INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN MULTICULTURAL VIRTUAL TEAMS: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY THROUGH A SERIOUS GAME

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INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN MULTICULTURAL VIRTUAL TEAMS: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY THROUGH A SERIOUS GAME

A Dissertation Presented to

The Institute for Knowledge and Innovation Southeast Asia (IKI-SEA)

Graduate School of Bangkok University

BANGKOK UNIVERSITY
THE CREATIVE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy in Knowledge Management and Innovation Management

Somjai Siritrakankij 2024

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The Institute for Knowledge and Innovation (IKI-SEA),

Graduate School of Bangkok University

Title : INTERCULTURAL CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN MULTICULTURAL VIRTUAL TEAMS: An Experimental Study Through A Serious Game

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Somjai, S. Ph.D. (Knowledge Management and Innovation Management), November 2021. The Institute for Knowledge and Innovation Southeast Asia (IKI-SEA), Graduate School – Bangkok University, Thailand

Intercultural Conflict Management in Multicultural Virtual Teams: An experimental study through a serious game (560 pp.)

Advisors of dissertation: Vincent Ribière, Ph.D., D.Sc., Anne Bartel-Radic, D.Sc.

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ABSTRACT

Conflict is a fact of organizational life, and intercultural conflict is even more complicated to cope with. Conflict is not always perceived negatively, but in some cases, task conflict can turn into functional conflict. The purpose of this research is to investigate the influence of cultural background, emotional intelligence (EI), and intercultural competence (IC) on the choice of intercultural conflict management styles/behavior (ICS) and the adaptation of ICS in two types of conflicts: task and relationship conflict. Relationship conflict is considered dysfunctional because it threatens and weakens the bond between interlocutors, and it escalates more easily than task conflict.

In the literature, Emotional Intelligence (EI) is viewed as an interesting variable to help increasing job performance. Since the virtual context catches greater attention presently, organizations have started to consider the potential benefits of utilizing virtual teams. Virtual teams often are international and include culturally diverse members, which makes it more difficult to manage conflict (Griffith et al., 2003; Zornoza et al.,

2002). Furthermore, the influence of Intercultural Competence (IC) on conflict management among diverse employees is also worth being explored.

Based on Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management Styles/Behavior framework proposed by Hammer (2005), the concept is under one cultural dimension, individualism and collectivism, when dealing with disagreement and emotions across cultures. Additionally, Nardon and Steers (2009) stated that these two cultural dimensions had been widely used in studying organizational management research across cultures. The four Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management Styles/Behavior include discussion, dynamic, accommodation, and engagement styles. However, the result from the pilot study suggested that the engagement style should be dropped out because it was seen as the most inappropriate style in the conflict situation. Thus, it is not included in this study, and only three styles of Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management remain. And the study of intercultural conflict in multicultural virtual teams has been called for more recently.

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Therefore, this study explores the influence of cultural background, EI, and IC on the choice of intercultural conflict management styles/behavior in task and relationship conflict, and the adaptation of conflict management styles/behavior to culturally diverse team members. Cultural diversity is studied on the basis of two cultural dimensions, power distance and individualism/collectivism.

Samples (n=339) included in this study were Thai respondents (n=106, high power distance & collectivism), French (n=114, high power distance & individualism), and Americans (n=119, low power distance & individualism). They were mainly working

professionals from different professional fields. An innovative data collection method was employed, based on the development of a serious game. Its name is CRIT the serious game; CRIT stands for conflict management in intercultural teams. Four main sections were included in CRIT, the serious game: questions about demographic data, a multi-item scale measuring EI, and then a quasi-experimental scenario revealing participants' IC and ICS. An additional objective for the serious game is to make the player gain a particular knowledge from the game. To do so, the score feedback and recommendations were sent to each player after the game completion.

After completing various statistical analyzes, the findings of this study confirm, but also contradict the existing theory to some extent. Regarding the choices of intercultural conflict resolution/management styles/behavior proposed by Hammer (2005), Americans use the dynamic and the accommodation style more than Thai and French, while used the discussion style the least. Thai and French players significantly use the discussion style the most, while there is no statistically significant difference between the use of the accommodation and the dynamic style between Thai and French. In addition, the result from our pilot study concluded that the "engagement style" of the selected four intercultural conflict management style model (Hammer, 2005) was removed since it was recognized as an inappropriate intercultural conflict management style.. Thus, it is not included in this study, and only three styles of Intercultural Conflict Management remain.

Concerning the Intercultural conflict management styles/behavior, communication approach (direct/indirect) and emotional strategy (expressive/restraint) used in the overall

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sample, the results conclude that all three cultures frequently use an indirect approach rather than a direct approach. However, Americans use the indirect approach the most. On the contrary, both Thai and French use the direct approach the most. Furthermore, all three cultures use an emotionally restraint approach more than expressiveness. And, when looking at the sub-samples, Americans frequently use emotional expressiveness; in contrast, both Thai and French frequently use the emotionally restraint approach.

In short, the findings of this study conclude that the cultural background, EI, and IC influence the choice of ICS styles/behavior and the adaptation of ICS to culturally different team members. Specifically, it was partially demonstrated that ICS styles/behavior varies across cultures. A significant relationship between EI and conflict management behavior was demonstrated, as well as between EI and IC and the adaptation of conflict management behavior to cultural differences.

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Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Intercultural Competence, Conflict Management, Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/ Behavior, serious game, Cultural Dimensions, Coordinator/Team Leader, Multicultural Virtual Team Members, France, Thailand , USA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to take this opportunity to express my sincere gratitude to everyone who gave me friendly support throughout my Ph.D. journey. There are many people to whom I would like to express my sincere thanks.

The significant ones, of course, are my advisors, Associate Professor Dr. Vincent Ribière and Professor Dr. Anne Bartel-Radic. I am incredibly grateful for their invaluable advice, continuous support, and patience during my Ph.D. study. I would like to say that I am the luckiest Ph.D. student to have them as my SUPER advisors. I really mean they are SUPER awesome, generous, encouraging, supportive, and exceptionally patient. Thanks for devoting their time during the nights, weekends, and holidays to help raise my research grew from a baby and finally reached its maturity. Their immense knowledge and ample experience have encouraged me in my academic research and daily life.

The next important one is Dr. Siriwan Ratanakan, who had encouraged me for several years to further my Ph.D. study, and I finally did. The third essential group is my colleagues and friends, who have always been very supportive and helpful. Their shoulders are always open for me. I could feel all the love from everyone. A special thanks also to Bangkok University for the funding support throughout my Ph.D. journey.

Most importantly, a million thanks would never be enough for my family support, mom, brothers, in-laws, husband, and daughter for their strong encouragement, understanding, and endless love. Last but not least, my dad who had passed away when I started my Ph.D. journey. Too bad that he couldn't join the moment of my accomplishment physically, but his last smiles on the day I told him to wait until I

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finished the Ph.D. remain forever in my memory. Thank you, Dad, for your unwavering support and belief in me.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale and Problem Statement

The World Integrated Trade Solution, WITS (n.d.), with the collaboration with The World Bank, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), and in consultation with International Trade Center, United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD), and the World Trade Organization (WTO) reported in 2018 that the World's total export was 20,834,690,355.83 in thousands of US$. Its total imports are 18,875,211,882.52 in thousands of US$, which lead to a positive trade balance of 1,959,478,473.32 in thousands of US$. Additionally, data from the same year concluded that United States, China, Germany, Hong Kong, China, and United Kingdom were the top importing countries. In contrast, China, United States, Germany, Japan, and Korea ranked top for exporting countries.

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The above significant figures show that international business has become the main factor in driving the global economy. However, previously many people might be more familiar with the term of "Global Village," which was coined in 1964 by a Canadian media culture analyst, Marshall McLuhan. He describes a world where communication technology plays an essential role in bringing news and information to people around the globe. Today, McLuhan's vision is easily understood (Liu, Volcic, & Gallois, 2011). The

interconnectedness between society, economics, and politics across the countries is the result of globalization.

Liu et al. (2011) identified three contributors to cultural diversity: advanced technology (which affects how we form relationships with others) and transportation systems (which allows the ease of mobility changes), the global economy and business transactions, and mass migration and international exchange. With the advances of communication technologies in recent decades, the World has transformed itself into a global village. Consequently, Furst, Reeves, Rosen, and Blackburn (2004) stated that the internet and the mobile revolution had significantly supported developing a new structure for many organizations. One of the changes that these revolutions have brought to many organizations around the World is the latest creation of team engagement, which is called "virtual teams" or "global virtual teams (GVT). These terms have been increasingly used over the last decade. Additionally, the external factors for the growth of using these terms include globalization, the need for rapid development by organizations, distributed skills, an increase in collaboration technologies, and rapid innovation (Furst et al., 2004). Inevitably, the most recent COVID pandemic has dramatically increased virtual communication and teaming globally.

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The nature of this new type of team engagement, with the advancement of information and communication technology systems, is that the virtual team members can communicate, collaborate, share knowledge, solve problems, and make decisions across the globe (Kauffmann & Carmi, 2019). Moreover, virtual teamwork might comprise multicultural team members working across locations with temporal and relational

boundaries that work collaboratively to achieve a goal (Ebrahim, Ahmed, & Taha, 2009; Gera, 2013). Moreover, global leaders with international experience, intercultural competence, and high emotional intelligence are recognized as essential and beneficial company resources to manage conflict in diverse environments and lead to a successful performance (Minner, 2015; Thomas, 1977).

Jimenez, Boehe, Taras, and Caprar (2017) pointed out that location, distance, and time are three key drivers to influence the success of the Global Virtual Team or (GVTs). GVTs have recently become a widely used in any form of work, including academic research and the business world. No matter where employees are, how far they live, the work process can continuously progress by using both synchronous or real-time media (VDO conference, skype meeting, telephone, etc.) or asynchronous (e-mail, bulletin-board system, etc.) communication tools. These consequences have sparked the need and expanded the scope of teams beyond the conventional face-to-face working environment to GVTs. Moreover, studies show that good work experiences, enhancing motivation, and job satisfaction result from GVTs' work environment (Nurmi & Hinds, 2016).

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Globalization has brought vast attention to intercultural interactions interpersonally and virtually, which may take place in one geographic location or across countries (Leigh Anne, Wendi, Dean, & Elena, 2018). Kim and McLean (2015) defined globalization as "the intensified movement of tangible and intangible assets across geographical, political, social, economic, and cultural boundaries, which impacts on and changes all spheres of human life." Ma, Liang, Erkus and Tabak (2012) added that

globalization has also led to cultural diversity among diversified workforces or multicultural teams and its influences on organizational practice. This consequence has leveled up the complexity of corporate management since there might be a different use of opinions, words, or actions while working to reach the same organization's goal. Thus, the success and failure of international collaborations or global projects not only depends on managing economic and legal obstacles but also on the effective handling of cultural differences (Van Oudenhoven et al., 1998). Therefore, the global project manager would have to be aware of cross-cultural and language differences, as well as time zone dispersion (Binder, 2007).

One of the critical success factors in international business operations is to have the right people to manage and operate their businesses (Dowling, Festing, & Engle, 2008). Organizations need to maximize job performance to stay competitive in the global business world (Campbell, 1990). In other words, the possibility to find the "right people" all around the globe have enormously increased cultural diversity in (virtual) work teams. Consequently, there's an increased acknowledgment of intercultural competence as a skill needed among educators and employees (Lombardi & Marissa, 2010). Johnson, Lenartowicz and Apud (2006) also highlighted that intercultural competence (IC), or the ability to interact effectively across cultures, is extremely important for success in current global business environments. Interactions among individuals, organizations, and agencies from diverse, multicultural backgrounds and contexts are becoming more complicated since misunderstandings, increased transaction costs, friction between

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project participants, and coordination and communication difficulties often occur (Aarseth, Rolstadas, & Andersen, 2013).

Jackson and Joshi (2010) pointed out that managing diversity is still a challenge for organizations in the twenty-first Century. Diversity in teams usually provides the team members with more challenges, and they have to work harder to overcome them (Jimenez et al., 2017). Organizations need to be aware that diversity in teams often leads to positive results (Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001). Still, they sometimes also lead to neutral (Cunningham & Sagas, 2004) or adverse outcomes (Mohammed & Angell, 2004).

Indeed, team members' diverse backgrounds can create a positive effect that allows a greater diversity of perspectives, opinions, resources, knowledge. Consequently, it also allows for a more comprehensive range of information sources, more networks, and thus facilitating creativity, innovation, and problem-solving (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; DiStefano & Maznevski, 2000; Jimenez et al., 2017; Ng & Tung, 1998; Van Knippenberg). Furthermore, Yang and Konrad (2011) identified that employee involvement helps generating organizational benefits. To increase their competitive advantage, organizations have to effectively develop diversity management, improving their internal operations (Kaufmann, Englezou, & García-Gallego, 2014).

In the light of globalization and organizations becoming more culturally diverse, it is essential to understand the relationship between cultural differences, conflict management, and the negotiation process (Gabriela, Marta, Catia, Joana, Alejandro, & Peter, 2016). Ochieng and Price (2010) stated that virtual communication causes misunderstanding due to the loss of face-to-face interaction. It becomes more challenging

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to build mutual trust and confidence with multicultural team members due to losing non-verbal signals (e.g., eye contact, body language, paralanguage, facial expression, hand gesture, etc.).

Cultural differences may have severe consequences for conflict management (Van Oudenhoven, Mechelse, & De Dreu, 1998), which is the adverse outcome of diversity (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Pelled, 1996; Olson, Parayitam, & Bao, 2007). Since work relationships are more complex and the workplace difference increases, managers are forced to resolve conflicts effectively (Ma et al., 2012). If cultural miscommunications are not well managed or people are unaware of, they may turn to interpersonal conflicts (Ting-Toomey, 1994, p. 1), which will lead to poor job performance.

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Cross-cultural issues are adding to the complexity of global virtual work environments. Many studies have shown that EI should be added to the strategic management plan to help improve job performance; more detail is presented in the next part. Curseu, Boros and Oerlemans (2012) showed that intra-group conflict is closely associated with negative emotional states. For example, an empirical finding suggested that a conflict escalates negative emotions during verbal communication (Lovelace et al., 2001). If negative emotions are not processed, managed, and resolved constructively, group efficiency and effectiveness suffer (Jehn, 1997).

Research indicates that emotional intelligence (EI) is an essential element of team performance (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). The emerging literature on EI contains different terminologies, including emotional

intelligence and emotional literacy, emotional quotient (EQ), and personal intelligence (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). EI refers to individuals' ability or tendency to deal, perceive, monitor, understand, regulate, and harness emotions among oneself and others and finally use this information to guide their thinking and actions (Kerr et al., 2006; Law & Wong, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is seen as a significant predictor of team effectiveness in face-to-face teams (George, 2002) and virtual teams (Pitts, Wright, & Harkabus, 2012).

EI is essential: in a *Time* article, which helped popularize EI, Gibbs (1995 as cited in Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004) highlighted that IQ enables you to get hired, but EQ helps you get promoted in the business world. Cooper and Sawaf (1997, p. xxvii) mentioned that if IQ was the driving force of intelligence in the 20th century, then EQ is the main driving force in the 21st Century.

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Besides, the World Economic Forum (2016) stated that one of the top 10 skills employees need in the Fourth Industrial Revolution is EI — as proven support in Figure 1-1, EI was not listed in 2015 but in 2020. Recently in early 2020, the World Economic Forum confirmed that EI is the strongest predictor for job performance, and the statistical result showed that EI contributed to 58% of success in all types of jobs. These reports highlighted that EI gets more significant importance in the challenging business world.

Figure 1-1

A comparable top 10 skills between 2015 and 2020 (The World Economic Forum, 2016)

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The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted regular economic activity and life worldwide (World Trade Organization, 2020) and evoked a new wave of globalization. Moreover, covid can also cause some de-globalization. It caused the most significant and fastest decline in international relations in modern history: especially in merchandise trade, foreign direct investment, international airline passengers, and a global economy. Szmigiera (2021) reported that global gross domestic product (GDP) declined by 4.5

percent in 2019 and 6.7 percent in 2020 as a result of the COVID-19) pandemic outbreak. To a very great extent, this was a cutting drop in the context of a complex world economy. The global economy should reach pre-COVID levels only in late 2022 at the earliest, and grow modestly after that; advanced economies, however, will not recover to pre-COVID levels until 2023 at the earliest (Altman, 2020; Bhaopichitr, 2020).

Bhaopichitr (2020) concluded that businesses that were profoundly and negatively affected by the COVID-19 pandemic are hotels, airlines, wellness, spa, hair salons, barbershops, pubs & bars, automobiles, and parts, garments, entertainment venue/services, booking agencies, tour companies. However, as a result of positive impact, there is room for the following businesses: e-commerce (food, online marketplace, etc.), delivery services and packaging, e-services (education, banking, movies, etc.), digital services, telecom services, medical supplies (face mask, alcohol, medicines vitamins, etc.), food and insurance.

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The changes of the COVID-19 pandemic at the start of 2020 have brought up a "new normal" working life, with the increase of virtual communication. Many were unprepared for the remote mass work, but quickly people found out that this is a particular condition which they must adapt to. Many countries around the world encourage their citizens to spend the lockdown working from home. Technologies for a new working norm has entered the door uninvitedly but have then progressed rapidly. Later, fancy terms like distributed and hybrid work were familiarized and proliferated. Likewise, this pandemic has proved the possibility of working remotely for many people (World Economic Forum, 2021).

Correspondingly, a skyrocket increased for work from home (WFH), which allows employees to work virtually among their culturally diverse group/team members. Even though the from-home economy or WFH will drop from the current level, it will continue as it saves money and helps attracting employees. Moreover, related infrastructure, such as internet platforms, computer hardware and software, cloud services and so on, has already been put in place (Bhaopichitr, 2020).

In conclusion, emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, and conflict management have a long history and have been studied by many scholars. However, there are many calls for future research on emotional intelligence (Andrea, Giacomo, Jane, & Mario, 2019; Chiu, Lin, Tsai, & Teh, 2018; Curseu et al., 2012), intercultural competence (Bartel-Radic, 2006; Hill & Bartol, 2016; Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Khosravi, Rezvani, & Ashkanasy, 2020; Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014; Rezvani, Khosravi & Ashkanasy, 2018; Sahu & Pathardikar, 2015; Van Kleef & Cote, 2018), types of conflict (O'Neill, Allen, & Hastings, 2013; Singleton, Toombs, Taneja, Larkin, & Pryor, 2011), intercultural conflict resolution (Ma et al., 2012) in multicultural virtual project groups/teams context (Leigh et al., 2018; Martins et al., 2004). Importantly, none of the previous research has studied the relationship between cultural differences, emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, types of conflict, and intercultural conflict management in multicultural virtual team members. Therefore, this study filled these research gaps by studying the relationship between mentioned variables and context and used the serious game in this experimental research as a novel methodology for data collection.

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1.2 Objectives of The Study

The overall objective of the study is to investigate the influence of cultural background, emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict management behavior of team leaders from three different types of cultural background; cultural background type I (Thailand), II (France), and III (USA), when involved in task and relationship conflict with multicultural virtual team members from three cultural background types. The main research questions of this study are:

1. To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member?
2. To what extent do team leader's emotional intelligence influence their choice and adaptation of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member?
3. To what extent do team leader's intercultural competence influence their adaptation of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member?

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1.3 Research Questions

These research objectives correspond to the following research questions:

RQ1.1: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of task conflict?

RQ1.2: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of relationship conflict?

RQ2.1: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict?

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RQ2.2: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict?

RQ3.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

RQ3.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

RQ4.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

RQ4.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

1.4 Significance of The Study

This research intends to make significant contributions in both the practical and academic domains. For the practical contribution in the virtual workplace, the finding of this study will significantly benefit multinational organizations. It should help them to better manage intercultural conflict in multicultural virtual teams by understanding and addressing the level of EI and IC of their employees. Gelfand, Aycan, Erez, and Leung (2017) also emphasized an increased focus on intercultural interactions in the global work context, making the global virtual teams more common (Jimenez et al., 2017).

Conflict might occur when people from different values, beliefs, attitudes, perspectives, and behavior work together. And if a conflict can't be managed well, tension and stress increase, resulting in reduced project performance. Furthermore, the worst situation is when friction causes damage in professional and personal relationships (Wu, Liu, Kim, & Gao, 2018). Nevertheless, researchers proposed that emotional

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intelligence can potentially reduce conflict, or solve the problem into a more constructive way (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017).

Consequently, with the recent COVID-19 pandemic, the virtual work context has strongly increased in most organizations. Thus, the result of this study will help organizations to understand the different essential factors, including emotional intelligence and intercultural competence, affecting the way to manage intercultural conflict and allowing them to reduce conflicts in diverse, multicultural environments. As mentioned in international management studies, organizations need to maintain a high level of their competitive advantages and strengthen the knowledge and innovation abilities of their employees, which is recognized as one of the significant challenges (Chen, Zhao, Liu, & Wu, 2012; Prajogo & Ahmed, 2006). Thus, the human resource department needs to hire employees with high EI and IC, and strategically develop these skills among their employees.

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Concerning the academic contribution, an innovative method, an experiment based on a "serious game", was implemented. A serious game goes beyond entertainment, as it is used as an educational or training tool. Here, we use the game as a data collection method: data is collected while participants are playing a game. The players are assigned the role of the coordinator of a multicultural virtual team; however, it’s not a role game, the players will not pretend to be someone else. They need to apply their knowledge and skills to manage the different situations in the game. The scenario of the game includes situations of intercultural conflict, and the reactions between which the has to choose are based on the different intercultural conflict resolution/management

styles/behavior described by Hammer (2005). This method is helpful to avoid the threat of social desirability bias inherent to self-assessed measurement.

Additionally, a systematic literature review was conducted to review the relevant literature on four main variables: conflict, emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, and virtual teams and leaders. Among 87 eligible full-text articles (from a total of 410 articles, see more in chapter 2), there were 27 papers on conflict, 18 on emotional intelligence, 22 on intercultural competence, and 20 on virtual teams and leaders, which some of them studied across each variable. However, none of these papers have studied EI, IC, and intercultural conflict management styles/behavior among multicultural virtual team in combination, which was a research gap. Thus, this study investigates the relationship between the mentioned variables, employing a game-based approach called a serious game in an experimental study. Indeed, the context of this study is the one of a multicultural virtual team; therefore, the data collection could not be conducted face-to-face in each country. In order to obtain a high number of participants, attractive, engaging, and novel ways should be tempting to the participants during the data collection process.

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1.5 Scope of The Study

This research focusses on the influence of cultural background, emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict management behavior of team leaders from three different types of cultural background; cultural background

type I (Thailand), II (France), and III (USA), when involved in task and relationship conflict with multicultural virtual team members from three cultural background types. The cultural background types, based on two cultural dimensions; power distance and individualism.

Overall, cultural background type I (high power distance and collectivism) includes 35 countries (Africa East, Africa West, Arab countries, Bangladesh, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, China, Colombia, Croatia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Iran, Korea South, Malaysia, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Philippines, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovenia, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Vietnam). Cultural background type II (high power distance and individualism) includes 8 countries (Belgium, Belgium French, Belgium Netherland, Czech Republic, France, Malta, Poland, and Switzerland French), and cultural background type III (low power distance and individualism) includes 18 countries (Australia, Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Switzerlnd German, and the U.S.A.).

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Notably, this study included samples and characters in the serious game from Thailand, France, and the USA to represent cultural background types I, II, and III, respectively. This study is based on the one-group posttest-only design under a quasi-experimental research design.

1.6 Definition of Terms

For this study, the definitions of the main variables include emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, cultural background, conflict, conflict management, conflict management, intercultural conflict management, coordinator, and multicultural virtual team members.

Emotional Intelligence is the individual's ability to perceive, understand, and evaluate one's own and others' feelings and emotions and manage their feelings to guide one's thinking and action (Kerr et al., 2006; Law & Wong, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Intercultural Competence is the ability to understand, think, act, interact, adapt, and behave appropriately and effectively in an intercultural-related context (Bartel-Radic, 2006; Deardorff, 2006; Hammer et al., 2003). This study focused on the adaptation on cultural dimensions to different cultures.

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Cultural background refers to the national culture rooted in values the individuals acquired in their childhood and passed on from generation to generation. The complexity of national cultures is narrowed down in this study to two dimensions, power distance (concern the way subordinates deal with superiors) and individualism/collectivism (the ties between individuals and groups). The studied samples included Thailand (high power distance and collectivism), France (high power distance and individualism), and the USA (low power distance and individualism).

Conflict is disagreement, and stressful interaction among individuals occur when their interest, practice, goals, values, beliefs, or other issues don't match (Jehn, 1992; Rahim et al., 2002). This study will examine two types of conflict, including task and relationship conflict.

Conflict management refers to designing effective strategies for minimizing the dysfunctions of conflict and maximizing the constructive functions of conflict (Rahim, 2000).

Conflict management is the way to reduce, terminate, or eliminate conflict. Its main aim is to minimize the conflict, while conflict management isn't directly mean to resolve, terminate, or reduce conflicts but is about the designing of strategies to mitigate negative conflict or dysfunctional and maximize positive or functional/constructive conflict (Austin, 2020).

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Intercultural conflict management is the way to reduce, terminate, or eliminate conflict (Austin, 2020) when interacting with one another from different cultures (Ting-Toomey, 2006). Four intercultural conflict management styles, including discussion, engagement, accommodation, and dynamic style. And two dimensions for intercultural conflict management behavior include direct/indirect and emotional expressive/restraint (Hammer, 2005).

A coordinator is a person who acts like a middle person to coordinate, supervise, oversee the work process, keep group members organized, and stay focused on the task/project's goal. They are viewed as leaders who take a more challenging responsibility when associated with global members (Bartel-Radic et al., 2015).

Multicultural virtual team members are a collection of individuals (with different cultural background types based on their high/low power distance and individualism) with complementary competencies executing simultaneous, collaborative work processes through electronic media without regard to geographic location (Chinowsky & Rojas, 2003).

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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter systematically reviewed the relevant literature to understand the depth of the existing knowledge on conflict management, intercultural conflict management, Emotional Intelligence, Intercultural Intelligence, and Multicultural Virtual Teams. This helps to identify the research gap and potential research directions.

The systematic literature review (SLR) approach was initially used in medical research and has currently attracted more attention among other fields of study, including nursing, psychology, information systems, and business and management studies (Senivongse, Bennet, & Mariano, 2017). Webster and Watson (2002) mentioned that a traditional literature review is a method of collecting and interpreting information by using informal, unstructured, unsystematic approaches. The conventional literature review is recognized as an author-centric approach, whereas SLR is seen as a concept-centric approach that benefits bias reduction and improves replicability (Bryman, 2008). SLR focuses on the research objective and transparency method based on retrieval criteria. By repeating the same methodology and conditions mentioned in the SLR, other researchers will review the same results.

According to Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, and Altman (2009), the SLR value depends on what was done, what was found, and the clarity of reporting. Its sequences begin with keyword identification and combination, limiting the search conditions with

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specific criteria and limitations. After articles were retrieved and kept, the screening and reviewing process followed. Also, Xiao and Watson (2019) suggested that literature reviews should be valid, reliable, and repeatable. Thus, to overcome the lack of methods' transparency and allow replication, a systematic literature review is employed in this study.

All articles were retrieved from Scopus and EBSCO Discovery Service (EDS) from Bangkok University Online Database to search for potentially relevant articles. EDS is a single search tool that enables users to access almost every library subscription database to get full-text articles. Keywords used to search included "Emotional Intelligence" AND ("Intercultural Competence" OR "Cultural Dimensions") AND ("Intercultural Conflict Resolution" OR "Intercultural Conflict Resolution Style" OR "Intercultural Conflict Management" OR "Intercultural Conflict Management Styles") AND ("Virtual Team" OR "Virtual Teams") AND ("Conflict Management Styles.")

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According to Jesson, Lacey, and Matheson (2011), peer review symbolized suitability among journals make it recognized as a good quality scholar work. Therefore, the conditions were limited to full text, peer review, and English language articles. Then, a systematic review software, called "DistillerSR," was used to organize SLR. DistillerSR was designed from the ground up to give the user a better review experience, faster project completion, and transparent, audit-ready results (Evidence Partners, 2020).

Liberati et al. (2009) suggested that PRISMA or Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses helps to ensure the transparency and completion of the SLR report, including four main stages: identification, screening, eligibility, and

inclusion. Its root was from medical studies and evolved from the original QUOROM statement (Quality of Reporting of Meta-analyses, 1996), the guideline for systematic reviews, and meta-analyses of health care interventions. Later, a multinational group of experienced authors and methodologists developed it. Finally, SLR for this study is reported through the PRISMA diagram (Figure 2-1)

The two online databases were used to search with the previously mentioned keywords and conditions. The query resulted in 382 articles plus 28 additional articles found through other sources; thus, 410 articles. The number of records went down to 387 after 23 duplications were removed. After the initial screen of abstracts, 118 remained with 269 exclusions (book review, book chapter, articles related to educational management (teaching, curriculum), social service, social support, social distancing, neurological process, trust, linguistic, HR management, project management (not virtually), Interpersonal (in family/ classroom) conflict (not a workplace conflict), humor, religion, personality, and Inter-Organization team).

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Finally, 87 full-text articles were assessed for eligibility, including 27 papers on conflict, 18 on emotional intelligence, 22 on intercultural competence, and 20 on virtual teams and leaders. Among those articles, they were categorized into 37 qualitative, 46 quantitative, and 4 mix-methods articles (see more details in Table 2-1). The remaining 31 articles were excluded due to their unrelated variables studied.

Furthermore, those included articles were published during 1983-2020 (see Figure 2-2). The paper's primary authors included in this study are arranged in alphabetical order, Ayoko, Bartel-Radic, Hammer, Hofstede, Law, Paul, Wong, Rahim, Rezvani, and

Souren. Most of those articles rank in quartile one from Scimago Journal & Country Rank Website. They are from various subject areas of applied psychology, business and international management, business, management and accounting, computer science, cultural studies, industrial and manufacturing engineering, and psychology and social psychology. Nine articles have more than 1000 citations (see Table 2-2).

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Figure 2-1

PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram to demonstrate the flow of information through the different phases of the systematic review

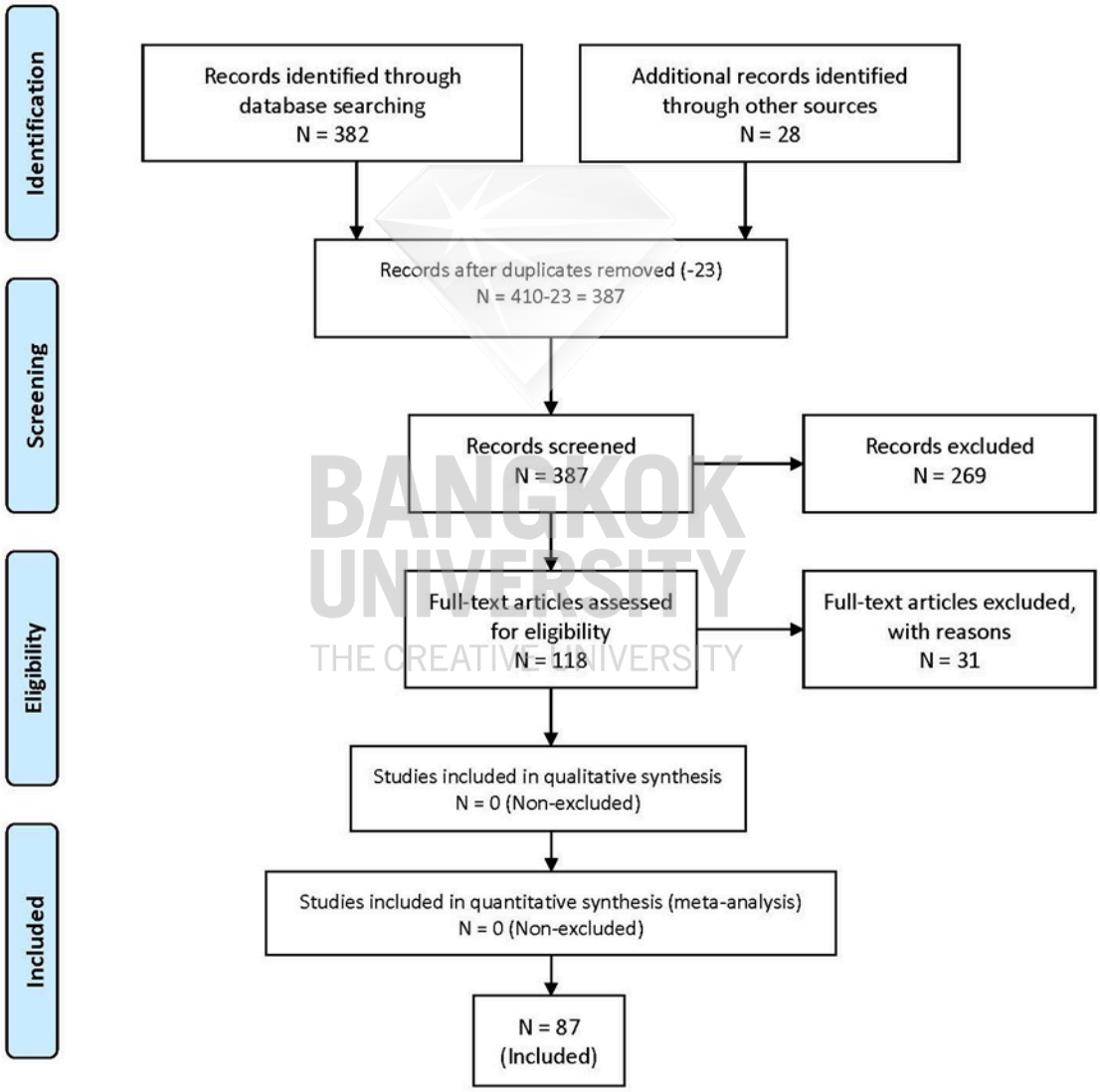

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Figure 2-2

Publication years of articles included

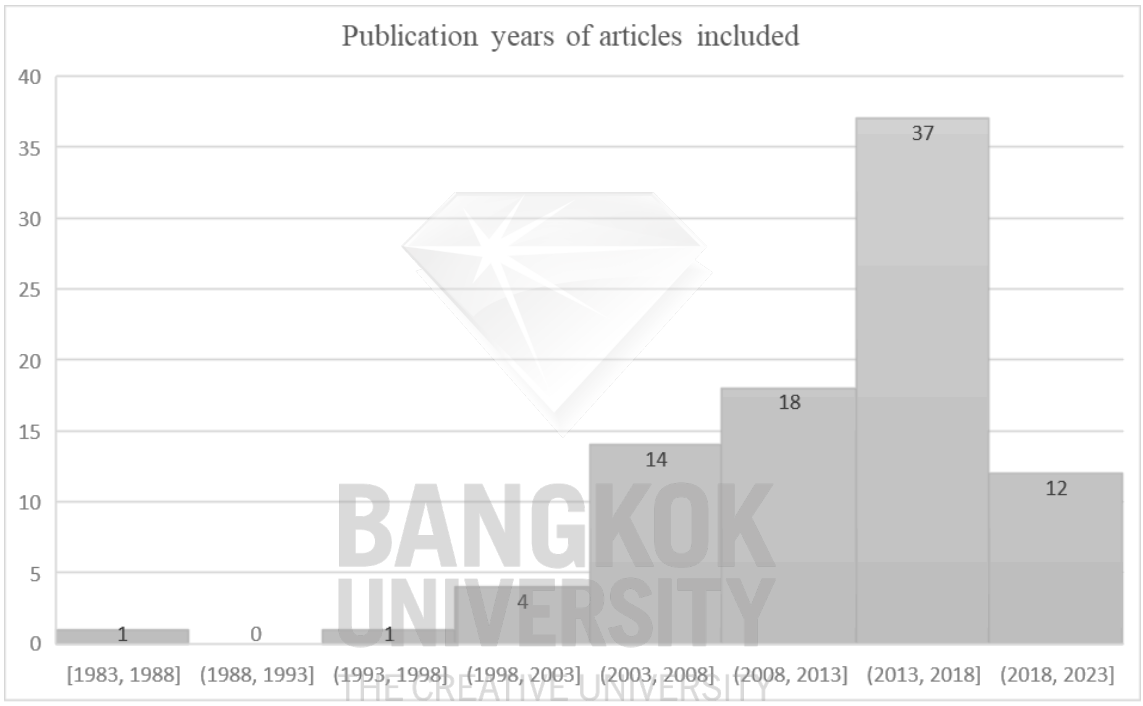

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Table 2-1

Descriptions of articles (by topic related and types of research) included in the study

Topic	Qualitative	Quantitative	Mix-methods	No. of articles included
Conflict	7	19	1	**27**
Emotional Intelligence	3	15	0	**18**
Intercultural Competence	15	7	0	**22**
Virtual Teams & leader	12	5	3	**20**
Total	**37**	46	**4**	**87**

Table 2-2

Journal ranking by subject areas and number of most cited papers included in the study

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Subject Area	Journal Ranking				Total number of journals	Most cited papers (Over 1000 citations)
	Q1	Q2	Q3	No assigned quartile		
Applied Psychology	8	-	-	-	8	1
Business and International Management	19	-	-	4	23	3
Business, Management and Accounting	15	15	2	5	37	1
Computer Science	-	-	-	1	1	-
Cultural Studies	2	1	-	6	9	1
Industrial and Manufacturing Engineering	-	-	1	-	1	-
Psychology and Social Psychology	2	3	1	2	8	3
Total number of journals	87					

2.1 Emotional Intelligence

Organizations can significantly benefit from healthy employees, which includes both in mind and body. Previous research has emphasized that the intelligence quotient (IQ) is not strong enough to predict success in both personal and work life (Kerem, Yucel, & Bayram, 2019). Goleman (1998) shared his experience as a consultant in organizations that emotional Intelligence or EQ, later on, known as EI, is twice as important than technical skills and IQ for jobs at all levels and accounts for 47-56% of work success (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Its nature helps increase goodwill and mutual understanding, and thus assisting dispute, tension, and stress among project team members (Khosravi et al., 2020). Furthermore, EI is acknowledged as an essential concept and skill not only among individuals but also in teams for better performance and for achieving goals in the workplace (Aykan, 2014; Barczak et al., 2010; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Goleman, 1996; Kaufmann & Wagner, 2017; Law et al., 2004; Troth et al., 2012; Wong & Law, 2002).

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Importantly, studies showed that individuals with a higher level of social and emotional skills and EI enhance team support and confidence (Kerem et al., 2019; Wong & Law, 2002). Consequently, these generate a collaborative work environment, effective communication and result in a positive effect which is advantageous to organizations since it makes them happier, better, and more successful employees (Kerem et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2008; Urda & Loch, 2013; Wong & Law, 2002). Employees possess a more excellent quality of social interactions and are satisfied with their social relationships

(Lopes et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 2001), which allow them to improve communication skills and demonstrate active cooperation for a successful project and organizational outcomes (Stephens & Carmeli, 2016). Goleman (1995) asserted that leaders and employees high in EI tend to have higher job satisfaction; thus, EI should be valued in the future workplace. Moreover, Mazur et al. (2014) examined the relationship between EI and project success from the project managers' perspective. They found that emotionally intelligent project managers are more likely to communicate and participate in the problem-solving process with various stakeholders effectively.

Regrettably, Larman (2015) concluded the most common effects of EI in the workplace which are: negative emotions (such as anger, worry, shame, disappointment, fear, and guilt), negative perceptions (such as under-appreciated and powerless), behavioral issues (such as uncontrolled outbursts), poor communication (which often results in misunderstandings), less proactivity, lower individual and team performance, weak confidence (such as less confident and trusting and lose their faith in others), damaged credibility of the organization (internally and externally), and higher losses which include loss of loyalty and money and most importantly, the revenue loss.

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In addition, low EI results in high team stress levels, conflict, unpleasant emotions, frustration, rejection, and poor performance (Kirchoff, Omar & Fugate, 2016; Sheldon et al., 2014; Stanczyk, Foerstl, Busse, & Blome, 2015).

Emotional intelligence (EI) was initially conceptualized in the 1990s by Salovey and Mayer (Dogra & Dixit, 2019; O'Connor, Hill, Kaya, & Martin, 2019). This concept refers to individuals' ability or tendency to deal, perceive, monitor, understand, regulate,

and harness emotions among oneself and others and finally use this information to guide their thinking and actions (Kerr et al., 2006; Law & Wong, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Wong and Law (2002) stated that EI has its roots in the social intelligence concept, initially found in 1920 by Thorndike, the American psychologist. He first proposed that intelligence involves three different bits of intelligence, which are mutually independent abilities: mechanical intelligence (the ability to control your body and manipulate objects effectively), abstract intelligence (the ability to verbal and symbolic thinking), and social intelligence (the ability to communicate with people, understand and perform in social relations). Later on, Thorndike's model was dominated by the concept of intelligence as a universal factor (Thorndike, 1920).

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As well as, the seven intelligence domains by Gardner (1993), who followed Thorndike's concept, stated that social Intelligence comprises of an individual's interpersonal and intrapersonal Intelligence. Intrapersonal Intelligence is defined as the ability to deal with complex feelings and emotions within the self (p. 239). Then, interpersonal Intelligence is defined as the ability to deal with others and "notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions" (p. 239). Consequently, EI is viewed as a combination of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence among individuals.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to

discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189) (Law & Wong, 2004; Rezvani, Barrett, & Khosravi, 2019; Zeidner et al., 2009).

After EI research was first published in 1990 by Salovey and Mayer, it influenced a wide variety of studies in different contexts, including employment, education, clinical, and countries as an individual difference construct (Moeller & Kwantes, 2015). In the late 19th century, Goldman, Bar-On, and Mayer and Salovey had put a great effort into studying EI. Also, its definition and concept have been widely developed. Still, the commonalities are placed on a mixture of the ability of one and others, feeling and emotions related, and intelligence concept.

Goleman (1997) defined EI as "the ability to monitor and control the feelings of self and others then use those feelings to guide their thoughts and actions." It can be concluded that EI is an essential factor for organizational performance and success (Noermijati, Sunaryo, & Indah Kurnia, 2019). Additionally, Goleman (1998) slightly added EI's definition as the capacity to recognize one's own and others' feelings to motivate and manage emotions and relationships among ourselves. He emphasized emotional competence and indicated five critical EI components, which are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Dogra & Dixit, 2019; Moeller & Kwantes, 2015).

In addition, EI concepts in Thailand have long been studied. Sathitsemakul (2017) concluded that Thai researchers had modified EI concepts from the Western EI models into three main EI measurements for the Thais. They are summarized in Table 2-3 below.

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Table 2-3

Emotional Intelligence Models-Thailand

Emotional Intelligence Models - Thailand

EI Model	Developer	Concept	No. of items	Scale
The Emotional Intelligence Inventory	Kwanmuang (1999)	The model consists of two main components, intrapersonal EI (emotional awareness, self-regard, independence, adaptability, self-control, intentionality, optimism) and interpersonal EI (empathy, social responsibility, assertiveness, conflict management, interpersonal relationship) which aims to assess EI level among university students.	60 items	5-point Likert scale
The Emotional Intelligence for Thai Adolescent	Intasuwan, Chuawanlee, Sucaromana, and Choochom (2003)	The model covers three aspects of life; self-happiness (loving-kindness, compassion, sympathetic joy, self-control, good mental health, good emotions, self-confidence, optimism, and flexibility), getting along with others (being sincere, generous, forgiving, unity, empathy, gratitude, and human respect), and work success (honesty, vision, being punctual, work planning, perseverance, being appropriately assertive, exhibiting collaborative working behavior, job satisfaction, listening to other opinions, not being selfish, and showing inquisitive learning behavior). The scale is based on Buddhist Principles for Thai university students and generated benchmark scores.	84 open-ended situational items	5-point Likert scale
The Thai Emotional Intelligence Screening Test (TEIST)	The Department of Mental Health, Ministry of Public Health of Thailand (DMH, 2000)	TEIST is the most widely used tool to assess the EI of Thai individuals by Thai researchers. The concepts of this model are closely connected with culture and the way of life among Thai people who focus on the harmony of life. It emphasizes virtue (emotional self-control, empathy, responsibility), competency (self-motivation, problem-solving, interpersonal relationship), and happiness (self-esteem, life satisfaction, peach).	52 items	4-point Likert scale

2.1.1 Four EI Indicators

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined EI by summarizing into four aspects of the ability to: 1) perceive emotion accurately, 2) assimilate or use emotion to facilitate thought, 3) understand emotion, and 4) regulate or manage emotion (Khosravi et al., 2020; Rezvani, Khosravi et al., 2018).

Later on, the widely accepted concept of four EI indicators was proposed by Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998), which has the root from Mayer and Salovey's definition of EI (1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The reason to support its popularity is that it has excellent support from the representation of the comprehensive literature review on EI. Those indicators allow us to focus on the nature and characteristics of the EI construct, they are listed as follows (Law & Wong, 2004; Zhang, Chen, & Sun, 2015):

(1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself or self-emotional appraisal (SEA). This indicator refers to one's ability to understand, express, and evaluate the emotions of oneself. People with this ability will sense and acknowledge their feelings better than others. George (2000) added that this ability is essential to help to develop beneficial interpersonal relationships and ultimately result in high-level job performance.

(2) Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others or others' emotional appraisal (OEA). This indicator refers to ones' ability to perceive, understand, recognize, and evaluate the emotions of others. People who are high in OEA will be susceptible to others' emotions, able to predict others' emotional responses, and show appropriate attitudes and behavior. Law, Wong, Huang and Li (2008) identified several positive effects, including a higher chance of being accepted by others, earning trust, and gaining cooperation.

(3) Regulation of emotion in oneself (ROE) or regulating emotions. This indicator refers to ones' ability to monitor, manage, and control their emotions, which is recognized as an enabler for a better recovery from psychological distress and the

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ability to return quickly to a healthy state. Individuals with ROE are less likely to lose their temper due to their ability to control their emotions better. As a result of unavoidable negative emotional impacts among employees, Law et al. (2008) further discussed that ROE helps to decrease undesired psychological effects on the work environment.

(4) Use of emotion (UOE) or utilizing emotion to facilitate and improve performance. This indicator refers to ones' ability to express and use their emotions effectively. Individuals with high UOE will be able to direct their emotions in positive and productive outcomes and directions. One example in organizational settings raised by Law et al. (2008) stated that employees cheer themselves and others up when they realize that a good mood and positive emotion will lead to job completion.

Similarly, Mayer et al. (2000) categorized EI into four groups which matched well with Davies et al. (1998): including awareness of one's own emotions, understanding others' feelings, managing one's own emotions, and the proper use of one's own emotions (Chen, Xu, & Phillips, 2019).

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2.1.2 EI Classifications

Mainly, there are three EI streams: the ability model, mixed models, and trait model (Zeidner et al., 2009). The difference between each stream stems from the way EI was measured and assessed or method of measurement (Kalambouka, & Lendrum, 2010;

Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2008; O'Connor et al., 2019; Perez, Petrides, & Furnham, 2005; Wigelsworth, Humphrey, Kalambouka, & Lendrum, 2010).

O'Connor et al. (2019) conducted a critical review on "The Measurement of Emotional Intelligence" and summarized three EI streams as follows:

Ability EI model uses performance-based assessment to assess an understanding of own emotion and how it functions and is based on maximal performance items. In this model, EI is constructed as the capability to recognize and manage emotions in oneself and others and carry out accurate emotional reasoning (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). The model comprises of four abilities, with a close interaction among them: accurately perceiving emotion, using emotion to facilitate thought, understanding emotion, and managing emotion (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004).

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Importantly, EI type is classified by measurement method: whereas all measures are based on maximal performance. In other words, ability-based estimates predict various outcomes, including work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction among employees (Miao et al., 2017) and job performance in organizations (O'Boyle et al., 2011).

