanese parents with an income between 50,001Nu and higher perceived their family to be pluralistic family the most, followed by consensual family, laissez-faire family and protective family.

Such changes in the communication patterns among the Bhutanese parents with different income level could be obvious, especially with the parents with the lower income level. Although, the findings of Leaming (2004) confirmed that the Bhutanese parents were seen relatively flexible with their children and parents and children share a very strong bond, the study carried out by Chau (2008) noticed that the constant exposure to the internet and television had led to a deterioration of the family values in the Bhutanese family such as the traditional practices of face-to-face interaction and the daily ritual of sitting together for the meals. Even Wangyal (2001) had pointed out the Bhutanese parents in the urban homes failed to provide enough time to their children. In addition, due to the work pressure and the lack of daily communication in the family had contributed in weakening the family relationship. These could be the reason the Bhutanese parents in low-income level perceived themselves in conformity-oriented family the most.

Another possible reason for the Bhutanese parents with the higher income

level to perceive themselves in the conversation-oriented family could be due to the widespread and easy access of the internet facilities in the country that had made them undeniably more conscious of their conversation skills with their children. Generally, the Bhutanese parents are considerate to their children and communicate often in the family irrespective of their income levels. Since the parents with higher income will be highly educated, it is assumed that they would understand the benefits of providing quality time to their children and encourage their children to have open discussions in the family. They would also have a good communication skills compared to those parents with a lower income level who would have a limited knowledge regarding the importance of promoting active interaction in the family especially with the children.

H1e stated that the Bhutanese parents' occupation level difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The Bhutanese parents' occupation level difference did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. Contradictory, Phoprayun's study (2013) which was carried out in Bangkok metropolitan confirmed significant correlation among demographic characteristics and family background of female students such as personal income, education of mother, occupation of father and mother, and family income with their family communication patterns. The only possible ground for the non-significant correlation between occupation level of the Bhutanese parents and their family communication patterns could be due to the culture values in which people are accustomed with throughout their life. Crins (2008, p. 179) discovered the unique characteristic in the Bhutanese family is, "The social power and achievement domains are not recognized by the conversation partners." Therefore, it indicates that social status or occupation level of the parents is unlikely

to affect their communication patterns with their children in the Bhutanese family. There is possibility that the social power and social status of an individual in the society might interfere when communicating with other people outside home or in workplace because Hofstede's cultural dimension (2011) identified Bhutan as high power distance society and people in such society exhibit high reverence for the authority. Even today, when it comes to interacting with the children, we can see the Bhutanese parents still allowing their children to enjoy their own personal freedom as Leaming (2004) pointed out in her study that the Bhutanese family is more relaxed and lenient to their children. Thus, we can fairly assume that the occupation level of the parents may not make much difference in the way they communication with their children.

H1f stated that the Bhutanese parents' marital status difference will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The Bhutanese parents' marital status did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2012) did not measure family types of communication patterns with marital status, yet their findings clearly indicated the possibility of having differences in the communication patterns of the parents according to their marital status. They found that the parents in structurally intact family received a greater emotional support from their partners, which helped them to build strong relationships with their children. Conversely, the parents in non-intact family lacked emotional support from the partners and hence they relied on their children that made them feel impotency in the relationship. These findings imply that parents in well-structured family share a positive relationship with their children than those parents who lack support from their partners. However, Tims

and Masland (1985 as cited in Lambart & McCain, 1990) suggested that certain beliefs and value systems have a great impact on the way parent-child communicate within the family. The lack of prejudice between men and women in the matrimonial issues in the Bhutanese society could be one reason that had resulted in non-significant correlation between Bhutanese parents' marital status and their family communication patterns in the present study. The prior studies had clearly stated that both Bhutanese men and women enjoy equal rights to live a life they wanted to and most importantly Crins (2008, p.180) stated that, "divorce or separation was easy and not stigmatized" in the Bhutanese society. Thus, it suggests that the Bhutanese parents irrespective of their marital status may not exhibit different family communication patterns with their children.

H1g stated that the Bhutanese parents' number of offspring will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The findings reported that the Bhutanese parents' number of offspring did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. Although Miller-Day and Marks (2006) argued that each parent communicated differently with their offspring to create a unique dyadic communication environment, none of prior research had identified number offspring as variable to study their family communication patterns.

Leaming (2004) found that the Bhutanese family shared burden of all members to live harmoniously and considered normal values to raise their relative's children. In addition, children who had lost their parents or economically poor resort to their grandparents, siblings, and relatives for help (Dorji & Kinga, 2005). When Bhutanese family concerns more on the harmonious relationship, the number of

offspring in the family may not affect the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns with their children. In connection, Wangyal (2001) found that the number of households in the Bhutanese family would exceed more than seven to eight in the traditional extended families. Therefore, it implies that Bhutanese families are accustomed to living harmoniously with the large number of people in the family and hence the number of offspring in the family would not define the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns.

H1h stated that the Bhutanese parents' family type will significantly correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns.

The findings reported that the Bhutanese parents' family type did not correlate with their self-perceived family communication patterns. Wangyal (2001) found that the Bhutanese families were relatively large, extended families and flexible when dealing with its members. The members in the family would exceed more than seven to eight in the traditional extended families, but Crins (2004) observed that the urban societies had started to embrace nuclear families over the most preferred extended families in the past. Despite changes in the family types in the Bhutanese society, the present findings indicated that the Bhutanese parents' family types did not affect the way Bhutanese parents communicate with their children. This might be because Lokamitra (2004) pointed out that the Bhutanese people treated others with care and related others as their family deemed to the religious belief of interdependence with all living beings. It is unquestionable that children being the closest members in the family the parents would give equal consideration in the family. Therefore, further research needs to confirm the validity of the research.

Hypothesis 2 stated that Bhutanese parents who are characterized by

differences in demographic factors and family related factors would exhibit different conflict management styles.