Trait EI model based on self-report items to measure overall EI and sub-dimensions. The self-rated questionnaires typically measure behaviors in emotional-relevant situations rather than maximal performance, for example, when one is confronted with stress or upset condition. Therefore, this measurement tends to provide a good predictor of self-efficacy or one's actual behavior and competence in regulating and

managing emotions in themselves and others in different work and life situations (Petrides and Furnham, 2003). Recent meta-analyses have linked trait EI to a range of employees' attitudes such as job satisfaction, job performance, and organization commitment (Miao et al., 2017; O'Boyle et al., 2011). A study found that high trait EI is significantly related to high levels of self-efficacy regarding emotion-related behaviors. Consequently, individuals tend to manage better and regulate emotions (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The mixed model, EI, was developed by Bar-On (1997). The measurement is based on the combination of traits, social skills, and competencies that may overlap with other personality measures (O'Boyle et al., 2011). They are generally self-report questionnaires and include 360-degree forms of assessment: self-report combined with multiple peer reports from supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates. This model is viewed as an integration of interrelated competencies, skills, and qualities, such as intrapersonal capacity (the capacity to explore one's feelings that support positive relationships and build cultures of integrity), interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, personality, and motivational dispositions (the basic needs and drives that initiate action). EI is recognized as dynamic human behavior in real life (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2006; Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Kerem et al., 2019; Petrides, 2001; Petrides and Furnham, 2003). Besides, another mixed model by Goleman (1998) proposed five sub-dimensions of self-awareness, self-management, empathy, motivation, and social skills.

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With increasing globalization, Alon and Higgins (2005) concluded that EI and cross-cultural competence are essential skills for promoting better cross-cultural interaction, leading to successful global leadership and managerial performance. Dogra (2019) also confirmed that EI and IC are the critical ingredients for global leaders to work with diverse cultural background teams. Similarly, Ayoko, Callan, and Hartel (2008) suggested that team/group leaders and members who experienced a destructive reaction to the conflict need training in skills related to EI and conflict management. Applying these skills in the team/group is expected to minimize conflict and increase team effectiveness.

In summary, emotional intelligence, or EI, which has its roots in the social intelligence concept, was introduced in the 1990s by Salovey and Mayer. EI is the ability of an individual to perceive, understand, and manage their own and others' feeling and emotions. The four EI concepts include self-emotional appraisal (SEA), other's emotional appraisal (OEA), regulating own emotion (ROE), and use of emotion (UOE). EI has been listed as one of the essential factors for organizational performance and success. Although the EI construct may be universal, Law and Wong (2004) agreed that behaviors resulting from the EI skills among individuals might vary in a cross-cultural context. Thus, the next part will be discussed regarding the suggestion.

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2.2 Intercultural Competence

2.2.1 Culture

Culture is coherent, learned, and shared interpretations about beliefs, values, and norms which express symbols and activities and affect people's behaviors (Hook, 2003; Varner & Beamer, 2011). Similarly, researchers in intercultural communication studies view culture as a "system of knowledge that allows people to know how to communicate with individuals from a different culture and how to interpret their behaviors" (Gudykunst, 2004).

When individuals from different cultures are gathered together, live enrichment among individuals and groups arises. As a result, culturally diverse individuals bring new ideas and ways of being, doing, and acting. This allows them to understand better others and the way they see things differently (Aoun, 2004 as cited in Popescu, 2014).

In the organizational context, there are advantages and disadvantages of culturally diverse environments. Heterogeneous groups bring various benefits, but the most important one is a performance increase. Popescu (2014) summarized those benefits, drawback, and some suggestions as follow. First, its benefits are presented: skill variety, creativity, innovation, modernity, openness stimulation, ability to manage and utilize diversity, result in motivation, personal and service satisfaction, supportive environment, and more comprehensive solutions.

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However, creativity at work can be stimulated only if culturally diverse employees are willing to share their knowledge (Bogilović et al., 2017). Nevertheless, there is some drawback yet to be carefully aware, which include: lack of intercultural competence where managers cannot exploit cultural differences leading to language difficulties, misunderstanding, and conflicts.

Indeed, organizations must put effort into strategic management, fostering group harmony, and psychological empowerment in groups/teams. They should also act on anticipating any future risk, avoiding dissension, supporting training on cultural differences, intercultural competence, language proficiency, effective communication, and group/team psychological safety. Next, we will present the cultural dimensions.

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2.2.2 Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede's (1980 as cited in Has, 2012) prolific and influential contribution to cultural differences (Nuray, 2017) can be declared as the most widely cited cultural orientations model. According to Hofstede (1980), a four-dimensional conceptual framework on national culture was developed, which comprises power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. These four cultural dimensions concern the way subordinates deal with superiors (power distance), the ties between individuals and groups (individualism/collectivism), male-female relationships (masculinity/femininity), and how people manage insecurity, aggression, and social conflicts (uncertainty avoidance/uncertainty tolerance).

Additionally, the fifth dimension by Hofstede and Bond (1988 as cited in Shaiq, Khalid, Akram, & Ali, 2011) was added based on research by Canadian psychologist Michael Harris, termed as "long-term versus short-term orientation," which relates to the choice of focus for people's efforts: the future or the present and the past.

In 2000, a Bulgarian scholar, Michael Minkov, proposed three new dimensions: exclusionism versus universalism, indulgence versus restraint, and monumentalism versus flexumility. However, Minkov (2000) showed that exclusionism versus universalism was strongly correlated with collectivism/individualism, and monumentalism versus flexumility was moderately but significantly correlated with short-term/long-term orientation. Therefore, Minkov's exclusionism versus universalism was integrated into the collectivism/individualism dimension, and monumentalism versus flexumility was converted into a new version of short-term/long-term orientation. Finally, the sixth dimension, called "indulgence versus restraint," became an entirely new dimension related to the gratification versus control of basic human desires related to how people enjoy life (Hofstede, 2011).

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When managing global teams, organizations should put cultural dimensions into consideration (Rodrigues & Sbragia, 2013) since individualism/collectivism dimensions help to explain attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors (Ting-Toomey, 2010: 180-169).

Notably, the dimensions of power distance and individualism-collectivism (Nardon & Steers, 2009) have been widely used to study organizational and management research across cultures (Chow et al., 2000). Collectivism has gained the most significant popularity among researchers primarily in knowledge management and followed by

power distance (Ardichvili et al., 2006; Desouza & Evaristo, 2003; Ford & Chan, 2003; Li et al., 2007; Pesch & Bouncken, 2017). The next part will cover six cultural dimensions.

Power Distance

Power distance is defined by (Hofstede & Bond, 1984, p. 419) as "the extent to which the members of institutions and organizations who have less powerful within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally." Specifically, it involves the extent of tolerance of individuals for power structures. Hierarchy in society is more or less respected. It also measures the inequality among human interaction within their cultural group (Hofstede, 2011; Liu & Lee, 2012).

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In organizations, low power distance cultures encourage participation, consultation, collaboration, and practicality, while autocratical environments surround higher power distance cultures. National cultures with low power distance tend to be equal and prefer participatory and collaborative decision-making. On the contrary, national cultures with high power distance make the gap between people with and people without status and power (Has, 2012), and leaders are autocratic (Pearce & Conger, 2003). The less powerful individuals are more likely to accept autocratical power relations and admit that power is based on social status or hierarchical positions. As perceived traditionally, in high power distance societies, the one who holds significant

power has a much stronger voice in decision-making (Jiang, Flores, Leelawong, & Manz, 2016).

Recently, Shaik, Makhecha, and Gouda (2020) researched the effect of cultural differences and employee engagement in GVTs, summarized that global organizations should identify the need for training programs among their employees to be aware of varied cultures and value systems around the World. A well-trained manager can leverage trust among team members, which leads to increased well-being and performance.

Individualism / Collectivism

The significant dimension of cultural variability is individualism and collectivism (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988, p. 40). Individualism / Collectivism refers to individuals' and groups' relationships with cultural values (Hofstede, 1980). This dimension reflects how individuals interact and integrate into group settings (Javidan & House, 2001). Furthermore, Triandis (1995) identified four attributes that define this dimension: individual conceptions, goal relationships, the relative importance of attitudes and norms, and emphasis on relationships.

Individualism is defined as the degree of individuals or self as autonomous, in a country preferably to act as individuals rather than as members of groups (Clarke & Micken, 2002; Hofstede, 1984). They value autonomy, self-interest, and individual performance (Has, 2012).

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However, in a collectivistic culture, "people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede 2001: 225 as cited in Jiang et al., 2016). Individuals in this culture define themselves through the social roles and hierarchical structures of their group (Clarke and Micken, 2002). They exhibit emotional dependence upon the group to support conforming, traditional, team-oriented, and particularistic settings. They also value social relationships, cooperation, group harmony, group satisfaction and emphasize interpersonal harmony (Gabrenya & Hwang, 1996; Tang et al., 2010).

Face refers to a self-image that every member wants to claim for himself in public and is determined by a person's socio-structural status (Oetzel et al., 2003). The concern for losing one's face in social interactions is preferable in high power distance cultures (Oetzel et al., 2001; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Lower influential individuals will not challenge the more powerful one in the public since it can be interpreted negatively as a violation of social norms and finally lead to embarrassment and shame for that person (Kim & Nam, 1998). Thus, conflict in high power distance societies is more significantly related to the negative emotional consequences of face loss than in lower power distance societies because people highly value face preservation. Respect for face is a way to maintain social bonds (Jiang et al., 2016; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Additionally, when social relationships are broken, it is more likely to result in antisocial behaviors and provoke more substantial affective conflict.

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Additionally, the concept of concern for the face of others is highly practiced in high collectivistic cultures (Kim & Nam, 1998). Indirect communication and smooth face-preserving strategies while communicating with others are preferably practiced in a collectivistic society. And individualists prefer using direct communication.

Collectivist people want to be accepted by others as a result of the fear of losing face. Collectivists are interdependent and relationally connected; people feel linked to others in their primary group. Thus, individuals in this culture employ the use of other-oriented and face-preserving strategies when dealing with conflict.

In terms of conflict management, using avoiding, compromising, and integrating strategy helps them to maintain interpersonal harmonies (Adair & Brett 2005; Adair et al., 2004; Kirkbride et al., 1991; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Merkin, 2015; Morris et al., 1998; Park et al. 2012, Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998) such as China and Japan (Leung et al., 2002). Jiang et al. (2016) further explained that the Chinese put a more significant concern for maintaining relationships with other parties; thus, they tend to employ avoidance strategy when dealing with conflict. This tendency is even more vital when confronted with higher social status parties.

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However, direct communication strategies are risky and possibly destroy relationships if not steadily considered (Merkin, 2015). Also, Jehn et al. (2008) argued that open or direct discussion stimulates anger and hostility among team members. Regarding collectivist orientation, one-way communication, where superiors use authority and subordinates provide little or no feedback, is preferably recognized. In this

sense, it helps preserve social harmony designed to avoid situations where disagreements could lead to losing face (Pheng & Leong, 2000).

In collectivistic organizations, interdependence and cohesiveness are highly recognized. And the critical decisions are made in groups, so they work collaboratively for organizational success.

In individualistic organizations, independence is recognized. Thereby behave less cooperatively, and important decisions are made individually. They work to maximize their aspects, and compensation and promotions are based on principles of equity, and accountability rests with the individual (Gelfand et al., 2004; Marcus & Le, 2013).

Significantly, the link between power distance and individualism dimensions, individualism related to low power distance, which power inequality is accepted and considered as usual. They believed that they had control over their destiny (Bandura, 2001). Collectivism is related to a high power distance (Hofstede 1983, 1986).

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Specifically, the power distance dimension in groups/teams is an essential determinant to empower group/team members' structure and psychology since it focuses on individuals' expectations and acceptance of power inequality. For the individualism-collectivism dimension, it is how the group/team members evaluate group and individual benefits and how they work interdependently. This dimension refers to individuals' mindsets of social roles and responsibilities in the group/team.

One aspect of intercultural literature is that heterogeneous groups/teams encounter more conflict than homogeneous groups/teams (Forbes & Milliken, 1999; Janis, 1972). This finding is supported by a six-year study on culture in a global environment where

culture is a source of conflict. Cultural differences are seen as interference and are often seen as a disaster (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Boonsathorn (2007) stated that Thailand qualifies as a collectivistic, high-context, high-power distance culture. However, Thai culture has unique characteristics and need to be explored in intracultural and intercultural conflict management.

Masculinity/ Femininity

Masculinity/femininity refers to the distribution of values between the genders, another fundamental issue for any society. This dimension reflects gender roles in society. Masculine or a traditional male orientation can link assertiveness, competitiveness, efficiency, mass production (Rodrigues & Sbragia, 2013), achievement, success, and making money (Van Oudenhoven et al., 1998). Feminine or a traditional female orientation refers to modesty and caring (Hofstede, 2011), emotions, and more significant concern for the social environment. Van Oudenhoven et al. (1998) summarized that the different role patterns among males and females are outspoken in masculine countries. And in feminine cultures, the difference in sex roles is much weaker.

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Uncertainty Avoidance/Uncertainty Tolerance

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the tolerance for ambiguity, to what extent a member in the culture feels either uncomfortable or comfortable in a novel, unknown,

surprising, and different from the usual situation. Uncertainty avoiding cultures set strict behavioral codes, laws, and rules or believe in minimizing uncertainty. In uncertainty avoidance countries, people are more emotional and motivated by inner nervous energy. In contrast, the opposite type, uncertainty tolerance; people are more tolerant of different opinions from what they are familiar with, prefer fewer rules. They are empiricists on philosophical and religious concerns (Hofstede, 2011).

Long-term Versus Short-term Orientation

Based on Canadian psychologist's research, Michael Harris, in 1980, the fifth dimension was termed "long-term versus short-term orientation." This dimension relates to the choice of focus for people's efforts: the future, the present, and the past. A Bulgarian scholar, Michael Minkov, in 2000, proposed a new cultural dimension called "monumentalism versus flexumility." However, this new dimension was tested and found moderately but significantly correlated with short-term/long-term orientation.

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Finally, with the cooperation between Minkov, Hofstede, and Hofstede in 2010, they became co-authors in editing the third version of "Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind." Minkov's monumentalism versus flexumility was combined and converted into a new version of long-term versus short-term orientation (Hofstede, 2011).

Indulgence Versus Restraint

The sixth and new dimension was introduced by Minkov in 2000, termed as "indulgence versus restraint." It is rooted in the literature on "happiness research." Indulgence refers to a society that free gratification of basic is allowed, and natural human desires are related to how people enjoy their life and have fun. Restraint refers to a community whose gratification of needs is controlled by strict social norms (Hofstede, 2011).

For more comprehension of the core value and critical profile elements of six cultural dimensions, see the summary in Figure 2-3.

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Figure 2-3

The core value and critical profile elements of six cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Pedersen, 2002)

Cultural Dimensions

High Power Distance	Low Power Distance
Core value: Individual freedom ***Key profile elements:*** – Power is good. – Power, status, and privilege go together. – Less powerful people are dependent on those who are more powerful. – Centralization is popular. – Subordinates and children expect direction. They do not speak without being asked. – The ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or "good father." – The style of speech is formal, polite, and acknowledges hierarchical positions. – Corruption frequent; scandals are covered up.	***Core value:*** Individual freedom ***Key profile elements:*** – Inequalities among people should be minimized. Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon. – There should be, and is, interdependence between less and more powerful people. – Hierarchy in organizations means an inequality of roles only, established for convenience. – Decentralization is popular. – Subordinates and children expect to be consulted. – In a conversation, anyone can take the lead at any time. – Powerful people try to appear less powerful than they are. – Corruption rare; scandals end political careers.
Individualism	**Collectivism**
Core value: Individual freedom ***Key profile elements:*** – "I"--consciousness – Honest people speak their minds. – Explicit communication is preferred. – The task takes precedence over relationships. – Laws and rights are the same for all. – Trespassing leads to guilt and loss of self-respect. – Everyone is supposed to have a personal opinion on any topic. – The relationship between employer and employee or between parent and child is a contract based on mutual advantage.	***Core value:*** Group harmony ***Key profile elements:*** – "We"--consciousness – Members of one's ingroup (organization, extended family) are very close, whereas other outgroup people are very distant. – Harmony should always be maintained, and direct confrontations avoided. – Relationships are more important than the task at hand. Much time is spent on greeting and farewell rituals. – Law, rights, and opinions differ by group. – Trespassing leads to shame and loss of face for the entire ingroup. – The relationship between employer and employee is perceived in moral terms, as a family link. – Spoken communication uses an imprecise style. Discreet nonverbal clues, such as tone and pauses, are crucial. The speaker adapts to the listener.

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Figure 2-3 (Continued)

The core value and critical profile elements of six cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Pedersen, 2002)

Masculinity	Femininity
Core value: Winning (hero- and status-oriented), competition ***Key profile elements:*** – Material success and progress are dominant values. – Bigger and faster are better. – Men are supposed to be assertive, ambitious, and tough. Women should be subservient and tender. Attractive women can use their beauty as a weapon in social competition. – Mascus like to admire exceptional achievements or people. – Failing (at school, at work, in sports, or wherever) is a disaster. – Conflicts are resolved by arguing or fighting them out. – The best student, worker, or manager sets the norm. – Work prevails over family.	***Core value:*** Caring for others, especially the weak, assertiveness ***Key profile elements:*** – Dominant values in society are caring for the weak and preservation (for example, of the environment). – Small and slow are beautiful. – Everybody is supposed to be modest, soft-spoken, and empathetic—mean and women alike. – Femis play down exceptional achievements and people. – Conflicts are resolved through compromise and negotiation. – Equality, solidarity, and quality of work life are emphasized. – Society is permissive. – Balance between family and work.
Uncertainty Avoidance	**Uncertainty Tolerance**
Core value: Certainty, structure, law, clear, safe ***Key profile elements:*** – What is different is dangerous. – Familiar risks are accepted, but ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks are feared. – Rules are important, even if the rules will never work. – Rigid taboos exist about what is dirty, wrong, or indecent. – Time is money. – There is only one truth and we have it. – Experts and specialization are valued. – Need for clarity and structure. – Staying in jobs even if disliked.	***Core value:*** Exploration, experiment, flexible ***Key profile elements:*** – What is different causes curiosity. – Ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks cause no discomfort. – Rules should be limited to those that are absolutely necessary. – Aggression and emotions should be hidden. – Being lazy feels good; working hard is valued only when needed. – Deviant and innovative ideas and behavior are tolerated. – Generalists are valued, as is common sense. – Comfortable with ambiguity and chaos. – Changing jobs no problem.

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Figure 2-3 (Continued)

The core value and critical profile elements of six cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Pedersen, 2002)

Long-term Orientation	Short-term Orientation
Core value: Long-term benefits, work, save, goal, future, effort, invest ***Key profile elements:*** – Most important events in life will occur in the future. – Working very hard is good. – Thrift and saving are good. – Never give up, even if results are disappointing. – People may devote their lives to lofty, remote ideas. – Traditions can be adapted to a modern context. – Achieving one's purpose may be worth losing face. – Past and future generations are important. – Large saving quote, funds available for investment.	***Core value:*** Saving face ***Key profile elements:*** – Most important events in life occurred in the past or take place now. – Never lose face. – There is a social pressure to "keep up with the Joneses," even if it means overspending. – Quick results are expected. – Traditions should be respected. – Social demands (for example, reciprocating gifts) are met regardless of cost. – Personal stability is much valued. – Saving is not popular, so that there is little money for investment.
Indulgence	**Restraint**
Core value: Free gratification of basic and natural human desires, enjoying life ***Key profile elements:*** – Higher percentage of people declaring themselves very happy. – A perception of personal life control. – Freedom of speech seen as important. – Higher importance of leisure. – More likely to remember positive emotions. – In countries with educated populations, higher birthrates. – More people actively involved in sports. – In countries with enough food, higher percentages of obese people. – In wealthy countries, lenient sexual norms. – Maintaining order in the nation is not given a high priority.	***Core value:*** Control gratification of needs, strict social norm ***Key profile elements:*** – Fewer very happy people. – A perception of helplessness: what happens to me is not my own doing. – Freedom of speech is not a primary concern. – Lower importance of leisure. – Less likely to remember positive emotions. – In countries with educated populations, lower birthrates. – Fewer people actively involved in sports. – In countries with enough food, fewer obese people. – In wealthy countries, stricter sexual norms. – Higher number of policers per 100,000 population.

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Arguments Against Hofstede' Cultural Work

Some cross-cultural scholars appreciated Hofstede's cultural work. Some quoted his finding, and some ignored it. Shaiq et al. (2011) stated that Hofstede's work on culture is the most mentioned in much cross-cultural research; still, criticism on his work has been faced. Shaiq et al. (2011) concluded eight major Hofstede's issues that were criticized as follow:

(1) *Relevancy*: the survey used is not a valid instrument to determine the cultural difference. The variables, in some cases, are more sensitive for one culture but not for others (Schwatz, 1999). However, in response to this criticism, Hofstede (1998) addressed that survey was not the only method used.

(2) *Cultural Homogeneity*: the study is based on an individual assessment that should not apply to the overall community (Dorfman & Howell, 1988). This criticism is probably the most popular one, which assumes that the domestic population is homogeneous (Jones, 2007). However, since most nations consist of a group of the ethnic unit thus, the character of the individual assessed can be represented (Redpath, 1997 as cited in Jones, 2007).

(3) *National Divisions*: since culture is the fragment across the group and national boundaries; thus, the unit of analysis is not valid since it was nationwide (McSweeney, 2000). But Hofstede (1998) pointed out that national identities are the only means of identifying and measuring cultural differences.

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(4) *Political Influences*: the study was conducted during the midst of the cold war and was still haunted by World War II; thus, the outcomes of his work have been criticized, especially on masculinity and uncertainty avoidance (Sondergaard, 1994; Newman, 1996).

(5) *One Company Approach*: it based on data from one company, IBM, thus it is not valid since it can't represent the cultural dimensions of the entire country (Graves, 1986; Olie, 1995). Nevertheless, Hofstede (1998, as cited in Jones, 2007) pointed out that using a single multinational employer helped eliminate the effect of the corporate policy and management practices from different companies, which might influence other behavior.

(6) *Out-dated*: it is too old and can't be implemented nowadays in the era of globalization. Moreover, with the recent replications, Hofstede (1998 as cited in Jones, 2007) supported that culture will not change overnight.

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(7) *Too Few Dimensions*: only four or five cultural dimensions are not enough to determine the cultural differences. Regarding this criticism, Hofstede (1998, as cited in Jones, 2007) agreed and welcomed additional dimensions to his original work.

(8) *Statistical integrity*: Dorfman and Howell (1988) have found that, on occasion, an analysis was built from only a few subjects, which increases the likelihood of sample error. Furthermore, the same questionnaire item was used on more than one scale, and several have significant cross-loading.

While the criticisms may be faced, Jones (2007) concluded that Hofstede's research is still the most widely used among cross-cultural scholars, researchers, and practitioners who agree on three points (relevance, rigor, and relative accuracy) helps to reinforce the value of Hofstede's study. First, in terms of relevancy, Hofstede was considered a pioneer in cultural research, there was a lack of cultural work when he started to study. During that time, many international businesses were experiencing intercultural difficulties and crying out for credible advice, and Hofstede's work met this demand for guidance. Second, Hofstede's research framework is based on a rigorous design with systematic data collection and coherent theory even though there is a critic on the sparse and unevenly distributed sampling used. And last, with the replications to compare with Hofstede's finding, the majority have confirmed Hofstede's prediction. Moreover, several studies were developed along similar lines to test the relevancy of Hofstede's work; the results had also confirmed the accuracy of Hofstede's four dimensions (Hondergaard, 1994 as cited in Jones, 2007).

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Consequently, Dafoulas and Macaulay (2002) conducted a study on investigating cultural differences in virtual software teams, concluded that managers in virtual software teams should develop their understanding of national cultural differences. When a team of culturally diverse members is formed, group members will need time and cultural knowledge to adjust themselves to the cultural differences. It is noted that national culture affects individuals' behavior, and conflict is caused by cultural differences, resulting in job performance. Therefore, cultural diversity is beneficial for a team to avoid or effectively resolve the dispute and maximize job performance.

Furthermore, Staples and Zhao (2006) examined the effect of cultural diversity on team effectiveness in both face-to-face, and virtual contexts found that the virtual heterogeneous teams performed better than the face-to-face team because face-to-face create more conflict. Besides, cohesion in teams is formed, which results in less friction when there is an interaction among people with similar cultural values, native language, and national background. Researchers suggested that it is vital for organizations to understand the potential advantages and disadvantages of cultural diversity due to less conflict and efficient job performance. Next, I will present more detail on cultural intelligence.

2.2.3 Cultural Intelligence

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Cultural intelligence is the ability to "grasp, reason and behave effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity" (Ang et al., 2007, p. 337). Similarly, Thomas et al. (2015, pp. 1100) defined cultural intelligence as "the ability that individuals have to interact effectively across cultural contexts and with culturally different individuals." Ang et al. (2007) conceptualize a four-dimensional construct of cultural intelligence and operationalize it as a cultural quotient (CQ). Cultural intelligence or CQ includes metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ.

These four dimensions are based on the framework given by Sternberg (1986 as cited in Ang et al., 2007), which reported four loci of intelligence in an individual: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral intelligence:

(1) Metacognitive intelligence refers to the processes applied by individuals toward acquiring and understanding knowledge, leading to “control of cognition” (Ang et al., 2007, p. 337). Metacognitive CQ is the process applied by individuals to acquire and understand knowledge about varied cultures and also gain control over their thought processes.

(2) Cognitive intelligence is consistent with the concept of intelligence (Ackerman, 1996), where knowledge is a part of intellect. Cognitive CQ includes an individual's knowledge about the norms, cultures, and ways of varied cultures and subcultures and their value systems.

(3) Motivational intelligence is the mental ability that enables the direction and sustenance of energy on a particular task (Neisser et al., 1996). And, motivational CQ is the ability of an individual to direct energy toward learning, understanding, and comprehending situations that are characteristic of diverse cultures.

(4) Behavioral intelligence is about the actions of “what people do, rather than think.” (Sternberg, 1986, p. 6). Thus, behavioral CQ is about exhibiting appropriate behavior through verbal and non-verbal actions while interacting with people belonging to diverse cultures.

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The most popular CQ instrument is a 20-item self-report questionnaire developed by Ang et al. (2007); however, Ward, Fisher, Lam, & Hall (2009) had pointed out its limitation on incremental validity. Therefore, Thomas et al. (2015) had developed a theory-based, short-form measure of cultural intelligence (SFCQ) related to significant intercultural interactions. SFCQ is a short yet powerful instrument to measure CQ,

demonstrating evidence for construct and criterion-related validity. It reflected in three intermediate facets of cultural knowledge (understanding of different and complexity of cultures), cross-cultural skills (relational skills, tolerance of uncertainty, adaptability, empathy, and perceptual acuity), and cultural meta-cognition (awareness of the cultural context, conscious analysis of the influence of the cultural context, and planning courses of action in different cultural contexts). SFCQ is a self-report instrument concerning criticism of social desirability. However, it can be used in a quantitative approach that would also allow methodological triangulation.

Ott and Michailova (2016, as cited in Shaik, Makhecha, & Gouda, 2020) reported that people with higher levels of CQ are known to be culturally competent and possess a higher ability to work effectively with members of diverse cultures. Additionally, Shaik and Makhecha (2019), in a study to understand the drivers of employee engagement in GVTs' context, found that "Cultural Intelligence" of members in GVTs is an essential antecedent to employee engagement has been acknowledged to be directly related to organizational success.

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By the definitions of both IC and CQ, some scholars have used the terms interchangeably. Still, CQ uses self-assessed measurement based on the four-dimensional construct, and IC can use self-assessed and non-self-assessed measures. Since CQ's measurement method on self-assessed items could result in a validity problem in terms of social desirability thus, this study will avoid this threat by not focusing on this construct.

2.2.4 Intercultural Competence

Bennett (1993, as cited in Bartel-Radic, Moos, & Long, 2015) initially proposed "intercultural sensitivity," which referred to the orientation toward cultural difference. He introduced a dynamic learning perspective called "the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)." DMIS comprises six stages of intercultural sensitivity, including three ethnocentric (lack of intercultural competence) and three ethno-relative steps (learning outcome of intercultural competence). The concept of intercultural competence development moves from cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions. Similarly, Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) mentioned a considerable and continually growing interest in cross-cultural competence (CCC) since globalization has led to an increase in cross-cultural encounters. They suggested that future research on CCC should continue with empirical data, combining varied methods. Furthermore, these studies are rarely conducted and yet need to study to gain a deeper understanding of CCC.

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Consequently, intercultural competence or IC is defined as "the ability to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways" (Hammer et al., 2003, p. 422). Similarly, Deardorff (2006) described it as "abilities to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural encounters– supported by specific attitudes and affective features, intercultural knowledge, skills, and reflection". He also referred to the skills needed in IC, which are cognitive skills, critical thinking, cognitive flexibility skills, and skills to analyze, interpret, relate, listen, and observe. Besides, the primary skills among heterogeneous groups which result in intercultural competencies are cultural knowledge

and self-control, establish a relationship, transcultural communication, cross-cultural adaptation, and intercultural sensitivity (Fantini, 2006; Popescu, 2014).

Moreover, Bartel-Radic (2006, p. 651) defined IC as "the ability to understand the meaning of intercultural interaction and the ability to adapt one's behavior to these meanings to produce efficient behavior." Thus, individuals should employ compromising strategies in the intercultural learning process between their own culture and others due to effective intercultural interaction. In other words, intercultural competence widely depends on a person's mental models or views of the other and foreignness. IC can evolve through an intercultural learning process that includes intercultural experience and critical reflection (Bartel-Radic, 2014; Popescu, 2014). Additionally, Brustein (2007, as cited in Bartel-Radic et al., 2015) introduced, global competence as the ability among employees to work effectively in a cross-cultural setting. Individuals are aware of and can adapt themselves to diverse cultures, perceptions, and approaches. They are familiar with major global issues and changes and capable of effective communications across cultural and linguistic boundaries.

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Leung et al. (2014) has diverged from different IC definitions into particular content domains: intercultural traits, intercultural attitudes and worldviews, and intercultural capabilities. *Intercultural traits* refer to personal characteristics that determine an individual’s typical behaviors in intercultural situations. Intercultural traits include open-mindedness, dissimilarity, openness, tolerance of ambiguity, cognitive complexity, flexibility, inquisitiveness, a quest for adventure, patience, and emotional resilience. On the contrary, *intercultural attitudes and intercultural worldviews* focus on

how individuals perceive other cultures. Their attitudes can be either positive or negative. Finally, *intercultural capabilities* emphasize what individuals can do in a significant intercultural interaction. These intercultural capabilities include knowledge of other cultures, cultural intelligence, linguistic skills, social flexibility, adaptability to communication, and cultural tuning in holistic concern, collaboration, and learning. The majority of scholars agreed that IC needs to be cultivated among individuals and relate to the concept of various intelligence forms, such as social, emotional, and cultural (Elo, Benjowsky, & Nummela, 2015).

There are five intercultural competence models: the global leadership competency model, the global mindset model, the multicultural personality model, the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity, and the cultural intelligence model. All models, except the global leadership competency model, have brought significant attention to organizational research. Leung et al. (2014) provided brief overviews of each model.

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The newest but comprehensive model is the *global leadership competency model* formulated by Bird et al. (2010, as cited in Leung et al., 2014). The model comprises three broad factors: perception, relationship, and self-management. It is a mixed model with a combination of traits, attitudes and worldviews, and capabilities. However, it has been suggested by Leung et al. (2014) that the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI), which is based on this model, needs to be evaluated since leaders need to interact and work effectively with people from different cultures. Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, and Oddou (2014) highlighted that GCI is an essential tool to assess the degree to which individuals possess the intercultural competencies that are associated with global leader

effectiveness. In other words, GCI is used to analyze intercultural competencies related to global leadership.

The second model is the *global mindset model* introduced by Rhinesmith (1992, as cited in Leung et al., 2014). It refers to how individuals process complex information in a global environment. The concept of this model is an evolution from cognitive origin to a broader set of factors (affective and behavioral) or mixed-model. Like the global leadership competency model, the global mindset model is based on a mixed model that combines traits, worldviews, and capabilities. Javidan and Bowen (2015) added that the global mindset experts had developed the Global Mindset Inventory (GMI). It comprises of three distinct forms of capital: intellectual (cognitive aspect; to see how much a leader knows about global business), psychological (affective or emotional element; to analyze leaders' attitude and emotional resilience in global challenges), and social (behavioral aspect; to investigate leaders' ability to build the trusting relationship with people around the world).

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The third model is *the multicultural personality model* introduced by Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, as cited in Leung et al., 2014). It is rooted in the view that stable dispositions are reliable, albeit modest, predictors of performance. Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000, 2001) developed the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ), which measures five traits that predict multicultural effectiveness. Likewise, Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven, Ponterotto, and Fietzer (2013) summarized that with an extensive review of the literature on cross-cultural adaptability and intercultural relations, five traits are relevant to intercultural success derived. They are cultural empathy

(empathizing with others who are culturally diverse), open-mindedness (unprejudiced attitude toward cultural differences), social initiative (actively approaching social situations and demonstrating initiative in these interactions), emotional stability (ability to stay calm under novel and stressful conditions), and flexibility (interpreting novel situations as a positive challenge and adapting to these situations accordingly). MPQ associated with (a) sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being, mental health, and physical health of international students and expatriates; (b) international aspirations of students and employees; and (c) expatriate job satisfaction, multicultural activity, and examination grades of students working in culturally diverse teams.

The next model is *the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity* (DMIS) developed by Bennett (1986, 1993, 2004, as cited in Leung et al., 2014). It posits that intercultural competence can be developed with the increasing complexity and sophistication in perceiving and understanding cultures and cultural differences. Intercultural competence among individuals has been developed in six stages, including denial, defense, reversal, minimization, acceptance, and adaptation (Hammer, 2011, as cited in Leung et al., 2014). In 1998, the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) was developed by Hammer and Bennett to measure this model.

Last is *the cultural intelligence model* (CQ), which was introduced by Earley and Ang (2003 as cited in Leung et al., 2014). This model refers to individuals' ability to function in and manage culturally diverse settings effectively. CQ comprises metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral CQ. Ang et al. (2007) developed the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), a 20-item self-report instrument. It is used to

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measure psychological outcomes such as intercultural adjustment, behavioral outcomes such as idea-sharing and development of social networks with culturally different others, and performance outcomes such as task performance and cross-border leadership effectiveness. The next part will discuss Hofstede's work expansion to Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research or the GLOBE model.

2.2.5 Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research or The GLOBE Model

An expert in management and a professor at the Wharton Business School of the University of Pennsylvania, Robert J. House conducted a study in 1991 on a large-scale analysis of cultural dimensions or known as the GLOBE model. This model is based on some of Hofstede's studies. Later on, the study was published in 2004 in a volume entitled "Culture, Leadership, and Organizations" (Varner & Beamer, 2011). The research was initially focused on leadership and later covered other elements of national and international culture (Hofstede, 2011). Those dimensions of the GLOBE model are similar to Hofstede's cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and future orientation. Then, other new elements were added: institutional collectivism (culture values degree and practices to collective action), collectivism in the group (an individual degree to express pride and cohesion in a group), assertiveness (the degree to convey a level of assertive, straightforwardness, confrontational, and aggressive in the relationships with others), gender egalitarianism (gender equality), humane orientation

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(emphasize on a culture values fairness, generosity, caring, and kindness), performance orientation (culture values degree that encourages performance) (Nahavandi, 2006).

To summarize, when people from a different culture are gathered, the chance of misunderstanding and conflict increases due to expectation violation. People from different cultures do and act differently. One way of acting or doing in one country might be suitable and acceptable, whereas it might be severely wrong and unacceptable in other countries. Therefore, people need the ability to understand others' cultures.

Hofstede in 1980 introduced the four cultural dimensions as an influential contribution to cultural differences. Those four cultural dimensions include power distance (the way subordinates deal with superiors), individualism/collectivism (the ties between individuals and groups), masculinity/femininity (male-female relationships), and uncertainty avoidance/uncertainty tolerance (how people manage insecurity, aggression, and social conflicts). Then, later in 1980, the fifth dimension was added as "long-term versus short-term orientation," which relates to the choice of focus for people's efforts: the future or the present and the past. Finally, the sixth dimension proposed by Minkov (2000), called "indulgence versus restraint," became an entirely new dimension related to the gratification versus control of basic human desires related to how people enjoy life.

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Consequently, in multinational organizations where there is a variety of cultural background among their employees, then intercultural competence skill is needed. IC is recognized as an essential skill to help employees to think and act in interculturally appropriate ways. The next part will present conflict, conflict management, and intercultural conflict management styles/behavior.

2.3 Conflict Management

2.3.1 Conflict

Conflict is defined as "an intense disagreement process between a minimum of two interdependent parties when they perceive incompatible interests, viewpoints, processes, and/or goals in an interaction episode." (Jehn, 1992; Zhang et al., 2015). Similarly, Rahim et al. (2002) referred to the conflict as "an interactive process manifesting, incompatibility, disagreement or dissonance between two or more interacting individuals." Recently, Paul, Seetharaman, Samarah and Mykytyn (2004) summarized that "conflict refers to the case when more than two individuals or groups believe that they have needs that cannot be mutually satisfied or that cannot be reconciled or integrated."

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Conflict is unavoidable, inevitable, stressful, perceived as a natural part of daily interaction in the workplace, and disruptive to most teams (Brew & David, 2004; Jehn, 1997; Maltarich, Kukenberger, Reilly, & Mathieu, 2018). Moreover, conflict management is defined as "a set of behaviors in work teams focused on intensifying, reducing, or resolving the tensions" (De Dreu et al. 1999).

Due to the often-interchangeable terms between conflict, dispute, and dissention, let’s take a closer look at the definitions. John Burton (1990, as cited in Keator, 2011) defined a “dispute” as a short-term disagreement that can reach some resolution and is

easily negotiable. At the same time, conflict is a long-term disagreement with deeply rooted issues and needs extra effort in the negotiation process. If disagreements are left unchecked or unexplained, a dispute can easily lead to conflict. And “dissent” is the disagreement of the ideas, doctrines, decrees of a political party, government, or religion (Wikidiff, 2021).

In summary, conflict, dispute, and dissention should not be used interchangeably. Conflict refers to two core elements; disagreement and stressful interaction among parties. Firstly, conflict is formed when a dispute between individuals is involved with the interest and resources, practice, goals, values, beliefs, or other issues. Secondly, stressful interaction during the conflict consists of the degree of negative emotion or even distress (Hammer, 2009).

However, well-managed conflict is a necessary process that could make better decisions in teams because more alternatives are generated during the conflict process (Jehn & Mannix, 2001).

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2.3.2 Conflict Management

Conflict management is recognized as one of the most critical challenges that members face in virtual settings because it influences various levels of effectiveness;

individual, team, and organizational level (De Dreu et al. 2001). Managing conflict effectively is perceived as a significant contribution to multinational organizational' success (Yuan & Kai Ming Au, 2010). Conflict is seen as a multidimensional or double-edged sword that may result in *positive or functional* and *negative or dysfunctional* outcomes (Jehn, 1997; Singleton et al., 2011; Song, Dyer, & Thieme, 2006).

Rahim (2000) stated that conflict management refers to designing effective strategies for minimizing the dysfunctions of conflict and maximizing the constructive functions of conflict. It also enhances learning and effectiveness in an organization. Furthermore, Moberg (2001) summarized that conflict management is employees' specific behavioral pattern in a disagreement.

Additionally, the Change Manager's Handbook (as cited in Austin, 2020) stated a simple but straightforward definition of conflict management that it is the way to reduce, terminate, or eliminate conflict. And, when looking at the explanation of both terminologies, it can be concluded that they should not be used interchangeably. Since conflict management mainly aims to minimize the conflict while conflict management isn't directly mean to resolve, terminate, or reduce conflicts but is about the designing of strategies to mitigate negative conflict or dysfunctional and maximize positive or functional/constructive conflict.

Indeed, the essential element to help to build and maintain relationships is cooperation. Individuals with cooperative behavior tend to have a more positive relationship (Austin & Worchel, 1979; Deutsch, 1980). Deutsch (1973, 1949) proposed

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the theory of cooperation and competition, which explained that the dynamics and development of relationships among individuals are significantly influenced by goal interdependence. It is essential for individuals to understand this concept because it helped to shape the way they discuss, interact, negotiates their conflict, and perceive conflict as constructive or destructive (Deutsch, 1973). Leigh Anne et al. (2018) indicated that when individuals' goals and self-interests are mutually related, that substantially impacts their expectations, interaction, and outcomes.

The interchangeable terminology of cooperative, collaborative, or constructive conflict management tactics emphasized that managing conflicts appropriately is a must in every organization since it is a key to organizational survival and effectiveness. Importantly, scholars have found that appropriate management of conflict and organizational performance is positively related (Amason & Schweiger, 1997; Brahnam et al.,2005; De Dreu, Van Dierendonck, & De Best-Waldhober, 2003; Deutsch, 2006; Gladwin & Walter, 1980; Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004; Singleton et al., 2011; Song et al., 2006; Sudhakar, 2015). Consequently, functional conflict stimulates effective communication, better relationship quality, better quality product, better decision making, greater self-awareness and learning, greater psychological well-being, friendliness, helpfulness, mutual respect, cooperation, coordination of effort, participation, satisfaction, problem-solving, innovation, and creativity. These lead to a positive impact on the organization and its employees, such as organizational innovation, productivity, and performance (Amason & Schweiger, 1997; Brahnam et al.,2005; De Dreu, Van

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Dierendonck, & De Best-Waldhober, 2003; Deutsch, 2006; Gladwin & Walter, 1980; Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004; Singleton et al., 2011; Song et al., 2006; Sudhakar, 2015).

Singleton et al. (2011) found five consequences that stimulate functional conflict. They are 1) differences in opinions, personalities, knowledge, education, and experience; (2) natural results of diversity based on such characteristics as age, ethnicity, gender, etc. (3) project or process differences; (4) virtual and/or self-managed work teams, or (5) rapid change. To be more specific, strong support from leaders to establish organizational culture is required. Such the culture includes encouraging innovation, involving the followers or team members in improvement initiatives, and supporting those positive and contributing members. Besides, Bartel-Radic (2006) indicated that internal conflict among global members encourages intercultural learning.

Constructive conflict management includes active listening, perspective taking, probing for needs and interests, establishing rapport, focusing on similarities and common ground, resolving conflict at a needs level, and generating creative and integrative solutions (Association of Conflict Resolution 2005; Deutsch 1993; Fisher 2019; Kressel 2014; Schneider & Honeyman 2006). These skills are the standard focus of most basic training in conflict management, integrative negotiation, and settlement mediation (Coleman, 2018). Recently, Rezvani et al. (2018) emphasized that using the soft skills and competencies of individuals is needed for conflict management. Furthermore, social skills help individuals interact in mutually beneficial ways (Malouff & Schutte, 1998).

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In contrast, competitive conflict management tactics are an improper way to manage conflict. They result in dysfunctional outcomes, including wasted time, poor relationships, reduced productivity, low key performance indicators, poor health, mistrust, low morale, lack of cooperation, reduced coordination and cohesiveness, stress, hostility, competition, disputes, inefficiency, low degree of organizational commitment, low motivation, less job satisfaction, high absenteeism, and high turnovers. These adverse effects obstruct team productivity, project performance, and the organization's success. It may also cause employees to persist, and further confrontations may occur (Bacal, 2004; Barki & Hartwick, 2001; Dana, 2001; De Dreu, Dierendonck, & Dijastra, 2004; Englund & Bucero, 2012; Heidari & Heidari, 2016; Kaye, 1994; Suppiah & Rose, 2006; Tamam et al., 1997; Thomas, 2009; Weiss & Hughes, 2005: Yuan & Kai Ming Au, 2010).

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Several studies explored the relationship between the level of conflict and individual, team, and organizational performance. Leung et al. (2005) and Lam et al. (2007) found that moderate levels of conflict lead to better performance, and high levels of conflict reduce team performance. Besides, the high level of disputes also increases the costs and spending a long time working on the project (Brahnam et al., 2005).

Interestingly, studies on conflict among the Chinese concluded that conflict is perceived negatively; it is viewed as a fight or a severe battle. Thus, conducting conflict research among Chinese, researchers need to be careful in elaborating on the meaning of conflict. They are suggested to provide a real conflict experience rather than having them

relate to their previous conflict; they may end up reporting that they have never had any conflict with others (Sun & Starosta, 2001; Wenshu Lee, 1991).

Similarly, Ayoko and Callan (2010) and Leigh et al. (2018) suggested two types of reaction, which are productive or cooperative and destructive or competitive. A fertile or collaborative reaction occurs when individuals work cooperatively to reach their goals. This reaction has strong support from Deutsch's theory of cooperation (1973) that "cooperative relationships are an essential factor that allows individuals to discuss the conflict in an open-minded and constructive way." The individuals' positive perception of conflict and disagreement allows them to understand that mutually finding the way to resolve the dispute is the way that helps one another reach their goals. "Win-win" interaction is termed to explain when their own goals are fulfilled and recognized that if one wins, another wins, too (Deutsch, 2006).

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Conversely, the destructive or competitive reaction causes employees difficulty in dealing with the conflict. It occurs when individuals' perception of working focused on working independently and competitively to reach their goal and only one win and another lose or fail which is called "win-lose" interaction or closed-mindedness (Chen, Liu, & Tjosvold, 2005; Deutsch, 2006; Leigh Anne et al., 2018).

2.3.3 Types of Conflict

De Dreu and Gelfand (2008) defined intragroup conflict as "the process emerging from perceived incompatibilities or differences among group members." Past work first distinguished workplace conflict into two typologies: *task conflict and relationship conflict* (Amason, 1996; Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954; Jehn, 1994), and later, *process conflict* was found as a third type of conflict (Jehn, 1997; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999).

Task conflict is described as the awareness of disagreements that exist in the actual tasks in the team (Jehn, 1997). It involves different ideas, perspectives, opinions, and viewpoints (Yang & Mossholder, 2004) and disputes over the content and outcomes of the task being performed (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003). The effect is on the increased quality of the decision-making process (Amason, 1996), team performance (Jehn & Chatman, 2000), team innovation (O'Neill et al., 2013).

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Interestingly, researchers concluded that task conflict helps improve group decisions (Amason, 1996; Amason & Schweiger, 1994; Jehn, 1997), team cohesion, team member satisfaction, team member commitment, team performance (Jehn & Chatman, 2000), and effective team outcomes. Be cautious with some (less) amount of task conflict and appropriately handled; it could positively impact the group's success (Ayoko et al., 2008; Jehn, 1995; Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004).

Importantly, meta-analytic research (an approach of synthesizing findings from the several extant works of literature) by De Dreu and Weingart (2003 as cited in De Wit,

Greer, & Jehn, 2012) mentioned that tension and stress level is increased during the task conflict and finally lead to poor team performance. So, they proposed that the organization manage conflict at the early stage before it turns hard to manage. If task conflict degenerates into relationship conflict, it can result in adverse outcomes for groups or teams (Ayoko & Konrad, 2012). There will be destructive reactions if the dispute is intensified. Ayoko et al. (2008) indicated that emotional Intelligence is needed for teams with intense battles since it helps to minimize task and relationship conflict and conflict intensity.

Relationship conflicts involve an affective or emotional reaction (Hammer, 2001), tensions (Alder, 1991), disputes over interpersonal incompatibility such as frustration, anger, and stress (Jehn & Chatman, 2000; Vaux & Kirk, 2018). It also involves disagreements among team members about interpersonal issues such as personality differences or differences in norms and values that are not task-related. It decreases mutual understanding, harms group performance (Wu et al., 2017), reduced group functioning (Coser, 1956), reduce collaborative interaction (De Dreu, 2006), damage group effort (Amason, 1996; Amason & Schweiger, 1994; Jehn, 1997), interfering with task-related efforts, undermining working relationships, demoting creative behavior (Liu et al.,2010) and hampers the success of the project teams or groups (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; O'Neill et al., 2013).

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Jehn and Chatman (2000) found a negative relationship between relationship conflict, the level of cohesion, commitment, satisfaction, performance, and negative emotions such as frustration, tension, jealousy, and anger among team members. This

relationship limits effective communication, group work, and performance (Ayoko et al., 2008; Rezvani et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2017; Zhang and Huo, 2015).

Fortunately, low levels of relationship conflict may positively affect innovation behavior due to mobilizing cognitive resources during the battle (Wu et al., 2018). This matches with social identity theory which asserted that a portion of individuals' self-concept reflects their intention to be a part of a group (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Hogg & Terry, 2000), in other words, individual social psychological processes related to group membership (Wu et al., 2015).

Moreover, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) stated that "based on the social exchange theory, it is claimed that the quality of the social relationship has an impact on individuals' work-related behaviors." Interestingly, by linking this theory to conflict management, Wu et al. (2018) concluded that the interaction effect of intrapersonal conflict, social exchange relationships, and an individual's innovation behavior was significantly related.

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Consequently, high levels of relationship conflict can lead to long-term strain, further develop changes in mental and physical health problems (Kreibig, 2010), keep the distance, and intensify their anxiety (Jehn and Mannix, 2001; Park et al., 2004). For this reason, Wu et al. (2018) clarified that group or team members with high levels of relationship conflict are unwilling to develop a positive attitude toward their working issues and resist generating and implementing ideas to solve problems in the workplace, which results in frustration and divergence. These high levels of relationship conflict may

limit the ability among employees to develop innovative behavior since they avoid pursuit participation and being unable to acquire and process information.

Process conflict is defined as disagreements among group members about the logistics of task accomplishment, such as allocating tasks, duties, resources, and responsibilities (Chen et al., 2014; Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Jehn & Chatman, 2000). Limited public support (including the internal and external public) and a differing understanding of project governance, priorities, and interests could lead to process conflict (O'Neill et al., 2013).

Interestingly, Greer, Jehn and Mannix (2008) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate the effects of the three types of conflict in a team setting; results showed that both process conflict and relationship conflict have adverse effects on team performance. Then, while the team started to form, process conflicts can, later on, lead to task and relationship conflict. Therefore, an organization should manage process conflict at the early stages of conflict since it helps prevent other types of conflict, or else a lasting impact on a team's performance may occur. Similarly, several studies (Jehn, 1995; Jiang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2011; O'Neill et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2017) confirmed these adverse effects of process and relationship conflict on performance. Additionally, Martins and Shalley (2011) found the degree of creativity among virtual teams when process conflict is low. Regarding the results of a meta-analysis by De Dreu and Weingart (2003), both task conflict and relationship conflict are negatively related to group performance and satisfaction.

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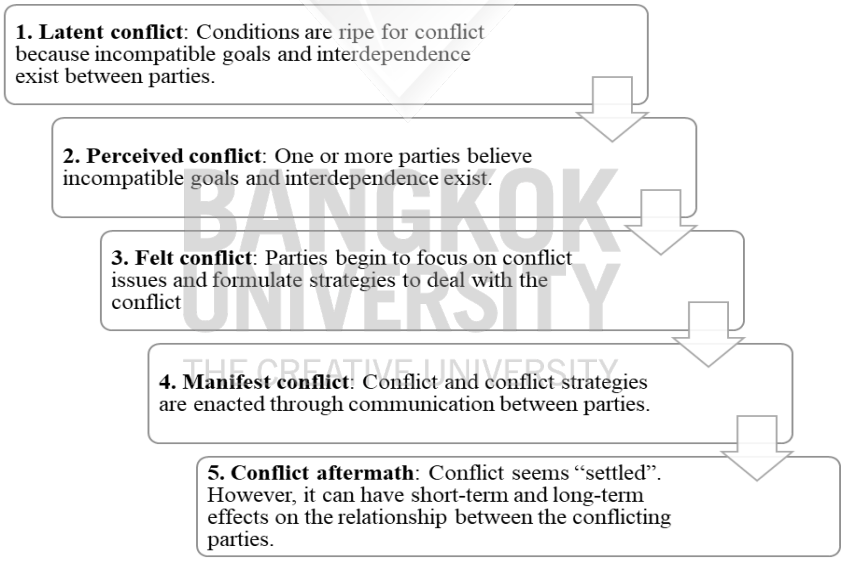
2.3.4 Stages in The Conflict Process

Pondy (1967, as cited in Liu et al., 2011) determined that individuals don't flick from a peaceful state to conflict. Still, it develops through different stages (see Figure 2-4).

Figure 2-4

Five stages in the conflict process (Liu et al., 2011)



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1. *Latent conflict* involves a situation in which conditions are ripe for conflict because of the incompatibilities and interdependence between the two parties.
2. *Perceived conflict* occurs when one or more of the parties believe that these incompatibilities exist. However, it is possible to have latent conflict without perceived conflict.

3. *Felt conflict*: during this stage, the parties will begin to formulate strategies about how to deal with the dispute and to consider various outcomes that would or would not be acceptable.
4. *Manifest conflict*: conflict and conflict strategies are enacted through communication between parties.
5. *Conflict aftermath*: emphasizes that conflicts can have both short and long-term consequences.

2.3.5 Conflict Management Styles

Conflict is conventional in group activities and team members' interaction (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Individuals manage conflict in multiple ways; team effectiveness depends on the different styles of conflict management (Tabassi, Bryde, Abdullah, & Argyropoulou, 2017). The other forms of handling internal group conflict have been defined as conflict management styles (Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004). Different approaches refer to various conflict management styles (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Rahim, 1983; Thomas, 1976). However, the appropriate use of conflict management styles is situation-based (Rahim, 1985). Factors related include tension, stress, and anxiety to reach an agreement (Baron, 1988), power differences (Zartman & Touval, 1985), the complexity of the task (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1986), culture and leadership style (Kozan, 1989) and virtual team and various team contexts (Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004).

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Deutsch (1949) proposed a unidimensional approach to cooperation and competition style. Still, the most common typology of conflict management styles used today, based on the work of Blake and Mouton (1964), who initiated the two-dimensional conflict styles into high and low "concern for self" and "concern of others." They then classified conflict management styles of handling conflicts into five behavioral styles, which are forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and confrontation.

Rahim (1983) developed the first and most-used scales for conflict management styles, "A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict," or widely known as ROCI-II instrument, and then categorized five generally accepted conflict management styles, which based on high and low "concern for self" and "concern for others," termed as *avoiding* (low self/other concern), *compromising* (moderate self/other concern), *dominating* (high self/low other concern), *integrating* (high self/ other concern), and *obliging* (low self/ high other concern) (Folger, Poole, & Stutman, 1993; Oetzel, 1998). Ting-Toomey et al. (2000) stated that the (ROCI-II) measure of conflict style had been popularized in various domestic and intercultural research studies.

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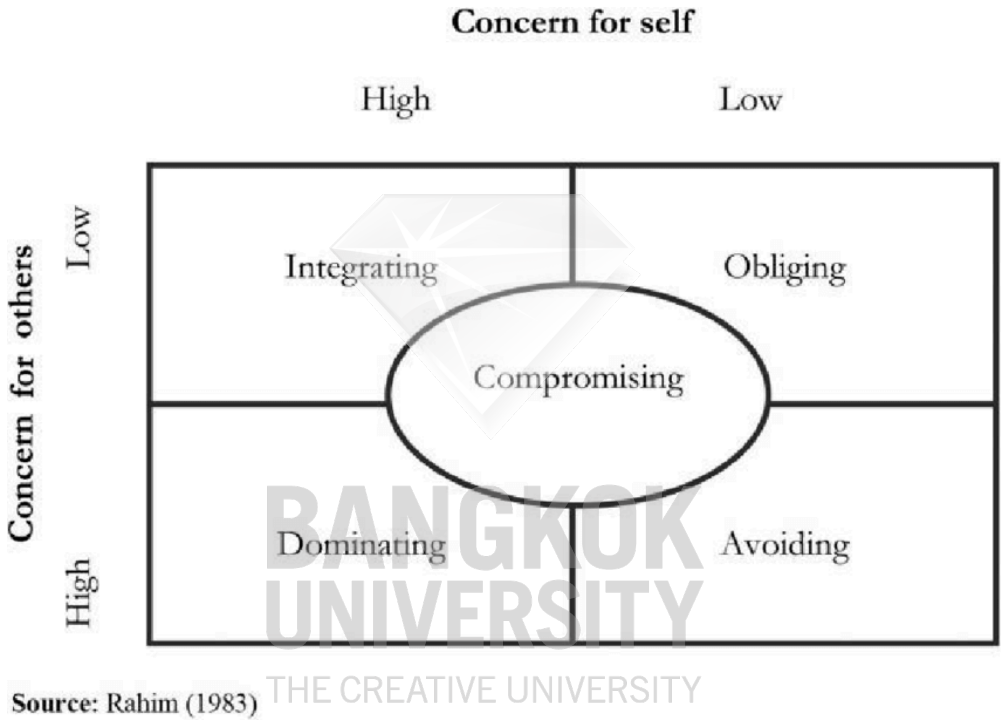
A clarification on each conflict management style approach is summarized in Figure 2-5 (Montoya-Weiss, Massey, & Song, 2001; Thomas, 1976 as cited in Tabassi et al., 2017; Yuan & Kai Ming Au, 2010):

Figure 2-5

Five conflict management styles based on high and low "concern for self" and "concern for others" (Rahim, 1983).



Source: Rahim (1983)

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1. *Avoiding* (low self / high other concern): is characterized by evasiveness and failure to address conflicting viewpoints directly. They are recognized as an avoidant-oriented person who tends to withdraw from, take no action on, ignoring, or avoid conflict. This approach is called a lose-lose conflict management strategy
2. *Compromising* (moderate self / other concern): is characterized by finding the middle ground or mutually accepted solutions through negotiating differences.

They are recognized as compromising-oriented people who focus on the intermediation of conflict. This style involves a give-and-take situation in which both parties sacrifice to reach a consensus. This approach is called a no-win, no-lose conflict, or partially win management strategy, but it can solve creative problems (Noermijati et al., 2019). On the contrary, this style was also a destructive conflict limiting innovation performance (Song et al., 2006) and creative ideas to solve problems (Zhang et al., 2015). Shih & Susanto (2010) explained that the sacrifice might cause dissatisfaction with the solution made on one or both parties, diminishing the motivation to achieve better performance.

3. *Dominating* (high self / high other concern): a competitive conflict management style is defined as pursuing one's interest without careful regard for others. They are recognized as a domination-oriented person who will achieve goals by using destructive behavior and ignoring the needs of others. This approach is called a win-lose conflict management strategy. The competitive atmosphere will allow coercion, deception, suspicion, and rigidity, leading to poor communication (Martin & Nakayama, 2004).
4. *Integrating* (high self / low other concern) or collaboration or cooperative conflict management style attempts to identify and achieve outcomes for mutual benefit. They are recognized as an integration-oriented person who collaborates with the other party to reach a mutually acceptable solution. Employees with are task-oriented and relationship-oriented use this style (Chen et al., 2012). Their characteristics are open-mindedness, good interpersonal relationships, and

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willingness to support and reach organizational goals (Shih & Susanto, 2010). This style helps to promote perceived similarity, trust, and flexibility, which leads to open communication (Martin & Nakayama, 2004) and helps improve innovation performance (Chen et al., 2012; Song et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2015). This conflict style is called a win-win conflict management strategy.

5. *Obliging* (low self / low other concern): accommodating conflict management style reflects obligations to others. They are recognized as an obliging-oriented person who attempts to satisfy the other party and thus reach an agreement. This style is called a lose-win conflict management strategy

From studies on organizational conflict management styles, scholars summarized that the most appropriate and effective conflict management styles are integrating styles, which positively correlate with individual and corporate outcomes (Burke, 1970; Rahim, 2002). Moreover, the compromising style is quite effective and appropriate. On the contrary, inappropriate and ineffective conflict management styles are dominating and avoiding styles (Gross & Guerrero, 2000; Rahim, 2002). Ayoko and Konrad (2012) found that employees expect third-party assistance from leaders when conflicts are formed in their groups. Especially effective conflict management requires leaders to be flexible in employing different conflict management styles among diverse group members. Thus, taking careful attention to intercultural conflict management styles is needed to help to solve a problem from a cultural perspective.

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2.3.6 Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior

Managing conflict in the intercultural context is a unique and remarkable consequence. Organizations greatly benefit from its diversity if managed constructively and adequately, such as smoothen group decision-making, leading to effective decisions (Oetzel et al., 2000; Putnam & Poole, 1992). However, it requires more energy, cultural sensitivity to help gain more understanding of how to appropriately handle it because the potential for frustration and dissatisfaction can be heightened among the diverse group members (Boonsathorn, 2017).

According to Ting-Toomey (2006, p. 366), intercultural conflicts arise due to the "perceived and/or actual incompatibility of values, expectations, processes and or outcomes between two or more parties from different cultures over substantive and/or relational issues". Many studies on intercultural conflict styles studied the different stages of conflict ranging from how it was formed and terminated (Leung, 2002). All the related stages of conflict vary in a different culture.

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Interestingly, so far, none of the conflict management models has been developed to assess, measure, or compare culturally-based conflict. For example, the ROCI-II measure designed by Rahim (1983) is supposed to apply more to collectivist or Asian culture, not individualist or Western culture. Thus, Hammer (2005) developed the only model and assessment tool of conflict management styles based on cultural difference dimensions, termed the Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS) model and ICS Inventory.

The Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS) Model (Hammer, 2005)

The Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS) model deals with how disagreements and emotions were addressed and dealt with in cross-cultural conflict interaction. The model of intercultural conflict management styles is based on two dimensions that explain how problems and conflicts are solved. Those two dimensions are behaviors that reflect "(1) direct versus indirect approaches for communicating about substantive issues (disagreements) and (2) emotionally expressive versus emotionally restrained strategies for dealing with emotional upset" (Hammer, 2009). The concept has been taken under individualism and collectivism when dealing with disagreement and emotion across cultures.

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Direct Versus Indirect Conflict Management Behavior

Direct culture strategies focus on individuals using a straightforward approach to deal with disagreements, such as applying precise words, explicit language to increase understanding, prefer face-to-face discussion to resolve the conflict.

For direct cultures, there is a mutual responsibility to directly verbalize their thought, concern, opinion, and perspective in the dispute.

Persuasion is valued in this direct culture; individuals logically support their arguments using valid and objective facts then conclude with relevant recommendations or solutions. From this value, when dealing with conflict, direct cultures employ a

"solutions-oriented" approach to problem-solving. The characteristics of flexibility and openness to possibilities are needed to help guide the complex intercultural conflict interaction (Leigh et al., 2018). Tjosvold et al. (2014) concluded the way to lessen conflict is to use an open-minded discussion so that individuals can freely express their views, engage in active listening, and build a mutual benefit relationship.

In contrast, ***indirect culture strategies*** focus on individuals using indirect strategy to deal with disagreements such as ambiguity in language, use of analogies and metaphors, hinting or saying one thing to refer to another, use of the third party to mediate during the conflict management process. Great attention should be paid to history, context, and nonverbal behaviors when indirect culture strategies are employed during the conflict.

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From the indirect culture view, tensions escalate, and parties' discomfort increases when engaging in direct strategy and face-to-face meetings. Also, harmony among parties is threatening and becomes hard to maintain during the conflict cycle. In other words, the indirect approach employs the concept of "relationship repair," or fixing the broken relationship, when dealing with disagreement or conflict. Conversely, this strategy is seen as an obstruction to the effective conflict management process.

Trukisky et al. (1991, as cited in Hammer, 2005) concluded that individualistic culture prefers direct strategy and solution-oriented styles. In contrast, collectivistic culture tends to use a straightforward approach to maintain relational harmony during the conflict and prefers avoiding and obliging conflict styles.

Ting-Toomey (1999) examined conflict style preferences in cross-cultural contexts and concluded that direct strategy dominated conflict style. The indirect approach was associated with obliging/accommodating and avoiding conflict styles, whereas compromising and integrating/collaborating conflict styles had a less clear relationship. Scholars further explained that the concept of compromising and integrating is perceived differently among individualistic and collectivistic.

Emotionally Expressive Versus Emotionally Restrained Conflict Management Behavior

An emotionally expressive strategy tends to let out emotion and value more overt and visible displays of emotion and feeling through nonverbal behaviors, including laughing, to elevate volume, using gestures, body posture, and facial expressions during a conflict interaction. Individuals in this system perceive that controlling or hiding emotional upset will escalate the conflict rather than de-escalate. Moreover, the personal credibility and sincerity of each party are gained through the use of emotionally expressive strategy, which results in conflict de-escalating, and humor can be used as a comfortable strategy to reduce tension.

In *emotionally restrained strategy*, the focus is on containing, hiding, masking, and minimizing the expression of overt emotion through nonverbal behavior. Emotions are controlled internally. Unlike the emotionally expressive strategy, the use of humor

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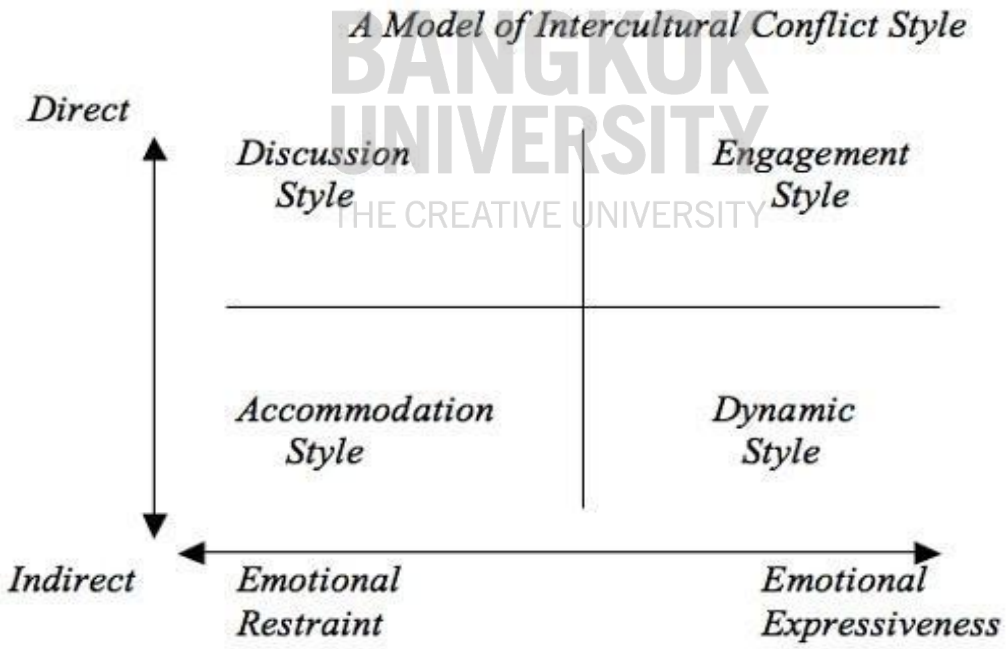
when tensions are high could be risky in this system since it may be interpreted negatively and result in diminishing the conflict situation.

Hammer (2005) combined these approaches/behavior and proposed four-quadrant models of Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management Styles, which describe (direct and indirect) approaches for dealing with disagreement and emotional response (emotional control and emotional expression) during conflict interaction (see Figure 2-6).

Figure 2-6

The four-quadrant model of intercultural conflict style differences (Hammer, 2005)



1. Discussion Style: This style combines a direct approach and emotionally restrained or controlled manner during conflict interaction. It emphasizes the use

of language precision, and using the following maxim of "Say what you mean and mean what you say" can be best explained. However, be cautious that discussion should be based on objective facts and avoid injecting one's personal feelings during conflict interaction. Cultural examples using this style are the United States (European American), Australia, and northern Europe (Hammer, 2003b as cited in Hammer 2009).

2. Engagement Style: This style combines a direct approach and emotional expressiveness or demonstrates verbal and nonverbal expression of emotion during conflict interaction. It is viewed as a sincere and positive conflict management style since individuals feel that when their emotion is put on the table, then the resolution is satisfactorily progressing. Cultural examples using this style are African Americans in the United States, Southern Europe, Cuba, Nigeria, and Russia.
3. Accommodation Style: This style combines an indirect approach and an emotionally restrained or controlled manner during the conflict interaction. It emphasizes using ambiguity to ensure that conflict is under control. It is essential to this style because maintaining emotional calm helps to enable interpersonal harmony. Cultural examples utilizing this style are Native Americans, Somalians, Mexicans, Japanese, and Thai.
4. Dynamic Style: This style combines an indirect approach and emotional expressiveness or demonstrates verbal and nonverbal expression of emotion during conflict interaction. This style may be seen as unreasonable, too sensitive,

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volatile, and rarely get to the point. Cultural examples using this style are Arab Middle Eastern, Pakistan.

In conclusion, conflict is a disagreement between two or more individuals. It is seen as unavoidable and stressful of daily interaction in the workplace. Thus, organizations work hard to reduce or resolve conflict. It will be even more problematic when dealing with employees from a different culture and even more complicated when dealing with them in the virtual world.

Therefore, organizations need to understand the nature of the intercultural conflict to resolve it efficiently. Conflict can result in a positive or functional and negative or dysfunctional outcome. Three types of conflict include task, relationship, and process conflict. Task conflict is the disagreement on different perspectives, opinions, and viewpoints while performing the actual task. And process conflict occurs when there is a disagreement on the logistics of task accomplishment. The first two types of conflict concern task accomplishment, but relationship conflict involve emotional reaction due to dispute over interpersonal incompatibility (not related to the task). Still, it could result in an obstacle to task accomplishment.

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In terms of managing conflict, five typical conflict management styles were introduced by Rahim (1983). These styles are based on high and low "concern for self" and "concern for others" and were termed as avoiding, compromising, dominating, integrating, and obliging styles. From the review, the integrative style is suggested to be the most appropriate and effective conflict management style since it indicates that both parties collaboratively work to achieve mutual benefit.

Later on, in 2005, Hammer introduced intercultural conflict resolution/management styles to manage conflict in intercultural contexts. These styles are based on two behavioral dimensions when dealing with disagreements and emotions across cultures: (1) direct versus indirect communication approach and (2) emotionally expressiveness versus emotionally restrained strategies for coping with emotional upset. When these two dimensions are combined, a four-quadrant model of intercultural conflict management styles is proposed: discussion style (direct and emotional restrained), engagement style (direct and emotional expressiveness), accommodation style (indirect and emotional restrained), and dynamic style (indirect and emotional expressiveness). And next, the difference between group and team, multicultural virtual team, and coordinator will be presented.

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2.4 Multicultural Virtual Team

Virtual teams (VT) are gaining more popularity at present, as organizations have started to envision their capability of using virtual teams and realize its potential benefits (Paul, Samarah, Seetharaman, & Mykytyn Jr, 2004). Society for Human Resource Management (2012 as cited in Gilson, Maynard, Jones Young, Vartiainen, & Hakonen, 2015) surveyed and found that approximately 66% of multinational organizations use VTs, and 80% of companies in the study confirm the growing number (Perry, 2008). Even it is challenging to get diverse groups/teams to work together (Mathieu et al., 2008),

but having people work virtually has been acknowledged as diversity exploitation and increases capacity in developing creativity (e.g., Zakaria et al., 2004).

Xiaojing, Magjuka and Seung-hee (2008) emphasized that the virtual group/team has become one of the building blocks of a successful organization. Chinowsky and Rojas (2003, p. 98) defined a virtual team (VT) as "a group of people with complementary competencies executing simultaneous, collaborative work processes through electronic media without regard to geographic location", and it has become a typical organizational structure.

2.4.1 Group/Team

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Differences between a group or a project group and a team or a project team are not always clearly understood. Some people even use these terms interchangeably without noticing their variations (Wengrzyn, 2020). Both groups and teams are recognized as organization structures to manage tasks or projects effectively. Thus, this section will clarify its definition and distinction in terms of the project environment.

By differentiating a team and a group in organizational structure, organizations look at how employees are managed and interact together. A team is defined as a group of individuals working together with complementary competencies, including dynamically, interdependently, and adaptively, to reach a common and valued goal/objective (Burke & Barron, 2014; Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Katzenbach & Smith, 1999; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Salas et al., 1992). Team dynamics process, including

interrelated attitudes (what team members believe or feel), shared behaviors (what team members do), and cognitions (what team members think or know), creates adaptive, dynamic, and episodic processes among team members. These processes ultimately result in team performance and goal completion (Arrow et al., 2000; Delice, Rousseau, & Feitosa, 2019). Teamwork builds collaborative synergy that allows the brainstorming process among members to resolve challenges (Troth, Jordan, Lawrence, & Tse, 2012). Ribeiro (2019) added that a mutual commitment to the end goal is a crucial indicator for a team, rather than individual performance to complete the task or project. Thus, indicative of an organization is mutual accountability and standardized workflow.

A group is a collection of individuals who (might) work on the same task or project and don't need to interact with other group members. In a workgroup, the project manager acts as a coordinator to coordinate with each member from different departments. Coordinators need to ensure that all group members receive the same information and be interpreted consistently; otherwise, it causes misunderstanding (Bjorn & Ngwenyama, 2009; Cramton & Hinds, 2004; Gilson et al., 2015; Pinjani & Palvia, 2013). Moreover, team coordinators take a more challenging responsibility when associated with global members (Bartel-Radic et al., 2015). The working relationship occurs between members and the project manager, as shown in Figure 2-7. Therefore, one fundamental problem exists under this condition; it is impossible to build teamwork (Burke & Barron, 2014). Moreover, several studies have shown that tasks, jobs, or projects with lower levels of interdependence are more appropriate for practical work (Fritz et al., 1998; Raghuram et al., 2001; Turetken et al., 2011).

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In conclusion, the significant difference between a group and a team is: a group works independently and focuses on their own goals by utilizing individuals' strengths to get the work done. In comparison, a team works interdependently to emphasize each other's strengths for a common goal completion (Ribeiro, 2019).

However, more time and energy are needed to develop a team, so the organization needs to decide whether they need to put their effort into building a team or not. Perhaps a less-developed group is more than enough for some task or project. From these differences, it is clear to summarize that a group emphasized task efficiency. Once the job is completed, a group no longer continues.

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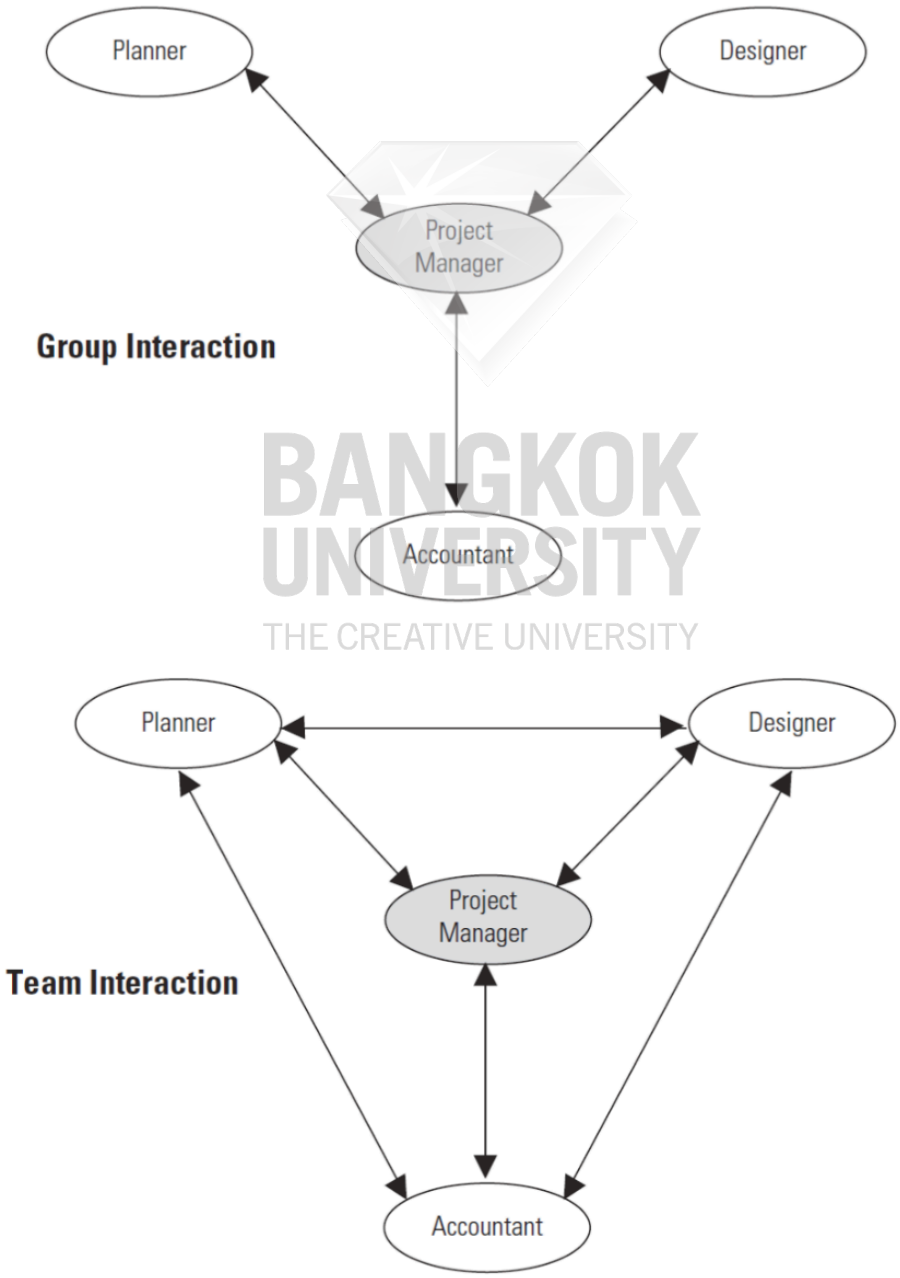
Figure 2-7

Project team structure-shows the link between the project manager and other team members (Burke & Barron, 2014)



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Virtual Teams / Global Virtual Teams

By integrating the traditional and newer definitions, VTs or GVTs are defined as workgroups or teams with culturally diverse, geographically, or organizationally dispersed environments, which utilize various kinds of telecommunications and information technology to accomplish an interdependent organizational task constructively. They collaboratively work across locational, temporal, and relational boundaries (Ale et al., 2009; Degbey & Einola, 2019; Hill & Bartol, 2016; Hinds & Bailey, 2003; Hinds & Mortensen, 2005Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Martins, Gilson, & Maynard, 2004; Townsend et al.,1998).

Three key variables that influence the success of VTs or GVTs, proposed by Jimenez et al. (2017), are location, distance, and time. The first factor is the location. It represents the place or local context in which VTs or GVTs members are embedded, including their social networks, norms, and cultural values of their local communities, organizational memberships, and administrative frameworks with their own rules and behavioral incentives. The second factor, distance, refers to space which not only limits to a geographic range (institutional, economic, technological, educational) but also demographic distances (Berry et al., 2010). The last factor, time, can be categorized into synchronous and asynchronous time due to communication technologies that allow performance monitoring (Hertel, Geister, & Konradt, 2005).

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Virtual Communication and Media Richness

Synchronous communication refers to real-time communication between two or more people, including video-conferencing or virtual reality enhanced technologies. On the contrary, asynchronous communication relates to connection with no immediate response, includes e-mails and social media (Jimenez et al., 2017); however, it allows members' contribution upon their conveniences that perfectly match with their schedules (Bikson & Eveland, 1990; Siegel et al., 1986; Straus, 1996).

Group or team members can utilize different technologies to replace face-to-face interaction. These technologies are other in terms of media richness (Daft & Lengel, 1984) and enable synchronous collaboration to some extent (Riopelle et al., 2003). Media richness means the amount of information, including social cues such as gestures, moods, tone of voice, accent, facial expression, etc., which can be exchanged and transmitted through specific communication and can provide immediate feedback. For example, video conferencing is a richer media than a phone call or e-mail since its gesture, and body language are transmitted during the communication (IGI global, 1988-2023). Moreover, scholars concluded that media richness positively impacts team effectiveness, efficiency amount of communication (Carlson & Zmud, 1999; Hinds & Kiesler, 1995; Jarvenpaa, Rao & Huber, 1988; May & Carter, 2001). Media richness is also significantly related to the relationships among team members (Pauleen & Yoong, 2001) and team commitment (Workman et al., 2003). Additionally, Duranti and De Almeida (2012)

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suggested that some cultures, such as Brazil, prefer richer media communication, while others, like the USA, prefer weaker media communication, including e-mail and chat.

Other standard technologies used to support VTs or GVTs' functions include websites, instant messaging, file- and application-sharing, electronic bulletin boards, group decision support systems, and real-time calendar/scheduling systems (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Griffith et al., 2003).

Therefore, member of VTs or GVTs is required to use technology to reduce misunderstanding appropriately, negative attribution and negative impact on the development of group/team members' shared understanding (Cramton, 2001; Hinds & Weisband, 2003). Notably, highly supportive and responsive manner (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999) among VTs and GVTs are needed to help to overcome any harmful coordination process as a result of geographically dispersed situations (O'Leary & Cummings, 2007) and to build task-based trust and a primary source of trust in virtual groups or teams (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). More importantly, they must also establish goals at the earliest stage so that cohesion and performance can be increased (Brahm & Krunze, 2012).

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Consequently, in the final decade of the 20th century and the first few years of the 21st century, VTs mainly comprised temporary or short-term project groups/teams. Most of these teams were project teams (Mankin et al., 1996; Putnam, 1992), task forces (Hackman, 1990), or short-term project teams (Cohen, 1993; Powell et al., 2004). Moreover, members of a temporary group or nonroutine team consist of highly skilled, technical, or administrative projects. It is characterized as nonhierarchical tasks that focus

on horizontal cooperation within or between organizations (Chevrier, 2003 as cited in Rodrigues & Sbragia, 2013; Hinds & McGrath, 2006; Saunders & Ahuja, 2006).

Since work interaction is not conducted face-to-face, group/team members' thoughts or ideas were transferred through technology tools. Also, virtual work can be interchangeably called remote, digital, distributed, mobile work, or global project. They are a group comprised of members from different units of the same organization located in one country or worldwide, or a collaboration from several organizations as their strategic partners, prime/sub-industry consortium, or some other form of cooperation (Aguilar, 2009). It has evolved and developed through multiple research studies over several decades (Makarius & Larson, 2017).

Thus, it can be concluded that four prominent features of VTs include temporary, culturally diverse, geographically dispersed, and reliant on computer-based communications (Hertel et al., 2005).

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2.4.2 Advantage of Virtual Teams

The advantages of VTs or GVTs are to improve organizational efficiency and reduce operational costs by utilizing telecommunication, information, and computer technologies (Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999). Regarding the high competition in business nowadays, virtual work is considered a beneficial strategy by many multinational organizations since it helps with cost reduction (Lampel & Bhalla, 2008). Research studies supported that VTs or GVTs, with their diverse set of skills, ideas, and views,

enable them to pool out talents and expertise among employees. This consequence has added value through cost savings, fastening the work process, and generating the capacity for creativity and innovation by eliminating time and space barriers (Furst et al., 2004; Rodrigues & Sbragia, 2013). Although differences in time zone may be seen as the advantage of continuously keeping the projects moving, but also can become very challenging when trying to find the best virtual meeting time with the entire members (Aguilar, 2009). As a result of time differences, communication can be slowing down (Jimenez et al., 2017).

Furthermore, there has been a significant consideration of what drives VTs or GVTs' effectiveness. While the earlier research studies focused initially on member demographics, knowledge, skills, and abilities, the recent studies over the last decade have put more attention to composition, culture, multiteam membership, task considerations (Gilson et al., 2015). Besides, training in various topics is recommended, such as intercultural (Holtbrügge et al., 2011), teamwork (Rosen et al., 2007), and media competence (Staples, Hulland, & Higgins, 2006) or technology usage (Kanawattanachai & Yoo, 2007). Consequently, the annual report (2020) by the World Trade Organization stated that in 2019, the WTO organized training courses for more than 18,000 government officials, which aim to enhance their know-how and skills. So that respective countries can play a more active role in world trade.

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More importantly, managers' or leaders' support by providing workflow, social gathering activities, evaluation, and technological structures can play a significant role in their success (Chudoba et al., 2005; Venkatesh & Speier, 2000). Two-way communication

or communication between two or more parties should be facilitated by managers or leaders and rules for coordination and participation (Mitchell, 2012). Another significant consideration for the support regarding the time is to set overlap workers' hours so that more synchronous technology can be used (Cummings et al., 2009).

2.4.3 Team Leadership and Coordination

A team coordinators' role is to supervise, oversee the work process, keep team members organized, and stay focused on the task/project's goal. However, the coordination issue turns to be more complicated when each member interacts asynchronously. Managers, leaders, and coordinators need to be more careful in determining the appropriate coordination for asynchronous virtual teams since some members may have to work inconveniently during early morning or late night (Paul, Seetharaman et al., 2004). By taking a closer look at the mentioned roles, coordinators act as task or project leaders. Next, the literature on leaders will be presented.

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The two renowned leadership styles were developed initially by Burns (1978), which are transformational and transactional leadership (Lian & Tui, 2012). The transformational leadership concept proposed that leaders use a social exchange process with followers or members to help them achieve the desired behavior. Transactional leaders use positive reinforcement such as rewards when a task/goal is completed and negative feedback such as punishment when problems occur.

In contrast, transformational leaders help facilitate and motivate members to employ their full potential to reach maximum performance by emphasizing engagement in shared goals and recognition (Bass, 1985; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Transformational leaders encourage their members to think out of the box (Jung et al., 1995); thus, creativity and innovativeness among members are stimulated (Avolio, 1999). They pay great attention to members' specific needs (Modassir & Singh, 2008). In this sense, leaders are optimistic and represent high levels of hope, confidence (Keung, 2011), motivation, and overall job satisfaction (Lian & Tui, 2012). Frequently, they are perceived as mentors and coaches (Bass, 1985), not a boss.

Scholars studied the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and organizational performance. Elenkov (2002) reported that transformational leadership and organizational performance were positively related for Eastern European and Russian firms. Transactional leadership and the achievement of organizational goals had a positive relationship. The support for innovation moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational performance. And transformational leadership was positively correlated with group cohesiveness (Matveev & Lvina, 2007).

From a comprehensive review, Suutari (2002) had summarized five significant points from the global leadership literature that (1) global competencies among leaders are needed, (2) more global leaders are necessary for the corporate world, (3) many organizations lack the knowledge to develop their corporate leaders, (4) more global

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leadership training program needs and, (5) a better understanding the link between managerial competencies and global leadership are need.

In conclusion, the previous literature shows a significant increase in VT and GVT. In some organizations, VT and GVT become a typical organizational structure that helps run a global project. VT or GVT is a group of diverse group members to virtually work together by using both synchronous (real-time) and asynchronous (no immediate response) communication. They primarily work on short-term projects. The four key drivers to its success are location, distance, time, and communication technology. Some might use the interchangeable terminology, a group or a team, without noticing its difference. To better understand these two terms, a group works independently and focuses on completing the goal, whereas a team works interdependently for goal completion. There are several benefits of GVTs, including organizational efficiency, operational cost reduction, competitive advantages, utilization of global employee expertise, creativity, and innovation. However, it has been suggested that group members in GVT should be trained, especially in intercultural competence, media competence, and emotional intelligence. Moreover, for its success, there should be strong support from supervisors, coordinators, or leaders such as workflow, social, evaluation, and technological structures.

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Regarding the leaders, coordinators, or supervisors' style, transformational leaders encourage their members to think out of the box, stimulating more creativity and innovative work. This transformational style is seen as a typical style in Western, Eastern European, and Russian firms. On the contrary, transactional leaders use a different

positive reinforcement method to complete the task and use negative feedback such as punishment when dealing with problems. However, global leadership has been suggested to develop their global competencies to stay in a competitive global business world. The following section will show how hypotheses were developed, and a conceptual model of this study will be presented.

2.5 Conceptual Model

Conflict, Cultural Differences, and Virtual Groups/Teams

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Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management Styles, as defined by Hammer (2005), deal with how disagreements and emotions are addressed. People use different communication approaches (direct/indirect) and emotional strategies (expressiveness/ restraint) when dealing with cross-cultural conflict. Individuals from different cultural backgrounds exhibit different beliefs, values, stereotypes, and rules (IGI global, 1988-2023). Regarding the emotional strategy used among members of cultures, their emotion/feeling is either controlled or expressed, typically combined with reasons. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) concluded that highly emotional people seek for direct emotional response; on the contrary, people who usually control their emotions seek for indirect emotional response. This indirect emotional response gives them the feeling upon the success of an effort of intellect. Regarding the reasoning process, American, Italian, and South Europeans tend to be more emotionally expressive, yet

Americans separate it from the objective and rational decision, but Europeans don't. Moreover, Oriental societies tend to be more self-controlled, to show respect, especially with interlocutors who hold a higher position.

As mentioned earlier, conflict is either functional or dysfunctional. Researchers found that individuals use cooperative conflict management in task conflicts to reduce misunderstanding and disagreement among group members, ultimately benefiting team innovation (Van Knippenberg, 2017; Weingart et al., 2010). As previously presented, virtual teams are a new exciting area for research (Andrea et al., 2019). It comprises members who use information and communication technologies to interact and carry out their tasks (Hinds & Bailey 2003; Wakefield et al. 2008). Global virtual team members are culturally diverse, making it more difficult to manage conflict (Griffith et al., 2003; Zornoza et al., 2002). Especially those employees who come from different cultural backgrounds are prone to more conflicts (Brahnam et al., 2005). In other words, cultural differences can result in misunderstandings, disputes, and reduced project performance (Ochieng et Price, 2009). The reactions and behaviors toward conflict were culturally shaped by beliefs and expectations (Fu et al., 2007; Gelfand et al., 2001; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Tjosvold, Law, & Sun, 2006). However, a proper way of managing culture leads to an organization's competitive advantage (Mohammed et al., 2008). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) pointed out that whether the conflict is resolved or not depends on leaders' skills. They should be aware of effective conflict management, that criticism should be avoided in public, and negative feedback should be indirect.

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De Wit et al. (2012) proposed that the relationship between three types of conflicts, namely task conflict, relationship conflict, process conflict, depends on the cultural context. Moreover, the way employees respond to conflicts impacted by different cultural dimensions power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, long-term versus short-term orientation, and masculinity versus femininity (Cai & Fink, 2002; Fu et al., 2007; Gabrielidis, Stephan, Ybarra, Pearson, & Villareal, 1997; Hofstede, 2001; Sanchez-Burks et al., 2008). Moreover, De Church, Mesmer-Magnus, & Doty (2013) suggested that individualism-collectivism can be used to understand individuals' behavior in groups or teams, and power distance or unequal use of power might prevent conflicts from escalating (De Wit et al., 2012).

In Gunkel, Schlaegel and Taras's (2016) analysis of a multinational data set including over a thousand individuals from ten different cultural clusters, it showed a direct influence of cultural value dimensions on a leader's preferences for conflict handling styles. In addition, the collectivist individuals in groups or teams focus more on concern for others, they prefer working as a team, cooperation among members, and group/team goal accomplishment (De Church et al., 2013). Holt and DeVore (2005) reported that collectivistic cultures prefer compromising, withdrawing, or problem-solving styles of conflict management, while individualistic cultures are inclined toward forcing (dominating). Furthermore, Friedman et al. (2006) indicated that the Chinese are more likely to use conflict avoidance strategy due to the concern for others, and their negative perception of using a direct approach will result in damaging a relationship. Similarly, Thai people have a high value on smooth interpersonal

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relationships; thus, face-saving, concern for others, harmony, and non-confrontational styles are usual in the Thai context (Boonsathorn, 2007).

In contrast, the individualistic members in groups or teams put a greater tendency toward an individual or dyadic (subteam) reliance, concern, and goal accomplishment (Goncalo & Staw, 2006). Indeed, empirical studies have found that collectivist values promote cooperative, positive conflict than individualistic (Tjosvold, Johnson, Johnson, and Sun, 2003; Tjosvold, Law, & Sun, 2003; Tjosvold, Wong, & Chen, 2010; Tjosvold, Wu, & Chen, 2010; Wong & Tjosvold, 2006). Thus, it can be concluded that the way collectivists deal with conflict tends to be indirect and emotional restraint way, whereas individualists prefer employing direct and emotional restraint strategies.

Consequently, we developed the following hypotheses:

H1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.

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H1.1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

H1.2: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

Conflict and Emotional Intelligence

While conflict might affect job satisfaction and, in turn, can impact employee retention and turnover, emotional intelligence helps to negotiate and effectively handle their disputes with organizational members (Goleman,1998). Thus, emotional intelligence has been associated with a range of positive outcomes for organizations (Wong & Law, 2002; Shil & Susanto, 2010). Prior research found various interesting relationships between conflict and emotional intelligence.

Gunkel et al. (2016) studied on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the different styles of handling conflict, the results show a positive relationships between these two variables: in other terms, gaining an understanding of self and team's emotions in order to shape, and reach solutions. Moreover, Schutte, Malouff, Bobik, Coston, Greeson, Jedlicka, Rhodes, and Wendorf (2001) conducted a study on the relationship between EI and interpersonal relations in the U.S. populations sampled, found that individuals whose score high in EI displayed more cooperative response toward the others.

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Individuals in a team who has a high level of emotional intelligence will resolve conflict in a more effective way than the ones whose score is lower (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Jordan et al., 2002). Their motivation guides them to promptly resolve conflicts to prevent disruption in professional and personal relationships (Jordan & Troth, 2004).

Curseu et al. (2012) found that in a group with less effective emotional regulations, task conflicts can turn into relationship conflicts. In other words, the ability

to regulate emotion effectively can reduce the chance of turning task conflict into relationship conflict, which is recognized as a more complicated conflict situation.

Consequently, we developed the following hypotheses:

H2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.

H2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

H2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

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H3.1.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.1.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

H3.2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

Conflict and Intercultural Competence

Conflict is a natural part among employees in organizations, such as competition for resources, coordination of systems, distribution of work, and involvement in decision-making (Putnam & Poole, 1992).

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Mortensen and Hinds (2001) examined conflict in "distributed teams". They discussed that there is a possibility that cultural heterogeneity, or the culturally diverse groups that bring in various benefits (Popescu, 2014), might impact intra-team conflict and performance. Cultural differences have also negatively impacted virtual group/team coordination (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000) and communication (Kayworth & Leidner, 2000). Thus, organizations should be aware of factors that influence a positive outcome. Wong and Law (2002) pointed out that EI has been identified as a critical set of managerial skills to recover from stress and tension in conflict situations quickly. Mohr and Puck (2007) argued that company revenue growth could improve manager satisfaction and trust. And those job satisfaction and trust are enhanced by fostering EI in

managers (Carmeli, 2003). Moreover, Ruggieri (2009) found that leaders who focused on relationships were perceived as more intelligent, creative, and original.

The intercultural competence defined by Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017), that it is the ability to understand the meaning of intercultural interaction and the ability to adapt one's behavior to produce efficient behavior. Specifically, this research studied on the adaptation on cultural dimensions to different cultures. Consequently, we developed the following hypotheses:

H4.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.1.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

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H4.1.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

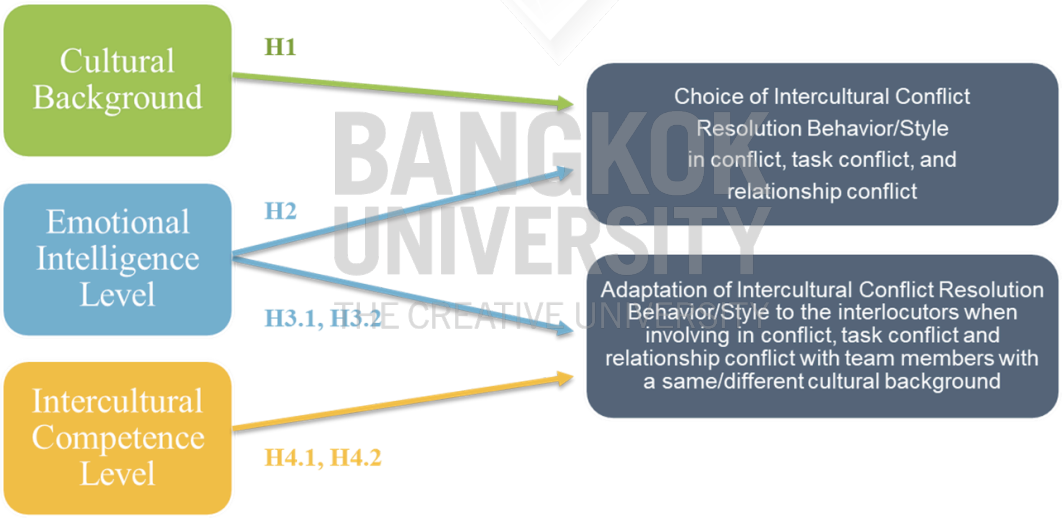
H4.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background. The theoretical framework associated with these hypotheses is presented in Figure 2-8.

Figure 2-8

Theoretical Framework



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Summary of Hypotheses

H1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.

H1.1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

H1.2: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

H2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.

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H2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

H2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

H3.1.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.1.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

H3.2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

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H4.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.1.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.1.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

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CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology processes for this study based on the positivist research paradigm. Specifically, quasi-experimental research is employed to investigate the influence of cultural background, emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict management behavior of leaders among multicultural virtual team members.