H2a stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in gender will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis findings indicated a significant association between the parents' gender differences and their self-reported avoiding style, accommodating style and collaborating style, but the findings indicated non-significant association with parents' self-reported competing style and compromising style. Pair-wise comparison indicated that Bhutanese male parents exhibited slightly stronger accommodating style, collaborating style and avoiding style with their children than their female counterparts. Similar to the present the findings, Gbadamosi, Baghestan, and Al-Mabrouk (2014) found that the women used less avoiding style than men, but Vokiý and Sontor (2010) found out that female used higher accommodating style and compromising style than men. Interestingly, Vokiý and Sontor (2010) indicated the possibility of any parents irrespective of the gender differences to exhibit different conflict styles with their children. They found that the married people who had children used a higher avoiding style and accommodating style compared to the married people without children.

Besides, the cultural differences could be the only plausible reason for exhibiting different accommodating style, collaborating style and avoiding style between the Bhutanese female and male parents. Perhaps, it could be the lack of gender discrimination as Crins (2004) discovered in the Bhutanese family. Crins (2004) mentioned that the lack of gender discrimination was a unique trait inherited by the Bhutanese society as both male and female enjoyed equal privileges given in

the society. Therefore, it is suggested that the Bhutanese male parents exhibited a stronger avoiding style, accommodating style and collaborating style than the female parents with their children.

H2b stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in age will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis confirmed that the Bhutanese parents' age differences was not associated with their self-reported conflict management styles. Numerous studies have shown differences between young and old people's conflict management styles. For instance, Gelles (1993) and Harris (1996 as cited in Daviso, 1997) pointed out that younger individuals had a greater chance of exhibiting violence in a conflict situation, but less violence among older individuals, especially those who are under thirty years old or more are less violent (Warner, 1981 as cited in Daviso,1997). Zhang, Harwood, and Hummart (2005) also confirmed that young Chinese adults preferred more avoiding style and competing style, while the older Chinese generation preferred accommodating style. The study carried out by Gbadamosi, Baghestan, and Al-Mabrouk (2014) shared both similar and contrary findings with the findings of Zhang, Harwood, and Hummart (2005). Gbadamosi, Baghestan, and Al-Mabrouk (2014) revealed that the older postgraduate students in Malaysia used more avoiding style, but the younger students used more competing style, accommodating style and compromising style. Evidently, these prior findings indicated that age differences do influence the individual's use of conflict management styles and most importantly, people from different culture differ in their perception of conflict management styles.

Despite strong association was identified between age and conflict management styles, the present findings indicated that difference in age did not affect

the conflict management styles of the Bhutanese parents. Fukushima and Tedeshi (1999 as cited as in Hong, 2005) also noted that people from different cultures will have their own communication etiquette guided by their own cultural values and norms that would have a greater influence even on the way they handle conflict. Although Wangyal (2001) observed that the Bhutanese parents were authoritarian and expected their children to respect their parents, grandparents and elders, the recent study by Leaming (2004) confirmed that children in the Bhutanese family enjoyed a great deal of their personal freedom which in fact lacked in other cultures (Leaming, 2004). In addition, Leaming (2004) found that the Bhutanese family was more relaxed and lenient compared to the other countries in the Southeast Asia. Thus, the parents' age might not influence the way they handle conflict with their children.

H2c stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in education level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis also indicated a significant association of the Bhutanese parents' education level with accommodating style and collaborating style, but non-significant association with avoiding style, competing style and compromising style. The Bonferroni test further confirmed that the parents who had obtained high school exhibited stronger accommodating style and collaborating style than the parent who had obtained bachelor's degree. Perhaps it could be because of the cultural values that might have had influenced the Bhutanese parents perception on their conflict management styles because Kurdek (1991 as cited in Daviso, 1997) found that the lower educated people would lack conflict management skills compared to the highly educated people. Moreover, Warner (1981 as cited in Daviso, 1997) concluded that the individuals with lower education, income, and occupation level create more

violence in their family.

Leaming (2004) found Bhutanese family was more relaxed and lenient compared to the other countries in the Southeast Asia. Crins (2004) found that in the Bhutanese society, both men and women enjoyed equal status and freedom in the Bhutanese society which otherwise is a very common sight in rest of the world. Moreover, Hofstede (2011) indicated Bhutan as a feminine country and feminine culture valued equality in the society. Correspondingly, Crins (2008) discovered that the social power and achievement in the relational partners were taken lightly within the Bhutanese family, particularly between the partners. Therefore, when equality is emphasized in the society, the parents might use accommodating style and collaborating style with their children in a conflict situation as both conflict management styles are relation-oriented styles that emphasize to maintain harmonious relationship.

H2d stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in income level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis indicated that significant association between the Bhutanese parents' income level difference and their self-reported compromising style, but did not find significant association with avoiding style, competing style, accommodating style and collaborating style. The Bonferroni test confirmed that parents with income of 50,001Nu and higher exhibited significantly stronger compromising style than parents with income of lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu and parents with income of 10, 001- 20,000 Nu.

Zhang (2007) supported that culture played a significant role in the people's choice of the conflict management styles. Hofstede (2011) indicated Bhutan as a

feminine country and feminine culture valued equality in the society, and conflicts were mostly resolved through the means of compromising and negotiation. This could be one significant reason why the Bhutanese parents in higher income level exhibited a strong compromising style. Significantly, Crins (2008) discovered that social power and achievement were taken lightly within the Bhutanese family, particularly between the partners. Therefore, when the parents' social power and achievement did not create gap between the partners, their conflict management styles might not interfere in their relationship with their children. Therefore, the parents in low-income level family might try to compromise with their children to maintain harmonious relationship in the family.

In addition, Wangyal (2001) noticed that the Bhutanese working parents in the urban areas are forced to leave their children to their nannies at home and get inadequate time to spend with their children. Therefore, it suggests that when parents come home after work, they might have to compromise with their children for the limited time spent with them. Moreover, Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2006) stated that the individuals who use compromising style have to give up something to achieve mutual benefits and to generate healthy family relationship. Based on principle of compromising style, this finding assumes that the Bhutanese parents value relationship with their children.