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3.1 Research Paradigm

As stated in Creswell and Creswell (2018), the term "worldview" means "a basic of beliefs that guide action" (Guba, 1990, p. 17). However, other scholars may use different terminologies such as paradigms (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2010), or epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998). People see worldviews as a general philosophical orientation about the nature of research and the researcher's world in their study. The nature of the research problem and the researchers' different types of beliefs (discipline orientations and research communities, advisors and mentors, and even past research experience) will lead to the choice of the research approach of qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods.

Researchers can use different research paradigms, including positivism, constructivist/interpretivism, pragmatism, subjectivism, critical, etc. Consequently, Patel (2015) has summarized a more detailed overview of each paradigm (see Table 3-1).

Table 3-1

A detailed overview of each research paradigm adapted from Crotty (1998 as cited in Patel, 2015)

Paradigm	**Ontology** *What is reality?*	**Epistemology** *How can I know reality?*	**Theoretical Perspective** *Which approach do you use to know something?*	**Methodology** *How do you go about finding out?*	**Method** *What techniques do you sue to find out?*
Positivism	There is a single reality or truth (more realist).	Reality can be measured and hence the focus is on reliable and valid tools to obtain that.	Positivism Post-positivism	Experimental research Survey research	Usually quantitative, could include: Sampling Measurement and scaling Statistical analysis Questionnaire Focus group Interview
Constructivist / Interpretive	There is no single reality or truth. Reality is created by individuals in groups (less realist).	Therefore, reality needs to be interpreted. It is used to discover the underlying meaning of events and activities.	Interpretivism (reality needs to be interpreted) -Phenomenology -Symbolic interactionism -Hermeneutics Critical Inquiry Feminism	Ethnography Grounded Theory Phenomenological research Heuristic inquiry Action Research Discourse Analysis Feminist Standpoint research etc	Usually qualitative, could include: Qualitative interview Observation Participant Non participant Case study Life history Narrative Theme identification etc
Pragmatism	Reality is constantly renegotiated, debated, interpreted in light of its usefulness in new unpredictable situations.	The best method is one that solves problems. Finding out is the means, change is the underlying aim.	Deweyan pragmatism Research through design	Mixed methods Design-based research Action research	Combination of any of the above and more, such as data mining expert review, usability testing, physical prototype
Subjectivism	Reality is what we perceive to be real.	All knowledge is purely a matter of perspective.	Postmodernism Structuralism Post-structuralism	Discourse theory Archaeology Genealogy Deconstruction etc.	Autoethnography Semiotics Literary analysis Pastiche Intertextuality etc.

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Table 3-1 (Continued)

A detailed overview of each research paradigm adapted from Crotty (1998 as cited in Patel, 2015)

Paradigm	**Ontology** *What is reality?*	**Epistemology** *How can I know reality?*	**Theoretical Perspective** *Which approach do you use to know something?*	**Methodology** *How do you go about finding out?*	**Method** *What techniques do you sue to find out?*
Critical	Realities are socially constructed entities that are under constant internal influence.	Reality and knowledge is both socially constructed and influenced by power relations from within society.	Marxism Queer theory feminism	critical discourse analysis, critical ethnography action research ideology critique	Ideological review Civil actions open-ended interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires, open-ended observations, and journals.

Romani, Barmeyer, Primecz, and Pilhofer (2018) mentioned that among the four major cross-cultural management research paradigms: positivist, interpretivist, postmodern, and critical, researchers often employ the positivist paradigm. In this paradigm, culture was defined as self-contained, separate, and stable phenomena comprised of distinct characteristics that can be observed, measured, and manipulated (Yeganeh et al. 2004 as cited in Romani, Barmeyer, Primecz, & Pilhofer, 2018). The typical concern is on the impact of national culture on management practice and uses large-scale quantitative studies and questionnaires as an investigation method.

Thus, referring to Table 3-1, this study is based on the positivist assumption that there is a single reality or truth that can be measured, which focuses on reliable and valid tools to obtain the finding. This research paradigm is described as objectivist research. It assumes that all social phenomena can be explained by observing their causal

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relationship. It implies that the existing theory can form hypotheses that tend to explain the given social phenomenon. This approach is very coherent with a hypothetical-deductive research design (Kuada, 2012) when a hypothesis is firstly proposed. Whether it is confirmed or rejected depends on the results of statistical analyses. Consequently, once the causal relationship between phenomena is established, one can expect to find again in the future. The methodology the positivists use heavily relies on experimentation (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

This research paradigm also recognizes that when we study the behavior and actions of humans, we cannot be decisive on our claims of knowledge. The philosophy of this worldview is that causes (probably) determine the effects or outcomes of the study. Thus, the study needs to identify and assess what causalities can be found in the experimental research design (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

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Notably, regarding the positivist approach, good quality research should have internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity (Guba & Lincoln, 1994 as cited in Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Moreover, Babbie (2010) stated that four criteria to ensure the quality of measures are precision, accuracy, reliability, and validity. While reliability refers to getting consistent results from the same measure, validity means getting results that accurately reflect the concept being measured. Additionally, external validity is the process of testing the validity of a measure (for example, index or scale) presumed indicators of the same variable. And internal validity is the extent to which you can be confident on the rigorous study procedures that establish a trustworthy cause-and-effect relationship between a treatment and an outcome. Finally, the objectivity

of research refers to a study whose findings depend on the nature of what was studied. It was not on the researcher's personality, beliefs, and values.

In short, if the study proves that the independent variable affects the dependent variable, it is considered to have internal validity. External validity exists when the results are generalizable. And if other researchers conduct the study in different times, places, and contexts and find the same results, the study has reliability. And it would be considered objective if researchers study the phenomena without contaminating their apprehension (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

3.2 Research Design

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Jones (1985) stated that experiments are "the most powerful technique[s] available for demonstrating causal relationships between variables," and other scholars (Antonakis, 2017; Eden, 2017; Hauser, Linos, & Rogers, 2017; Holmes, 2014; Kenny, 1979) have referred to them as the "gold standard" of scientific research. Coleman (2021) also concluded that this method is the most efficient and scientifically accepted to test hypotheses or theories.

Zellmer-Bruhn, Caligiuri and Thomas (2016) argued that experimental research designs are primarily absent from the international business (IB) literature, which it should not be. Besides, they restated that the Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS) welcomes and encourages more experimental research since IB research could benefit from these methods to evaluate the internal validity of IB theories. Bartel-Radic,

Mouillot and Taylor (2019) also added that experiments had been used in the natural sciences such as physics, chemistry, or medicine for so long. Still, it remains rare in international management research.

Nevertheless, research in economics, psychology, and marketing is now increasingly using experimental design approaches. More importantly, Bartel-Radic, Mouillot and Taylor (2019) pointed out that this design becomes more mandatory for high-level publications. Similarly, regarding the examination of recent leadership, management, and industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology publications by Podsakoff and Podsakoff (2019) have highlighted an increasing trend in publication rates of experimental studies (see Figure 3-1)

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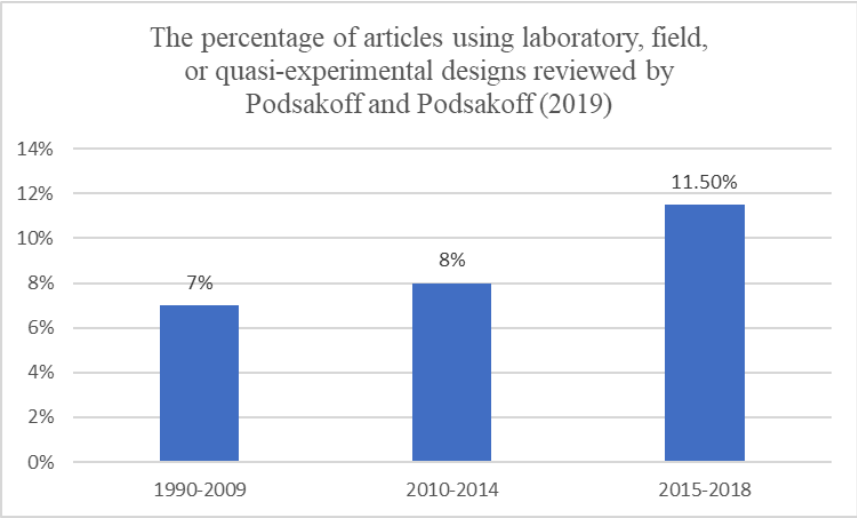
Figure 3-1

The percentage of articles using laboratory, field, or quasi-experimental designs (Podsakoff and Podsakoff, 2019)



Experimental design is an empirical research design that provides evidence of causality (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Colquitt, 2008; Falk & Heckman, 2009 as cited in Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019) or cause-and-effect relationships between independent and dependent variable(s) in international business research in a variety of ways (Zellmer-Bruhn et al., 2016). Causality can be proven when a variation of variable X causes variation in variable Y (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Babbie (2004) stated that experimental designs involve an experimental group (a group of subjects that experimental stimulus is administered) and a control group (a group of subjects without experimental stimulation). The control group helps researchers to detect any effects of the experiment. See Figure 3-2 for the diagram of the basic experimental design.

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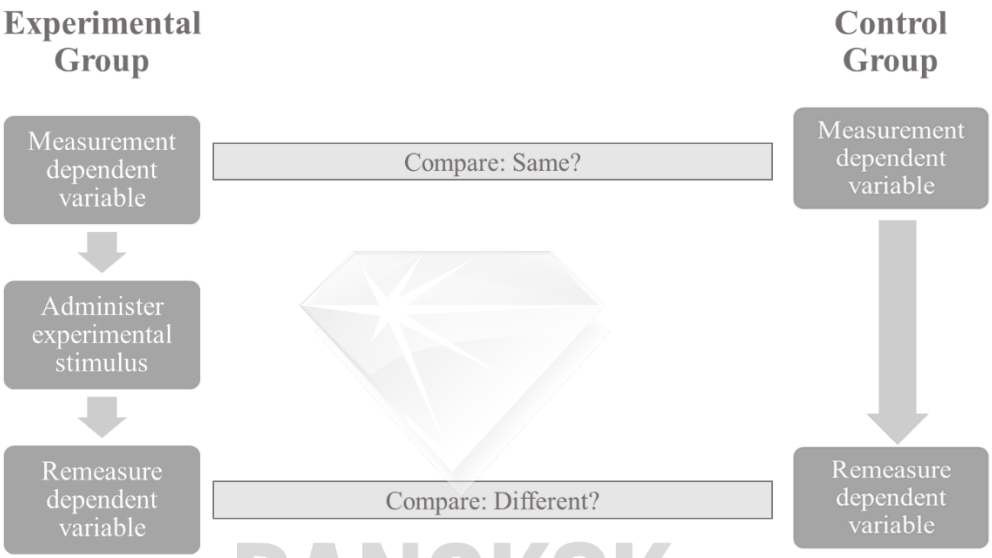
Figure 3-2

Diagram of basic experimental design (Babbie, 2004).



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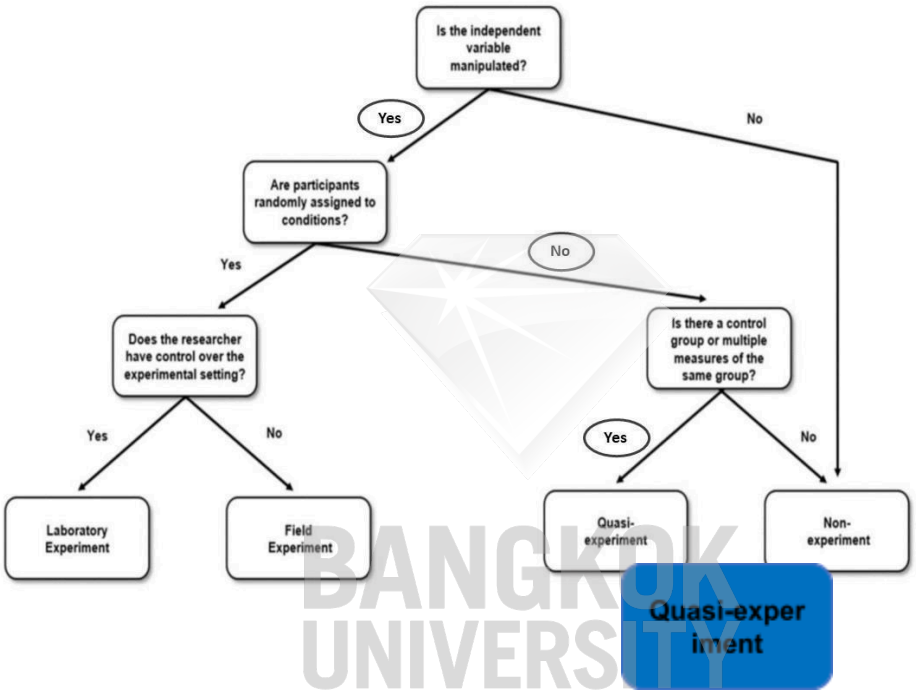
Podsakoff and Podsakoff (2019) indicated that the three research designs that are most widely used in management and leadership research are laboratory experiments, field experiments, and quasi-experiments). He also generated a decision tree to explain how to classify experimental research design (see Figure 3-3).

Figure 3-3

Decision tree for classifying experimental research design (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019)



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Laboratory experiments establish causal relationships between independent and dependent variables. Researchers precisely control the independent variables, participants are randomly assigned to treatment conditions, and research settings are controlled. Randomization refers to allocating participants to the experimental group (with treatment) or control group (without treatment) on a random basis to allow the comparison (Hakim, 2000). This research design allows researchers to control various variables, including physical, psychological, and social extraneous, reducing the changes

independent variables and increasing the internal validity and replicability of the study (Camerer, 2015).

Field experiments have similarities with laboratory experiments, including establishing a causal relationship, manipulating independent variables, and random assignments. This design tends to be more realistic due to its natural and regular environments that produce higher external validity (Bartel-Radic, Mouillot, & Taylor, 2019). However, the control over the experimental setting is manipulated by someone in the studied organization, not by the researcher. Due to the lack of this control, the concern is on construct validity or the quality of the manipulation if the same standards are not maintained (Harrison & List, 2004).

Quasi-experiments are similar to both laboratory and field experiments: they establish a causal relationship by manipulating the independent variable(s), which allows the comparison between the experimental group and a control group. But in this design, a study takes place in a field setting (Grant & Wall, 2009), and researchers have only partial or no control over randomly assigned treatment conditions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). They are appropriate in measuring actual behaviors or outcomes rather than only focusing on attitudes and perceptions.

Even though quasi-experiments take longer time and more effort and planning than laboratory experiments, but it is appropriate in measuring actual behaviors or outcomes rather than only focusing on attitudes and perceptions.

Moreover, experimental research designs can minimize threats to internal validity. In other words, researchers using this design rely on hypotheses that have solidly been

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developed that a change in the independent variable causes the difference in the dependent variable.

Also, De Wit et al. (2012) suggested that future research on relationship conflict would benefit from quasi-experimental investigations to examine the more direct effect across different cultural contexts. Notably, there are several recommendations for quasi-experimental design to minimize its threats to validity. The first is to anticipate and list potential threats (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Mark & Reichardt, 2009) during the planning stage of the study to help to avoid problems. According to Stuart (2010), in response to the non-random assignment, a matching method is recommended to preserve internal validity, since this method ensures equality in groups. Matching techniques include propensity score matching, individual-to-individual (or 1:1) matching, frequency distribution matching, weighted matching, and sub-classification matching (Stuart, 2010; Harder, Stuart, & Anthony, 2010; Connelly, Sackett, & Waters, 2013; Li, 2013; Holmes, 2014).

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Therefore, in response to a call for more experimental research, this study is based on the one-group posttest-only design, which is a quasi-experimental research design. This design studied one posttest observation on respondents who experienced a treatment, with no pretest nor control groups. The diagram of this design is shown below (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002):

The One-Group Posttest-Only Design	
X	O_1
X = treatment	O_1 = posttest

3.3 Population and Sample Selection

3.3.1 Population

This research studied a population of working professionals and master and Ph.D. students from three cultural backgrounds: Thailand (type I), France (type II), and the USA (type III). These cultures differ on the cultural dimensions of power distance and individualism. Cultural background type IV, which includes only one country, Costa Rica, was not studied here due to limited data accessibility. These three types of cultural backgrounds were used to study as control variables in this study (see Figure 3-4).

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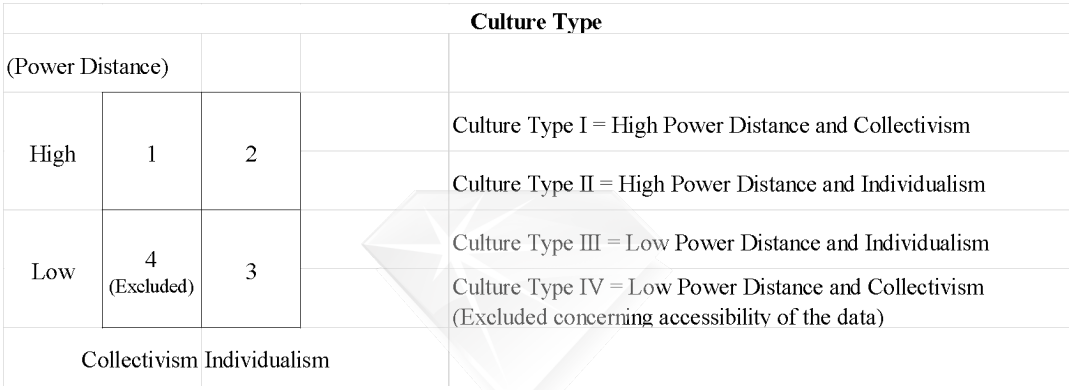
Figure 3-4

Types of Cultural Background based on high/low power distance and individualism/collectivism



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Hofstede et al. (2010) conducted a study to measure the Power Distance Index (PDI) and Individualism Index (IDV) scores, ranging from 0 to 100, over 78 countries (see Table 3-2) and a summary list of countries by their cultural background types in Figure 3-5. The median score was between 45-55 and was considered to be excluded. Thus, the score between 0-44 viewed "Low Power Distance," or LPD and "Collectivism," or COL, and the score between 56-100 considered "High Power Distance," or HPD and "Individualism," or IDV. The results indicated that high PDI includes East European, Latin, Asian and African countries, whereas low PDI includes Germanic and English-speaking Western countries. Besides, individualism tends to be obtained in developed and Western countries, while collectivism is in less developed and Eastern countries. Moreover, Japan takes a middle position on this dimension.

In this study, the researcher used a purposive or judgmental, snowball, and quota sampling design to select participants with the specified selection criteria, which will be mentioned later in this chapter.

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Table 3-2: *Power Distance Index VS Individuality (Score from 0-100) by Hofstede et al. (2010)*

Power Distance Index VS Individuality (Score from 0-100) on 78 countries by Hofstede (2010)

Less than 45	=	LPD	&	COL	*0-20
45-55	=		Median		
More than 55	=	HPD	&	IDV	**80-100

No	Country	PDI	Power Distance (HPD/LPD)	IDV	Indiviuduality (IDV/COL)	Cultural Background Type
1	Africa East	64	HPD	27	COL	I
2	Africa West	77	HPD	20*	COL	I
3	Arab countries	80**	HPD	38	COL	I
4	Argentina	49	Median	46	Median	N/A
5	Australia	38	LPD	90**	IDV	III
6	Austria	11*	LPD	55	Median	N/A
7	Bangladesh	80**	HPD	20*	COL	I*
8	Belgium	65	HPD	75	IDV	II
9	Belgium French	67	HPD	72	IDV	II
10	Belgium Netherl	61	HPD	78	IDV	II
11	Brazil	69	HPD	38	COL	I
12	Bulgaria	70	HPD	30	COL	I
13	Canada	39	LPD	80**	IDV	III
14	Canada French	54	Median	73	IDV	N/A
15	Chile	63	HPD	23	COL	I
16	China	80**	HPD	20*	COL	I*
17	Colombia	67	HPD	13*	COL	I
18	Costa Rica	35	LPD	15*	COL	IV
19	Croatia	73	HPD	33	COL	I
20	Czech Rep	57	HPD	58	IDV	II
21	Denmark	18*	LPD	74	IDV	III
22	Ecuador	78	HPD	8*	COL	I
23	El Salvador	66	HPD	19*	COL	I
24	Estonia	40	LPD	60	IDV	III
25	Finland	33	LPD	63	IDV	III
26	France	68	HPD	71	IDV	II
27	Germany	35	LPD	67	IDV	III
28	Great Britain	35	LPD	89**	IDV	III
29	Greece	60	HPD	35	COL	I
30	Guatemala	95**	HPD	6*	COL	I*
31	Hong Kong	68	HPD	25	COL	I
32	Hungary	46	Median	80**	IDV	N/A
33	India	77	HPD	48	Median	N/A
34	Indonesia	78	HPD	14*	COL	I
35	Iran	58	HPD	41	COL	I
36	Ireland	28	LPD	70	IDV	III
37	Israel	13*	LPD	54	Median	N/A
38	Italy	50	Median	76	IDV	N/A
39	Jamaica	45	Median	39	COL	N/A

Less than 45	=	LPD	&	COL	*0-20
45-55	=		Median		
More than 55	=	HPD	&	IDV	**80-100

No	Country	PDI	Power Distance (HPD/LPD)	IDV	Indiviuduality (IDV/COL)	Cultural Background Type
40	Japan	54	Median	46	Median	N/A
41	Korea South	60	HPD	18*	COL	I
42	Latvia	44	LPD	70	IDV	III
43	Lithuania	42	LPD	60	IDV	III
44	Luxembourg	40	LPD	60	IDV	III
45	Malaysia	100**	HPD	26	COL	I
46	Malta	56	HPD	59	IDV	II
47	Mexico	81**	HPD	30	COL	I
48	Morocco	70	HPD	46	Median	N/A
49	Netherlands	38	LPD	80**	IDV	III
50	New Zealand	22	LPD	79	IDV	III
51	Norway	31	LPD	69	IDV	III
52	Pakistan	55	Median	14*	COL	N/A
53	Panama	95**	HPD	11*	COL	I*
54	Peru	64	HPD	16*	COL	I
55	Philippines	94**	HPD	32	COL	I
56	Poland	68	HPD	60	IDV	II
57	Portugal	63	HPD	27	COL	I
58	Romania	90**	HPD	30	COL	I
59	Russia	93**	HPD	39	COL	I
60	Serbia	86**	HPD	25	COL	I
61	Singapore	74	HPD	20*	COL	I
62	Slovak Rep	100**	HPD	52	Median	N/A
63	Slovenia	71	HPD	27	COL	I
64	South Africa white	49	Median	65	IDV	N/A
65	Spain	57	HPD	51	Median	N/A
66	Suriname	85**	HPD	47	Median	N/A
67	Sweden	31	LPD	71	IDV	III
68	Switzerland	34	LPD	68	IDV	III
69	Switzerland French	70	HPD	64	IDV	II
70	Switzerland German	26	LPD	69	IDV	III
71	Taiwan	58	HPD	17*	COL	I
72	Thailand	64	HPD	20*	COL	I
73	Trinidad and Tobago	47	Median	16*	COL	N/A
74	Turkey	66	HPD	37	COL	I
75	U.S.A.	40	LPD	91**	IDV	III
76	Uruguay	61	HPD	36	COL	I
77	Venezuela	81**	HPD	12*	COL	I*
78	Vietnam	70	HPD	20*	COL	I

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Figure 3-5

A list of countries by their cultural background types

Summarized countries by their cultural background types

Type I (HPD & COL)	Type II (HPD & IDV)	Type III (LPD & IDV)	Type IV (LPD & COL)
Africa East	Belgium	Australia	Costa Rica
Africa West	Belgium French	Canada	
Arab countries	Belgium Netherl	Denmark	
Bangladesh*	Czech Rep	Estonia	
Brazil	France	Finland	
Bulgaria	Malta	Germany	
Chile	Poland	Great Britain	
China*	Switzerland French	Ireland	
Colombia		Latvia	
Croatia		Lithuania	
Ecuador		Luxembourg	
El Salvador		Netherlands	
Greece		New Zealand	
Guatemala*		Norway	
Hong Kong		Sweden	
Indonesia		Switzerland	
Iran		Switzerland German	
Korea South		U.S.A.	
Malaysia			
Mexico			
Panama*			
Peru			
Philippines			
Portugal			
Romania			
Russia			
Serbia			
Singapore			
Slovenia			
Taiwan			
Thailand			
Turkey			
Uruguay			
Venezuela*			
Vietnam			

Remark: * is the extreme type of cultural background

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3.3.2 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is defined by Babbie (2010) as "the list of quasi list of elements from where a sample or population is selected in the study." It must be accordant with the study population. Thus, the sampling frame for this study is the list of countries that measure the Power Distance Index (PDI) and Individualism Index (IDV) by Hofstede et al. (2010), from which a sample is selected. Combining two cultural dimensions from the above-mentioned index generated four cultural background types: type I, type II, type III, and type IV. Regarding the accessibility of the sample, cultural background type IV was excluded. Therefore Thailand, France, and the USA represented cultural background types I, II, and III, respectively. However, the populations from the selected countries were graduate students and working professionals who have above-average English proficiency.

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3.3.3 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to what or who will be studied, ranging from individual, group, and organization level (behaviors). The researcher aims to study at an individual level as its unit of analysis. Specifically, the individuals are put in the context of the multicultural virtual team.

3.3.4 Sampling Design

This study employed purposive or judgmental, snowball, and quota sampling. A purposive or judgmental sampling is a type of non-probability sampling design. In this design, the selection of participants depends on the judgment of researchers who decide about whom will be the most accessible or representative population in the study (Babbie, 2004; Kumar, 2005). Researchers use this type of sampling to access a particular subset of people who meet the study's objective. They will reject those that don't fit specific criteria. The three advantages of purposive sampling are the following: (1) it is one of the most cost-effectiveness and time-effectiveness sampling methods, (2) it is the only appropriate method when there is a limited number of primary data sources which can contribute to the study, (3) it can help exploring an anthropological situation (Trinidad, 2007). This design is not randomized, but it is not a haphazard sampling (Flick, 2011, p. 74). The selection criteria for this study include:

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1. Male and female participants in approximately equal proportions.
2. Participants were selected from the listed countries with cultural background types I, II, and III (see the summary list of countries in Figure 3-5). Then the next level of sampling selection used snowball and quota sampling techniques to select countries based on cultural background types. Babbie (2004) referred to "Snowball" as the accumulation process of the located subject suggests other subjects. Therefore, the researcher collected data on the few members of the target population who can be found. Those participants further located other members of

the purposive populations whom they happen to know. Finally, the countries represented each cultural background types are as follow:

a. Type I consists of participants from Thailand,

b. Type II consists of participants from France, and

c. Type III consists of participants from the U.S.A.

3. Participants currently work as professionals in different fields such as agriculture or food industry, industry, energy, trade and crafts, tourism, telecommunications, research and education, finance and insurance, etc., or are students in master's or doctoral programs.

4. Finally, quota sampling was used to identify the expected number of participants from each cultural background type. The total sample has the same distribution of characteristics that exist in the studied population. The quota number for this study was at least 100 participants from each type of cultural background (see Figure 3-6).

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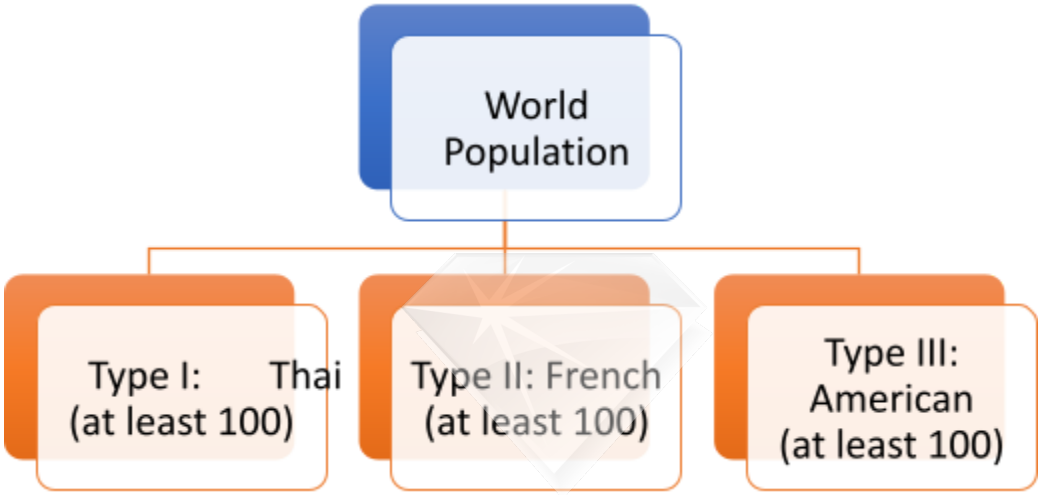
Figure 3-6

Sampling selection by using purposive or judgmental sampling design



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3.4 Research Instrument

The following sections will present the various instruments available to measure each variable of this experimental research. The selected instruments will be explained in detail.

3.4.1 Measuring Emotional Intelligence

3.4.1.1 Popular Instruments

Currently, there are more than 30 different widely-used measures of Emotional Intelligence; O'Connor et al. (2019) reviewed them and concluded on the most prominent ones as follows. The significant distinction between ability EI and trait EI was based on the measurement methods. Ability EI is based on maximal performance items to measure individuals' understanding of emotions and emotional functioning ability. In contrast, trait EI is based on a self-reported questionnaire to measure typical behaviors in emotion-relevant situations (such as dealing with stress or an upset situation) as well as self-rated abilities (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). Moreover, mixed EI is based on a combination of traits, social skills, and competencies and overlaps with other personality measures (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Mixed EI is classified into trait EI based on self-report and also 360-degree forms of assessment (multiple peer reports from supervisors, colleagues, and subordinates).

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O'Connor et al. (2019) stated that ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI are used to predict work-related attitudes such as job satisfaction and job performance. In addition to job satisfaction and job performance, trait EI and mixed EI also indicate organizational commitment. Notably, the concept of ability EI, trait EI, and mixed EI have numerous overlaps due to the significant early influential work of Mayer and Salovey. Thus, the majority of measures mainly include (1) perceiving the self and others' emotions, (2)

regulating self's emotions, (3) regulating others' emotions, and (4) strategically unitizing emotions.

The following scales have been reviewed by O'Connor et al. (2019) and the authors concluded that they are all widely used to measure EI, see Table 3-3.

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Table 3-3: *The most widely used EI measurements (O'Connor et al., 2019)*

Emotional Intelligence Scales	Proposed by	Year	EI models	No. of items	Construct included	Availability Free vs. Cost
Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT)	Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso,	2002	Ability EI	141	Perceiving emotions, Facilitating thought, Understanding emotions and Managing emotions	Cost
The Situational Test of Emotional Management (STEM)	MacCann and Roberts	2008	Ability EI	44	Anger, sadness, and fear	Free for research proposes
The Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU)	MacCann and Roberts	2008	Ability EI	42	Context-reduced, Personal-life context and Workplace context	Free for research proposes
Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)	Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden et al.	1998	Trait EI	33	Optimism/ mood regulation, Appraisal of emotions, Social skills, and Utilization of emotions	Free
Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)	Petrides and Furnham	2001	Trait EI	153	Well-being, Sociability, Emotionality, and Self-control	Cost
Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)	Bar-On	1997	Mixed EI	125	Self-perception, Interpersonal, Decision making, Self-expression, and Stress management	Cost
Emotional and Social competence Inventory (ESCI)	Boyatzis and Goleman	2007	Mixed EI	110	Self-awareness, Social-awareness, Self-Management and Relationship management	Cost

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Both ability EI and trait EI have advantages and disadvantages. One disadvantage of self-reported measures is that people are not always good judges of their emotion-related behavior (Brackett et al., 2006; Sheldon et al., 2014; Boyatzis, 2018, as cited in O'Connor et al., 2019) and end up answering in a socially desirable way. However, when researching self-development, participants are less likely to face their answers (Tett et al., 2012). The advantages of ability EI measures include that the participants cannot fake on their response and that the tools are a more engaging test, since the participants will attempt to solve emotion-related problems and rate their emotions. However, personality and intelligence scholars, MacCann et al. (2014 as cited in O'Connor et al., 2019) claimed EI has high correlations with IQ, nothing more than intelligence. More importantly, ability EI tends to have relatively lower reliability and validity in psychometric properties than trait EI (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Finally, O'Connor et al. (2019) concluded that trait-based EI is more appropriate for most purposes than ability-based EI.

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Next, it presented another very popular, short, and high-reliability self-report EI instrument, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, or WLEIS. WLEIS is used to measure emotional intelligence in the workplace and to measure EI in this study.

3.4.1.2 Wong and Law (2002) Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

One of the most popular self-reported EI instruments is the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale or WLEIS (Libbrecht, Beuckelaer, Lievens, & Rockstuhl, 2014; Shih & Susanto, 2010). It relies on the revised four-branch ability EI model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) for measuring individuals' self-perceptions about EI. Zhang et al. (2015) mentioned that WLEIS is the most appropriate method in measuring emotional intelligence in the workplace. Its measurement is a better predictor of job performance (Law, Wong, Huang, & Li, 2008) and has been used by several scholars to measure EI (Chen et al., 2019; Khosravi et al., 2020; Moeller & Kwantes, 2015; Rezvani et al., 2018; Rezvani et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2015). Consequently, the People Matter's editorial team (2021) concluded on four reasons why WLEIS is popular among researchers:

1. It follows Mayer and Salovey's EI concept, which is based on an individual's ability.
2. It has been tested and retested to establish the reliability and validity of the model from different cultures and demographics.
3. The model has been specifically designed for use in organizations with a 16-item scale.
4. It is found to be a better predictor of job performance when compared with MSCEIT, which is a performance-based emotional intelligence set.

WLEIS is a 16-item scale to assess four EI dimensions with the response format of a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

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Reliability estimates (alpha coefficients) for the four dimensions of self-emotion appraisal, use of emotion, regulation of emotion, and others' emotion appraisal were .89, .88, .76, and .85, respectively (Wong & Law, 2002). See Table 3-4 for the WLEIS 16-item.

The WLEIS was initially developed in Hong Kong. This four-factor structure has also been supported in China and other countries (Law, Wong, Huang, & Li, 2008). However, many scholars have doubts on its use in international contexts whether the measurement structure of the WLEIS is invariant across cultures (Cheung, 2004; Hoyle & Smith, 1994; Law et al., 2004; Shi & Wang, 2007; Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Kraus, 2009). Libbrecht et al. (2014) tested the measurement invariance of WLEIS. They confirmed the invariance of the WLEIS scores across different countries on all dimensions except the dimension "use of emotion." Thus, they suggested that cross-cultural comparisons using the dimension "use of emotion" should proceed cautiously. Moreover, a multi-sample cross-validation study was used to test this scale. The result supported that it has good convergent and discriminant validity (Law et al., 2004).

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Table 3-4

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale, WLEIS (Wong & Law, 2002)

WLEIS Items
Scale 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree)

No	Dimensions	Item
1	Self-emotion appraisal (SEA)	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2		I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3		I really understand what I feel.
4		I always know whether or not I am happy.
5	Others' emotional appraisal (OEA)	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6		I am a good observer of others' emotions.
7		I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8		I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.
9	Use of emotion (UOE)	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10		I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11		I am a self-motivated person.
12		I would always encourage myself to try my best.
13	Regulation of emotion (ROE)	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14		I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15		I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16		I have good control of my own emotions.

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Consequently, with its popularity among scholars to measure EI in the workplace, convenience of short measurement, high-reliability, good convergent, and discriminant validity of the WLEIS instrument, this study employed the WLEIS to measure EI. However, since this study is in a cross-cultural context, it is noted that the dimension of the use of emotion should proceed cautiously.

3.4.2 Measuring Intercultural Competences

3.4.2.1 Popular Instruments

There are three broad approaches to measure intercultural competence: self-reported, informant-based, and performance-based. Much intercultural competence research depends on self-reported measures. However, many factors may influence the accuracy of self-reports, especially the influence of social desirability, which is recognized as a particular concern. However, the alternatives to self-report but are not commonly used to measure intercultural competence are informant- and performance-based measures. In *informant-based measures*, the informants (e.g., supervisors, peers, and subordinates) report about a focal person's intercultural competence. The critical issues include the possibility that informants may have different opportunities to observe a focal person's behavior; thus, using this multisource rating may influence bias. Lastly, *performance-based measures* are based on a standardized test

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of a person's performance, such as multiple-choice assessments of knowledge or assessment centers (Leung et al., 2014).

Since the traditional tools to measure IC have merely used personality traits and self-reported items thus, Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) had tried to define a culture-general measurement tool of cross-cultural competence (CCC) that could be used worldwide, with individuals from various contexts and international backgrounds ("pure locals" without any international experience from different countries and "multicultural people" with a highly intercultural background), and that is not solely based on self-assessment. The study combined measurement tools for two components of CCC, which are personality trait scales and critical incident techniques (short stories of cross-cultural situations and encounters). The result showed that most personality traits that are predictive of CCC do not significantly determine cross-cultural knowledge.

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In conclusion, researchers highlighted that despite abundant publications, research on CCC is still in the infant stage. The nature of CCC is highly complex, and there is a need for more research to understand the concept and substantially improve its measurement. Thus, it could not be concluded that the personality traits commonly described as associated with CCC determine a better understanding of cross-cultural situations. CCC is a complex concept and phenomenon, and scholars (including the authors) visibly have not succeeded thus far in developing quantitative measurement tools that can adequately reflect this complexity.

With an increasing acknowledgment of intercultural issue, Lombardi (2010) had reviewed the five most common intercultural instruments for assessing intercultural

sensitivity or competence: the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI), Cross-Cultural World-Mindedness Scale (CCWMS), Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ISI), and the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC).

The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) was developed by intercultural communication scholars Dr. Milton J. Bennett and Dr. Mitchell Hammer and grounded from the Development Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). The IDI measures cultural differences orientation, training needs, guiding interventions for individual, group and organization development of IC, aiding in selecting culturally-oriented personnel, and evaluating programs. IDI framework explains the reported and observed experiences of individuals in intercultural situations. It also helps to understand people's reactions towards cultural differences better. This instrument is a reliable, cross-culturally valid measure of IC.

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The second tool is ***the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI),*** developed by Kelley and Meyers in 1995. It is a self-assessment tool to measure an individual's effectiveness in cross-cultural interaction and communication. This tool can measure four variables: emotional resilience (the ability to cope with the stress and ambiguity in new cultural environments), flexibility and openness (the ability of thinking in a new way and behaving in culturally diverse contexts), perceptual acuity (ability to interpret both verbal and nonverbal cultural communication cues), and personal autonomy (ability to respect different cultural values).

Next is ***the cross-Cultural World-Mindedness Scale (CCWMS)*** developed by Der-Karabetian in 1993. It evaluates attitudes towards race, religion, world government, war, patriotism, and global education. The scale is used for study-abroad, pre-departure, and re-entry programs to detect value orientations and shifts.

The fourth scale is ***Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ISI),*** developed by Bhawuk and Brislin in 1992. It is a self-scored used to measure individuals' ability to modify behavior in culturally appropriate ways when coming to contact with diverse cultures. The cultural constructs that this scale measures include individualism, collectivism, and flexibility, and open-mindedness.

The last scale is the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC), developed by the Federation of the Experiment in International Living (FEIL) as part of their programs. It assesses the intercultural competence (knowledge, attitude, skills, and awareness), characteristics of intercultural competence, intercultural competence domains (relationships, communication, and collaboration), language proficiency, and development of IC level. Table 3-5 summarized Lombardi's review on the purpose, application, availability, reliability, and scoring of intercultural competence instruments.

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Table 3-5

Summary on intercultural competence instruments (Lombardi, 2010)

	Intercultural Competence Instruments				
	Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)	the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI)	Cross-Cultural World-Mindedness Scale (CCWMS)	Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory (ISI)	Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC)
Developer	Dr. Milton J. Bennett and Dr. Mitchell Hammer (Grounded in the theoretial constructs of the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS))	Kelley and Meyers	Der-Karabetian	Bhawuk & Brislin	The Federation of the Experiment in International Living (FEIL)
Year of development	2003	1995	1993	1992	2006
Purpose	To measure orientation towards cultural differences, assess training needs, guide interventions for individual and grou development of intercultural competence, aid in personnel selection, and evaluate programs.	To assess an individual's effectiveness in cross-cultural interaction and communication.	To evaluates attitudes towards race, religion, world government, war, patriotism, and global education.	To measures a person's ability to modify behavior in culturally appropriate ways when coming into contact with diverse cultures.	To measures how intercultural sojourners change over time.
Application	The IDI can be used to assess intercultural competence at the individual, group and organizational level.	Respondents understand the qualities that can increase intercul- tural effectiveness, develop intercultural communication skills, and make an informed decision about one's readiness to live/study/work abroad.	World-mindedness is defined as "positive attitudes towards issues such as immigration, world government, and world economic justice." The scale is used for study-abroad, predeparture and reentry programs to detect value orientations and shifts, and can also be used to test study-abroad outcomes.	The ISI offers an opportunity to explore cultural identity through the assessment of one's cultural value orientations and flexibility in adapting to new cultures or people.	The instrument was developed as part of assessing the intercultural outcomes of its programs.
Availability	Commercial	Commercial	Free	Free	Free
No. of items	50 statements	50-item survey	26-item	46 questions	This AIC employed both self and other-reported procedures and interviews lasting approximately one hour.
Reliability	Alpha coefficients of .80 to .84	Internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged from .68 to .82 on the four scales and .90 overall.	Internal reliability varied between countries from .69 (India) to .90 (England), while the alpha coefficients were .80 to .85 for two U.S. samples.	Internal consistency reliability with Cronbach alphas of .82 and .84	Reliability estimates of .70 and greater factor loadings of .60
Scoring	5-point response set ranging from "agree" to "disagree," and can be taken either in paper form or online.	6-point Likert scale ranging from "definitely not true" to "definitely true." It is a self-assessment tool.	6-point Likert-style response format ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." It can be either trainer scored or self-scored.	7-point Likert scale ranging from "very strongly agree" to "very strongly disagree." It is a self-report instrument.	It is a both self and other-reported procedures
Training for using a scale needed	Yes	No	No	No	No
Remark	A three-day qualifying seminar, with a tuition of $1300-$1500, is mandatory for those who wish to use the IDI, and each instrument costs $10. The instrument must be trainer-scored or scored by the Intercultural Communication Institute, and is available in various languages. Information on trainings and purchasing the instrument can be found at http://www.idiinventory.com/.	Each instrument costs $9-10 dollars. The instrument may be purchased through a variety of companies that specialize in development and assessment such as Vangent (http://www.jvrcatalogue.com/?p=352).	-	-	-

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3.4.2.2 Serious Game

Whether played on a field, around a table, or in front of an LCD screen, the essential characteristic features include clear rules, goals, and objectives that push the player to compete and win. When compared to real life, games present problems and allow the player to act in solving problems or overcoming the incident. Games have long been used as a training tool with children and adults. However, the concept of "serious games" has been long used by the U.S. military, medical schools, and the general academic community before the term was coined (Bergeron, 2006).

A serious game is a game-based approach that has a purpose beyond entertainment and provides a fully controllable study environment. The pedagogy of serious games is based on the principles and advantages of experiential learning (Kolb & Kolb, 2005 as cited in Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020). Vermillion, Malak, Smallman, Becker, Sferra and Fields (2017) added that the gaming environment, with its entertainment nature, induces unexpected or unrepresentative behavior. The term 'serious game' was initiated by Abt (1970; p.9) and referred to games that are not primarily for amusement but educational purposes. Similarly, Michael and Chen (2006, as cited in Zheng & Gardner, 2017) promoted serious games initiatives that the primary goal for serious games is for education (in its various forms) rather than entertainment. Additionally, games can be used to benefit learning purposes because the players experience specific scenarios (not only read about it) and discover "decision-related

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information" through gameplay (Vermillion, Malak, Smallman, Becker, Sferra, & Fields, 2017 as cited in Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020).

Bergeron (2006) clarified that a serious game refers to an interactive, simulation, multimedia, or graphical application that is fun to play and/or engaging and has a challenging goal that incorporates the scoring concept. The game's content provides learning information for players, including skill, knowledge, or attitude that can be applied in the real world. It is also recognized that learning through gameplay is an efficient method in terms of acquiring longer-lasting knowledge. Furthermore, since the game includes serious content combined with entertainment features, its definition also fits with "edutainment," which makes a serious game a success.

According to the Serious Game Market (2015 as cited in Zheng & Gardner, 2017), the largest market for serious games in North America and Europe ranked the second-largest. This trend seems to grow during the next decade. The U.S. government has steadily supported the serious game market. The primary purposes are for training not only to assist in the military and healthcare sector but also for various industries, such as government, education, and corporate sectors. Consequently, it has helped to boost the development of serious games. Moreover, Vermillion et al. (2017) mentioned that in terms of financial issues, a virtual in-game environment helps saving costs of researching laboratory settings. There are three main functions of the serious game: (1) the game intends to deliver an either educative, informative, or persuasive message, (2) the game is used as a training tool to improve cognitive or physical performance, (3) the game is used as a data exchange channel.

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The serious games increasingly attract more attention and are recognized as innovative and effective tools for learning and knowledge management (Michel, Kreziak & Heraud, 2009; Vallat et al., 2016 as cited in Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020). Usart and Romero (2013) have pointed out that active learning models, including serious games, are a current trend in professional development. The increasing interest in serious games is also linked to economic and entertainment factors in many organizations regarding cost-saving innovative lifelong learning skills and instructions among employees. The game itself is entertaining, which encourages their employees to learn new skills during their free time. Serious games must help learners to plan, organize, and direct their research and exploration, as well as to evaluate their progress (Zheng & Gardner, 2017).

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A serious game is designed with the context of human-in-the-loop simulations (Vermillion et al., 2017). The followings are five stages of simulation-based serious game development:

1) Identifying the game's purpose or objective, context, and resources,
2) Developing models or characters,
3) Linking model elements with game elements,
4) Construction and modification the game may use coding software,
5) Producing operating material and managing distribution channels.

Moreover, simulation is a form of modeling (Greenblat, 1988) or easily understood as a more minor, less detailed, and less complex than other structures or systems. The primary purpose of the simulation is to have a better understanding of the

social world. It can also substitute human capabilities and a training tool, such as training a pilot using flight simulators. Many researchers have used simulation in their experiments by creating a model to generate simulated data and conclude on real-world phenomena (Gilbert & Troitzsch, 2005).

The researcher used LINK the serious game (Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020), to measure the Intercultural Competence level as an individual's adaptation to diversity in high vs. low power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, monochronic vs. polychronic, explicit vs. implicit communication, and universalism vs. particularism. Selected scenes from LINK the serious game were included in the CRIT game, our developed serious game, which will be detailed later.

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3.4.2.3 LINK The Serious Game within The InterCCom Project: A Platform for International Management Experimentation

Much of the research on intercultural competence has depended on self-reported measures, which is seen as a complex process (Leung et al., 2014; Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000) since many factors may influence the accuracy of self-reports (Dunning et al. 2004). Leung et al. (2014) and Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) mentioned that the influence of social desirability might be of particular concern when self-reported measures are used in high-stakes selection contexts. Therefore, to overcome the problem of using a self-report, LINK the serious game is appropriate in measuring IC level in this study.

The InterCCom project was started in 2018 by Anne Bartel-Radic, a full professor in International Management at Sciences Po Grenoble and University Grenoble Alps in France (Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020). Recently, the InterCCom Games were among the five finalists to award the best digital pedagogical tool in the Digital Age 2021 given by The French Foundation for Management Education (FNEGE, 2021).

Bartel-Radic, Taylor, and Asshidi (2020) presented that "Link," used as an innovative learning method by experience (simulated). It is an online serious game with interactive and effective educational tools which is based on an experimental research approach that allows prominent participants to take action on realistic scenarios. Researchers could better understand specific behaviors under certain situations designed in the serious game by collecting data on players' choices. LINK stands for "Learning INtercultural Kompetence." It is based on the pedagogical objectives around the theme of intercultural competence in work teams.

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The games are created on a digital platform that was also developed within the project, called Genagame. This platform is designed as the bilingual platform (French and English) and developed entirely within the InterCCom project. It allows researchers to design and run the serious game by uploading content (i.e., documents, images, and videos) and defining an interactive journey of the player through the content, depending on a scenario and underlying theoretical dimensions. Researchers can design different scenes (sequences), the platform also allow researchers to design several paths and tell a different storying depending on the choices made by the players. Thus, the player's choices in the game have consequences insofar that they influence the following

sequences of the scenario: therefore, the players do not all live the "same experience." Furthermore, the choices made by the players are recorded in the platform and can be exported into a database for further data analysis.