H2e stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in occupation level will exhibit different conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis indicated that the Bhutanese parents' occupation level differences was not significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles. Although, Daviso (1997) indicated that families with lower

occupational status have more violence and poor conflict management skills, Bhutanese parents with different occupation level did not exhibit any significant variation in their conflict management styles. Dainton and Zelly (2005) found that the high power distance cultures placed an immense importance on status and hierarchy, and accepted the power differences among members in the society. Although, Bhutan being a high power distance society and the people exhibit a strong etiquette of respect for authority, faithful to the marriage and family, and dedication towards civic duty (Wangyal, 2001), but Crins (2008) discovered that social power and achievement were taken lightly within the Bhutanese family, particularly between the partners. Additionally, Crins (2004) found that both men and women enjoyed equal status and freedom in the Bhutanese society which otherwise is a very common sight in rest of the world. Hence, with reference to what Crins pointed out, the Bhutanese parents' occupation level of the parents may not make differences on way they handle conflict with their children and exhibit same conflict management styles.

H2f stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by differences in marital status will exhibit different conflict management styles.

The Bhutanese parents' marital status was not significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles. According to Vokiý and Sontor (2010), married people were more likely to use accommodating style than the unmarried people did. Similarly, Harp, et al. (2007) found that the young adults from two-parent household preferred higher collaborating styles and compromising styles with their fathers than those from single- parent households. These findings inferred that there is a difference between a person's marital status and their conflict management styles.

However, Oetzel and Ting-Toomey (2003) asserted that the choice of conflict handling style depends on the given situation of the conflict and type of culture they live in. Crins (2008, p.180) discovered that in the Bhutanese society, "divorce or separation was easy and not stigmatized." Both men and women enjoyed equal status and freedom in the Bhutanese society which otherwise is a very common sight in rest of the world (Crins, 2004). Thus, it is suggested that the Bhutanese parents irrespective of their marital status may not exhibit different family communication patterns with their children.

H2g stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the number of offspring in a family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

The Bhutanese parents who were characterized by the number of offspring was not significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles. According to Sherman and Dumlao (2008), families encountered conflict when the number of members increases, and when children seek independence from family members concerning their roles and relationships (Noller, Atkin, Feeney, & Peterson, 2006). For instance, Connelly and Straus (1992 as cited in Daviso, 1997) found that with more children in the family comes a greater pressure and demands that brings more violence during conflict situation. Wangyal (2001) found that the Bhutanese family were generally large, interdependent extended families, and were relatively flexible with its members and the number of households exceeded more than seven to eight in the traditional extended families. In addition, the Bhutanese families were more relaxed and lenient compared to the other countries in the Southeast Asia (Leaming, 2004). Therefore, it is assumed that the number of offspring in the family may not influence the way Bhutanese parents handle conflict with their children.

H2h stated that the Bhutanese parents who are characterized by the family type in the family will exhibit different conflict management styles.

The Bhutanese parents' family type was not significantly associated with their self-reported conflict management styles. According to Koerner and Cvancara (2002), cultural values were the main elements that influenced the way people manage conflicts and the differences in culture helped in understanding the type of culture that exists within the family. People used conflict management styles that best adhered to their culture norms and expectations (Fukushima & Tedeschi, 1999, as cited in Hong, 2005). Dorji and Kinga (2005) found that the Bhutanese family shared a very strong bond among family members and with the members of extended families and communities. The Bhutanese family, regardless of the members, not only shared emotional bond among them but also provided social and economic safety to children who belonged to the single parenthood, and whose parents were dead or divorced. Therefore, the parents' family types may not affect on their handling conflicts with their children.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns would exhibit different self-reported conflict management styles.

Multivariate analysis indicated significant differences between parents' self-perceived family communication patterns and self-reported conflict management styles. The Bhutanese consensual parents exhibited a stronger avoiding style than the pluralistic parents and the laissez-faire parents. Consistent with the current findings, Dumlao and Botta (2002), Janeja (2011), Koerner and Fitzpatrick (1997) and Shearman and Dumlao (2008) supported that the family high in conformity

orientation such as consensual family had a higher preference for avoiding style than the families high in low conformity orientation such as pluralistic family and laissez-faire family. Given the combination of both conversation orientation and conformity orientation, the individuals in the consensual family might give in to other wishes or be assertive depending on the communication patterns practiced in the family. Shearman and Dumlao (2008, p. 205) supported that both consensual family and avoiding style "emphasize on maintaining harmonious relationship." Lokamitra (2004) found that the Bhutanese traditional family placed enormous importance on the relationship and regarded others like the family. The high uncertainty avoidance culture like Bhutan (Hofstede, 2011), which values harmonious relationship with all members would certainly use avoiding style in a conflict situation. Thus, the findings indicated that both young adult children from prior studies and the Bhutanese consensual parents exhibited a significant association with the avoiding style.

In addition, the Bhutanese consensual parents and protective parents exhibited a stronger competing style than the pluralistic parents. The finding was congruent with the findings of Zhang (2007) that the Chinese children from consensual family and protective family used a higher competing style. Fitzpatrick and Ritchie (1994); Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) supported that the parents in consensual family and protective family were most likely to be the head of families and the parents valued their own autonomy to maintain harmony in the relationship (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004). Thus, only speculation for this finding could be that the parents in protective family and consensual family might pursue competing style in conflict situation with their children as they are the head of the family and accordingly children might have to comply with them. It is assumed that the parents may sometimes pull in their

decision by indirectly coercing their children to live with their decision. This is because the parents in this consensual family and protective family expect their children to comply with them and the children in turn comply with their parents as a decision maker of family (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2005). The characteristics of consensual family and protective family compliment with the characteristics of the Bhutanese parents as Wangyal (2001) found that although the Bhutanese families were relatively flexible with its members, they are authoritative over their children as well.

The Bhutanese consensual parents also exhibited a stronger compromising style than protective parents, pluralistic parents, and laissez-faire parents. This finding corresponded with the findings of Dumlao (1997) and Koerner and Cvancara (2002) and Shearman and Dumlao (2006) that the young adults from the consensual family preferred a higher on compromising style than those young adults from protective family and laissez-faire family. The consensual families would express their opinion in their conflict and at the mean time work on for the mutual benefits. The compromising styles concern a give and take approach to satisfy both the parties in a conflict situation. Thus, consensual parents are likely to use a compromising style to satisfy themselves and their children.

The findings indicated that the Bhutanese consensual parents exhibited a stronger accommodating style than protective parents, pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents, and exhibited a stronger collaborating style than parents who perceived themselves to be in a protective parents and laissez-faire parents. These results were in line with Dumlao and Botta (2002) and Shearman and Dumlao's (2006) findings that the young adults from the consensual family used a higher integrative strategy,

and accommodating style in a conflict with parents. In addition, Zhang (2007) found children from consensual family also used the accommodating style. Therefore, the findings indicated that the young adult children from prior studies and the Bhutanese consensual parents exhibited a significant association with accommodating style and collaborating style. It is an expected pattern as both collaborating style and consensual family focus on win-win situation in the any conflict relationship (Rosseler, Ting-Toomey & Lee, 2007). Besides, consensual family and accommodating style compliments each other as the parents in consensual family work to balance the family relationship by giving freedom to their children to raise their views and the accommodating style find solutions that satisfy both of the parties.

The Bhutanese protective parents exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than laissez-faire parents. Similarly, Dumlao and Botta (2002), Dumlao (1997) and Janeja (2011) also found that the young adult children with protective fathers used more avoiding style and accommodating style. Wilmot and Hocker (2011) stated that the individuals use the accommodation style in conflict situations to maintain the harmony and relationship between the parties. Since protective family practice less communication among the members, the people might lack communication skills and conflict management skills. Thus, those individuals from the protective family might either accommodate in a conflict as they value family relationship.

The Bhutanese pluralistic parents exhibited a stronger accommodating style than laissez-faire parents. The findings was consistent with the findings of Janeja (2011) that the young adults from of pluralistic fathers used more accommodating style than the young adults of protective fathers and laissez-faire fathers. Since, the

parents in the pluralistic family support independent ideas of children by letting them express their diverse views and opinions (Fitzpatrick & Ritchie, 1994; Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2006), it relates to certain extent with accommodating style as individuals who use accommodating style give up their opinions to maintain harmonious relationship (Wilmot & Hocker, 2011).

In addition, the Bhutanese pluralistic parents exhibited a stronger collaborating style than those protective parents and laissez-faire protective. The findings were slightly consistent with the Dumlao (1997), the young adults of pluralistic families practiced higher level of collaborating style and confronting style with their fathers. Likewise, Zhang (2007) also found that children from high conversation-oriented families such as pluralistic family and consensual family used more collaborating style and compromising style. The significant association between collaborating style and pluralistic family is because the individuals who use collaborating style focus on one's goal and others goal to maintain a relationship (Wilmot & Hocker, 2011), and the individuals in the pluralistic family urge members to justify their rights and win conflict without their parents' interference (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2004).

Moreover, consistent with the prior findings, the present findings indicated that laissez-faire parents exhibited a lower avoiding style, and compromising style compared to consensual parents, and a lower accommodating style and collaborating style than those protective parents, consensual parents and pluralistic parents (Dumlao & Botta, 2000; Fitzpatrick ,1997; Janeja, 2011). Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) reported that the individuals in the laissez faire family had little or no experience of handling conflicts, thus, it is assumed that laissez faire parents would certainly exhibit lower avoiding style, competing style, compromising style and collaborating style

with others.

Interestingly, the findings revealed that the Bhutanese consensual parents exhibited stronger conflict management styles such as avoiding style, competing style, compromising style, accommodating style, and collaborating style compared to the parents who perceived to be in one or other family types. Zhang (2007) supported the possibility of exhibiting different conflict management styles by individuals who perceived to be in a consensual family, as individual in the consensual family practice both conversation orientation and conformity orientation. Even, Goodwin's (2002) argued that conflict management style is not employed exclusively for one form but one style can be used as the dominant tool for a particular circumstance, while other styles may be integrated according to the situation and the type of the conflicts.

Hypothesis 4 stated that Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns would significantly exhibit different degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

Hypothesis 4a stated that the Bhutanese parents' self-perceived consensual family and pluralistic family will exhibit significantly higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

One-Way ANOVA analysis inferred that the consensual parents and pluralistic parents significantly exhibited a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than the protective parents and laissez-faire parents. Consistently, Fowler (2007), Frisby, Byrnes and Myers (2010) and Punyanunt-Carter (2008) found that children of pluralistic parents or consensual parents achieved a higher level of relationship satisfaction than children whose parents were laissez-faire or protective parents. Sillars, et al (2004) found that an open communication practices in pluralistic family

and consensual family types influenced the parents' relationship satisfaction with their children. Families that practice open and free communication achieved a higher relationship satisfaction than those families who restrict open communication to members. An open and supportive communication associated with a greater relationship satisfactions and lack of disclosure generated less satisfaction in the relationship (Koerner, 2007). Besides, the core components of social learning theory supported when people perceive that they were rewarded more than what they had expected from the relationship, they perceive satisfaction in relationships or people would experience dissatisfaction in relationships when they perceive that their reward is less than what they had expected (Dainton & Zelly, 2005).

In addition, the Bhutanese society shares a very strong feeling of belonging and attachment among the family members and with extended families (Dorji & Kinga, 2005), and the family relationship is an integral part of the Bhutanese family. It is possible that the Bhutanese consensual parents and pluralistic parents would exhibit a higher relationship satisfaction with their children as both consensual family and pluralistic family practice unrestricted communication and value opinions of all members for the benefits of the family members.