Most importantly, this game avoids the methodological biases of existing methods and assesses intercultural knowledge and behavior in real-life situations. An international and virtual project team, with team members located worldwide, is the primary context imagined in LINK the serious game.

Notably, the players take a coordinator role in a fictitious team composed of various nationalities and backgrounds. The players must coordinate the team's work and decide on appropriate behavior when encountering differences between national cultures among team members. The scenarios proposed to the players vary depending on the communication and management styles adopted. These scenarios are built by corresponding to the "critical incidents" technique (Flanagan, 1954), which are short stories relating to intercultural situations (more details on this technique is presented next). The scenes in LINK are notably organized around cultural differences. These scenes are likely to be interpreted differently depending on the culture as they are based on the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001), Hall and Hall (1990), and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2003).

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The ***critical incident technique*** **(CIT)** developed by John C. Flanagan (1954, p.327) is a research procedure to collect information on human behavior through direct observation and find the way to solve problems and also develop psychological principles. He also stated that its findings would support the problem-solving process,

such as employee appraisal and performance enhancement (Hughes, 2007; Rogelberg, 2007). Kain (2004) concluded that CIT is a research technique to collect information and analyze human behaviors, techniques, traits, and characteristics and interactions that reflect real-life experience. Bartel-Radic and Giannelloni (2017) summarized that critical incidents are short stories of cross-cultural situations and encounters. They are considered crucial because they are likely to be interpreted differently by people from different cultures and cause misunderstandings that might result in conflict. In Bott and Tourish's review (2016), they stated that the CIT approach has its roots in quantitative and positivist research. However, recently the trend toward inductive, interpretivism, and qualitative research has been highlighted. The four types of critical incident events are shown in Table 3-6.

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Table 3-6

Typology of the critical incident event (Bott & Tourish, 2016)

Types of event	Degree of		Description	Examples of event
	Frequency	Salience		
Atypical	Low	High	The event occurs infrequently and has high salience for organizational actors.	Acts of terrorism/mergers/corruption
Archetypal	High	High	Event occurs frequently or routinely and has high salience for organizational actors.	Annual appraisal interviews/annual budgeting
Typical	High	Low	Event occurs frequently, and individual acts have low significance for organizational actors.	Strategic planning/decisions in line with organizational mission or philosophy
Prototypical	Low	Low	Event occurs infrequently, and each event is seen as having low significance by organizational actors	Budget cuts/downsizing/dismissal of senior figures

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The use of critical incidents to assess intercultural competencies has been a promising perspective in the field in recent years (Bartel-Radic, 2014; Bartel-Radic & Giannelloni, 2017).

Moreover, three complementary processes were employed as the method to develop the storyboards and the game scenario for LINK (Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020):

- Interviews and focus groups were conducted with leaders and members of international innovation project teams and then analyzed to identify "critical incidents" of interest to the game.
- The collaborative workshops were conducted, which brought together an interdisciplinary and very international project team (teacher-researchers in management and management sciences, teacher-researchers in computer science, language teachers, practitioners) to brainstorm. During the workshop, improvisation theater was used as a methodology to develop more scenes. The rich discussion on different reactions of people from diverse cultures (Europeans, Americans, the Middle East, and Asians) to the created situations.
- Two phases of collaborative work on the game were conducted. Then, during the process of platform and game design, researchers mobilized design thinking methodologies (Dorst, 2011, Chanal & Merminod, 2019). The first phase aimed to define the principles of operation of the games and the basics of the computer platform to be designed; the second focused more on the content of the LINK game on intercultural competence. Finally, four personas of players were defined

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in the project team and worked on the respective expectations and motivations before describing the game from the perspective of the users' experiences.

The player is put into the shoes of the coordinator and/or a member of an international virtual team; this idea helps players to remain themselves, which strongly contributes to immersion into the story. However, the player plays his/her person (age, gender, nationality, place of work, etc.). Simulation in the game displays various digital communication tools used when interacting with other virtual team members, such as e-mail or instant messaging, document sharing, and video conferencing (simulated with short videos of real-life actors).

In short, Bartel-Radic, Mouillot, & Taylor (2019) concluded that the aims for the InterCCom project are threefold: (1) to measure the behavioral dimension of intercultural competence, (2) to respond to a call for more experimental research design in international management, and, (3) to develop an innovative and effective game-based tool for learning and managing knowledge. LINK the serious game deals with a clinical experiment in which the participant's environment is artificially reconstructed to be able to control the different variables as much as possible and to compare a large number of individuals (Bartel-Radic, Taylor, & Asshidi, 2020). The game scenarios were built based on the critical incident technique (Bartel-Radic & Giannelloni, 2017) and theoretical dimensions. The researchers conducted focus groups and interviewed members and leaders from international innovation project teams, then analyzed and identified the critical incidents for the game. After that, collaborative workshops comprised of interdisciplinary and international project teams developed more scenes using

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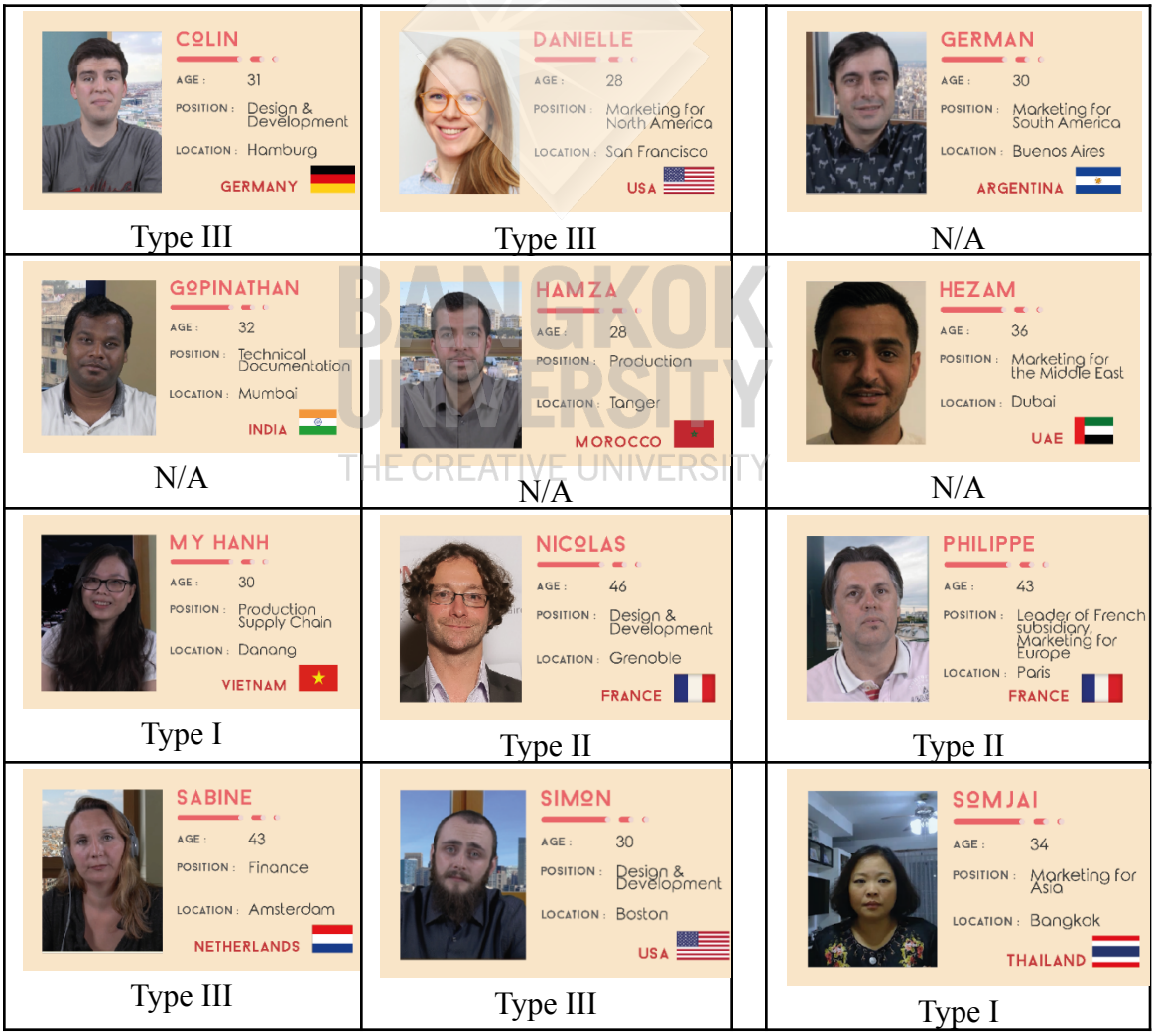
improvisation theater methodology. Finally, each scene has been included in the GenaGame platform. See Figure 3-7 for LINK characters based on their cultural background type.

Figure 3-7

Multicultural characters in LINK the serious game



3.4.3 Measuring Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior

3.4.3.1 Popular Measurement Instruments

Regarding instruments in conflict management, several tools reflect similar constructs but different models and classification of conflict management styles in interpersonal and organizational contexts used by many scholars (Boonsathorn, 2007). Those different models of interpersonal conflict management were adopted from two fundamental dimensions of the dual-concern model: concern for self and concern for others. Kristanto (2017) summarized the models and classification of conflict management styles as follows.

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Follet first proposed the first five classifications of conflict management behavior in 1940, which explained three main ways when dealing with conflict: domination, compromise, and integration, and the last way is to avoid or suppress. Another concept was simplified in the cooperation-competition dichotomy by Deutsch (1949 as cited in Kristanto, 2017). Then, based on Deutsch's idea and a concept of human attention and production, Blake and Mouton, in 1964, had classified five interpersonal conflict-handling styles, namely forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem-solving. After that, Jay Hall, in 1969, developed conflict management strategies by focusing on personal goals and attention to relationships with others. Thomas and Kilmann (1975, as cited in Kristanto, 2017) also developed a model of conflict

management based on engagement to the assertive behavior (the desire to satisfy yourself) and cooperative behavior (the desire to satisfy the other party).

Putnam and Wilson (1982) developed the Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI) based on three factors of conflict management strategy: non-confrontation, solution-oriented, and control. Even though regarding the reliability and validity of this instrument, it has been reported that the tool has high discriminatory power, moderate construct validity, and strong predictive validity. But it is limited to its exclusive reliance on self-reported measures. Thus, there is a need for multiple studies for solid support for finding.

Rahim (1983) developed the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-I (ROCI-I) that contained information on organizational experience, sex, functional area, corporate level, and education to measure three types of organizational conflict, including intrapersonal, intragroup, and intergroup conflict. However, ROCI-I was suggested for an additional validity of the scales, and the scale's psychometric properties should be explored. Then, Rahim (1983) developed the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II), based on two dimensions of interpersonal conflict-handling styles: the concern for self and others. This measurement solicits information, such as tenure, sex, functional areas, organizational level, and education. The test-retest and internal consistency reliability coefficients are satisfactory. Finally, five well-known conflict management styles were proposed as integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising.

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Then, in 1995, Tjosvold used Deutsch's theory of two strategies of conflict management (cooperation vs. competition) to develop a new conflict management approach, which was cooperation-competition-avoiding. The Dutch Test for Conflict Handling (DUTCH), revised by Van de Vliert et al. in 1999, proposed five typologies of conflict behavior: forcing, yielding, avoiding, problem-solving, and compromising. These different interpersonal conflict management models and classification can be categorized into at least four taxonomic conflict management styles of other schools of thought, as shown in Table 3-7).

Table 3-7

Conflict Management Taxonomy

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	Numbers of conflict management behaviors/styles			
	Two	**Three**	**Four**	**Five**
Conceptor	Deutsch (1949); Tjosvold & Tjosvold (1995)	Putnam & Wilson (1982)	Pruitt (1983)	Follett (1940); Black & Mouton (1964); Thomas (1998); Rahim & Bonoma (1979)
Types of conflict management	cooperation and competition	nonconfrontation, solution-orientation, and control	yielding, problem solving, inaction, and contending	integrating, dominating, obliging, avoiding, and compromising
Tools/Approach	Deutsch's theory	Organizational Communication Conflict Instrument (OCCI)	Dual concern model, Feasibility considerations approach	Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-I (ROCI-I), Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II), The Dutch Test for Conflict Handling (DUTCH)

Notably, among various instruments to measure conflict management styles, the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983) is one of the most widely used to measure conflict management style among interpersonal and intercultural scholars. It also has particularly attracted attention (Boonsathorn, 2007; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000). This instrument measured conflict management styles and is suitable for

testing different aspects of face negotiation theory. This instrument reflects dual concerns for self and others, similar to self-face and other-face concerns (Boonsathorn, 2007). The ROCI-II has been used widely and has been shown to have a well-established, popular, psychometrically sound (Hobkins & Yonker, 2015), and acceptable reliability and validity (Boonsathorn, 2007; Noermijati et al., 2019; Rahim et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2015).

Unfortunately, none of the mentioned measurements was grounded on culturally based patterns of differences to assess conflict style. For example, regarding ROCI-II, Ting-Toomey (1994) posited that an avoiding strategy is employed in collectivist cultures to maintain relational harmony. Hammer (2005) also stated that ROCI-II is suspect in its generalizability to more collectivist, i.e. Asian culture. Consequently, Hammer (2005) proposed the Intercultural Conflict Styles Inventory (ICSI), which is preferred when dealing with disagreements and emotions among culturally diverse groups. Next, I will present more detail the Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS).

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3.4.3.2 The Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS; Hammer, 2005)

The model of Intercultural Conflict Styles (ICS) is (1) conceptualized theoretically in the way individuals communicate with each other, (2) contexted in disagreement and emotional response during the conflict, and (3) grounded in intercultural context on how individuals engage in direct and indirect communication behavior and how they communicate their emotion when dealing with disagreement.

Under the conceptual umbrella of individualism/collectivism, direct/indirect approaches have been identified as the core cultural dimension for dealing with disagreements across cultures. Trubisky et al. (1991, as cited in Hammer, 2005) conclude:

"Overall, the evidence suggests that members of individualistic cultures tend to prefer direct conflict communication styles and solution-oriented styles. These two styles tend to emphasize the values of autonomy, competitiveness, and the need for control. Conversely, members of collectivist cultures tend to prefer obliging and conflict-avoidance styles. These two styles tend to emphasize the value of passive compliance and for maintaining relational harmony in conflict interactions. (p. 70)"

Moreover, as cited in Hammer (2005), in a low-context negotiation style, individuals emphasize the more direct, explicit, and precise use of language for conflict management when compared with individuals from high-context cultures. In a high-context negotiation style, individuals emphasize indirect speech, the ambiguity of expression, and non-confrontational communication strategies (Hammer, 1997). They prefer a non-confrontational situation (Ting-Toomey, 1985).

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In terms of the emotional aspect, there is a different degree to which emotional expressiveness and restraint are valued and practiced in social interactions around culturally-based conflict. Ting-Toomey (1999) suggested that collectivists maintain and restrain their emotions because it is seen as the self-disciplined and mature way to handle conflict and maintain harmony. In contrast, individualists encourage a more open and expressive display of emotion as a presence of honesty and engagement in conflict management.

Therefore, the Intercultural Conflict Styles Inventory (ICSI) is based on two core dimensions for solving problems and resolving conflict: direct vs. indirect approaches to deal with disagreement and emotionally expressiveness vs. emotionally restrained strategies for dealing with the affective dimension of intercultural conflict interaction. With the development of these two core dimensions in ICSI, a four-quadrant intercultural conflict management style model was proposed based on high/low levels of directness and high/low levels of emotional expressiveness. They are termed as discussion style (direct & emotionally restrained), engagement style (direct & emotionally expressive), accommodation style (indirect & emotionally restrained) and dynamic style (indirect & emotionally expressive).

The ICSI is used to design each conflict scenario and answer choices on different types of conflict. See Table 3-8 for descriptive information on ICS inventory.

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Table 3-8

Descriptive information for the Intercultural Conflict Styles Inventory (ICS; Hammer, 2005)

Dimension	Item description
Direct	Comfort in other party expressing convictions
	Directly express what you believe
	Comfort in other party asserting ideas
	Verbally defend views
	Get straight to the point
	Fully express convictions
	Candidly express disagreements
	Verbally confront opinion differences
	Clarity in communication with other party
Indirect	Offer indirect suggestions
	Apologize for the conflict
	Express complaints indirectly
	Comfort when other party accommodates
	Talk around disagreements
	Use intermediaries to settle disputes
	Be cautious in sharing ideas
	Avoid criticizing
	Go along with statements made by other party

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Table 3-8 (Continued)

Descriptive information for the Intercultural Conflict Styles Inventory (ICS; Hammer, 2005)

Dimension	Item description
Emotionally Expressive	Allow your emotions to come out
	Openly express anger
	Not try to control your emotions
	Express strong emotions
	Present ideas with fully emotion
	Express feelings, even it means shouting
	Interact with emotional intensity
	Passionately express disagreements
	Express deeper emotions like fear
Emotionally Restrained	Avoid expressing strong emotions
	Maintain emotional calm
	Contain emotions
	Avoid imposing feelings
	Keep strong emotions hidden
	Insure own feelings do not interfere
	Control strong emotions
	Use an emotionally calm style
	Restrain negative emotions

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In short, ICS offers an essential conceptualization of culturally based patterns of difference around conflict interaction. Overall the four proposed ICS, including discussion, engagement, accommodation, and dynamic styles can be determined at the

individual and culturally based group level. Next will discuss how the serious game in this study was developed.

3.4.4 Development of Our Serious Game, CRIT

The serious game we developed for this research was named “CRIT”. CRIT stands for Conflict Management in Intercultural Teams. It is an interactive simulation game that should have used the GenaGame platform, which was developed within the InterCCom project, led by Professor Anne Bartel-Radic. Unexpectedly, the GenaGame platform encountered some technical problems that needed to be fixed. As the fixing schedule didn’t match the data collection schedule of this study, the researcher has gone through the different game platforms (see comparison in Table 3-9) and finally decided to use the best choice, Survey Monkey as a tool to develop the game scenarios. But still, drawbacks remain with this platform. The content of CRIT the serious game provides learning information for players, including skill, knowledge, or attitude applied in the real world.

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Table 3-9

The comparison of alternative game platforms

Platform	Description of the platform	Availability of platform					Respond feedback
		Questionnaire	Image / VDO	Allow different path	Score	Free/Paid	
Survey Monkey	It is online survey software that helps you to create and run professional online surveys.	Yes	Yes	Yes, and called "skip logic."	Yes, and called as "quiz question."	The basic plan is FREE.	Super-Fast
	Remark: If your survey has quiz questions, avoid using skip logic. Quiz scores are calculated using the total points in the survey. With skip logic, some people might skip over some survey questions, which can result in their scores being lower because they didn't answer all quiz questions.						
ITYSTUDIO	It is a tool for Serious Games and 2D and 3D simulations.	No	Yes	Yes, and called "scenario trees."	Yes	15-day free trial	Slow
Serious Game Interactive	It provides corporate gamification and e-learning, interactive 3D simulation training, playful tools, change & education.	They make customized solutions based on our unique co-creation process.				Paid	Fast

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Table 3-9 (Continued)

The comparison of alternative game platforms

Platform	Description of the platform	Availability of platform					Respond feedback
		Questionnaire	Image / VDO	Allow different path	Score	Free/Paid	
Twine	It is an open-source tool for telling interactive, nonlinear stories.	N/A	Yes	Yes	N/A	Free	N/A
	Remark: It requires basic knowledge of coding for creating each scenario, including text, video, and images. And it isn't very easy to save the game since the stories are saved to the web browser itself, not to the twinery.org website. And more importantly, deleting the browser's history will also delete the stories.						
Typeform	It is an online program that makes things like business forms, surveys, quizzes, product feedback, contest, landing page, test, and payment forms.	Yes, but with a small number of characters for each choice.	Yes	The logic jump is possible with a paid plan	Yes	The basic goal is FREE.	N/A
	Remark: For the free plan: there is a small limit number of characters inputting in each choice, allow only three forms (3 surveys), and will enable a maximum of 100 respondents.						

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Table 3-9 (Continued)

The comparison of alternative game platforms

Platform	Description of the platform	Availability of platform					Respond feedback
		Questionnaire	Image/ VDO	Allow different path	Score	Free/Paid	
Gamoteca	It helps create single or multiplayer game-based learning with roles, engaging media, real-world interactions (mixed reality), and game elements (points, branching).	Yes, but no ranking nor Likert scale and only allow text for the answer choice (not able to upload the image.)	Yes	Yes, and called "preconditions. "	No	The free plan allows creating up to 5 games with only 50 players.	Slow

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However, with Survey Monkey, the score calculation and recommendations for the player at the end of the game were not possible while using Survey Monkey. Due to the limitation of survey monkey, instant score feedback was not possible. Thus, participants received their score feedback and recommendations to improve their knowledge via email later after the game completion. The feedback template was developed in EXCEL dashboard, which comprised of various information, including emotional intelligence (EI), intercultural competence (IC), and conflict resolution/management (CR) score, based on different dimensions, gained during the game and recommendations to help improve the players' emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, and conflict management styles/behavior. All scores were given as mean values and percentages and used the speedometer to visualize their result. Radar charts and graph were used to visualize the results on each particular EI, IC, and CR dimension. Then the three-color (red, yellow, and green) represented three levels of each ability which were low, medium, and high. An example of score feedback and recommendation sheet is presented in Figure 3-8.

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Figure 3-8

An example of score feedback and recommendation sheet

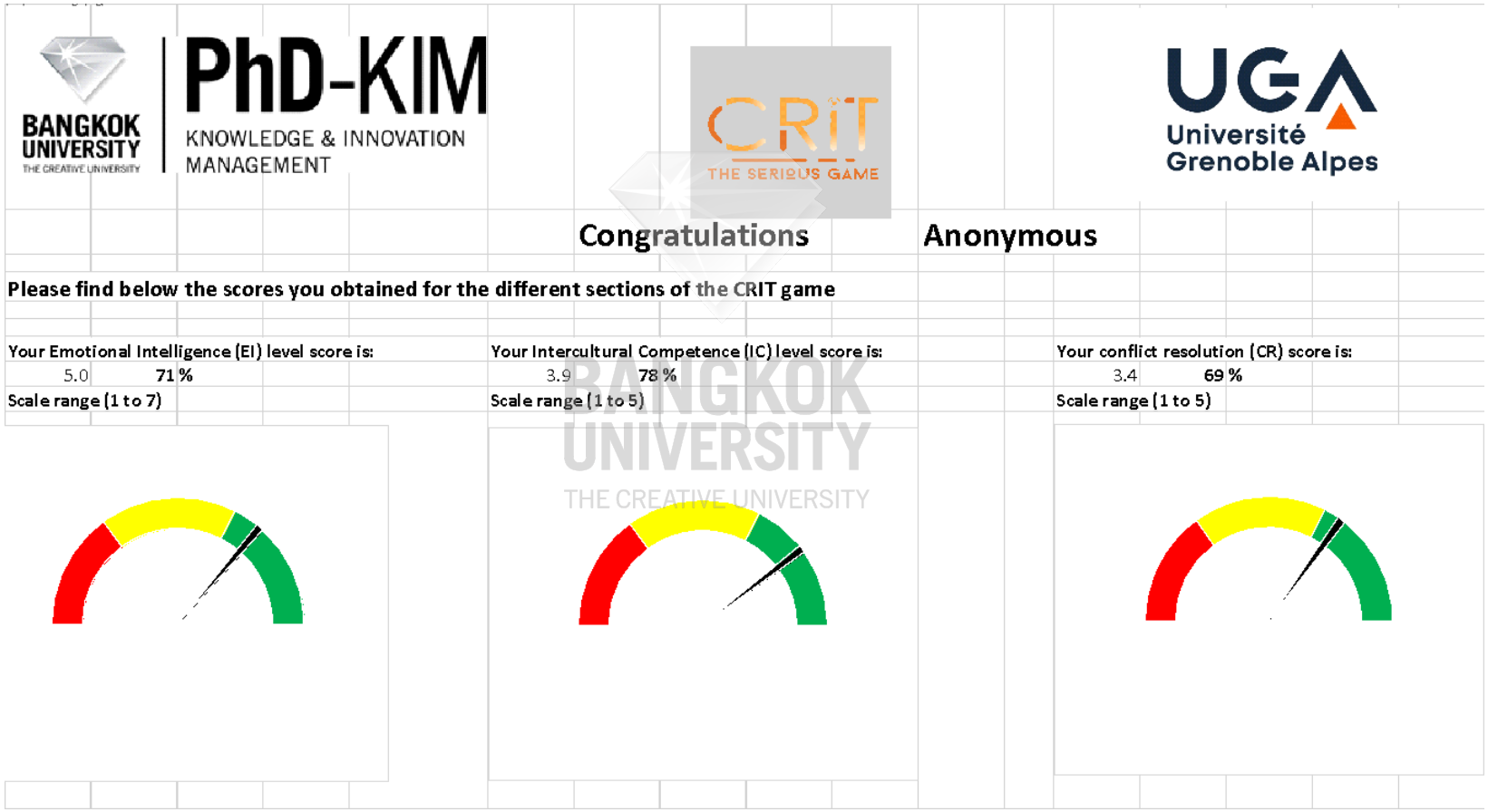
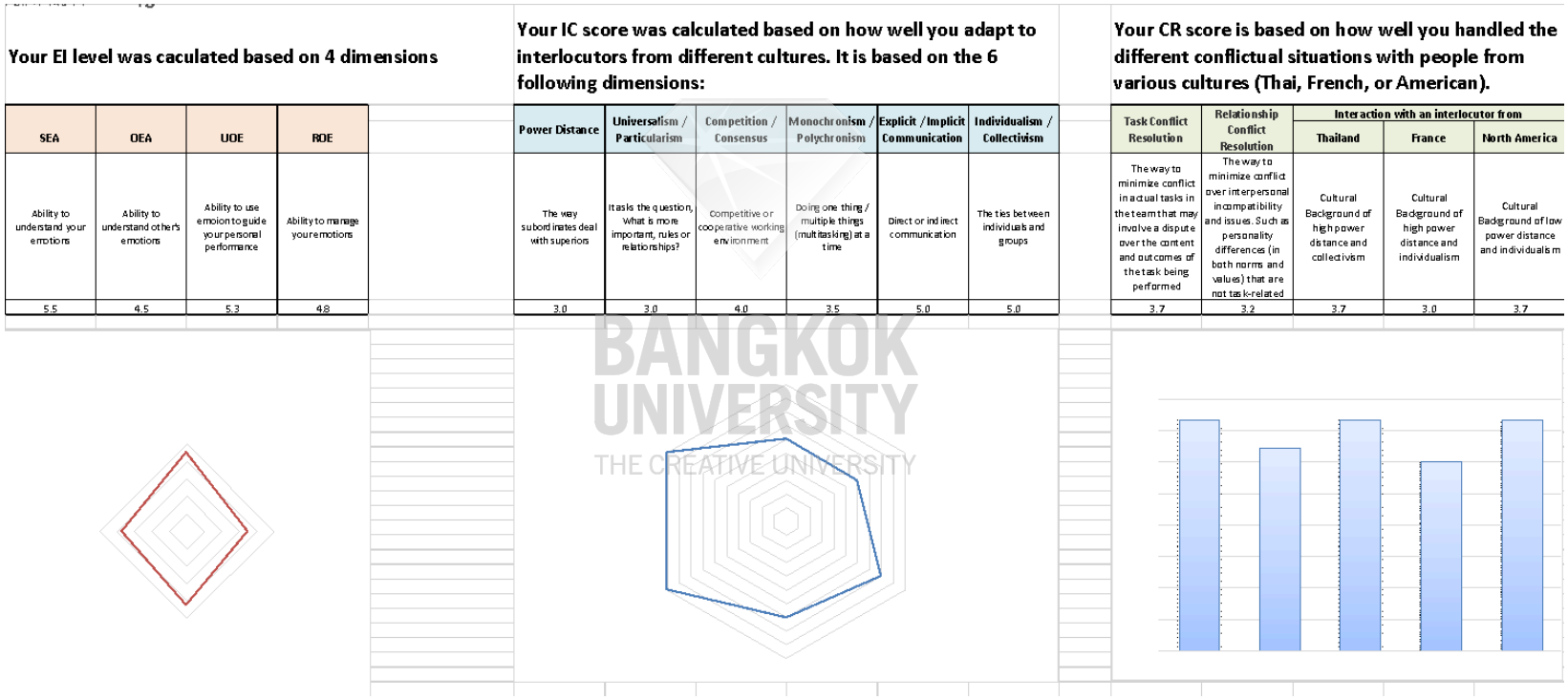


Figure 3-8 (Continued)

An example of score feedback and recommendation sheet



Your EI level was caculated based on 4 dimensions

SEA	OEA	UOE	ROE
Ability to understand your emotions	Ability to understand other's emotions	Ability to use emoion to guide your personal performance	Ability to manage your emotions
5.5	4.5	5.3	4.8

Your IC score was calculated based on how well you adapt to interlocutors from different cultures. It is based on the 6 following dimensions:

Power Distance	Universalism / Particularism	Competition / Consensus	Monochronism / Polychronism	Explicit / Implicit Communication	Individualism / Collectivism
The way subordinates deal with superiors	It asks the question, What is more important, rules or relationships?	Competitive or cooperative working environment	Doing one thing / multiple things (multitasking) at a time	Direct or indirect communication	The ties between individuals and groups
3.0	3.0	4.0	3.5	5.0	5.0

Your CR score is based on how well you handled the different conflictual situations with people from various cultures (Thai, French, or American).

Task Conflict Resolution	Relationship Conflict Resolution	Interaction with an interlocutor from		
		Thailand	France	North America
The way to minimize conflict in actual tasks in the team that may involve a dispute over the content and outcomes of the task being performed	The way to minimize conflict over interpersonal incompatibility and issues. Such as personality differences (in both norms and values) that are not task-related	Cultural Background of high power distance and collectivism	Cultural Background of high power distance and individualism	Cultural Background of low power distance and individualism
3.7	3.2	3.7	3.0	3.7

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Figure 3-8 (Continued)

An example of score feedback and recommendation sheet

Color Representation (EI)		Color Representation (IC)		Color Representation (CR)	
	Low ability to understand, assess, and regulate your emotions as well as others' emotions towards constructive personal performance.		Low ability to think, act, and interact effectively and appropriately in multicultural virtual teams setting.		Low ability to manage conflict constructively and adequately in intercultural context / interaction especially when dealing with disagreement and emotion.
	Moderate ability to understand, assess, and regulate your emotions as well as others' emotions towards constructive personal performance.		Moderate ability to think, act, and interact effectively and appropriately in multicultural virtual teams setting.		Moderate ability to manage conflict constructively and adequately in intercultural context / interaction especially when dealing with disagreement and emotion.
	High ability to understand, assess, and regulate your emotions as well as others' emotions towards constructive personal performance.		High ability to think, act, and interact effectively and appropriately in multicultural virtual teams setting.		High ability to manage conflict constructively and adequately in intercultural context / interaction especially when dealing with disagreement and emotion.
Recommendation:		**Recommendation:**		**Recommendation:**	
The four key skills to help improving your ability to manage emotions and connect with others are: self-management (manage your core feelings such as anger, sadness, fear, and joy), self-awareness (be aware of your emotion), social awareness (be aware of others' emotion), and relationship management (make more effective, fruitful, and fulfilling relationships.)		The skills to help improving Intercultural competence are skills to analyze, interpret, relate, listen and observe the intercultural interlocutor in intercultural context. Therefore, cognitive skills (encourages the search for new information and perspectives on cultural diversity), critical thinking (recognizing diverse identities), cognitive flexibility (enhances tolerance and acceptance), and compromising strategy are highly recommended.		It requires the understanding of cultural sensitivity and the use of appropriate communication approach and emotion when handling with intercultural conflict. For example, the way collectivists (Thailand, Vietnam, Philippines) deal with conflict tends to be indirect and emotional restraint way, whereas individualists (France, USA) prefer employing direct and emotional restraint strategies.	

Note 1: Learn more on how to improve your EI level: https://www.inc.com/young-entrepreneur-council/10-ways-to-increase-your-emotional-intelligence.html

Note 2: Learn more on how to improve your IC level: https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/tools-and-samples/toolkits/pages/interculturalcompetence.aspx

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As Vermillion et al. (2017) suggested, the essential characteristic features for the game CRIT, included clear rules, goals, and objectives that push the player to compete and win (to "get the job done"). When compared to conflict interaction in real virtual working life, CRIT presented problems and allowed the player to act in solving problems or overcoming the incident. CRIT the serious game was designed with human-in-the-loop simulations which followed five stages of simulation-based serious game development (see Table 3-10):

Table 3-10

Simulation-based serious game development

	Simulation-based serious game development	CRIT the serious game development
Stage 1	Identifying the game's purpose or objective, context, and resource	Purpose: Data collection and educational purposes Objective: Getting the job done (resolve problems) in the game Context: Players take the role of coordinator who works with international team members in a worldwide project Resource: Main characters with three cultural background types were from the characters in LINK the serious game
Stage 2	Developing model or characters	Game-based approach
Stage 3	Linking model elements with game elements	All conflict scenarios were developed based on task and relationship conflict on intercultural conflict management styles/behavior among multicultural virtual team members from cultural background types I, II, and III. And the story continued from the last scene in LINK the serious game.
Stage 4	Constructing and modification the game may use coding software	Due to the technical problem in the GenaGame platform (which was initially planned to use in CRIT), Survey Monkey was the choice selected.
Stage 5	Producing operating material and managing distribution channels	Visual images were created, and VDO materials were recorded virtually to use in CRIT the serious game. All of them were put in survey monkey for data collection.

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Specifically, CRIT included six scenes with 27-item from the LINK the serious game to measure IC levels based on six cultural dimensions. Those cultural dimensions included high vs. low power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, monochronic vs. polychronic, explicit vs. implicit communication, and universalism vs. particularism. LINK is an interactive simulation, also known as human-in-the-loop simulation, designed to understand better human interaction and behavior (Narayanan & Kidambi, 2011). It provides both realistic and controllable interactive task environments which allow players to interact in real-time through a graphical interface. Scenarios were designed to allow respondents to select their choices on each intercultural interaction. However, if their chosen choice was not the appropriate one, the game will lead them to other continued scenes that give them another chance to answer. Therefore, the skip path was designed in each cultural dimension which can be seen in chapter 3.

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Greenblat (1988) concluded that gaming-simulations had been successfully used for multiple purposes. Its advantages include increasing interest and motivation, skill development and teaching tools, changing attitude by putting people into others' roles, and self-evaluation or evaluation by others. Moreover, Rothrock (2011) suggested that researchers gather data from players in a controlled experimental environment.

Thus, CRIT uses a game-based approach that facilitates data collection that allows the players to experience different conflict scenarios and choose their preferred choices of conflict management style through gameplay. A key motivation in using the serious game for data collection is its innovative approach through entertainment value.

The critical incident technique was used in CRIT as an approach for developing conflict scenarios that reflect real-conflict situations and experiences to collect information and analyze conflict management s style behavior among multicultural virtual team members. Since all conflict scenarios were based on two types of conflict (task and relationship conflict) and deal with task accomplishment, CRIT the serious game, based on CIT theory, used "typical critical incident event." A typical critical incident event explains the experience when strategic planning/decisions align with the organizational mission. In summary, eighteen conflict scenarios in CRIT consist of nine task conflicts and nine relationship conflict scenarios with multicultural virtual team members from cultural background types I, II, and III (see Figure 3-9).

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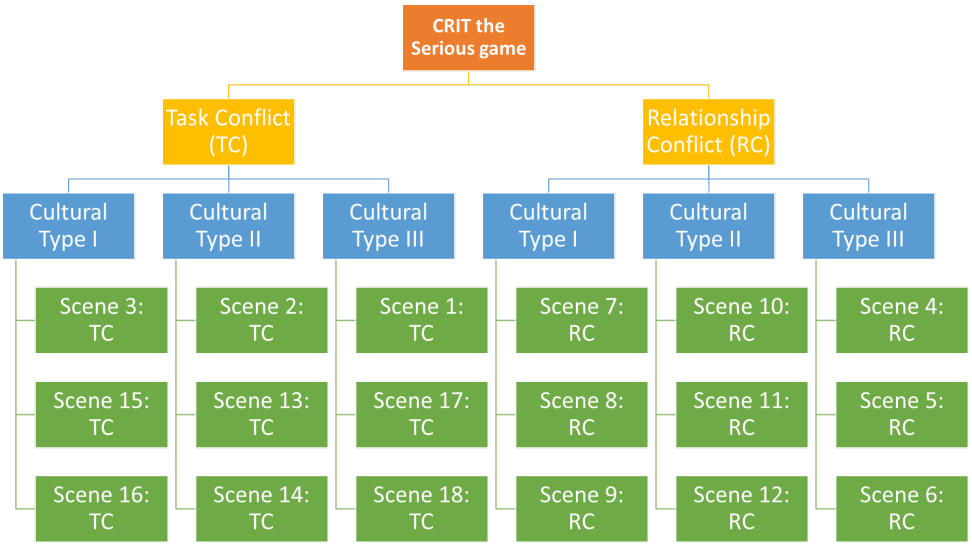
Figure 3-9

Conflict scenarios in CRIT the serious game



This game took the same context (as LINK the serious game) of multicultural virtual team members worldwide. They are collaboratively working on getting an innovative project done. The player acts as a group coordinator (team leader) and deal with different conflict scenarios and various group members who are from the same and different cultural background type I (Thailand), II (France), and III(USA), as pre-set behaviors. Communication channels used in the game include both synchronous (VDO conference, skype meeting, etc.) and asynchronous media (e-mail).

3.4.4.1 Pilot Study

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Two pilot studies were conducted to validate the validity of the scenarios. This method allowed increasing the level of validity of our instrument in measuring intercultural conflict management styles/behavior. Both pilots were conducted with members of each culture type to evaluate the internal consistency of the items and improve questions, format, and instructions. They were working professionals from academic and international business fields and master and Ph.D. students in International Business who have had virtual intercultural experience.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested that a pilot study is essential to establish the content validity of scores on an instrument. These pilot studies also provided an opportunity to assess how long the investigation will take to identify potential concerns with participant fatigue. This was beneficial for final instrument revisions. After the pilot

study, scenarios and the game interface were improved based on the pilot participants' feedback and suggestions.

In order to make CRIT the serious game as realistic as possible, the researcher developed three versions of the game in three different languages: English, French, and Thai. Demographic questionnaires, WLEIS instruments, and partial conflict scenarios were translated into French and Thai. The participants could choose between playing the game 100% in English, or playing some sections of the game in one of the two other languages. Specifically, conflict scenarios numbers 3, 7, 8, 9, 15, and 16, which interact with a character from cultural type I, were translated into Thai. And conflict scenarios numbers 2, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, which interact with cultural type II characters, were translated into French, and the rest were in English (see more details in Table 3-11).

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Table 3-11

Detail on conflict scenarios' translation

CRIT the serious game (Conflict Management in Intercultural Teams)				
Cultural Type	Nationality	Conflict Type	Scene No.	Language
I	Thai	Task	3, 15, 16	English & Thai
		Relationship	7, 8, 9	
II	French	Task	2, 13, 14	English & French
		Relationship	10, 11, 12	
III	American	Task	1, 17, 18	English
		Relationship	4, 5, 6,	

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Regarding EI measurement, to reduce bias in the respondents' answers (People Matters editorial team, 2021), the order of the original questions was randomly reverted and mixed (see below Table 3-12).

Table 3-12

Detail on reverted and mixed EI items used in CRIT

WLEIS Items (Mixed and Reverted)
Scale 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree)

Revert	Dimension	Original Item No.	New Ordering No.	Item
	SEA	1	1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
Revert	OEA	5	2	I rarely know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
	UOE	9	3	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
Revert	ROE	13	4	I am not able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
	SEA	2	5	I have good understanding of my own emotions.
Revert	OEA	6	6	I am not a good observer of others' emotions.
	UOE	10	7	I always tell myself I am a competent person.
	ROE	14	8	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
Revert	SEA	3	9	I don't really understand what I feel.
Revert	OEA	7	10	I am not sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
	UOE	11	11	I am a self-motivated person.

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Table 3-12 (Continued)

Detail on reverted and mixed EI items used in CRIT

WLEIS Items (Mixed and Reverted)
Scale 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree)

Revert	Dimension	Original Item No.	New Ordering No.	Item
	ROE	15	12	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
	SEA	4	13	I always know whether or not I am happy.
Revert	OEA	8	14	I don't have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.
	UOE	12	15	I would always encourage myself to try my best.
	ROE	16	16	I have good control of my own emotions.

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The first pilot study was done virtually on Monday, January 18, 2021, during 14.30-16.30 (Thai time). Fourteen international participants joined from five countries (UK, France, Bahrain, Thailand, and the Philippines.) They represented nine nationalities from three cultural background types (American, British, Belgium, French, German, Bahraini, Thai, Philippines, and Chinese) (See Table 3-13, and Figure 3-10). They all had experience working in multicultural virtual teams.

Table 3-13

Detail of participants in Pilot studies

Pilot Studies

Items	Date	Participants from the cultural background			Total no. of participants
		Type I	Type II	Type III	
Pilot 1	18 Jan 2021	Bahraini Chinese (2) Philippines Thai (4)	Belgium French (2)	American British German	14
Pilot 2	26 Feb 2021	Chinese Lebanese Thai	French (4)	American (2) British German (4)	14

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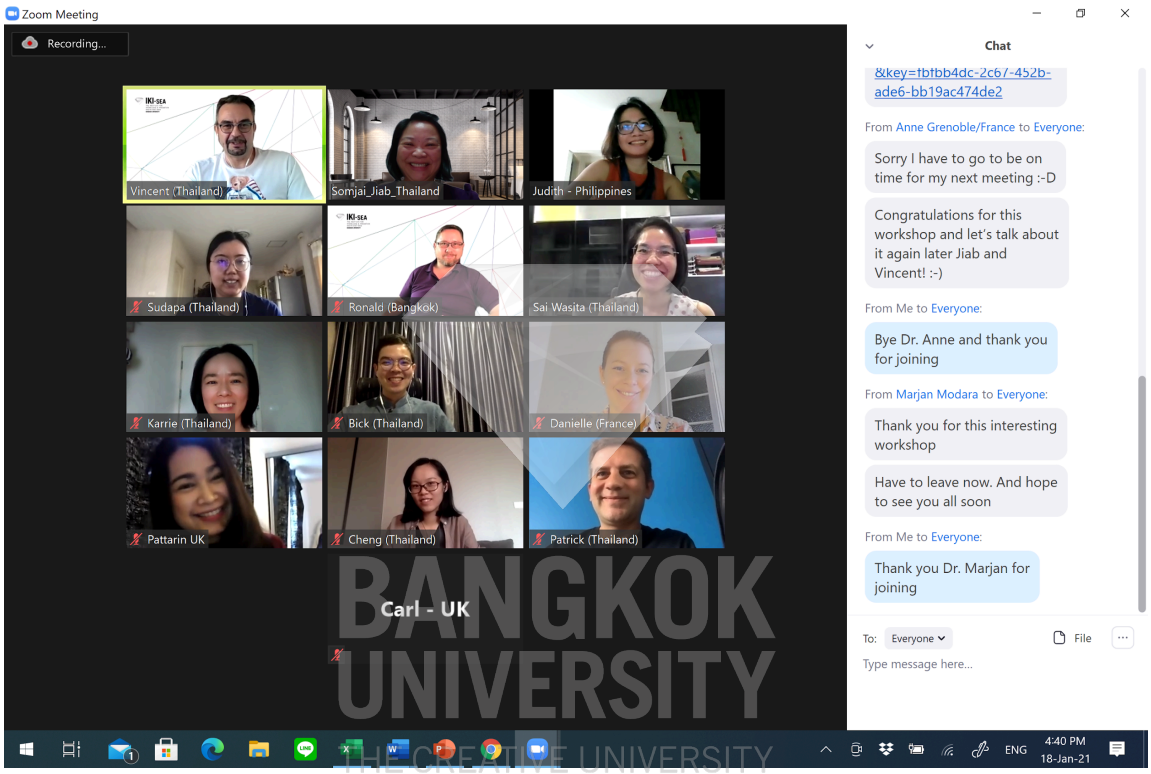
Figure 3-10

The screenshot participants in the first pilot



The sessions were divided into three parts. The first part was to give the general related information of the study, including topic, theoretical framework, literature on types of conflict, interculturally conflict management, cultural background types, cultural dimensions, and serious game methodology. Then, the examples of the storyboard were shown to help participants familiarize themselves with the storyboarding. The second part was dedicated to the break-up rooms. Participants were pre-designated (based on their cultural background type) to join in three break-up rooms which validated each cultural

background type. Each participant individually experienced six scenes in a serious game then chose their actions towards different conflict scenarios with why they chose it. Then, after finishing the game, they virtually returned to work on collaborative storyboarding. All scenarios were shown on the Mural website (See Figure 3-11), a platform and professional services that help to enable innovative teams to think and collaborate visually to add their comment, opinions, and feedback. There were four questions to help to validate each scene, which were:

Q1 Does this scene look realistic to you?

Q2 What could be added/modified to improve this scene?

Q3 Does each possible answer reflect well enough the conflict management style? What will you add/change for any of these four choices/options?

Q4 If you had to rank from 1 to 4, which answer/style will be more appropriate to answer to American) / French / Thai? What will be your ranking/ (1=most appropriate and 4=least appropriate)?

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Lastly, for the final part, all participants returned to the main room for the final group discussion and rated their overall opinion on the following topics:

1. How realistic are these scenes?
2. How attractive are these scenes?
3. How good are the proposed answer choices for each scene?
4. Instead of using at the end of each scene, an open-ended question asks why you made that choice? Should we instead have a pre-set of possible answers?