Hypothesis 4b stated that Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire family will significantly exhibit a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

The findings of this study reported that Bhutanese parents' self-perceived protective family and laissez-faire family exhibited significantly a lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children. According to Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2004) and Koerner and Fitzpatrick (2002), the parents in protective family have their

final say in the family issues and restrict their children to have open disagreement to keep up harmony in the family The parents in the laissez-faire family promote inactive interaction with their children (Fitzpatrick, 2004), and hence lack intimacy or closeness for each other (Harp, et al., 2007). The effective communication is considered as the utmost importance of attaining relationship satisfaction in any relation certainly lacks in laissez-faire family and protective family. Therefore, the Bhutanese family who emphasize family relationship and share a strong attachment towards each other (Dorji & Kinga, 2005) would not certainly be satisfied with protective family and laissez-faire family.

Hypothesis 5a predicted that Bhutanese parents' self-reported collaborating style, accommodating style and compromising style would exhibit significantly higher degree of relationship satisfaction with their children.

As expected, the Bhutanese parents who adopted collaborating style and accommodating style reported significantly a higher family relationship satisfaction with their children than those who adopted avoiding style, competing style, and compromising style. This is slightly consistent to the literature (Zhang, 2007) that found that the Chinese children are more satisfied with collaborating style, compromising style and accommodating style than competing style and avoiding style with their parents. Even, Sillars, et al. (2004) found compromising style and collaborating style had the positive effect on relational satisfaction. In addition, and Roggero, et al. (2012) and Valley and Guerrero (2012) supported collaborating style as the significant predictor of relationship satisfaction in the family. The social learning theory supported that people valued relationship with others when they perceived they were benefited more from the relationship (Wood, 2000). Both

collaborating style and accommodating style are relational-oriented approach, which emphasized preserving relationship. For instance, the individual who use collaborating focuses on one's goal and others goal and work on for positive relationship. Likewise, the people who use an accommodation style usually give up their notions as to discontinue conflict and preserve harmony in the relationship (Wilmot & Hocker, 2011). Culturally, Bhutanese family is more relaxed and lenient compared to the other countries in the Southeast Asia (Leaming, 2004), and the findings indicated the Bhutanese parents exhibit a high regard for their children than themselves by using accommodating style and collaborating style with their children in conflict.

However, it was unexpected findings in the current study to find compromising style as insignificant predictor of relationship satisfaction. The differences in samples of prior researches and the sample of the present study might have resulted in different findings. The prior literatures had mostly used children as their sample to study the influence of conflict management styles on their relationship satisfaction with their parents. As children consider their parents as the potent figures in the family and depend on them throughout their life or until they reach 18 years or more in other cultures (Dixson, 1991 as cited in Perry-Jenkins, Pierce, & Goldberg, 2004), they might have to compromise with their parents in a conflict situation. It is assumed that the sample for this study being parents might differ with the way handle conflict with their children. Most importantly, the individuals' conflict styles might differ according to their cultural values or the family culture they live in. It should be noted that despite having strong cultural values in Bhutanese family, increasing number of conflicts have been noticed between parents and children that have

contributed to family fragmentation and social problems (*"Youth concerns and social problems in Bhutan,"* 2012). Moreover, the individual who use compromising style shows moderate concern for self and others, so it may not serve satisfactory results to the parents when they have to compromise with their children to reach a temporary solution to reach an agreement.

H5b stated that the Bhutanese parents' self-reported competing style and avoiding style will exhibit significantly lower degree of relationship satisfaction with their children. The findings indicated that Bhutanese parents who adopted competing style and avoiding style have non-significant influence on the relationship satisfaction with their children. It was consistent with the Zhang's (2007) study that the Chinese children were more satisfied using collaborating style, compromising style and accommodating style with their parents than using competing style and avoiding style. Supporting Wangyal (2001), that the honesty, compassion, harmony, tolerance, and respect for all beings as the core values in the Bhutanese culture, this findings indicated that the Bhutanese parents place high regard for all the relationship and stress on maintaining harmonious relationship with others. Thus, conflict management styles such as competing style and avoiding style that could generate negative outcomes in the family relationship would be unacceptable for the society.

In addition, Janeja (2011) claimed that conflict plays crucial functions in the family and ineffective or inappropriate handling of conflict could be detrimental to the families and the members. Thus, competing style could be too confronting to the high power distance culture like Bhutan as competing style exhibit a high concern for oneself and very low concern for others with least concern of how the conflict outcome will affect the other party (Wilmot & Hocker, 2011). Moreover, the

individuals who used avoiding style avoid conflicts and are reluctant to discuss problems, which ultimately prolongs conflict and build the negative impression for one another (Wilmot & Hocker, 2011). Based on this notion, this finding implied that the Bhutanese parents being more flexible and value harmonious relationship might not employ avoiding style and competing style.

5.1.1 Conclusion of the Research

This study contributes to the understanding of the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and their relationship satisfaction with their children. Although this study did not measure the effect of the cultural values on the parents family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction, most of the findings remained consistent with the cultural values of the Bhutanese society and it has shown a major influence on the way Bhutanese parents communicate, handle conflict and exhibit relationship satisfaction with their children.

The findings indicated that the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns correlated significantly with income level differences and it indicated that the parents with higher income level perceived to be in conversation-oriented family such as consensual family and pluralistic family the most and protective family and laissez-faire family the least. Likewise, the parents with lower income level perceived to be in a conformity-oriented family such as protective family and laissez-faire family the most, consensual family, and pluralistic family the least. It suggested that the income level of the Bhutanese parents affect their family communication patterns with their children, however, unlike the prior research, the findings indicated that the Bhutanese parents' gender differences, age differences, education level, occupation level, marital

status, and number of offspring, and family type did not correlate with their family communication patterns. The significant influences of cultural values on the Bhutanese parents are clearly reflected in their perception of family communication patterns. The Bhutanese cultural values teach the need to live in a peaceful co-existence with all beings and nature. For instance, in a parent-child relationship, it is the parents' moral responsibility for the upbringing of their children and a filial obligation of children to look after the parents during their old age (Wangyal, 2001). Thus, this priceless cultural heritage had driven the Bhutanese to develop a unique the family communication patterns over many generations.