Figure 3-11

Examples of Mural, the collaborative platform, used during the pilot studies

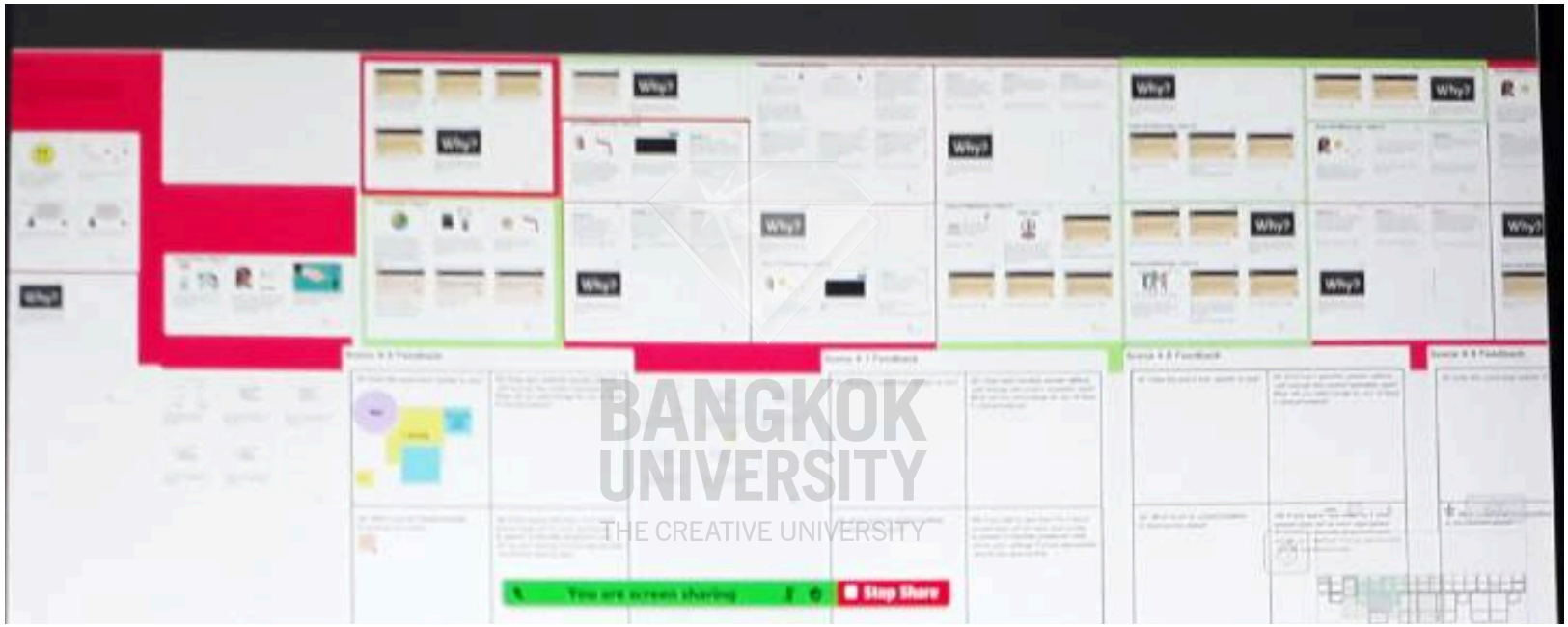

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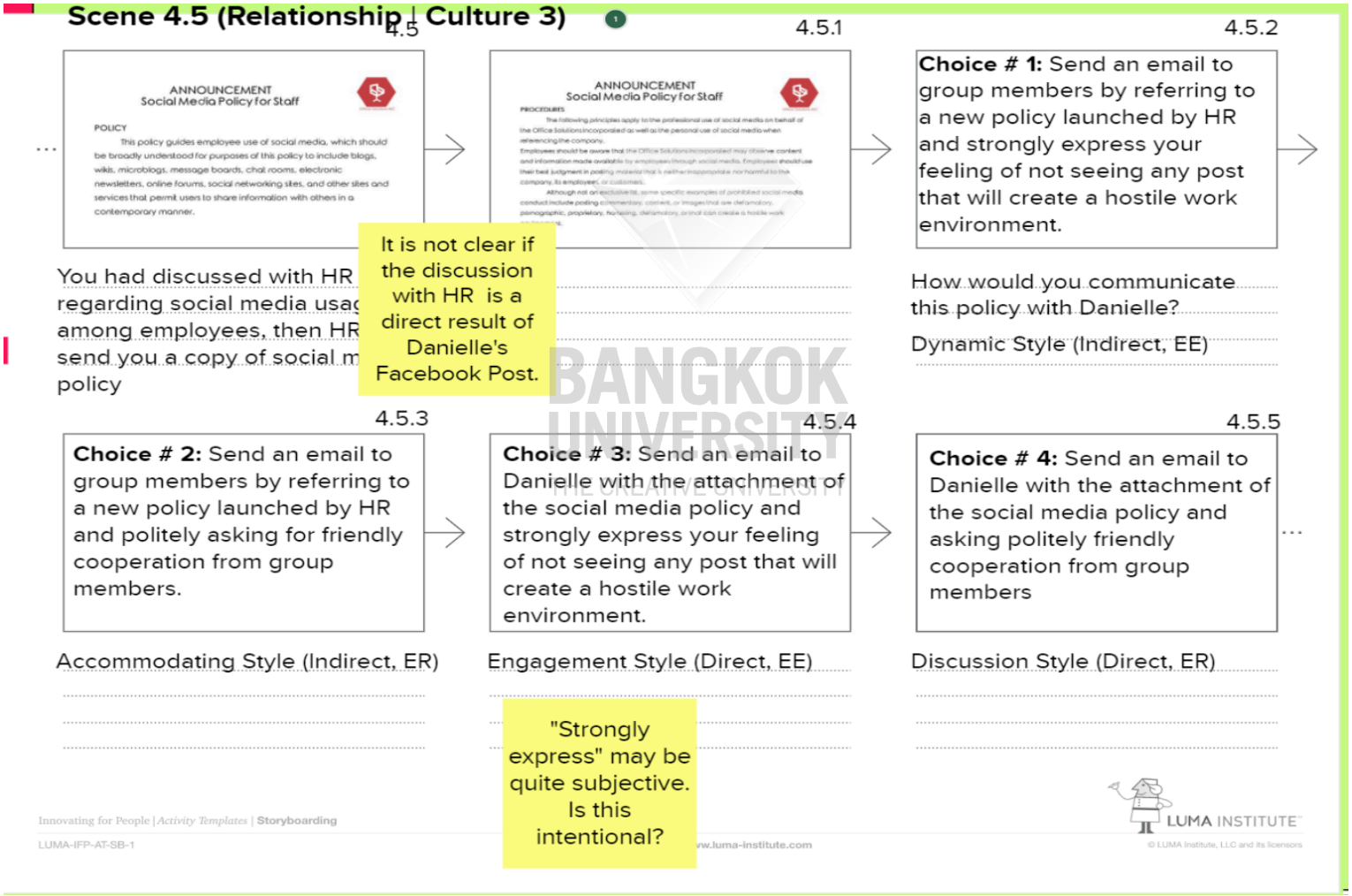
Figure 3-11 (Continued)

Examples of Mural, the collaborative platform, used during the pilot studies



The feedback from all participants from the 1st pilot is in appendix 1. However, the following part will present the summary of the answers to all questions. Most of the participants agreed that scenarios look realistic and exciting. But, the scenes that should be improved to become more realistic scenes are scenes 4, 5, 8, and 16. Furthermore, regarding the answer choices provided in each scenario, all participants considered that the engagement style, which includes a direct and emotionally expressive approach, is most inappropriate and rude. Therefore, the choices of engagement style were removed from all scenarios. In addition, some participants voiced their comments on answer' options stating that some of them were overlapping. Thus, these four scenes (scenes 4, 5, 8, and 16) and validation on answer choices were brought to the 2nd pilot study for another group of international participants to validate them, which will be further detailed later.

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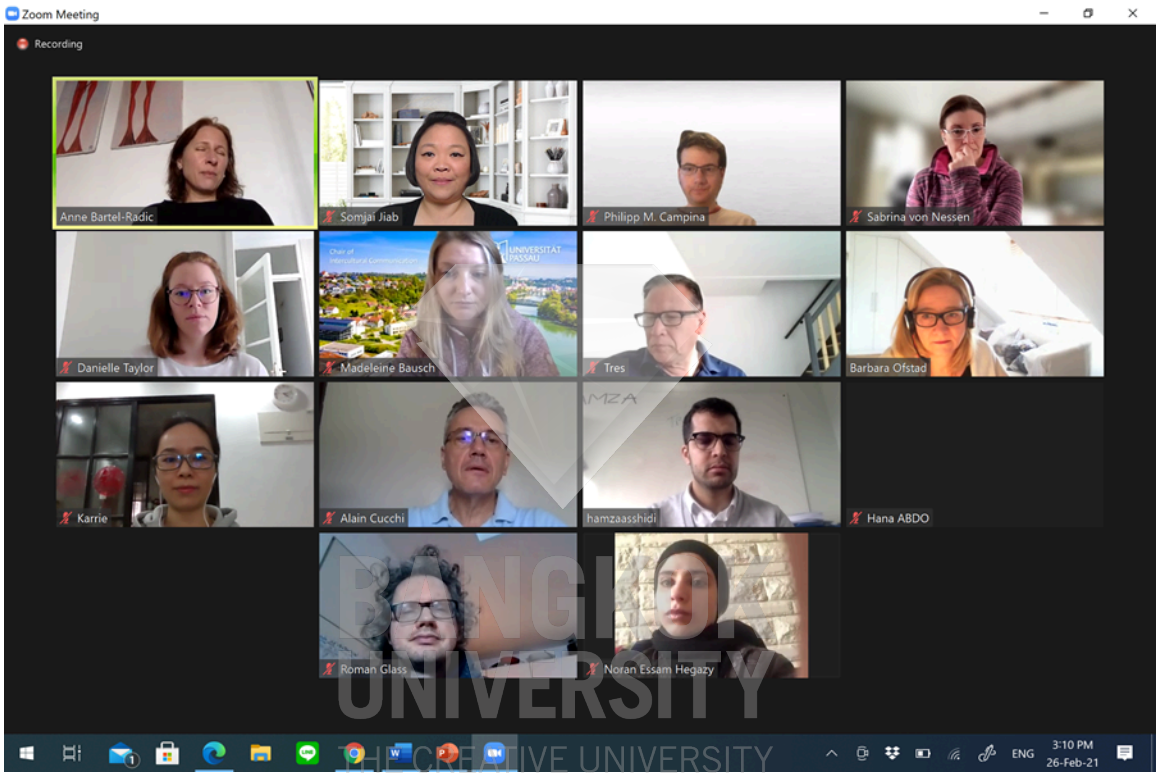
In addition, some participants mentioned that there should be more context given in the scenario. For example, the project duration, how long has the project been running, and how much time is remaining? And to make the game more interesting, more video material should be added, since emotion can hardly be shown via text.

Approximately one month after the first pilot study was held the second one virtually on Friday, February 26, 2021, from 15.00-16.30 (Thai time). There were 14 participants from three cultural background types who had direct experience in working virtually in intercultural teams, including cultural type I (Chinese, Lebanese, Thai), cultural type II (French), and cultural type III (American, British, and German). The screenshot of all participants during the 2nd pilot is shown in Figure 3-12.

Figure 3-12

The screenshot participants in the second pilot



The adjustment of the scenarios was made from the 1st pilot and used during the 2nd pilot study. The four problematic scenarios (scenes 4, 5, 8, and 16) were put into Survey Monkey and used as a test run. The link to the gameplay was sent a week before the actual second pilot was held, to help them familiarize themselves with the game scenarios and the reduce the time spent on the scenarios during the workshop. On the day of the second pilot study, the format was similar to the first pilot, which started with giving the general and brief related information of the research topic, theoretical

framework, types of conflict, intercultural conflict management, cultural background types, cultural dimensions, and serious game methodology. They were then given the link to work on improving the four scenarios (which were pointed out for further improvement from the first pilot). At the end of the session, participants returned to the open group discussion, which allowed them to express their feedback, comments, and further suggestions. The feedback from all participants from the second pilot is shown in appendix 2.

Most of them stated that the scenes look realistic, slightly entertaining, provide slightly high learning but long. Moreover, some of the answer choices were similar. Most of the answer choices didn't express well using a direct approach and conveying the emotion. Some further improvement was needed. Thus, finally, all 18 scenarios were sent to participants from three cultural background types a week after the 2nd pilot study to ask for further feedback, comment, and suggestion on each scenario in detail. As a result of pilot studies, the estimated time to complete the game is approximately 60 minutes. Then finally, the researcher incorporated those comments, feedback, and advice into the final instrument revision. The revisions for the final CRIT instruments are as follow:

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- Adding English subtitles in the videos to help the non-native players understanding the dialogue and conversation,
- Adding progressive bar or statement to notify participants on how many percent of the game they have completed,
- Revising the font to make it easier to read in an "anonymous letter",
- Modifying spelling and grammatical errors,

- Adding more context of the game in the scenario,
- Revising the possible answers to better reflect direct/indirect and emotionally expressiveness / emotional restraints, and

There are six main contents and sequences of CRIT the serious game (see Figure 3-13). The first part started with the introduction of the game. Then, demographic data of players was collected and they were required to answer the 16 items of the WLEIS scale to measure their EI level. Next, players continued with the six scenes (27 items with skip path) of LINK to measure their IC level, including their adaptation to high vs. low power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, masculinity vs. femininity, monochronic vs. polychronic, explicit vs. implicit communication, and universalism vs. particularism. Finally, eighteen different conflict scenes, based on task and relationship conflict, were presented. Players must choose between different intercultural conflict management styles/behavior based on the intercultural conflict styles inventory developed by Hammer (2005).

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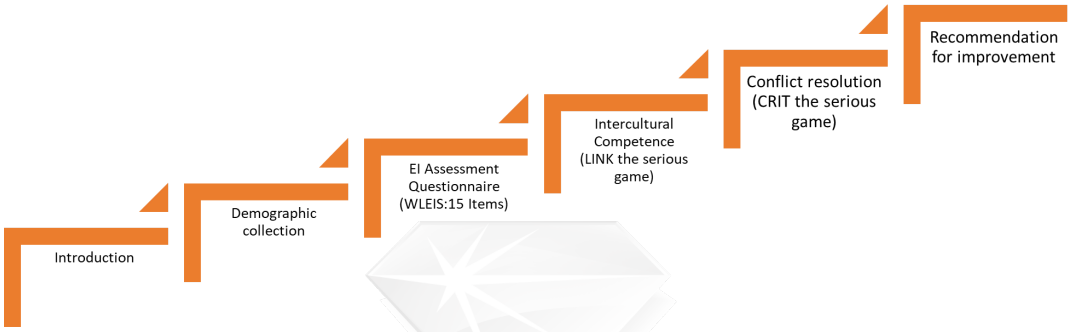
Figure 3-13

Six main contents and sequence of CRIT the serious game



In terms of data analysis, emotional intelligence (EI score) was calculated based on four dimensions: SEA (Ability to understand your emotions), OEA (Ability to understand others' emotions), UOE (Ability to use emotion to guide your performance), and ROE (Ability to manage your emotions). A more detailed presentation of the Cronbach's alpha is presented later. Intercultural competence (IC score) was calculated based on how well the players adapt to interlocutors from different cultures on the six following dimensions: High / Low Power Distance, Universalism / Particularism, Competition / Consensus, Monochronism / Polychronism, Explicit / Implicit Communication, and Individualism / Collectivism. Lastly, intercultural conflict resolution/mangement (CR score) was based on how well the Thai, French, and American players handled conflictual situations with people from various cultures (Thai, French, or American). The detailed content of the instrument, CRIT, the serious game, is shown in Table 3-14.

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Table 3-14

The detailed content of the instrument (CRIT the serious game)

Main content	Detailed content	The language used in the content
1. Introduction	- Data protection, regulations, and guidelines - Informed consent before data collection - Cover letter (introducing researchers, research objective, the approximate time for the gameplay, protecting the identity, incentive information: ten lucky participants for the lucky draw)	English / French / Thai
2. Demographic Collection	- Gender, age, education, professional status, nationality, English level, international experiences, employment status, working experience, and mood - If the respondents wish to receive the score feedback, recommendations, and/or participate in the raffle, it was optional for them to provide their first name and email	English / French / Thai
3. Measuring EI Level (Emotional Intelligence)	- WLEIS 16-item to measure EI on four main dimensions: SEA, OEA, UOE, and ROE	English / French / Thai
4. Measuring IC level (Intercultural Competence)	- Six scenarios to measure IC level including High / Low Power Distance, Universalism / Particularism, Competition / Consensus, Monochronism / Polychronism, Explicit / Implicit Communication, and Individualism / Collectivism	English

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Table 3-14 (Continued)

The detailed content of the instrument (CRIT the serious game)

Main content	Detailed content	The language used in the content
5. Measuring CR level (Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management)	- Eighteen scenarios with interaction with three main characters from cultural type I (Thai), type II (French), and type III (American). - The scenarios included both task and relationship conflicts.	English / French / Thai (The translation was made to match the main character from each cultural background type)
6. Learning objective	- Score report and recommendation, which was sent later via email.	English

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See Figure 3-14 for the steps of the data collection, Figure 3-15 for a screenshot from CRIT the serious game animated introduction, and Figure 3-16 for CRIT characters.

Figure 3-14

Steps to data collection

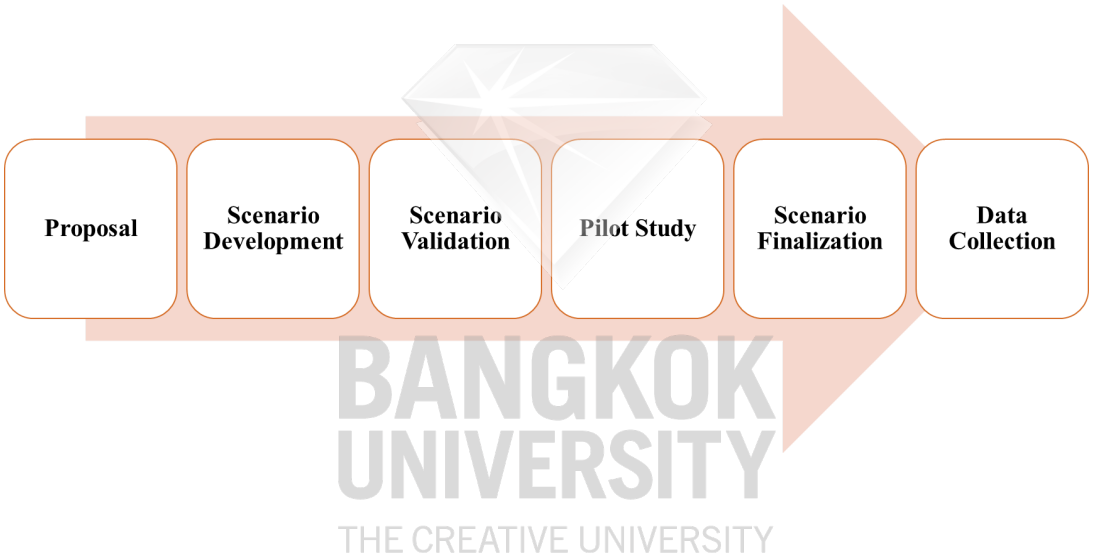

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Figure 3-15

The screenshot of CRIT the serious game animated introduction

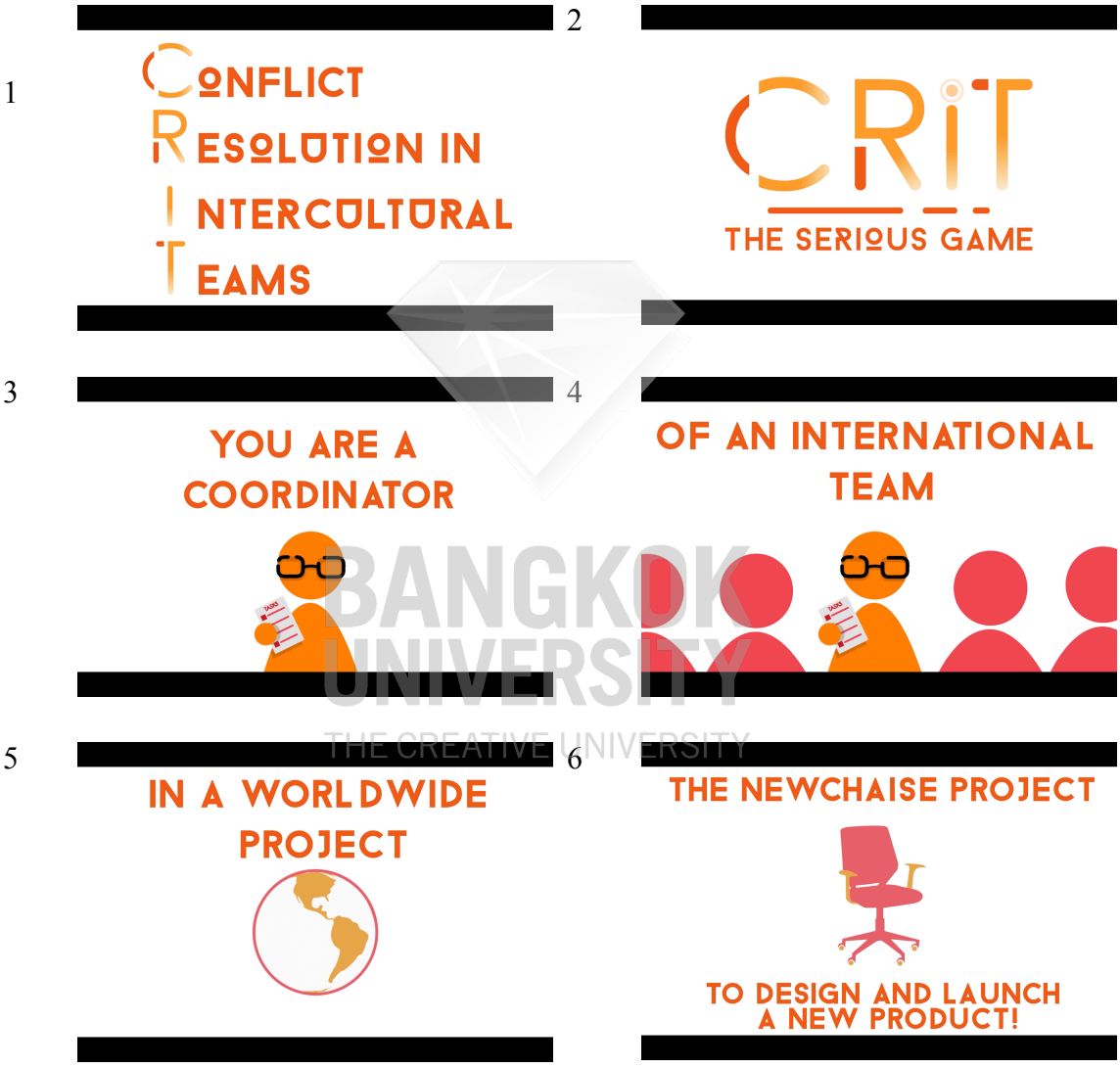

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Figure 3-15 (Continued)

The screenshot of CRIT the serious game animated introduction

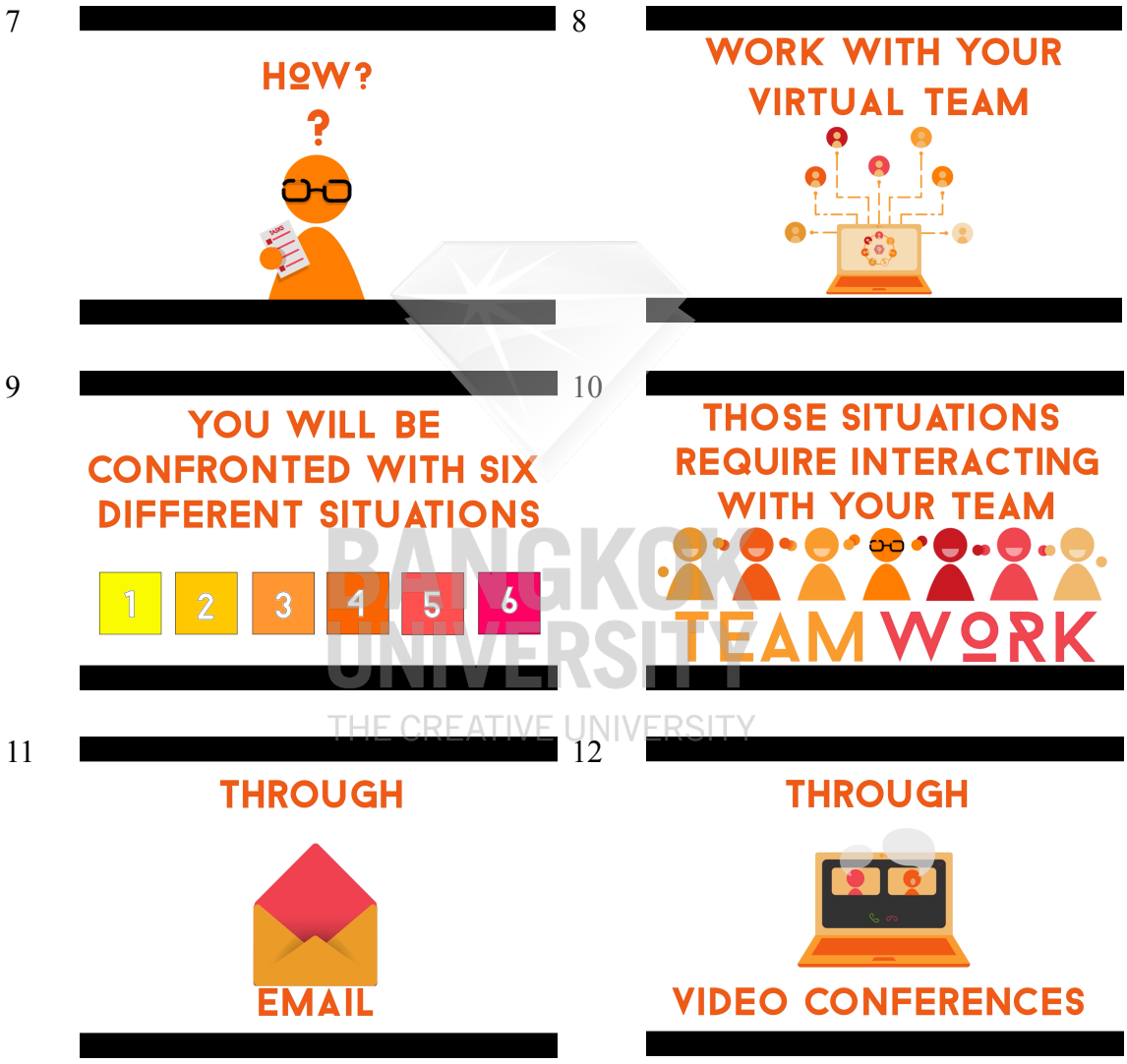

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Figure 3-15 (Continued)

The screenshot of CRIT the serious game animated introduction

Figure 3-16

Characters in CRIT the serious game

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In summary, regarding the research instrument, three versions of CRIT the serious game, including English, French, and Thai versions, were developed. However, for the French and Thai versions, it consists of approximately 25% of French or Thai content, and the rest are in English. The 16-item Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) was translated, mixed, reverted, and used to measure EI, and LINK the serious game measured the IC level. Finally, conflict scenarios, based on the intercultural conflict style inventory (ICSI), measured conflict management styles/behavior on a different task and relationship conflict.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

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The data collection through the completion of CRIT, the serious game, was launched on May 31, 2021. The researcher sent an invitation email that included the game introduction with an explicit notification of expected time spent during the gameplay, which was approximately 60 minutes, the link of the game to participants whose cultural background was of type I (Thailand), II (France), and III (USA) and incentive information. Respondents must be working professionals in public or private organizations or students in the international business field from either Thailand, France, or the USA. The links to the game are the following:

- English version: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/6LCZZ86
- French version: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/6L3NMJD
- Thai version: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/6V8GRJX

Then, one week later, a friendly reminder was sent to all participants inviting to complete the game and also taking that opportunity to thank the ones who had finished. Moreover, the "lucky draw" campaign was introduced as a motivation to complete the game. Ten lucky participants were randomly chosen from the respondents' list who completed the game and agreed to participate in the lucky draw campaign. The prizes given were ten E-gift cards from Starbuck/Amazon, worth approximately 10 dollars each, were sent electronically to French and American respondents. And the Starbucks gift cards were posted to Thai respondents. The examples of incentives/rewards for the lucky players are presented in Figure 3-17. The data collection went for about four weeks until June 29, 2021, with a total of 357 respondents who completed the game. The average time spent to complete the game was 55 minutes.

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Figure 3-17

Examples of incentives for the lucky players

The Prize for Thai winners

The Prize for the French and American winners

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3.6 Summary of Demographic Data

1. Gender: male and female
2. Age: 18-65 years old (working professionals and master and Ph.D. students).
3. Educational level, English level, employment status, working experience, work sector, and mood
4. Nationality: from listed countries with cultural background type I (Thailand), II (France), and III (USA)
5. International Experience
    a. Which country did you primarily live in during your formative years to age 18?
    b. In which country have you spent most time of your life?
    c. How often do you interact with international colleagues?
6. Past Virtual Project Experience
    a. The role assigned in the Virtual project

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3.7 Reliability of The Instruments

This study employed two instruments to measure the main variables. WLEIS (16-item) was used to measure emotional intelligence (EI), and the serious game was used to measure intercultural competence (IC) and intercultural conflict management behaviors (CS).

Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the EI instrument on four EI dimensions: SEA, OEA, ROE, and UOE. Initially, there were 16-item WLEIS to measure EI, with a scale from 1 to 7 (strongly disagree to strongly agree). The value of Cronbach's Alpha ranges between 0 and 1 indicating the reliability, and the value for Cronbach's Alpha for EI was $\alpha = .82$, which is considered as an acceptable reliability. Table 3-15 shows the exact value for Cronbach's Alpha for EI and its four EI dimensions.

Table 3-15

The value for Cronbach's Alpha for EI

Scale: Emotional Intelligence	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
EI	.82	.82	16
EI_SEA	.58	.61	4
EI_OEA	.84	.84	4
EI_UOE	.77	.77	4
EI_ROE	.68	.70	4

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Then, the serious game was used to measure intercultural competence (IC score) and intercultural conflict resolution/management (CS score). The IC and CS measures were carefully developed and checked by a group of expert scholars and working

professionals in intercultural management. The researcher strictly follows the essential guide of reliable scoring, which is consistency. The scoring guides are interpreted in the same way to ensure the same responses achieve the same score (Wagemaker, 2020). The scores were based on the cultural dimensions theory and intercultural conflict management approaches. As mentioned earlier in chapter 3, there were 27 items that measure IC levels as adaptation to the following six cultural dimensions: high vs. low power distance, universalism vs. particularism, masculinity vs. femininity, monochronic vs. polychronic, explicit vs. implicit communication, and individualism vs. collectivism. This serious game used a skip path to allow more chances to measure IC on the intercultural interaction. The IC scores given for each scene are presented in Table 3-16 below.

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Table 3-16

IC Score sheet

Score for Intercultural Competence					
Cultural Dimension	**No.**	**Scene No**	**Question No**	**Choice**	**Score**
High vs. Low Power Distance	1	S 0.1.0	Q39	A	1
				B	Skip to Q41
				C	Skip to Q40
	2	S 0.1.1	Q40	A	5
				B	1
	3	S 0.1.2	Q41	A	2
				B	3
				C	Skip to Q42
	4	S 0.1.3	Q42	A	5
				B	3
				C	1

Table 3-16 (Continued)

IC Score sheet

Score for Intercultural Competence					
Cultural Dimension	**No.**	**Scene No**	**Question No**	**Choice**	**Score**
High vs. Low Power Distance	5	S 0.1.4	Q43	A	1
				B	3
				C	5
Universalism vs. Particularism	6	S 0.3	Q44	A	Skip to Q46
				B	Skip to Q48
				C	Skip to Q51
				D	Skip to Q45
	7	S 0.3.5	Q45	A	4
				B	3
				C	5
	8	S 0.3.1	Q46	A	1
				B	Skip to Q47
	9	S 0.3.2	Q47	A	3
				B	2
	10	S 0.3.3.1	Q48	A	5
				B	3
				C	1
	11	S 0.3.3.2	Q49	A	2
				B	5
				C	4
	12	S 0.3.3.3	Q50	A	1
				B	4
				C	5
	13	S 0.3.4.1	Q51	A	5
				B	3
				C	1
	14	S 0.3.4.2	Q52	A	5
				B	3
				C	1
	15	S 0.3.4.3	Q53	A	2
				B	5
				C	4

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Table 3-16 (Continued)

IC Score sheet

Score for Intercultural Competence					
Cultural Dimension	**No.**	**Scene No**	**Question No**	**Choice**	**Score**
Masculinity vs. Femininity	16	0.4.0	Q54	A	1
				B	4
				C	2
				D	5
Monochronic vs. Polychronic	17	S 0.5.0	Q55	A	5
				B	3
				C	3
	18	S 0.5.1	Q56	A	2
				B	5
				C	4
				D	1
Explicit vs. Implicit communication	19	S 0.6.0	Q57	A	1
				B	Skip to Q58
				C	Skip to Q59
	20	S 0.6.1	Q58	A	1
				B	3
				C	3
				D	5
	21	S 0.6.2.1	Q59	A	1
				B	3
				C	5
	22	S 0.6.2.2	Q60	A	5
				B	3
				C	1
	23	S 0.6.2.3	Q61	A	3
				B	4
				C	2
Individualism vs. Collectivism	24	S 0.7.0.2	Q62	A	Skip to Q63
				B	Skip to Q64
	25	S 0.7.1	Q63	A	1
				B	3
				C	1

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Table 3-16 (Continued)

IC Score sheet

Individualism vs. Collectivism	26	S 0.7.2	Q64	A	5
				B	4
				C	2
	27	S 0.7.2. 1	Q65	A	5
				B	4
				C	2

Finally, the last part of the game measured intercultural conflict management styles/behavior or ICS score, based on 18 items measuring two main dimensions: communication approach (direct/indirect) and emotional strategy (emotional expressiveness/emotional restraint). The expected intercultural conflict behavior was defined to develop the scoring theme based on a literature review on the cultural dimensions. Based on chapter two, people from high power distance and collectivism tend to use indirect communication approach and emotional restraint strategy; on the contrary, people from low power distance and individualism tend to be more direct and emotionally expressive. Thus, accommodation style (direct & emotional restraint) was defined as an expected ICS for Thai, dynamic style (indirect & emotional expressive) was for French, and discussion style (direct & emotional restraint) was for American. The ICS score sheet is shown in Table 3-17 below.

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Table 3-17

ICS Score Sheet

The score for Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior (ICS)

Expected ICS style	Score for			Communication Approach		Emotional Strategy	
	Type I (Thailand)	Type II (France)	Type III (USA)	Direct	Indirect	EE	ER
ACCOMMODATION	5	3	3		√		√
DYNAMIC	3	5	1		√	√	
DISCUSSION	3	1	5	√			√

Scene No	Question No	Choice	Score	Interaction with CRIT character from:			Expected ICS Behavior			
				Type I (Thailand)	Type II (France)	Type III (USA)	Direct	Indirect	EE	ER
1	Q66	1_Dynamic	1			√		√	√	
		2_Accommodation	3					√		√
		3_Discussion	5				√			√
2	Q67	1_Dynamic	5		√			√	√	
		2_Accommodation	3					√		√
		3_Discussion	1				√			√
3	Q68	1_Dynamic	3	√				√	√	
		2_Accommodation	5					√		√
		3_Discussion	3				√			√
4	Q71	1_Discussion	5			√	√			√
		2_Accommodation	3					√		√
		3_Dynamic	1					√	√	

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Table 3-17 (Continued)

ICS Score Sheet

Scene No	Question No	Choice	Score	Interaction with CRIT character from:			Expected ICS Behavior			
				Type I (Thailand)	Type II (France)	Type III (USA)	Direct	Indirect	EE	ER
5	Q72	1_Dynamic	1					√	√	
		2_Accommodation	3			√		√		√
		3_Discussion	5				√			√
6	Q73	1_Accommodation	3					√		√
		2_Dynamic	1			√		√	√	
		3_Discussion	5				√			√
7	Q74	1_Accommodation	5					√		√
		2_Dynamic	3	√				√	√	
		3_Discussion	3				√			√
8	Q75	1_Discussion	3				√			√
		2_Accommodation	5	√				√		√
		3_Dynamic	3					√	√	
9	Q76	1_Discussion	3				√			√
		2_Dynamic	3	√				√	√	
		3_Accommodation	5					√		√
10	Q77	1_Discussion	1				√			√
		2_Dynamic	5		√			√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√

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Table 3-17 (Continued)

ICS Score Sheet

Scene No	Question No	Choice	Score	Interaction with CRIT character from:			Expected ICS Behavior			
				Type I (Thailand)	Type II (France)	Type III (USA)	Direct	Indirect	EE	ER
11	Q78	1_Discussion	1		√		√			√
		2_Dynamic	5					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√
12	Q81	1_Discussion	1		√		√			√
		2_Dynamic	5					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√
13	Q82	1_Discussion	1		√		√			√
		2_Dynamic	5					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√
14	Q83	1_Discussion	1		√		√			√
		2_Dynamic	5					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√
15	Q84	1_Discussion	3	√			√			√
		2_Dynamic	3					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	5					√		√
16	Q85	1_Discussion	3	√			√			√
		2_Dynamic	3					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	5					√		√

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Table 3-17 (Continued)

ICS Score Sheet

Scene No	Question No	Choice	Score	Interaction with CRIT character from:			Expected ICS Behavior			
				Type I (Thailand)	Type II (France)	Type III (USA)	Direct	Indirect	EE	ER
17	Q86	1_Discussion	5			√	√			√
		2_Dynamic	1					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√
18	Q87	1_Discussion	5			√	√			√
		2_Dynamic	1					√	√	
		3_Accommodation	3					√		√

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3.8 Methods of Data Analysis

In terms of data analysis, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) was used to analyze the data. Analysis of variance (ANOVA), regression analysis, T-Test, and Chi-Square were used to analyze the data in this study. The details of the main variables are listed in Table 3-18.

Table 3-18

Details of the main variables

Variables	Variable Type	No. of items	Dimensions/Types
Emotional Intelligence	Continuous Variable	16	SEA, OEA, UOE, and ROE
Intercultural Competence	Discrete Variable	14-21	High vs. Low Power Distance, Universalism vs. Particularism, Masculinity vs. Femininity, Monochronic vs. Polychronic, Explicit vs. Implicit Communication, and Individualism vs. Collectivism
Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior	Discrete Variable	18	Task and Relationship Conflict

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Field (2018) stated that analysis of variance, or ANOVA, is a statistical procedure that uses the *F-statistic* to test the overall fit of a linear model. In experimental research, this linear model tends to be defined in group means, and the resulting ANOVA is, therefore, an overall test of whether group means differ. Thus, ANOVA was used to analyze the differences among respondents from Thailand, France, and the USA in using different Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior in a conflict, task conflict, and relationship conflict in hypotheses 1, 1.1, and 1.2. Additionally, planned contrasts were used to compare between group means. Field (2018) mentioned that these contrasts

are theory-led comparisons and are based on partitioning the variance created by the overall effect of group differences into gradually smaller portions of variance. Indeed, these tests have more power than *post hoc tests*. In addition, contrast coding was used. Contrast coding assigns weights to groups in dummy variables to carry out planned contrasts known as planned comparisons. Weights are set so that the contrasts are independent, which means that the overall Type I error rate is controlled. It is also used to compare every group mean to all others.

Regression analysis uses the equation of Y as a function of X, or Y = f(X), to describe the association between two variables, whether X causes Y or not. And linear regression analysis helps to seek the equation for the straight line that could explain the relationship between two variables (Babbie, 2010). In social sciences, R-Squared of 0.5 is considered relatively strong; however, it varies in different fields of study. Whereas R-Squared below 0.4 would result in a low correlation (Field, 2018).

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For H2, 2.1, and 2.2, a linear regression analysis was employed to describe the relationship between emotional intelligence and intercultural conflict management styles used to handle intercultural conflict. Then, the T-Test was further used to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of the two groups: medium and high EI, and Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior in the conflict in general, and task conflict and relationship conflict.

Finally, Chi-Square, which refers to Pearson's chi-square test of the independence of two categorical variables, was used to test whether two categorical variables forming a *contingency table* are associated. It is used to see whether there is a relationship between

two categorical variables. It compares the frequencies observed in specific categories to the frequencies that might be expected in these categories in distribution by chance. It was used to analyze the influence of EI and IC on the use and adaptation of Intercultural Conflict Management behavior when respondents were confronted with conflicts (task conflicts and relationship conflicts) with a member from a different culture in a virtual multicultural project group (hypotheses 3.1, 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.2, 3.2.1, 3.2.2, 4.1, 4.1.1, 4.1.2, 4.2, 4.2.1, and 4.2.2). Furthermore, phi (φ) was used to measure the strength of the association between two categorical variables. It is a variant of the *Chi-Square test*, x^2 (Field, 2018). It is calculated by taking the chi-square value, dividing it by the sample size, and then taking the square root (Akoglu, 2018).

The interpretation of Phi and Cramer's V is shown in Figure 3-18.

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Figure 3-18

The interpretation of Phi and Cramer's V

Phi and Cramer's V	Interpretation
> 0.25	Very strong
> 0.15	Strong
> 0.10	Moderate
> 0.05	Weak
> 0	No or very weak

3.9 Ethics

According to Kumar (2005), collecting information without participants' knowledge and expressed willingness and informed consent is unethical. Babbie (2004) also highlighted that researchers should not force the respondent to participate. Thus, the researcher sought to obtain the respondents' informed consent before the data collection process. Participation was voluntary and without the pressure of any kind. Moreover, it is also recognized as unethical in sharing respondents' information with others due to protect subjects' interests and identity (Babbie, 2004). Therefore, to ensure the code of ethics in conducting research, the researcher included informed consent in the game, no pressure on the players' participation, and notified the players that the data collecting from respondents would be kept anonymous to maintain confidentiality.

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In conclusion, this study is based on a positivist research paradigm and employed quasi-experimental research to investigate the relationship of emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict management behavior among leaders/coordinators in multicultural virtual teams. Regarding the population studied in this research, including sub-sample from three nationalities from different cultural dimensions: power distance and collectivist/individualist. They were male and female graduate students and working professionals between 18-65 from Thailand, France, and the USA. The sampling design methods were purposive or judgmental, snowball, and quota sampling. Regarding the research instrument, WLEIS (16-item) was used to measure EI. An innovative data collection, called "The serious game," based on critical

incident techniques, was used to measure IC on six cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001), Hall and Hall (1990), and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2003), and ICS on eighteen conflict scenarios with different choices of ICS based on Hammer (2005). The development of the serious game was precisely elaborated. And all contents were added to the survey monkey platform. Moreover, interviews, focus—groups, collaborative workshops, pilot studies were conducted with leaders and members of international innovation project teams to ensure the validity of scenarios and choices for players to select.

Finally, during the data collection procedure, the estimated time duration for game completion (approximately 60 minutes), lucky draw campaign (to motivate the players to complete the game), a request for score feedback and recommendation (to learn a particular knowledge from the game), and informed consent were introduced. Lastly, Chi-Square and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to analyze the data and hypotheses testing.

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CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results and statistical analysis of the study, which aims to investigate and compare the influence of emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict behavior of multicultural virtual team leaders from different cultural backgrounds in both task and relationship conflicts. A serious game developed on purpose was used for data collection in this quasi-experimental research. The data were analyzed with version 25 of IBM's SPSS software package.

The data were analyzed to answer the following research questions:

RQ1.1: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management style during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of task conflict?

RQ1.2: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management style during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of relationship conflict?

RQ2.1: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict?

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RQ2.2: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict?

RQ3.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

RQ3.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

RQ4.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

RQ4.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

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The chapter includes two main sections: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics present a quantitative description that summarizes the characteristics of a sample and identifies the relationship among the variables—moreover, inferential statistics inferences findings from studied samples to some larger population (Babbie, 2010).

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Data On Demographics

Three hundred fifty-seven respondents participated in the study, but 18 were excluded because of incomplete data or their unmatched nationality based on our selected studied countries. Therefore, 339 respondents were included in this study. They were from three cultural background types: Thai for cultural type I (N=106), French for cultural type II (N=114), and US-American for cultural type III (N=119).

Field (2018) suggested, on the art of presenting data and how to make friends with data, that data should be presented with a profile picture by using graphs, charts, or other kinds of visual aids. Therefore, the demographic information for all respondents (N=339) is presented in pie charts and graphs in Figure 4-1 below. Moreover, the charts and graphs showed demographic data from three cultural background respondents in appendix 3-5.