Further, the most significant findings of the study was how the Bhutanese parents' gender differences, education level and income level exhibited significantly different conflict management styles. Many previous studies reported that male parents being more assertive and competitive than the female parents (Canary et al., 1995 as cited in Janeja, 2011), but the Bhutanese male parents exhibited a higher collaborating style, avoiding style and accommodating style than did their female counterparts. These findings interestingly corresponded with the cultural values of the Bhutanese society. Though Bhutan is a developing nation, its cultural values at times contradict with other nations where male supremacy is an age-old tradition still observed to a certain extent in this twenty first century. For instance, there is no gender bias of male dominance reported in the Bhutanese society. Traditionally, women were considered as the head of the household as they took most of the responsibility and decision making in the family and since this change in gender roles had been welcomed among the educated households as family decisions are made collectively (Crins, 2008). Thus, one cannot assume the Bhutanese males to be

assertive than females in conflict styles like past studies.

With respect to the education level, the Bhutanese parents with high school education exhibited a stronger accommodating style and collaborating style than the parents with bachelor's degrees. Kurdek (1991 as cited in Daviso, 1997) found that lower educated people lacked conflict management skills compared to those highly educated people. However, these findings indicated that the Bhutanese male parents employed the cooperative styles in conflict with their children and the findings highlighted the cultural values of the Bhutanese family that the social power and achievement in the relational partners were taken lightly within the Bhutanese family, particularly between the partners (Crins, 2008). Moreover, collaborating style and accommodating style are relation-oriented styles and it correlates well with the Bhutanese family values that emphasizes on maintaining harmonious relationship. The study also reported that the parents with higher income level exhibited significantly stronger compromising style. This reflected clearly the cultural dimension of Hofstede (2011) that Bhutan is a feminine culture, the feminine society places a higher value on equality in the society, and conflicts are mostly resolved through compromising and negotiation.

Family communication patterns and its orientations have shown a direct impact in the parent-child conflicts. Most of the present findings corresponded significantly with the prior research. For instance, consensual parents exhibited stronger avoiding style than pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents, but both consensual parents and protective parents exhibited significantly stronger competing style than pluralistic parents. Consensual parents also exhibited significantly stronger compromising style and accommodating style than pluralistic parents, protective

parents and laissez-faire parents, whereas protective parents and pluralistic parents exhibited significantly stronger accommodating style than laissez-faire parents. Finally, consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited stronger collaborating style than protective parents and laissez-faire parents. These findings indicated that consensual family being both in high conversation orientation and in conformity orientation; it is likely to use all conflict management styles. Hence, consensual parents exhibited all conflict management styles stronger than one or other family types. Similarly, the findings revealed that laissez-faire parents used lower avoiding style, compromising style, accommodating style and collaborating style than other family types. Since laissez-faire parents promote inactive interaction in the family and remain uninterested in the family discussion with their children, the parents in such family are likely to use conflict management styles lower than other the family types.

Findings indicated that family communication patterns and conflict management styles had been the important variables that determined relationship satisfaction of the Bhutanese parents. Koerner (2007) and Sillars, et al. (2004) claimed that the families which practice free and supportive communication experience a higher relationship satisfaction than those families who restrict open communication in a relationship. Both pluralistic family and consensual family promote active interaction in the family to emphasize maintaining harmonious relationship and encourage their children to engage in an unrestraint conversation with the members. In addition, collaborating style and accommodating style are both cooperatives styles that concern more to preserve relationship and both conflict styles generate satisfying solutions in a conflict situation. Correspondingly, the Bhutanese consensual parents and pluralistic parents exhibited a higher relationship satisfaction

than the protective parents and laissez-faire parents, while accommodating style and collaborating style indicated the most significant predictor of the relationship satisfaction for the Bhutanese parents. The findings were in line with the culture values of the Bhutanese society as people consider family relationship as the utmost priority over anything and the parents are morally responsible to support the progressive growth of their children and maintain positive family relationship.

This research has indicated that the cultural values have a major influence on the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns and conflict management styles, and their relationship satisfaction with their children. Hofstede (2001) identified Bhutan as the feminine society, high power distance society and high uncertainty avoidance society. According to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, people in such cultural societies places a high regard for harmony in the relationship and correspondingly, the majority of the Bhutanese parents perceived to be as consensual parents the most, followed by protective parents, pluralistic parents and laissez-faire parents. Likewise, the Bhutanese parents' gender differences, education level and income level indicated that they employed stronger cooperative styles such as avoiding style, accommodating style, collaborating style and compromising style. Thus, future research needs to consider the influence of Hofstede's cultural dimensions on the family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction in the Bhutanese families.

The findings supported the assumption of the social exchange theory that people try to balance the rules and requirements among relational partners and most people prefer positive relationship to negative relationship (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959 as cited in Dainton & Zelly, 2005). Significantly, the findings indicated that the most of

the Bhutanese parents preferred high conversation oriented families and high cooperative styles. The results concluded that the Bhutanese consensual parents and pluralistic parents, and the parents who adopted stronger collaborating style and accommodating style exhibited a higher satisfaction in their relationship with their children.

5.2 Limitations

Some of the limitations of the study are discussed below:

1. First, since the respondents were approached personally to fill up the survey questionnaires on their family communication patterns, conflict management style and relationship satisfaction with their children, they might not have given in the honest responses. Moreover, conflict to some people seem trouble, thus, to protect family reputation, respondents may have given in responses that adhere to only societal norms.

2. Second, the samples for the present study were the parents with the least qualification of high school education and above and who had children of aged 13-17 years. Had the parents with lower than high school education or the parents who had not attend schools were included in this study, they might have given a different perspective on their family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children. Moreover, the findings were analyzed based on the perspective of the parents and excluded the perspective of their children. Thus, there is a greater possibility of biased one-sided responses of the parents about their family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction with their children.

3. Finally, this study employed only 400 parents out of 15,728 families

residing in Thimph city, Bhutan (Results of population & housing census of Bhutan, 2005, 2006). The sample size of 400 parents could be limited to generalize the family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction of whole parents residing in Thimphu city, Bhutan. Therefore, it is imperative to expand the scope of study to make a good generalization.

5.3 Recommendation for Further Application

1. Recommendation for the parents

This study serves useful for the parents in determining their family communication patterns, conflict management styles and their relationship satisfaction with their children. Many communication scholars have stressed on having unrestraint communication practices and practicing effective conflict management styles in the family to have a satisfying relationship with the members.

This study may provide a useful insight to the Bhutanese parents in assessing their communication patterns and conflict management styles they practice with their children and work on to achieving a better relationship with their children. The characteristics of consensual family and pluralistic family could be the best family types the Bhutanese parents must inherit to have a good family relationship with their children.

Similarly, the most appropriate conflict management styles that the Bhutanese parents might use with their children are cooperative styles such as collaborating style followed by accommodating and compromising style as these styles emphasize the greatest concern for both the self and the other, but not competing style and avoiding style as these styles involve the lowest concern possible for the other.

2. Recommendation for the schools and teachers

The findings of the study will serve as a reference and guideline for the schools and the teachers to communicate effectively with the students coming from different family culture. The teachers can engage themselves in the most appropriate family communication patterns such as consensual family and pluralistic family, and use cooperative styles when dealing a conflict with their students to generate satisfying outcomes. Having learned the appropriate communication patterns and conflict management styles, the schools, and teachers may educate parents and encourage them on adopting effective family communication patterns and conflict management styles with their children, especially during parent-teacher meetings.

3. Recommendation for the Government and Non-governmental organization

Emphasizing on the family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction importance in parent-child relationship, some non-government organization (NGO) may refer to the present findings of the existing phenomenon in the Bhutanese family and come up with awareness campaigns, or seminars in different parts of the country about the need to have effective family communication patterns and conflict management style in a parent-child relation or in any social relations. The school is the only place where teachers get to know more about the parents of their students. Hence, the government should implement policy that emphasize all schools to include family communication patterns and conflict management styles as one of the agenda in every parent-teacher meeting which is held twice in a year in all schools in Bhutan. The exchanges of ideas during parent-teacher might not bring a drastic change at large, but certainly help in improving the lives of many families.

5.4 Recommendation for the future research

The results of the present study may also serve as a reference for the future researchers to explore more on the Bhutanese family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction.

First, the study included only 400 parents living in Thimphu city, Bhutan, to determine their perception of family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction with their children. Thus, to make a good generalization of the Bhutanese parents' family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction, this study needs to be advanced by increasing number of sample size. Moreover, the scope of the study needs to be further strengthened to other parts of Bhutan to examine the varied patterns of family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction of the Bhutanese parents.

Second, even though the wealth of research on children's perspective of the their parents' family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction were carried out in other cultures, yet the inclusion of the Bhutanese children's perspective of their parents' family communication patterns, conflict management styles and relationship satisfaction might contribute in drawing out an authentic perspectives of both children and the parents.

Third, since this study used the survey questionnaire, there are possibilities that the samples might not have given much importance to the meaning of each sentence of the three different scales. Thus, future research can alter the study design to a qualitative method by using interview methods to get precise information of the Bhutanese parents' perspective of their family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children.

Fourth, Rapten (2001) found the drastic changes on people's way of living such as the family seating patterns, time for meals, communication patterns and other social activities in the urban areas of Bhutan since the launch of Bhutan Broadcasting Service (BBS), television service in Bhutan. Similarly, Chau (2008) and Wangyal (2001) pointed out that constant exposure of the internet and television has created a diminution in the parent-child relationship. Having given the strong claims from the previous researchers about the changes happening in the Bhutanese society, the future research may explore variables such as the influence of media exposure and Hofstede's cultural variables on family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction. This might generate a wealth of understanding of the Bhutanese family communication pattern, conflict styles and relationship satisfaction.

Finally, since the findings were based on the perspectives of the Bhutanese parents in general, the final suggestion for future research would be to analyze the Bhutanese mothers and father's communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children separately. By comparing the perspective of both fathers and mothers, it might provide the significant differences and similarities of the Bhutanese fathers and mothers' family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and relationship satisfaction with their children.

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APPENDIX

Dear Respondent:

This questionnaire survey is one of the requirements for the Master's degree programme. The focus of this survey is to explore the relationship among Bhutanese parents' self-perceived family communication patterns, conflict management styles, and their perception of relationship satisfaction with their children. Kindly provide honest responses based on your experience with your children. Your personal information and responses will be kept confidential and will be used for educational purpose only.

Thank you in advance for your support and cooperation.

Kezang Wangmo

Master's degree student, Bangkok University

Questionnaire

Section 1: Demographic Information

Instruction: Please choose the most appropriate answer and place a check mark (✓) in the box given in each question.

1. What is your gender?

☐ 1. Male ☐ 2. Female

2. What is your age?

☐ 1. 29- 39 years old ☐ 2. 40-49 years old

☐ 3. 50 years old and over

3. What is your level of education?

☐ 1. High School ☐ 2. Bachelor's degree

☐ 3. Master's degree and higher

4. What is your current marital status?

☐ 1. Married ☐ 2. Single parent

5. What is your current occupation?

☐ 1. Government employee ☐ 2. Private employee

☐ 3. Corporate employee ☐ 4. Entrepreneur/ Business owner

☐ 5. Others (specify)_____

6. What is your monthly household income in Ngultrum (Bhutanese currency) per month?

☐ 1. Lower than and equal to 10,000 Nu

☐ 2. 10, 001- 20,000 Nu ☐ 3. 20,001- 50,000 Nu

☐ 4. 50,001 Nu and higher

7. How many children do you have in your family?

☐ 1. One child ☐ 2. Two children

☐ 3. Three children ☐ 4. Four children

☐ 5. More than five children

8. What best describes your current family?

☐ 1. Nuclear family (living with two parents and a child or children)

☐ 2. Extended family (living with two parents, children, relatives, grandparents, mother-in-laws, father-in-laws)

☐ 3. Others (specify)_____

9. You are currently living in_____.

☐ 1. Lungtenzampa Area ☐ 2. Dechencholing Area

☐ 3. Zilukha Area ☐ 4. Babesa Area

☐ 5. Changangkha Area

Section 2: The Revised Family Communication Pattern Questionnaire (Parent Version)

Instructions: Think about how you communicate with your children. Please use this scale to indicate your frequency of interaction with your children. Place a check mark (✓) in the box provided.

5: Always	4: Frequently	3: Sometimes	2: Rarely	1: Never

	Conversation Orientation					
No	Describe your interaction with your children basedon the frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
1.	In our family, we often talk about topics like politics and religion where some members disagree with others.					
2.	Every member of our family is encouraged to have some say in family decisions.					
3.	We often care to ask child's opinion when the family is talking about something.					
4.	Children are encouraged to challenge the ideas and beliefs of the parents.					
5.	Children are encouraged to always look at both sides of an issue					
6.	My children usually tells me what s/he is thinking about things					
7.	My children can tell me almost anything.					
8.	In our family, we often talk about our feelings and emotions.					
9	The parents and children engage in long, relaxed conversations about nothing in particular.					
10.	My children enjoy talking with me despite our disagreement.					
11.	Children are encouraged to express his/her feelings to the parent/s.					
12.	The parents are very open about their emotions.					

No	Describe your interaction with your children based on the frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
13.	We often talk as a family about things we have done during the day.					
14.	In our family, we often talk about our plans and hopes for the future.					
15	The parents like to hear their children's opinion even when they do not agree with them					
	Conformity Orientation					
1.	When anything important is involved, children are expected to obey their parents without question.					
2.	In our home, the parents usually make the final decision.					
3.	It is important for the parents to be the decision maker.					
4.	Sometimes the parents get irritated when their children's views contradict with theirs.					
5.	The parents do not take interest in their children's activities that are not approved by them.					
6.	Children should obey the rules when they are at home.					
7.	The parents often remind their children that they will know well when they grow up					
8.	The parents often ask their children to accept all the ideas put up by them.					
9	Children are advised not to argue with adults.					
10	Children are often reminded that there are some things that should not be talked about.					
11.	It is better for children to give in on arguments rather than risk making people mad.					

No	Describe your interaction with your children based on the frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
12	The parents should be strict with their children to live harmoniously.					
13	The Parents expect their children to respect them and the adults.					
14	The parents expect their children to do as instructed even outside the family.					
15	The parents believe that they are always right.					

Section 3: Conflict Management Styles

Instruction: Think of a situation where you as a parent had a conflict, disagreement, argument, or disappointment with your children. Please use this scale to indicate your agreement with the following statements. Place a check mark (✓) in the box provided.

5: Always 4: Often 3: Sometimes 2: Seldom 1: Never

No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
1	I keep conflicts to myself.					
No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
2	I try to influence to get my ideas accepted.					
No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
3	I usually try to keep aside our individual differences in order to resolve an issue.					

No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
4	I try to satisfy my children's needs.					
5.	I investigate an issue to find a solution acceptable to all.					
7	I use my power to make a decision in my favour.					
8	I follow a middle course to resolve an impasse with my children.					
9	I usually accommodate my children's wishes.					
10	I integrate my ideas with my children's to come up with a joint decision.					
11	I stay away from disagreement with my children.					
12	I use my expertise to make a decision that favours me.					
13	I propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks with my children.					
14	I usually give in to for my children's wishes.					
15	I try to work with my children to find solutions that satisfy both our expectations.					
16	I keep my disagreement to myself to avoid hard feelings.					
17	I generally pursue my side of an issue.					
No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
18	I try compromise with my children to reach an agreement					
19	I often agree with my children's suggestions.					
20	I exchange accurate information with my children so that we can solve a problem together.					
21	I avoid unpleasant exchanges with the children.					
22	Sometimes, I try to use my influences to win.					

No	Describe your communication to resolve conflict with children based on frequency per week.	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
23	I compromise my needs in order to get something from my children.					
24	I give my best to satisfy my children's expectations.					
25	I try to unfold all our concerns to resolve issues.					

Section 4: Relationship Assessment Scale

Instruction: Indicate how much satisfaction you have been feeling in your closest relationship with your children on a scale from 5 (very satisfied) to 1 (very dissatisfied. Place a check mark (✓) in the box to indicate the amount of satisfaction you have with your children.

5: Very Satisfied 4: Satisfied 3: Neutral 2: Dissatisfied 1: Very Dissatisfied

No	Statements	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
1	I am satisfied with the communication and openness I shared with my children.					
2	I resolve conflicts and arguments satisfactorily with my children.					
3	I am satisfied with the degree of affection and					
	care I have for my children					
4	I am satisfied with the close relationship I have with my children.					
5	I am satisfied with my role in the parent-children relationship.					

No	Statements	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
6	I am satisfied with the role of my children in the parent-children relationship.					
7	I am satisfied with the amount of time I spend with my children.					
8	I feel satisfied to keep my children with my relatives or nannies when I go out for my work.					
9	I am satisfied with the time my children spend on the social networking sites (such as Facebook, LINE, Wechat, etc.).					
10	I am fully satisfied with our family relationship as parent and children.					

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