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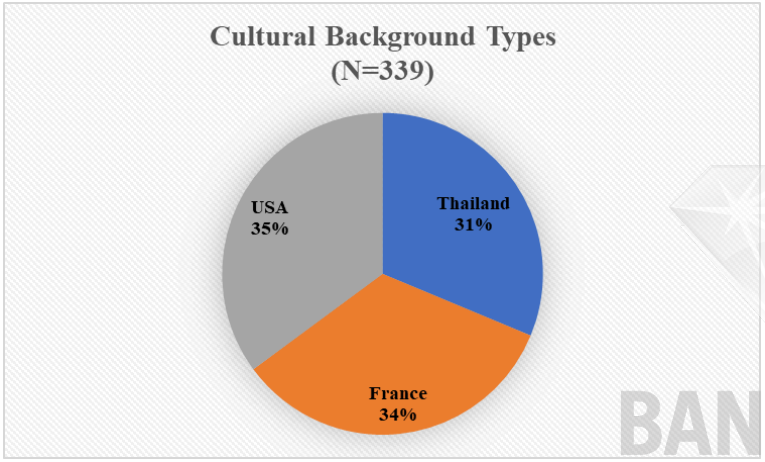
Figure 4-1

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



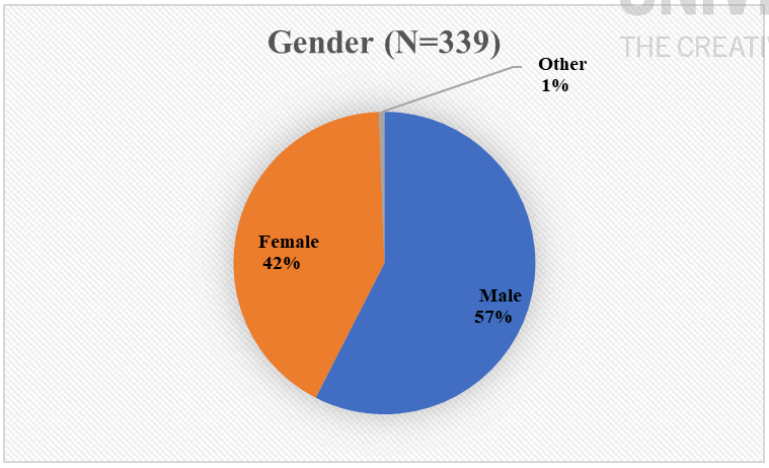


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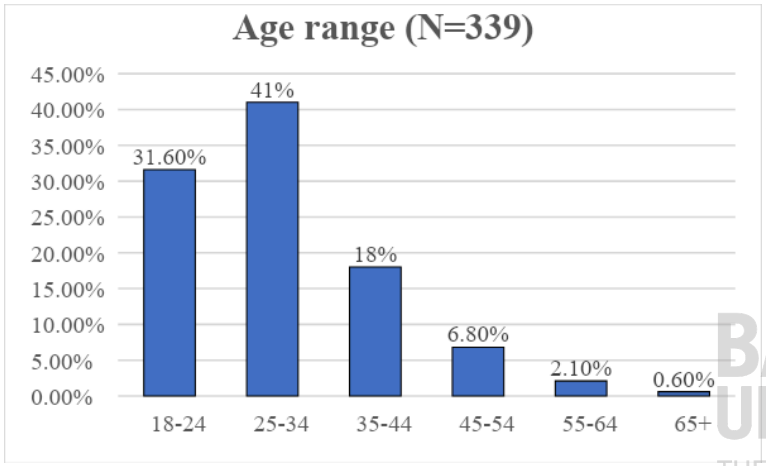
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



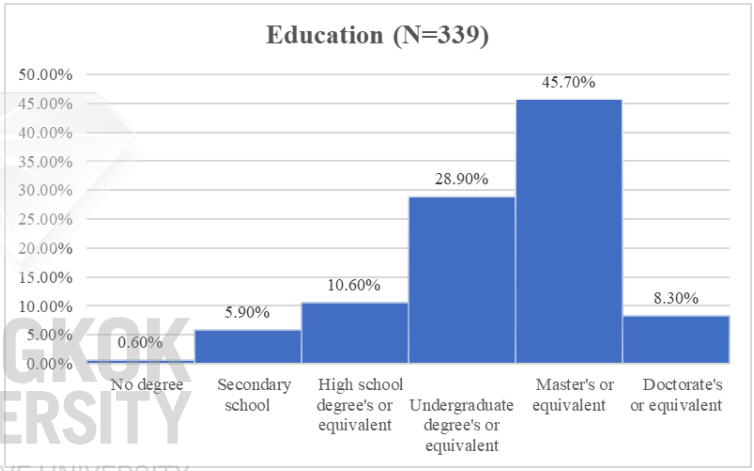


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Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)

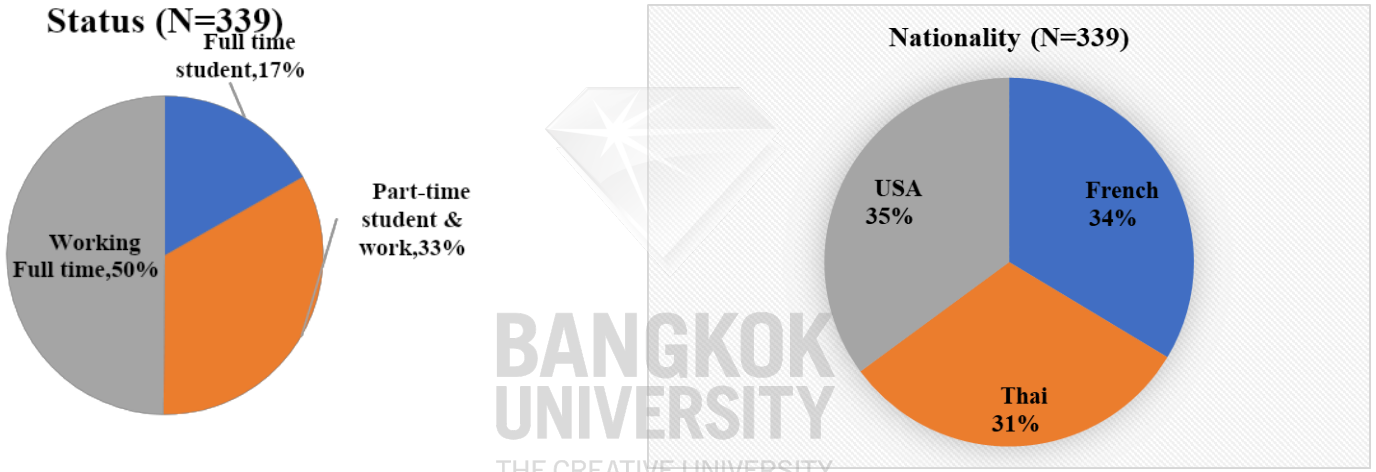

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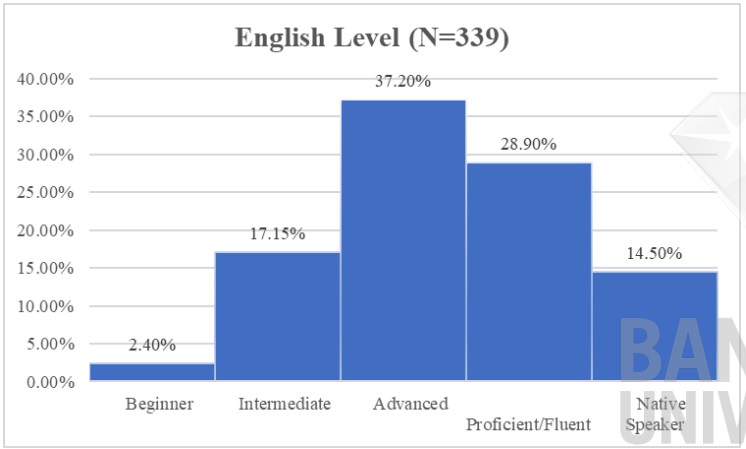
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



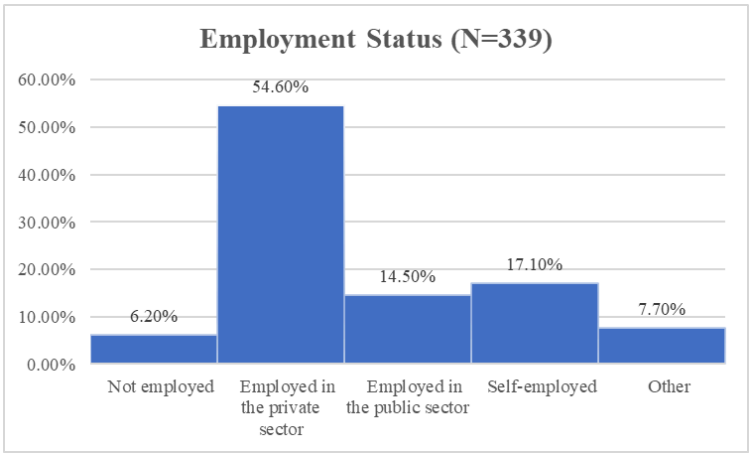


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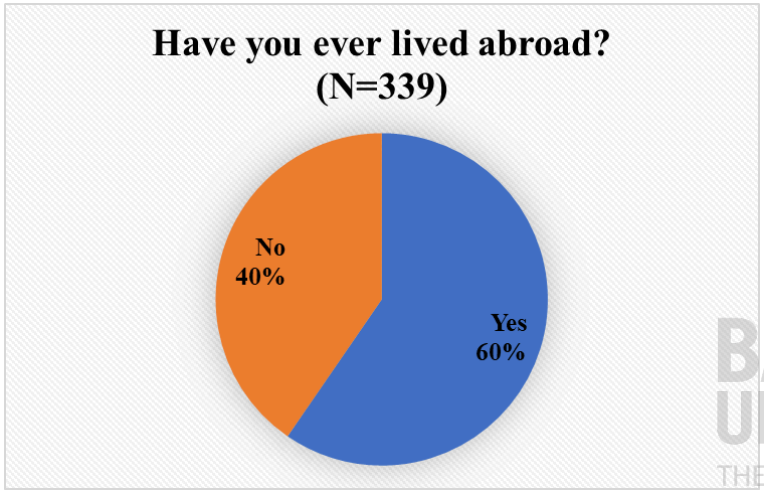
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



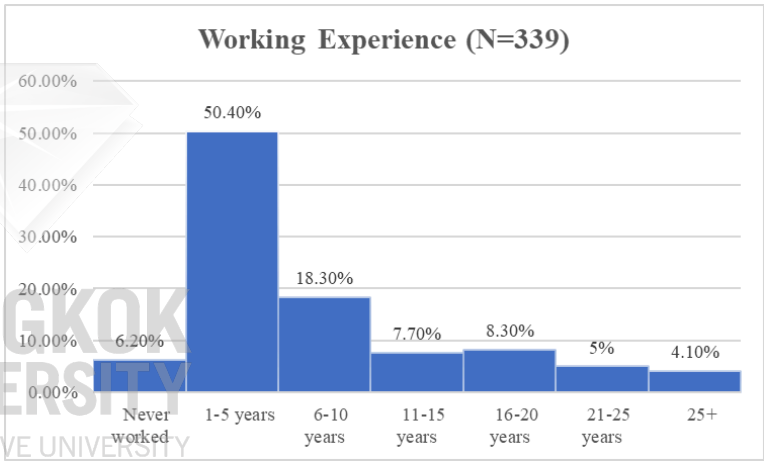


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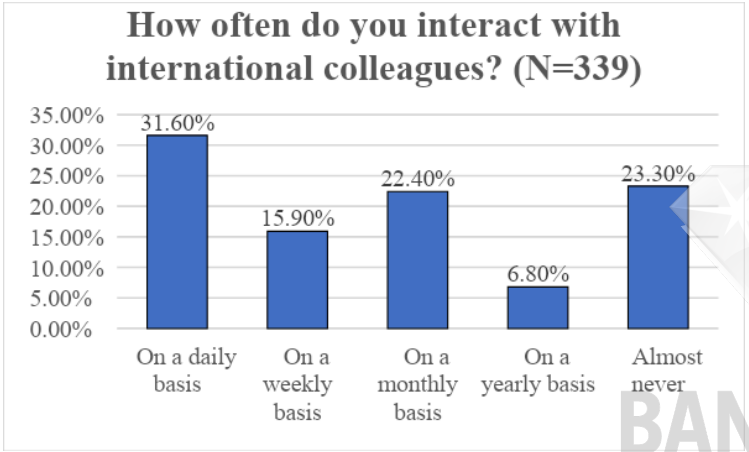
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



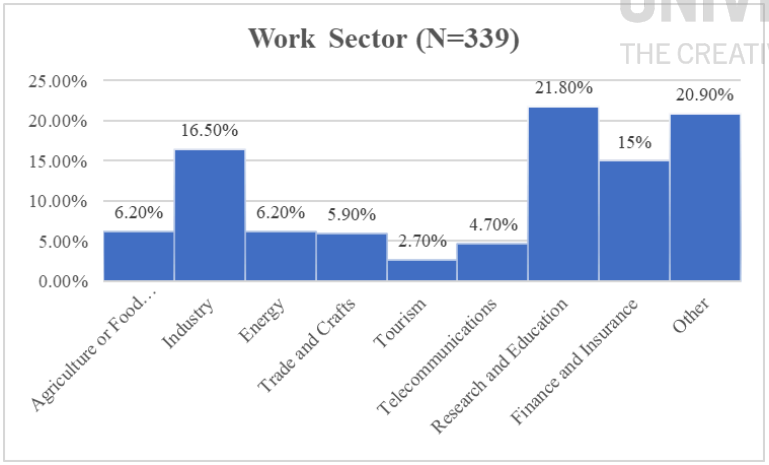


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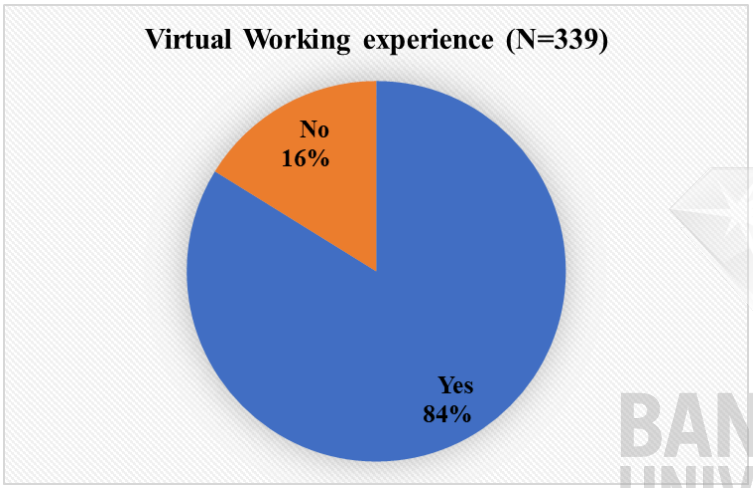
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)



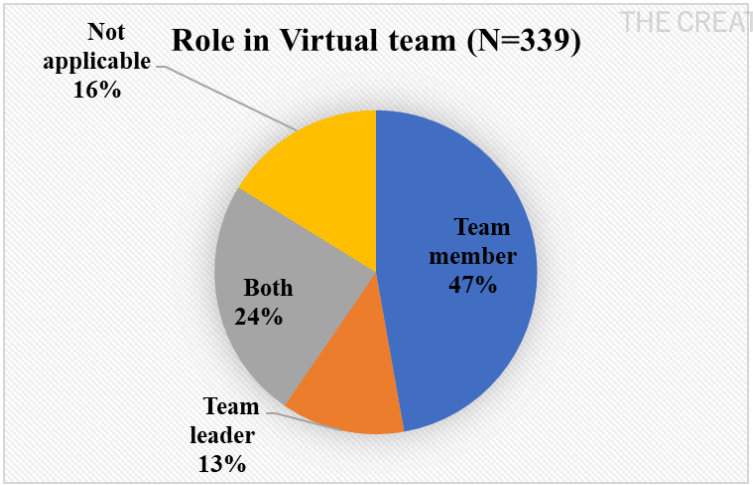


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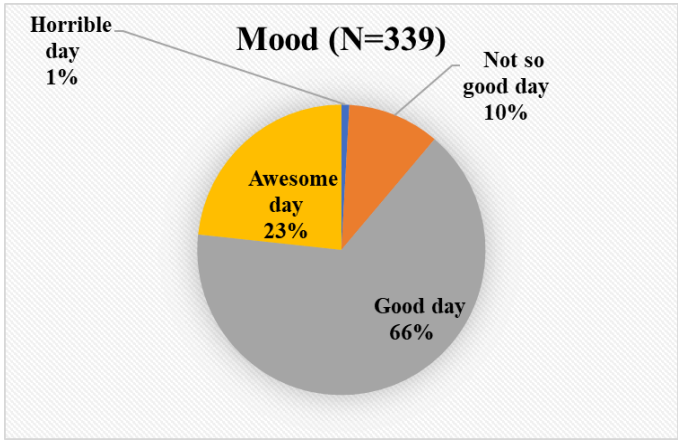
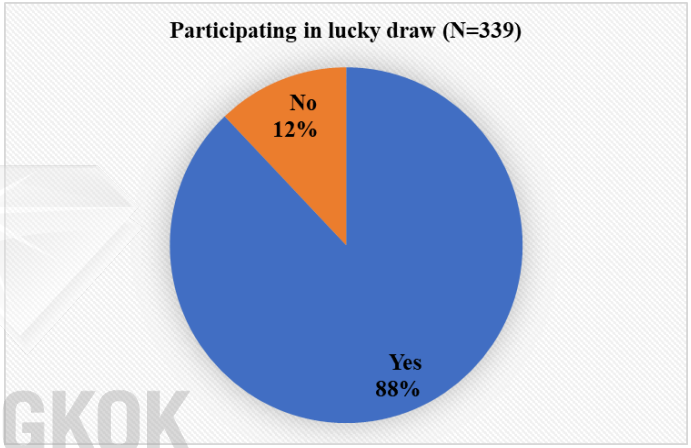
Figure 4-1 (Continued)

Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data (N=339)





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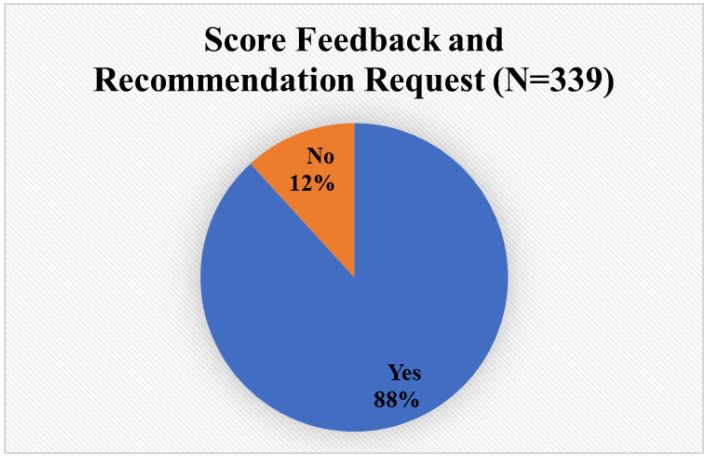

Specifically, all 339 respondents were from cultural type I (Thai respondents, 31.3%), cultural type II (French respondents, 33.6%), or cultural type III (American respondents, 35.1%). Regarding gender, the largest group were male (57.5%), followed by female (41.9%), and another gender (0.6%). The age range was from 15 to over 65, and the most frequent age category was from 25 to 34 (41%), followed by 18-24 (31.6%) (M = 19.22, SD = 3.45), 35-44 (18%), 45-54 (6.8%), 55-64 (2.1%), and 65 up (0.6%) consecutively.

For educational background, the majority of them hold Master degree's or equivalent education (45.7%); followed by an undergraduate degree or equivalent (28.9%), high school degree's or equivalent education (10.6%), doctorate's or equivalent (8.3%), secondary school (5.9%), and no degree (0.6%).

Concerning their professional status, most of them were working professionals (67.3%) or students (32.7%). The majority of them were employed in the private sector (54.6%), followed by self-employed (17.1%), employed in the public sector (14.5%), other (7.7%), and a minor percentage were those who are not employed (6.2%). Most of them worked in research and education (21.8%), followed by “other” (20.9%), industry (16.5%), finance and insurance (15%), agriculture or food industry, and energy with an equal percentage of 6.2 each, trade and crafts (5.9%), telecommunications (4.7%), and tourism (2.7%) respectively. Their working experience was ranked as 1-5 years (50.4%), 6-10 years (18.3%), 16-20 years (8.3%), 11-15 years (7.7%), never worked (6.2%), 21-25 years (5%), and more than 25 years (4.1%) respectively.

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Considering their international experience, most of them had lived abroad before (59.6%), while 40.4 % had never lived abroad. Most of them have comparably high English levels; advanced (37.2%), proficient/fluent (28.9%), intermediate (17.1%), native speaker (14.5%), and only a few with a beginner level (2.4%). Regarding their interaction with international colleagues, they interact mainly daily (31.6%), rarely (23.3), monthly (22.4%), weekly (15.9%), and lastly, yearly (6.8%).

Furthermore, most of them have had experience working virtually (83.8%), and only 16.2% have never had this experience. Regarding their role in the virtual team, most of them were team members (47.2%), followed by taking both team member and team leader roles (24.2%). 12.4% were team leaders, and 16.2% considered this question as not applicable, indicating that these respondents are not working in a team. Concerning the mood and feeling of respondents on the day they completed the game, most of them stated that it was a good day for them (65.5%), followed by a fabulous day (23.3%), not so good day (10.3%), and only a few mentioned it was a horrible day (0.9%).

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The primary objective of the serious game in this study was not pure entertainment but to serve as a learning tool. Researchers had asked respondents about their intention in receiving their score feedback and recommendation, and most of them agreed to get it (88.2%). Only a few declined (11.8%). And lastly, in terms of motivation which came in the form of incentive for respondents to complete the game, 87.9% agreed to participate in a lucky draw campaign while 12.1% declined this proposition.

Figure 4-1 is used to compare the demographic data between the three sub-samples of cultural types by reporting the categories with the highest percentage of respondents per question. For culture type I or Thai respondents (N=106), most of them were female (66%), working full time (64.2%) in the private sector (43.4%), mainly in the sector of research and education (27.4%), and have 6 to 10 years working experience (24.5%). The most frequent age range goes from 35-44 (41.5%), and they hold masters or equivalent degrees (43.4%). The majority of them had lived abroad before (68.9 %) and interacted with international colleagues daily (45.3%). Their English level was most often advanced (38.7%). Regarding the virtual working experience, most of them have had experience working virtually (70.8%), and their role in the virtual team was both team leader and team member (36.8%). Furthermore, regarding the mood and feeling of Thai respondents on the day they completed the game, most of them stated that it was a good day for them (76.4%). And finally, most of them agreed to have score feedback and recommendation (82.1%) and decided to participate in a lucky draw campaign (84%).

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Concerning demographic data for culture type II (French respondents, N=114), most of them were male (64.9%), working and studying part-time (58.8%) in the private sector (70.2%), especially in the industrial sector (37.6%) and have 1 to 5 years working experience (72.8%). Their ages often range from 18-24 (52.6%), and they hold masters or equivalent degrees (75.4%). The majority of them had lived abroad before (71.9 %) and interacted with international colleagues daily (32.5%). Their English level was at an advanced level (53.5%). Most of them have had experience working virtually (89.5%), and their role in the virtual team was team members (57%). Furthermore, regarding the

mood and feeling of French respondents on the day they completed the game, most of them stated that it was a good day (73.7%). And lastly and most of them agree to have score feedback and recommendation (91.2%) and agree to participate in a lucky draw campaign (81.6%).

Lastly, the maximum percentage of demographic data for culture type III (American respondents, N=119) is presented. The majority of them were male (73.1%), working full time (57.1%) in the private sector (49.6%), especially in the research and education field (26.1%), and had 1 to 5 years working experience (54.6%). Their age often ranges from 25-34 (51.3%), and they hold an undergraduate degree or equivalent degree (36.1%). Moreover, most of them had never lived abroad before (60.5 %), but they interact with international colleagues every month (38.7%). Their English level was fluent (36.1%). Regarding the virtual working experience, most of them have had experience working virtually (89.9%), and their role in the virtual team was the one of a team member (49.6%). Furthermore, regarding the mood and feelings of the American respondents on the day they completed the game, most of them stated that it was a good day for them (47.9%). And finally, most of them agreed to have score feedback and recommendation (90.8%) and decided to participate in a lucky draw campaign (97.5%).

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Additionally, the detailed table on demographic characteristics of all participants and participants from each cultural background type is shown in *Table 4-1*.

Table 4-1

The detailed table on demographic characteristics

Demographic	All (N = 339)		Thailand (N=106)		France (N=114)		USA (N=119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage
1. Cultural Background Types								
Thailand	106	31.3%	106	100%	0	0	0	0
France	114	33.6%	0	0	114	100%	0	0
USA	119	35.1%	0	0	0	0	119	100%
2. Gender								
Male	195	57.5%	34	32.1%	74	64.9%	87	73.1%
Female	142	41.9%	70	66%	40	35.1%	32	26.9%
Other	2	0.6%	2	1.9%	0	0	0	0
3. Age								
15-24	107	31.6%	0	0	60	52.6%	31	26.1%
25-34	139	41%	16	15.1%	34	29.8%	61	51.3%
35-44	61	18%	44	41.5%	12	10.5%	15	12.6%
45-54	23	6.8%	34	32.1%	4	3.5%	9	7.6%
55-64	7	2.1%	10	9.4%	3	2.6%	2	1.7%
65+	2	0.6%	2	1.9%	1	0.9%	1	0.8%
4. Education								
No degree	2	0.6%	0	0	0	0	2	1.7%
Secondary school	20	5.9%	2	1.9%	2	1.8%	16	13.4%
High school degree's or equivalent	36	10.6%	3	2.8%	3	2.6%	30	25.2%
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	28.9%	43	40.6%	12	10.5%	43	36.1%
Master's or equivalent	155	45.7%	46	43.4%	86	75.4%	23	19.3%
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	8.3%	12	11.3%	11	9.6%	5	4.2%
5. Status (Student / Working Professional)								
Full time student	57	16.8%	14	13.2%	14	12.3%	29	24.4%
Part-time student & work	113	33.3%	24	22.6%	67	58.8%	22	18.5%
Working Full time	169	49.9%	68	64.2%	33	28.9%	68	57.1%
6. Nationality								
French	114	33.6%	0	0	114	100%	0	0
Thai	106	31.3%	106	100%	0	0	0	0
USA	119	35.1%	0	0	0	0	119	100%

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Table 4-1 (Continued)

The detailed table on demographic characteristics

Demographic	All (N = 339)		Thailand (N=106)		France (N=114)		USA (N=119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage
7. English Level								
Beginner	8	2.4%	2	1.9%	1	0.9%	5	4.2%
Intermediate	58	17.1%	35	33%	18	15.8%	5	4.2%
Advanced	126	37.2%	41	38.7%	61	53.5%	24	20.2%
Proficient/Fluent	98	28.9%	22	20.8%	33	28.9%	43	36.1%
Native Speaker	49	14.5%	6	5.7%	1	0.9%	42	35.3%
10. Employment Status								
Not employed	21	6.2%	13	12.3%	2	1.8%	6	5%
Employed in the private sector	185	54.6%	46	43.4%	80	70.2%	59	49.6%
Employed in the public sector	49	14.5%	10	9.4%	12	10.5%	27	22.7%
Self-employed	58	17.1%	28	26.4%	4	3.5%	26	21.8%
Other	26	7.7%	9	8.5%	16	14%	1	0.8%
11. Have you ever lived abroad?								
Yes	202	59.6%	73	68.9%	82	71.9%	47	39.5%
No	137	40.4%	33	31.1%	32	28.1%	72	60.5%
12. Working Experience								
Never worked	21	6.2%	8	7.5%	2	1.8%	11	9.2%
1-5 years	171	50.4%	23	21.7%	83	72.8%	65	54.6%
6-10 years	62	18.3%	26	24.5%	10	8.8%	26	21.8%
11-15 years	26	7.7%	17	16%	3	2.6%	6	5%
16-20 years	28	8.3%	19	17.9%	6	5.3%	3	2.5%
21-25 years	17	5%	9	8.5%	4	3.5%	4	3.4%
25+	14	4.1%	4	3.8%	6	5.3%	4	3.4%
13. How often do you interact with international colleagues?								
On a daily basis	107	31.6%	48	45.3%	37	32.5%	22	18.5%
On a weekly basis	54	15.9%	23	21.7%	17	14.9%	14	11.8%
On a monthly basis	76	22.4%	10	9.4%	20	17.5%	46	38.7%
On a yearly basis	23	6.8%	7	6.6%	7	6.1%	9	7.6%
Almost never	79	23.3%	18	17%	33	28.9%	28	23.5%

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Table 4-1 (Continued)

The detailed table on demographic characteristics

Demographic	All (N = 339)		Thailand (N=106)		France (N=114)		USA (N=119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage	N (frequency)	Percentage
14. Work Sector								
Agriculture or Food industry	21	6.2%	3	2.8%	1	0.9%	17	14.3%
Industry	56	16.5%	3	2.8%	36	31.6%	17	14.3%
Energy	21	6.2%	2	1.9%	7	6.1%	12	10.1%
Trade and Crafts	20	5.9%	4	3.8%	4	3.5%	12	10.1%
Tourism	9	2.7%	7	6.6%	0	0	2	1.7%
Telecommunications	16	4.7%	2	1.9%	9	7.9%	5	4.2%
Research and Education	74	21.8%	29	27.4%	14	12.3%	31	26.1%
Finance and Insurance	51	15%	12	11.3%	20	17.5%	19	16%
Other	71	20.9%	44	41.5%	23	20.2%	4	3.4%
15. Virtual Working experience								
Yes	284	83.8%	75	70.8%	102	89.5%	107	89.9%
No	55	16.2%	31	29.2%	12	10.5%	12	10.1%
16. Role in Virtual team								
Team member	160	47.2%	36	34%	65	57%	59	49.6%
Team leader	42	12.4%	4	3.8%	4	3.5%	34	28.6%
Both	82	24.2%	39	36.8%	28	24.6%	15	12.6%
Not applicable	55	16.2%	27	25.5%	17	14.9%	11	9.2%
17. Mood								
Horrible day	3	0.9%	1	0.9%	0	0	2	1.7%
Not so good day	35	10.3%	11	10.4%	15	13.2%	9	7.6%
Good day	222	65.5%	81	76.4%	84	73.7%	57	47.9%
Awesome day	79	23.3%	13	12.3%	15	13.2%	51	42.9%
19. Score Feedback and Recommendation Request								
Yes	299	88.2%	87	82.1%	104	91.2%	108	90.8%
No	40	11.8%	19	17.9%	10	8.8%	11	9.2%

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Tables above compared the demographic data between the three sub-samples of cultural types. Regarding age and education background, there were statistically significant difference between Thailand, French and American. There was a statistically significant difference between Thailand and American and French and American, in terms of, English level and interaction with international colleagues. Finally, there was a statistically significant difference between Thailand and French and Thailand and American, in terms of, working experience. Additionally, the summarized data for open-ended questions in the demographic part, categorized by all respondents and respondents from three cultural types are presented in appendix 6.

Descriptive Data On Main Variables

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The researcher then performed a one-way ANOVA to determine whether there is a difference in the mean values of the main independent variables, between emotional intelligence and intercultural competence and dependent variable, on intercultural conflict management behavior per demographic data: cultural types, gender, age, education, status, English level, employment status, experience on living abroad, working experience, interaction with international colleagues, work sector, virtual team experience, and mood. Table 4-2 and Table 4-3 summarized the means and standard deviation of EI and IC on demographic information representing all respondents, Thai, French, and American respondents.

Additionally, a contrast analysis was employed to test more precisely and specify the differences among data groups (Allen, 2017). The researcher tested for a trend of the dependent variables across the ordered levels of the factor variable by entering a coefficient for each group (category) in planned contrasts—the contrast coefficients sum to 0. The mean for each variable and *p*-value for each difference was recorded in the following graphs.

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Table 4-2

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of EI on demographic information

Descriptive EI by demographic information

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	5.18	0.71	0.07												
France	114	5.24	0.61	0.06												
USA	119	4.58	0.63	0.06												
Gender																
Male	195	4.94	0.70	0.05	34	5.02	0.80	0.14	74	5.28	0.59	0.07	87	4.61	0.59	0.06
Female	142	5.05	0.72	0.06	70	5.24	0.66	0.08	40	5.15	0.63	0.10	32	4.51	0.71	0.13
Other	2	5.64	0.66	0.47	2	5.64	0.66	0.47								
Age																
18-24	107	4.98	0.74	0.07	16	5.01	0.73	0.18	60	5.28	0.67	0.09	31	4.40	0.52	0.09
25-34	139	4.87	0.68	0.06	44	5.10	0.70	0.11	34	5.15	0.57	0.10	61	4.55	0.58	0.07
35-44	61	5.14	0.68	0.09	34	5.27	0.72	0.12	12	5.13	0.40	0.12	15	4.86	0.72	0.19
45-54	23	5.09	0.79	0.16	10	5.37	0.72	0.23	4	5.52	0.53	0.27	9	4.59	0.74	0.25
55-64	7	5.54	0.61	0.23	2	5.77	0.53	0.38	3	5.41	0.73	0.42	2	5.50	0.82	0.58
65+	2	5.53	0.55	0.39					1	5.15			1	5.92		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	4.73	0.32	0.23									2	4.73	0.32	0.23
Secondary school	20	4.29	0.42	0.09	2	3.79	0.09	0.06	2	4.94	0.06	0.04	16	4.27	0.36	0.09
High school degree's or equivalent	36	4.79	0.61	0.10	3	5.08	1.06	0.61	3	5.13	0.83	0.48	30	4.73	0.55	0.10
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	4.90	0.71	0.07	43	5.06	0.66	0.10	12	5.38	0.55	0.16	43	4.60	0.69	0.11
Master's or equivalent	155	5.11	0.68	0.05	46	5.20	0.67	0.10	86	5.23	0.62	0.07	23	4.43	0.55	0.11
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	5.42	0.72	0.14	12	5.75	0.58	0.17	11	5.19	0.61	0.19	5	5.15	1.04	0.47
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	4.91	0.67	0.09	14	5.41	0.63	0.17	14	5.11	0.72	0.19	29	4.57	0.47	0.09
Part-time student & Work	113	5.06	0.67	0.09	24	4.90	0.74	0.22	67	5.23	0.60	0.10	22	4.78	0.73	0.25
Working Full time	169	4.96	0.72	0.06	68	5.21	0.69	0.08	33	5.24	0.51	0.09	68	4.57	0.66	0.08
English Level																
Beginner	8	4.33	0.43	0.15	2	3.66	0.10	0.07	1	4.44			5	4.58	0.08	0.04
Intermediate	58	4.92	0.71	0.09	35	4.90	0.67	0.11	18	5.23	0.60	0.14	5	3.96	0.41	0.19
Advanced	126	5.06	0.72	0.06	41	5.28	0.71	0.11	61	5.22	0.63	0.08	24	4.29	0.31	0.06
Proficient/Fluent	98	5.01	0.75	0.08	22	5.56	0.49	0.11	33	5.27	0.57	0.10	43	4.54	0.69	0.11
Native speaker	49	4.93	0.62	0.09	6	5.20	0.57	0.23	1	5.75			42	4.87	0.62	0.09
Employment status																
Not employed	21	4.92	0.74	0.16	13	5.13	0.71	0.20	2	5.58	0.12	0.08	6	4.25	0.37	0.15
Employed in the private sector	185	5.05	0.71	0.05	46	5.31	0.67	0.10	80	5.21	0.61	0.07	59	4.64	0.70	0.09
Employed in the public sector	49	4.71	0.65	0.09	10	5.00	0.53	0.17	12	5.12	0.65	0.19	27	4.42	0.54	0.10
Self-employed	58	4.89	0.72	0.09	28	4.97	0.84	0.16	4	5.45	0.36	0.18	26	4.71	0.54	0.11
Other	26	5.33	0.64	0.13	9	5.43	0.56	0.19	16	5.35	0.67	0.17	1	4.31		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	5.11	0.70	0.05	73	5.22	0.76	0.09	82	5.26	0.60	0.07	47	4.69	0.62	0.09
No	137	4.81	0.69	0.06	33	5.08	0.60	0.10	32	5.18	0.63	0.11	72	4.51	0.62	0.07
Working experience																
1-5 years	171	4.95	0.70	0.05	23	5.02	0.68	0.14	83	5.22	0.65	0.07	65	4.59	0.62	0.08
6-10 years	62	4.92	0.64	0.08	26	5.16	0.58	0.11	10	5.29	0.56	0.18	26	4.54	0.53	0.10
11-15 years	26	4.96	0.65	0.13	17	5.03	0.70	0.17	3	5.24	0.21	0.12	6	4.59	0.59	0.24
16-20 years	28	5.14	0.79	0.15	19	5.33	0.79	0.18	6	4.98	0.39	0.16	3	4.28	0.87	0.50
21-25 years	17	5.16	0.82	0.20	9	5.27	0.79	0.26	4	5.70	0.28	0.14	4	4.38	0.78	0.39
26-30 years	14	5.60	0.65	0.17	4	6.03	0.44	0.22	6	5.28	0.55	0.22	4	5.65	0.83	0.41
Never worked	21	4.76	0.74	0.16	8	5.14	0.91	0.32	2	5.28	0.55	0.39	11	4.39	0.39	0.12

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Table 4-2 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of EI on demographic information

Descriptive EI by demographic information (Continue)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	5.14	0.66	0.06	48	5.24	0.62	0.09	37	5.32	0.51	0.08	22	4.63	0.75	0.16
On a weekly basis	54	5.02	0.84	0.11	23	5.35	0.88	0.18	17	5.09	0.73	0.18	14	4.41	0.54	0.15
On a monthly basis	76	4.96	0.65	0.07	10	5.24	0.64	0.20	20	5.47	0.58	0.13	46	4.67	0.51	0.07
On a yearly basis	23	4.75	0.76	0.16	7	4.69	0.83	0.31	7	5.15	0.72	0.27	9	4.50	0.69	0.23
Almost never	79	4.85	0.70	0.08	18	4.95	0.64	0.15	33	5.10	0.61	0.11	28	4.51	0.72	0.14
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	4.68	0.66	0.14	3	5.03	1.26	0.73	1	4.48			17	4.63	0.56	0.14
Industry	56	5.04	0.74	0.10	3	5.35	0.88	0.51	36	5.27	0.65	0.11	17	4.51	0.67	0.16
Energy	21	4.74	0.57	0.12	2	4.72	1.40	0.99	7	5.01	0.54	0.20	12	4.59	0.42	0.12
Trade and Crafts	20	4.73	0.69	0.15	4	5.59	0.23	0.12	4	5.35	0.24	0.12	12	4.23	0.34	0.10
Tourism	9	5.13	0.72	0.24	7	5.23	0.79	0.30					2	4.76	0.16	0.11
Telecommunications	16	4.64	0.80	0.20	2	3.80	0.07	0.05	9	4.88	0.83	0.28	5	4.54	0.72	0.32
Research and Education	74	4.97	0.70	0.08	29	5.22	0.60	0.11	14	5.32	0.60	0.16	31	4.59	0.66	0.12
Finance and Insurance	51	5.08	0.75	0.10	12	4.96	0.86	0.25	20	5.48	0.50	0.11	19	4.74	0.72	0.17
Other	71	5.19	0.65	0.08	44	5.25	0.66	0.10	23	5.14	0.54	0.11	4	4.86	1.11	0.55
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	5.01	0.70	0.04	75	5.22	0.72	0.08	102	5.25	0.62	0.06	107	4.65	0.60	0.06
No	55	4.86	0.78	0.10	31	5.09	0.71	0.13	12	5.13	0.52	0.15	12	3.99	0.52	0.15
Role in virtual team																
Team member	160	4.99	0.66	0.05	36	4.98	0.75	0.13	65	5.25	0.58	0.07	59	4.70	0.57	0.07
Team leader	42	4.46	0.58	0.09	4	4.68	1.03	0.52	4	4.72	0.69	0.35	34	4.41	0.52	0.09
Both	82	5.27	0.68	0.08	39	5.38	0.63	0.10	28	5.36	0.65	0.12	15	4.80	0.74	0.19
Not applicable	55	4.98	0.76	0.10	27	5.23	0.66	0.13	17	5.07	0.58	0.14	11	4.21	0.80	0.24
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	4.16	0.58	0.34	1	4.60							2	3.94	0.62	0.44
Not so Good Day	35	4.75	0.64	0.11	11	4.64	0.51	0.15	15	5.06	0.74	0.19	9	4.35	0.29	0.10
Good Day	222	5.06	0.69	0.05	81	5.20	0.68	0.08	84	5.25	0.58	0.06	57	4.58	0.65	0.09
Awesome Day	79	4.93	0.76	0.09	13	5.56	0.80	0.22	15	5.33	0.64	0.16	51	4.65	0.63	0.09

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Table 4-3

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of IC on demographic information

Descriptive IC by demographic information

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	3.06	0.50	0.05												
France	114	3.41	0.56	0.05												
USA	119	2.82	0.43	0.04												
Gender																
Male	195	3.02	0.59	0.04	34	2.91	0.58	0.10	74	3.35	0.61	0.07	87	2.78	0.43	0.05
Female	142	3.20	0.49	0.04	70	3.13	0.45	0.05	40	3.53	0.44	0.07	32	2.92	0.40	0.07
Other	2	3.14	0.24	0.17	2	3.14	0.24	0.17								
Age																
18-24	107	3.14	0.62	0.06	16	2.91	0.58	0.14	60	3.45	0.52	0.07	31	2.65	0.44	0.08
25-34	139	3.05	0.54	0.05	44	3.07	0.56	0.08	34	3.31	0.62	0.11	61	2.90	0.41	0.05
35-44	61	3.05	0.52	0.07	34	3.05	0.44	0.08	12	3.36	0.70	0.20	15	2.83	0.43	0.11
45-54	23	3.16	0.44	0.09	10	3.27	0.28	0.09	4	3.75	0.14	0.07	9	2.78	0.32	0.11
55-64	7	3.23	0.43	0.16	2	3.22	0.14	0.10	3	3.50	0.42	0.24	2	2.84	0.44	0.31
65+	2	3.58	0.06	0.04					1	3.63			1	3.54		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	2.36	0.35	0.25									2	2.36	0.35	0.25
Secondary school	20	2.88	0.49	0.11	2	2.29	0.18	0.13	2	3.56	0.36	0.26	16	2.87	0.43	0.11
High school degree's or equivalent	36	2.57	0.33	0.05	3	2.36	0.24	0.14	3	2.36	0.67	0.38	30	2.62	0.29	0.05
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	2.96	0.53	0.05	43	3.06	0.51	0.08	12	3.10	0.67	0.19	43	2.81	0.48	0.07
Master's or equivalent	155	3.28	0.51	0.04	46	3.08	0.49	0.07	86	3.44	0.52	0.06	23	3.09	0.34	0.07
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	3.42	0.48	0.09	12	3.30	0.35	0.10	11	3.80	0.30	0.09	5	2.89	0.42	0.19
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	2.95	0.56	0.07	14	2.91	0.52	0.14	14	3.42	0.55	0.15	29	2.74	0.46	0.09
Part-time student & work	113	3.22	0.56	0.07	24	2.94	0.47	0.14	67	3.49	0.57	0.11	22	2.92	0.42	0.16
Working Full time	169	3.05	0.53	0.04	68	3.11	0.48	0.06	33	3.38	0.63	0.11	68	2.84	0.43	0.05
English Level																
Beginner	8	2.60	0.30	0.10	2	2.25	0.12	0.08	1	3.11			5	2.64	0.15	0.07
Intermediate	58	3.15	0.51	0.07	35	3.04	0.49	0.08	18	3.46	0.48	0.11	5	2.89	0.33	0.15
Advanced	126	3.22	0.58	0.05	41	3.07	0.53	0.08	61	3.38	0.62	0.08	24	3.08	0.43	0.09
Proficient/Fluent	98	3.12	0.51	0.05	22	3.18	0.42	0.09	33	3.45	0.52	0.09	43	2.85	0.38	0.06
Native speaker	49	2.71	0.46	0.07	6	2.95	0.53	0.22	1	3.53			42	2.66	0.43	0.07
Employment status																
Not employed	21	3.04	0.49	0.11	13	3.00	0.56	0.16	2	3.28	0.36	0.26	6	3.05	0.35	0.14
Employed in the private sector	185	3.16	0.55	0.04	46	3.07	0.47	0.07	80	3.42	0.56	0.06	59	2.88	0.42	0.05
Employed in the public sector	49	3.06	0.54	0.08	10	3.13	0.45	0.14	12	3.47	0.58	0.17	27	2.85	0.44	0.09
Self-employed	58	2.80	0.52	0.07	28	2.95	0.56	0.11	4	3.15	0.57	0.29	26	2.58	0.37	0.07
Other	26	3.40	0.52	0.10	9	3.35	0.41	0.14	16	3.43	0.60	0.15	1	3.28		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	3.18	0.56	0.04	73	3.12	0.49	0.06	82	3.47	0.57	0.06	47	2.78	0.36	0.05
No	137	2.97	0.52	0.04	33	2.94	0.51	0.09	32	3.27	0.53	0.09	72	2.85	0.47	0.06
Working experience																
Never worked	21	2.94	0.46	0.10	8	2.97	0.47	0.17	2	3.68	0.20	0.14	11	2.78	0.35	0.11
1-5 years	171	3.10	0.59	0.05	23	2.94	0.53	0.11	83	3.41	0.55	0.06	65	2.75	0.45	0.06
6-10 years	62	3.01	0.57	0.07	26	3.10	0.63	0.12	10	3.12	0.74	0.23	26	2.89	0.41	0.08
11-15 years	26	3.18	0.40	0.08	17	3.13	0.31	0.08	3	3.80	0.30	0.17	6	2.99	0.39	0.16
16-20 years	28	3.08	0.55	0.10	19	3.10	0.47	0.11	6	3.25	0.81	0.33	3	2.67	0.10	0.06
21-25 years	17	3.20	0.49	0.12	9	3.00	0.49	0.16	4	3.65	0.25	0.13	4	3.22	0.41	0.21
26-30 years	14	3.38	0.41	0.11	4	3.34	0.23	0.12	6	3.64	0.32	0.13	4	3.02	0.44	0.22

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Table 4-3 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of IC on demographic information

Descriptive IC by demographic information (Continue)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	3.15	0.52	0.05	48	3.10	0.50	0.07	37	3.36	0.56	0.09	22	2.87	0.35	0.08
On a weekly basis	54	3.17	0.53	0.07	23	3.17	0.47	0.10	17	3.43	0.57	0.14	14	2.87	0.42	0.11
On a monthly basis	76	2.99	0.57	0.07	10	3.02	0.55	0.17	20	3.40	0.64	0.14	46	2.82	0.46	0.07
On a yearly basis	23	3.01	0.60	0.12	7	2.78	0.41	0.16	7	3.49	0.69	0.26	9	2.81	0.45	0.15
Almost never	79	3.09	0.58	0.07	18	2.94	0.55	0.13	33	3.45	0.51	0.09	28	2.77	0.44	0.08
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	2.77	0.50	0.11	3	2.84	0.57	0.33	1	4.04			17	2.68	0.40	0.10
Industry	56	3.24	0.56	0.07	3	2.87	0.28	0.16	36	3.45	0.51	0.09	17	2.86	0.46	0.11
Energy	21	3.02	0.67	0.15	2	2.34	0.24	0.17	7	3.41	0.79	0.30	12	2.90	0.51	0.15
Trade and Crafts	20	3.06	0.56	0.12	4	3.34	0.25	0.13	4	3.46	0.76	0.38	12	2.83	0.46	0.13
Tourism	9	2.89	0.55	0.18	7	2.96	0.51	0.19					2	2.67	0.86	0.61
Telecommunications	16	3.10	0.63	0.16	2	2.04	0.06	0.04	9	3.33	0.56	0.19	5	3.11	0.42	0.19
Research and Education	74	3.11	0.54	0.06	29	3.19	0.49	0.09	14	3.62	0.37	0.10	31	2.80	0.45	0.08
Finance and Insurance	51	3.06	0.58	0.08	12	2.99	0.58	0.17	20	3.37	0.64	0.14	19	2.79	0.30	0.07
Other	71	3.14	0.49	0.06	44	3.09	0.46	0.07	23	3.27	0.57	0.12	4	2.96	0.32	0.16
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	3.10	0.57	0.03	75	3.11	0.51	0.06	102	3.40	0.57	0.06	107	2.80	0.43	0.04
No	55	3.08	0.51	0.07	31	2.94	0.46	0.08	12	3.52	0.49	0.14	12	2.99	0.39	0.11
Role in virtual team																
Team member	160	3.03	0.59	0.05	36	3.13	0.53	0.09	65	3.32	0.58	0.07	59	2.65	0.40	0.05
Team leader	42	2.98	0.44	0.07	4	2.54	0.55	0.28	4	3.25	0.43	0.21	34	3.00	0.40	0.07
Both	82	3.27	0.54	0.06	39	3.14	0.48	0.08	28	3.64	0.51	0.10	15	2.91	0.35	0.09
Not applicable	55	3.11	0.50	0.07	27	2.93	0.44	0.09	17	3.44	0.52	0.13	11	3.05	0.38	0.11
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	3.65	0.45	0.26	1	4.17							2	3.39	0.08	0.06
Not so Good Day	35	3.23	0.59	0.10	11	2.96	0.51	0.15	15	3.62	0.45	0.12	9	2.90	0.55	0.18
Good Day	222	3.16	0.52	0.03	81	3.06	0.47	0.05	84	3.42	0.53	0.06	57	2.91	0.40	0.05
Awesome Day	79	2.83	0.56	0.06	13	3.05	0.63	0.17	15	3.17	0.76	0.20	51	2.68	0.39	0.06

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The following tables (Table 4-4 and Table 4-5) and graphs report the mean, SD, minimum, maximum, and the result of the *p*-value of IC and EI score, categorized by its dimensions on three cultural background type respondents. The first one represents data analysis for IC on each cultural dimension.

Table 4-4

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of IC categorized by cultural dimensions on three cultural background types

Descriptives_Intercultural Competence

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (1-5)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Power Distance	Thailand	106	1.77	1.05	0.10	1.57	1.97	1.00	5.00
	France	114	2.43	1.15	0.11	2.22	2.65	1.00	5.00
	USA	119	1.66	1.08	0.10	1.47	1.86	1.00	4.33
	Total	339	1.95	1.15	0.06	1.83	2.08	1.00	5.00
Universalism / Particularism	Thailand	106	3.11	0.95	0.09	2.93	3.29	1.00	5.00
	France	114	3.28	0.88	0.08	3.12	3.44	1.00	5.00
	USA	119	2.82	0.97	0.09	2.65	3.00	1.00	5.00
	Total	339	3.07	0.95	0.05	2.96	3.17	1.00	5.00
Competition / Consensus	Thailand	106	3.92	1.34	0.13	3.67	4.18	1.00	5.00
	France	114	4.27	1.19	0.11	4.05	4.49	1.00	5.00
	USA	119	2.67	1.52	0.14	2.40	2.95	1.00	5.00
	Total	339	3.60	1.53	0.08	3.44	3.77	1.00	5.00
Monochronism / Polychronism	Thailand	106	3.63	0.76	0.07	3.49	3.78	2.00	5.00
	France	114	3.92	0.73	0.07	3.78	4.06	2.00	5.00
	USA	119	3.80	0.83	0.08	3.65	3.95	2.00	5.00
	Total	339	3.79	0.78	0.04	3.71	3.87	2.00	5.00
Explicit / Implicit Communication	Thailand	106	2.02	1.34	0.13	1.76	2.28	1.00	5.00
	France	114	2.52	1.33	0.12	2.27	2.77	1.00	5.00
	USA	119	2.35	1.15	0.11	2.14	2.56	1.00	5.00
	Total	339	2.30	1.29	0.07	2.17	2.44	1.00	5.00
Individualism / Collectivism	Thailand	106	3.90	0.68	0.07	3.77	4.03	1.67	5.00
	France	114	4.05	0.59	0.06	3.94	4.16	2.67	5.00
	USA	119	3.60	0.74	0.07	3.47	3.74	1.67	5.00
	Total	339	3.85	0.70	0.04	3.77	3.92	1.67	5.00

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Table 4-4 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of IC categorized by cultural dimensions on three cultural background types

Contrast Coefficients

Contrast Comparison between	Cultural Background Types		
	Thailand (Type I)	France (Type II)	USA (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Contrast Tests

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Power Distance	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.6624	0.14795	4.478	336	**0.000**
		TH & USA	0.1050	0.14644	0.717	336	0.474
		FR & USA	0.7675	0.14370	5.341	336	**0.000**
Universalism / Particularism	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.1673	0.12592	1.329	336	0.185
		TH & USA	0.2900	0.12464	2.327	336	**0.021**
		FR & USA	0.4573	0.12231	3.739	336	**0.000**
Competition / Consensus	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.3474	0.18390	1.889	336	0.060
		TH & USA	1.2523	0.18203	6.879	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	1.5997	0.17862	8.955	336	**0.000**
Monochronism / Polychronism	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.2890	0.10489	2.755	336	**0.006**
		TH & USA	-0.1704	0.10382	-1.642	336	0.102
		FR & USA	0.1185	0.10188	1.163	336	0.245

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Table 4-4 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of IC categorized by cultural dimensions on three cultural background types

Contrast Tests

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Explicit / Implicit Communication	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.4978	0.17171	2.899	336	0.004
		TH & USA	-0.3297	0.16996	-1.940	336	0.053
		FR & USA	0.1681	0.16678	1.008	336	0.314
Individualism / Collectivism	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.1501	0.09064	1.656	336	0.099
		TH & USA	0.2988	0.08972	3.331	336	**0.001**
		FR & USA	0.4490	0.08804	5.100	336	**0.000**

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Figure 4-2

Means comparison of Intercultural Competence (IC) between countries on six cultural dimensions

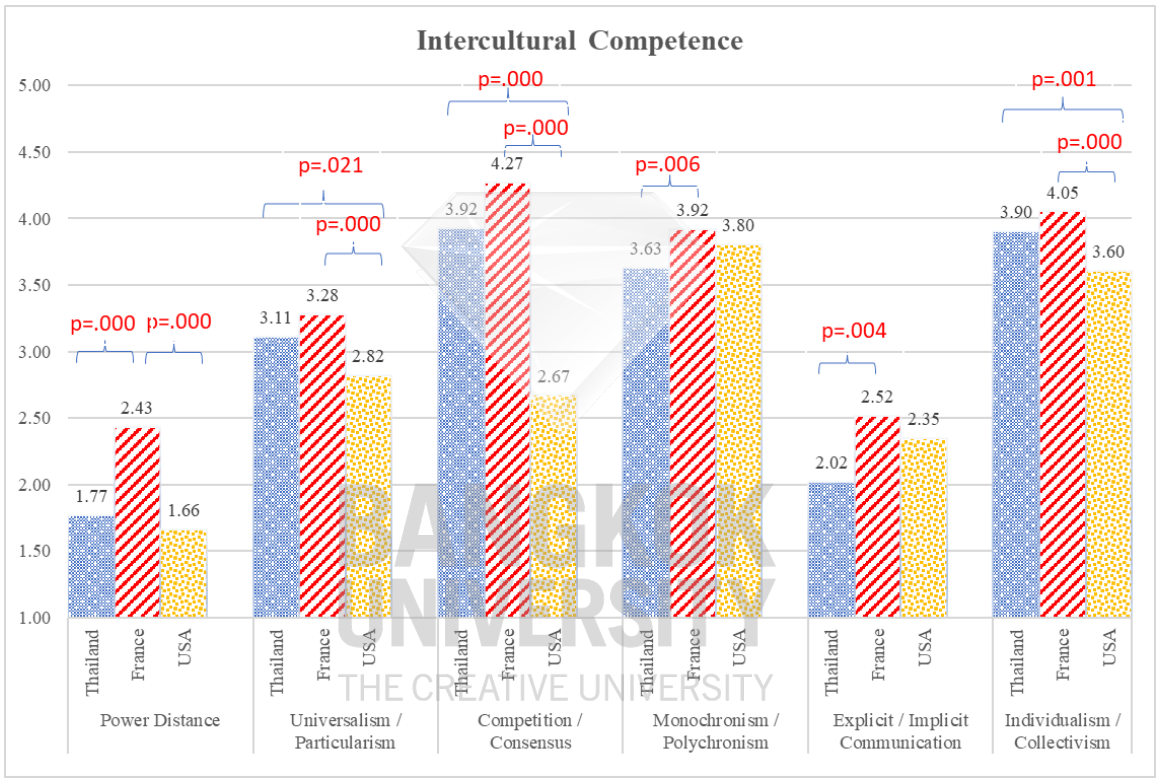

Table 4-4 and Figure 4-2 showed a statistically significant difference in the adaptation on cultural dimensions to different cultures between our sample respondents from Thailand, France, and the USA. The *p*-value for each contrast is shown below:

- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural interaction based on the adaptation on power distance between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 1.77) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 2.43), (p = .000) and France and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 1.66), (p = .000).

- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural interaction based on the adaptation on universalism/particularism between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 3.11) and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 2.82), (p = .021) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 3.28) and the USA (p = .000).
- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural interaction based on the adaptation on competition/consensus between Thailand and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 2.67), (p = .000) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 4.27) and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 3.92), (p = .000).
- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural interaction based on the adaptation on monochronic/polychronic between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 3.63) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 3.92), (p = .006).
- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural exchange based on the adaptation on explicit/implicit communication between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 2.02) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 2.52), (p = .004).
- There was a statistically significant difference in their intercultural interaction based on the adaptation on individualism/collectivism between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 3.90) and the USA (p = .001) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 4.05) and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 3.60), (p = .000).

The following table reported on the scores of EI and its emotional dimensions on three cultural background type respondents.

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Table 4-5

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of EI categorized by its dimensions on three cultural background types

Descriptives_Emotional Intelligence

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (1-7)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
SEA	Thailand	106	5.49	0.91	0.09	5.32	5.67	2.67	7.00
	France	114	5.30	0.76	0.07	5.16	5.44	3.00	7.00
	USA	119	5.03	1.12	0.10	4.83	5.23	2.00	7.00
	Total	339	5.27	0.96	0.05	5.16	5.37	2.00	7.00
OEA	Thailand	106	4.96	1.00	0.10	4.76	5.15	2.25	6.75
	France	114	5.34	1.04	0.10	5.15	5.53	2.00	7.00
	USA	119	3.54	1.26	0.12	3.31	3.77	1.00	6.75
	Total	339	4.59	1.36	0.07	4.44	4.73	1.00	7.00
UOE	Thailand	106	5.27	0.93	0.09	5.09	5.45	2.50	7.00
	France	114	5.25	0.94	0.09	5.07	5.43	2.50	7.00
	USA	119	5.11	1.05	0.10	4.92	5.30	2.75	7.00
	Total	339	5.21	0.98	0.05	5.10	5.31	2.50	7.00
ROE	Thailand	106	4.99	1.02	0.10	4.80	5.19	2.25	7.00
	France	114	5.05	1.03	0.10	4.86	5.24	2.25	7.00
	USA	119	4.65	0.82	0.08	4.50	4.80	2.25	6.50
	Total	339	4.89	0.97	0.05	4.79	5.00	2.25	7.00

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Table 4-5 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of EI categorized by its dimensions on three cultural background types

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SEA	Between Groups	12.377	2	6.189	6.958	**0.001**
	Within Groups	298.840	336	0.889		
	Total	311.217	338			
OEA	Between Groups	209.988	2	104.994	84.967	**0.000**
	Within Groups	415.195	336	1.236		
	Total	625.183	338			
UOE	Between Groups	1.769	2	0.884	0.926	0.397
	Within Groups	320.778	336	0.955		
	Total	322.547	338			
ROE	Between Groups	10.959	2	5.479	5.956	**0.003**
	Within Groups	309.120	336	0.920		
	Total	320.079	338			

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Contrast Coefficients

Contrast Comparison between	Cultural Background Types		
	Thailand (Type I)	France (Type II)	USA (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Table 4-5 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of EI categorized by its dimensions on three cultural background types

Contrast Tests							
Contrast			**Value of Contrast**	**Std. Error**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
SEA	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.1925	0.12725	-1.513	336	0.131
		TH & USA	0.4657	0.12595	3.697	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	0.2732	0.12360	2.210	336	0.028
OEA	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.3847	0.14999	2.565	336	**0.011**
		TH & USA	1.4174	0.14846	9.547	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	1.8021	0.14568	12.370	336	**0.000**
UOE	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.0236	0.13184	-0.179	336	0.858
		TH & USA	0.1622	0.13050	1.243	336	0.215
		FR & USA	0.1387	0.12805	1.083	336	0.280
ROE	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.0575	0.12942	0.444	336	0.657
		TH & USA	0.3438	0.12810	2.684	336	**0.008**
		FR & USA	0.4013	0.12570	3.192	336	**0.002**

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Figure 4-3

Means comparison of Emotional intelligence (EI) between countries on four dimensions

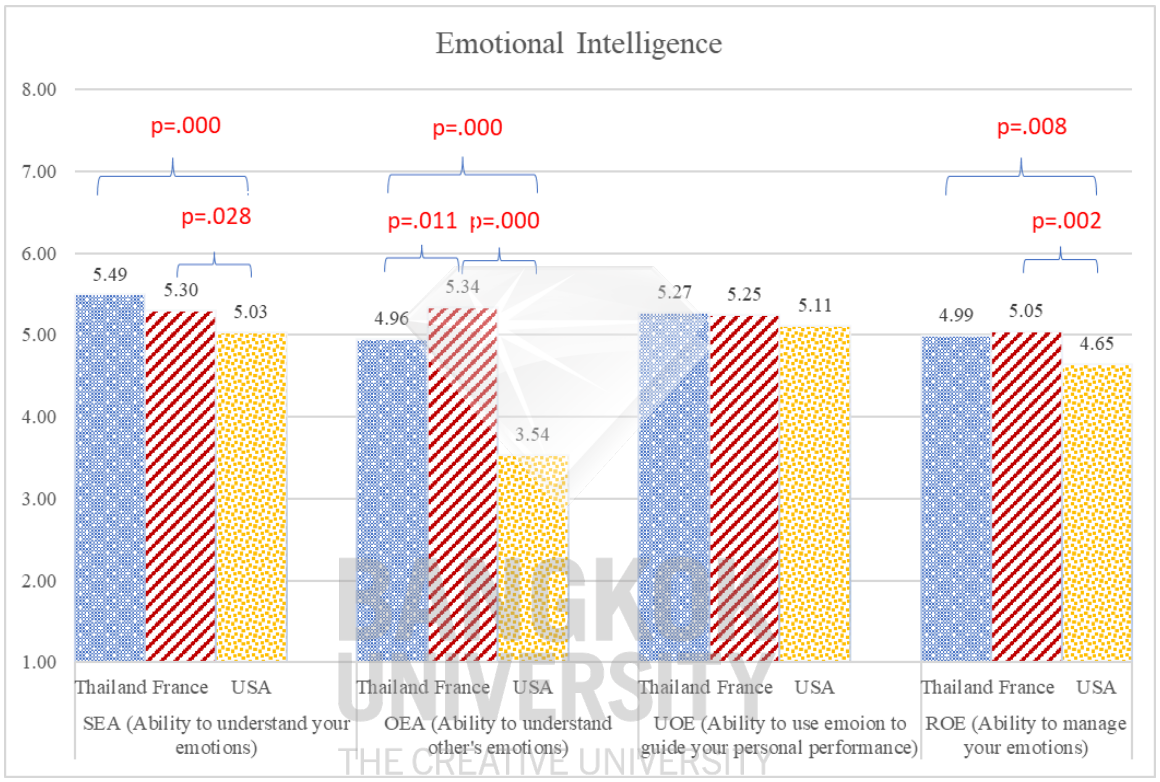

Table 4-5 and Figure 4-3 showed a statistically significant difference in every emotional dimension between respondents from Thailand, France, and the USA, except UOE or the ability to use emotion to guide personal performance. The *p*-value for each contrast is shown below:

- There was a statistically significant difference in their emotional intelligence based on SEA or ability to understand your emotions between Thailand ($\overline{x} = 5.49$)

and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 5.03), (p = .000) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 5.30) and the USA (p = .028).

- There was a statistically significant difference in their emotional intelligence based on OEA or ability to understand others' emotions between Thailand and France (p = .011), Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 4.96) and USA (p = .000), and France ($\bar{x}$ = 5.34) and USA ($\bar{x}$ = 3.54), (p = .000).
- There was a statistically significant difference in their emotional intelligence based on ROE or ability to manage their emotions between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 4.99) and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 4.65), (p = .008) and France ($\bar{x}$ = 5.05) and the USA (p = .002).
- And finally, there was no statistically significant difference in their emotional intelligence based on UOE or ability to use emotion to guide your personal performance between Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 5.27), France ($\bar{x}$ = 5.25), and the USA ($\bar{x}$ = 5.11).

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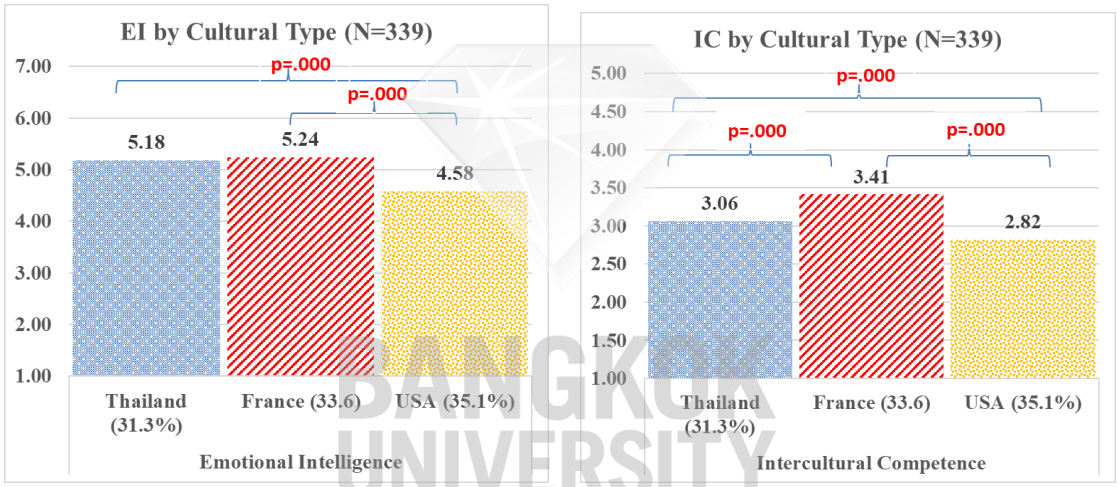
Following descriptive statistics will report a one-way ANOVA on EI and IC on demographic information. A detailed analysis investigates whether EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents from different cultural backgrounds with demographic data. The results from one-way ANOVA are presented with graphs that identify the mean values and p-values between-group variables. All results are presented with graphs for the overall sample (N=339), but only significant results are reported for the three sub-sample, Thai (N=106), French (N=114), and Americans (N=119), in appendix 7.

EI and IC with Cultural Types

Figure 4-4

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per cultural types



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From our sample, Figure 4-4 shows that the mean value of EI and IC for France is the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 5.24 and $\bar{x}$ = 3.41), followed by Thailand ($\bar{x}$ = 5.18 and $\bar{x}$ = 3.06), and USA ($\bar{x}$ = 4.58 and $\bar{x}$ = 2.82) respectively. The results of the one-way ANOVA revealed that EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents from Thailand, France, and the USA. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

EI and IC with Gender

Figure 4-5

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per gender

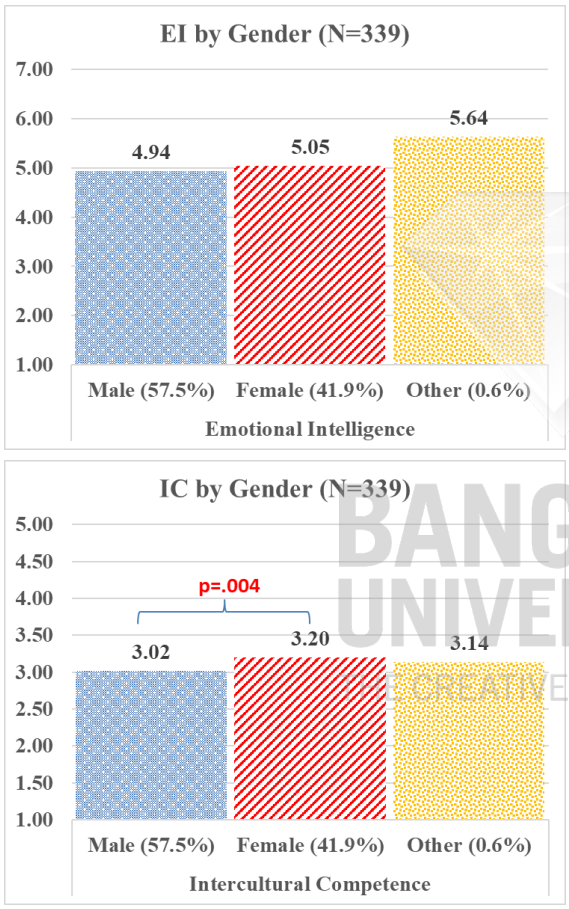

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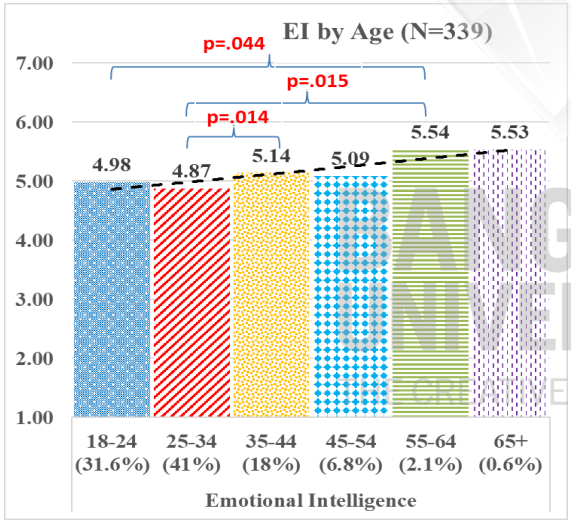
Figure 4-5 shows that the mean value of EI for other gender is the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 5.64), followed by female ($\bar{x}$ = 5.05), and male ($\bar{x}$ = 4.94) respectively. Women have the highest IC mean value ($\bar{x}$ = 3.20), followed by other gender ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14), and men ($\bar{x}$ = 3.02). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that IC has a statistically significant difference

between males and females (p = .004), However, there was no statistically significant difference in EI between gender.

EI and IC with Age

Figure 4-6

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per age



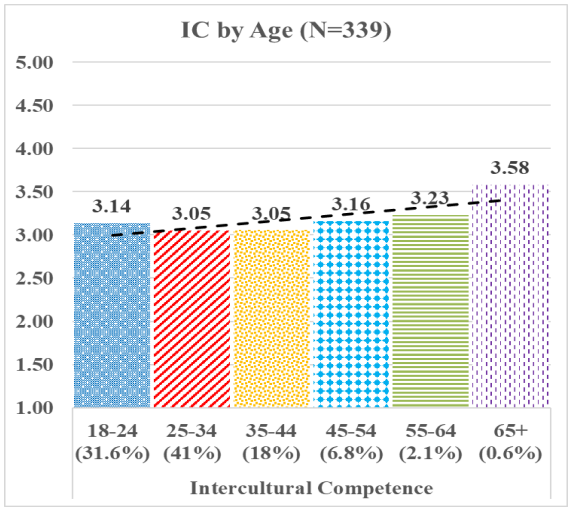


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Figure 4-6 shows that the mean of EI for respondents whose age between 55-64 and above 65 are the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 5.54, $\bar{x}$ = 5.53), followed by age 35-44 ($\bar{x}$ = 5.14), age 45-54 ($\bar{x}$ = 5.09), age 18-24 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.98) and age 25-34 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.87) respectively. And for the mean of IC, respondents whose age above 65 is the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 3.58), followed by the age between age 55-64 ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23), age 45-54 ($\bar{x}$ = 3.16), age 18-24 ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14) respectively, and age 25-44 ranked the lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 3.05).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that EI is a statistically significant difference between respondents of different ages. But there was no statistically significant difference in IC between respondents of different ages. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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EI and IC with Educational Background

Figure 4-7

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per educational background

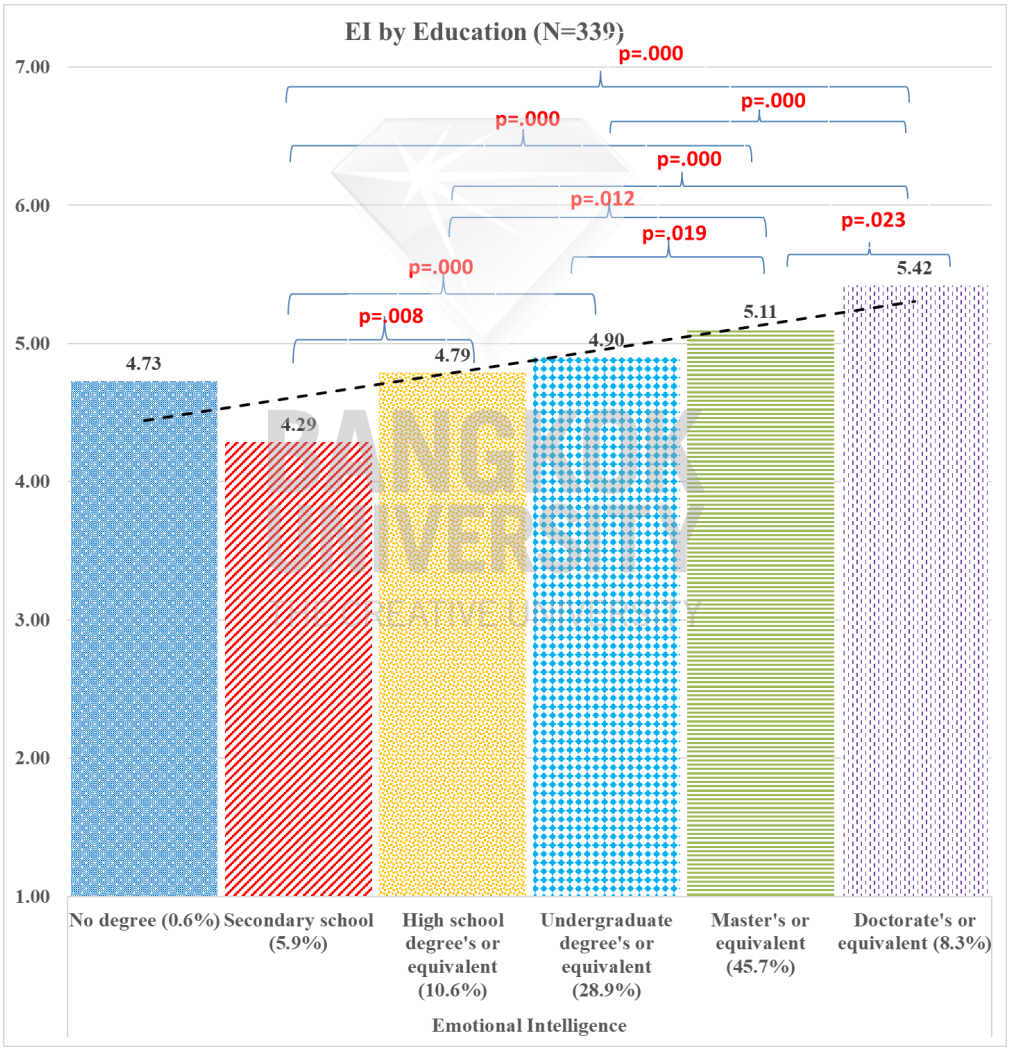

Figure 4-7 (Continued)

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per educational background

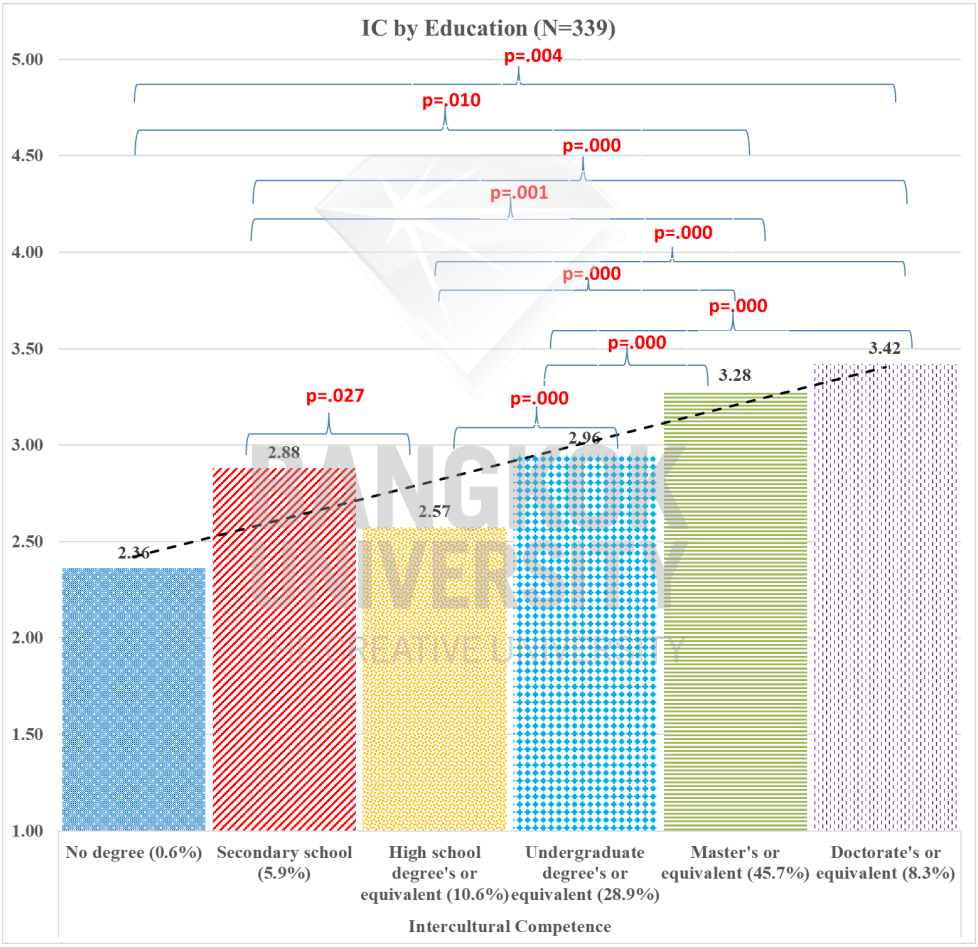

Figure 4-7 shows that the top three mean of both EI and IC are the respondents whose educational background were a doctoral degree ($\bar{x}$ = 5.42, $\bar{x}$ = 3.42), master's degree ($\bar{x}$ = 5.11, $\bar{x}$ = 3.28), and undergraduate or equivalent ($\bar{x}$ = 4.90, $\bar{x}$ = 2.96) respectively.

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that both EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents from different educational backgrounds. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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EI and IC with Student and Working Professional Status

Figure 4-8

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per student and working professional status

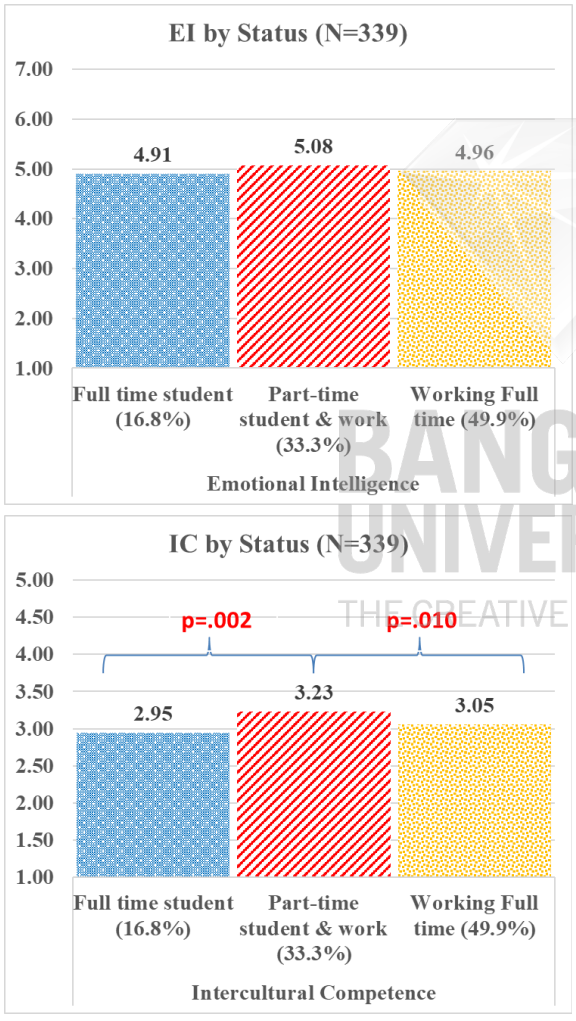

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Figure 4-8 shows that the respondents who are working and studying part-time have the highest EI and IC ($\bar{x}$ = 5.08, $\bar{x}$ = 3.23), followed by working full time ($\bar{x}$ = 4.96, $\bar{x}$ = 3.05), and full time student ($\bar{x}$ = 4.91, $\bar{x}$ = 2.95) respectively.

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that IC is statistically significant differences between student and working professional respondents. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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EI and IC with an English level

Figure 4-9

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per English level

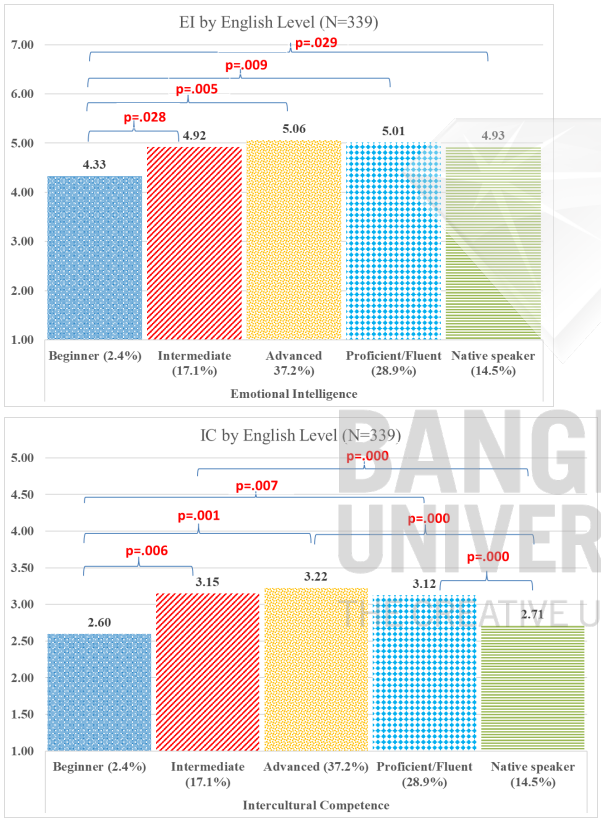

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Figure 4-9 shows that the top three mean values in EI are those of respondents with an advanced English level ($\bar{x}$ = 5.06), proficient/fluent level ($\bar{x}$ = 5.01), and native speaker ($\bar{x}$ = 4.93) while beginners ranked lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.33). Besides the top three mean IC values are those of respondents whose English levels are advanced ($\bar{x}$ = 3.22),

intermediate ($\bar{x}$ = 3.15), and proficient/fluent ($\bar{x}$ = 3.12) and beginners ranked lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 2.60).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that both EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents who have different English levels. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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EI and IC with Employment Type

Figure 4-10

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per employment status

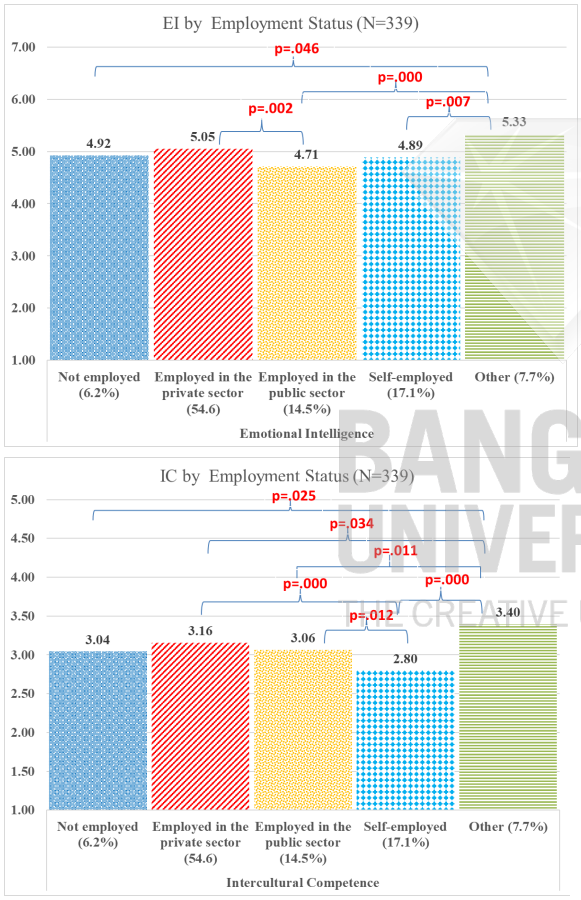

Figure 4-10 shows that the top three mean values in EI are those of respondents whose employment types are "other" ($\bar{x}$ = 5.33), employed in the private sector ($\bar{x}$ = 5.05), and not employed (full-time students or retired) ($\bar{x}$ = 4.92). And, the top three

mean values in IC are those of respondents whose employment type is "other" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.40), employed in private sector ($\bar{x}$ = 3.16), and employed in the public sector ($\bar{x}$ = 3.06).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that both EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents who have a different employment status. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

EI and IC with Experience in Living Abroad

Figure 4-11

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per experience on living abroad

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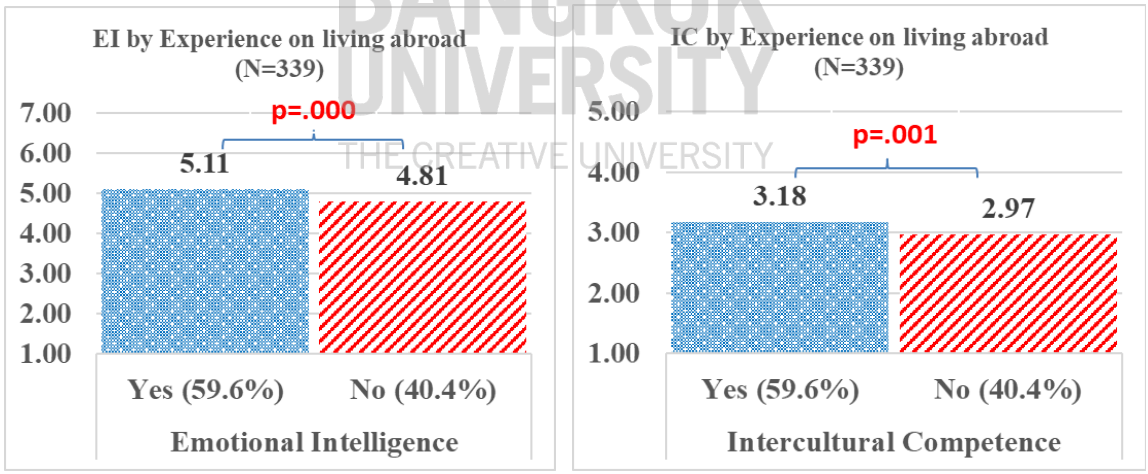

Figure 4-11 shows that respondents who have lived abroad have the highest mean value in both EI and IC ($\bar{x}$ = 5.11, $\bar{x}$ = 3.18 respectively).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents who have and have not lived abroad (p = .000, p = .001, respectively).

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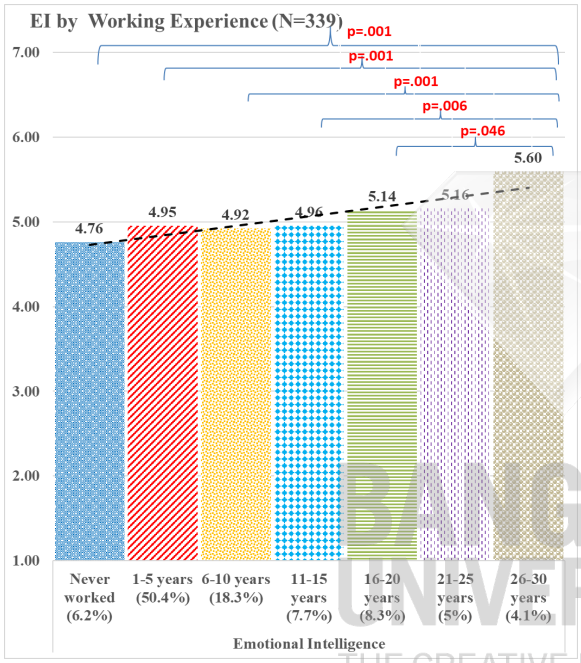
EI and IC with Working Experience

Figure 4-12

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per working experience



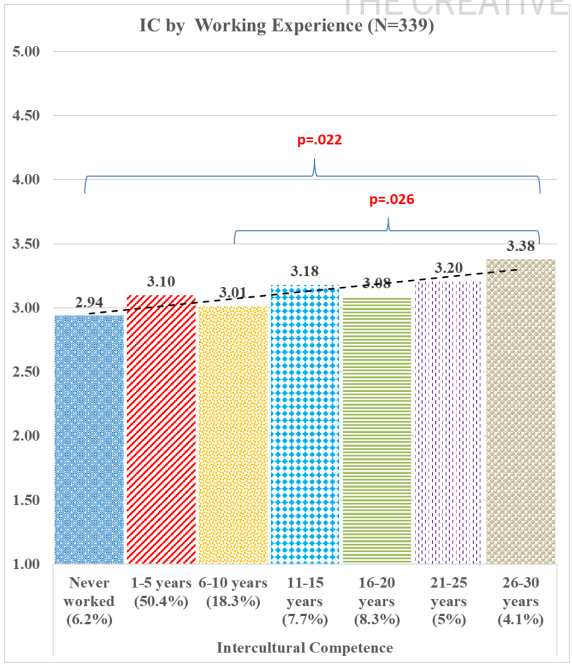


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Figure 4-12 shows that the more working experience the respondents have, the higher is their EI and IC. The top three rankings of means for EI are as follow: 26 - 30 years ($\bar{x}$ = 5.60), 21-25 years ($\bar{x}$ = 5.16) and 16-20 years ($\bar{x}$ = 5.14). For means of IC, the top two are the same as EI, which 26 - 30 years ($\bar{x}$ = 3.38), 21-25 years ($\bar{x}$ = 3.20) but the third rank is for 11-15 years ($\bar{x}$ = 3.18).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents who have different working experiences. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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EI and IC with Interaction with International Colleagues

Figure 4-13

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per interaction with international colleagues

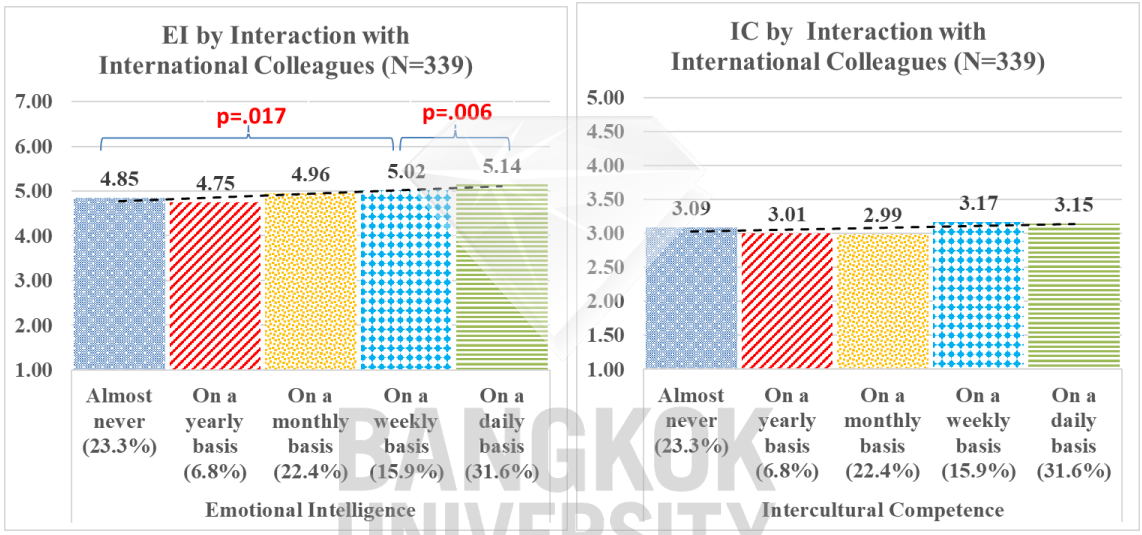

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Figure 4-13 shows the top three mean values of EI are those of participants who more frequently interact with international colleagues; start with interaction daily ($\bar{x}$ = 5.14), weekly ($\bar{x}$ = 5.02), and monthly ($\bar{x}$ = 4.96). While the means of IC are quite close between each variable but interaction weekly ($\bar{x}$ = 3.17) ranked the highest, followed by daily ($\bar{x}$ = 3.15), almost never ($\bar{x}$ = 3.09), yearly ($\bar{x}$ = 3.01), and monthly ($\bar{x}$ = 2.99).

Then, a one-way ANOVA shows that EI has a statistically significant difference between interactions with international colleagues on a rarely and daily basis (p = .006)

and daily and yearly (p = .017). But there is no statistically significant difference in IC between interactions with international colleagues.

EI and IC with Work Sector

Figure 4-14

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per work sector

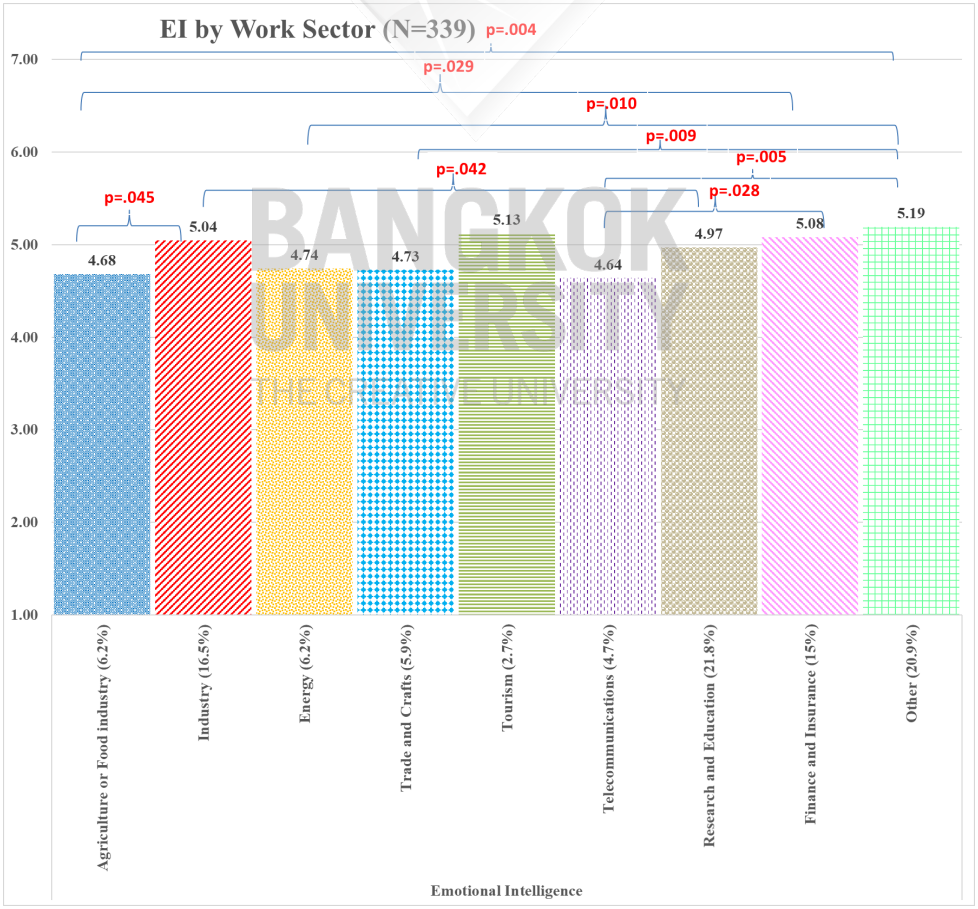

Figure 4-14 (Continued)

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per work sector

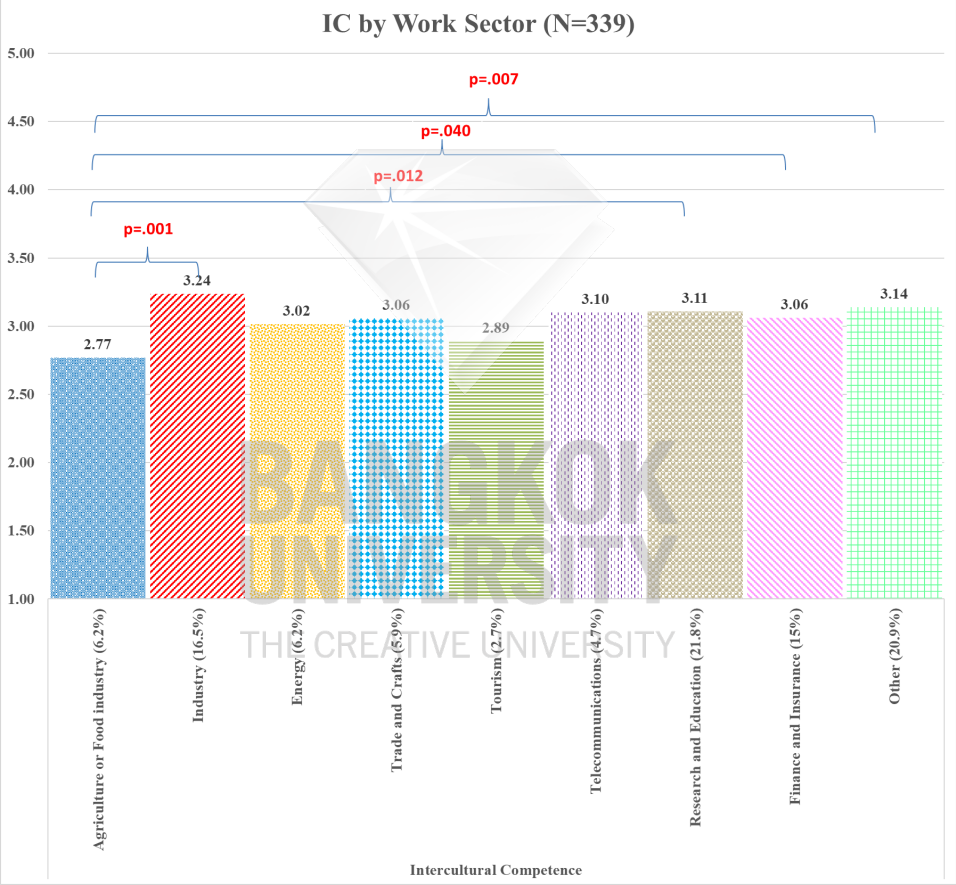

Figure 4-14 showed the top three mean EI values of respondents who work in "other sector" ($\bar{x}$ = 5.19), tourism ($\bar{x}$ = 5.13), and finance and insurance ($\bar{x}$ = 5.08) respectively. And, the top three IC mean values of respondents who work in industry ($\bar{x}$ = 3.24), "other sector" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14), and research and education ($\bar{x}$ = 3.11).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that both EI and IC show statistically significant differences between respondents from different work sectors. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

EI and IC with Virtual Team Experience

Figure 4-15

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per virtual team experience

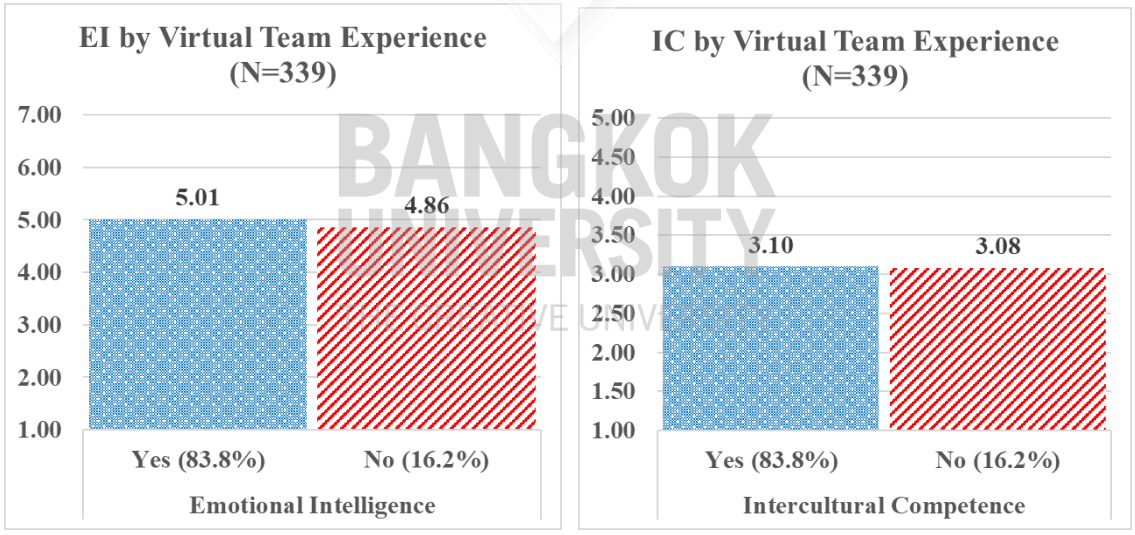

Figure 4-15 shows that respondents who have had virtual team experience have the highest mean values of both EI and IC ($\bar{x}$ = 5.01, $\bar{x}$ = 3.10 respectively).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed no statistically significant difference in EI and IC between respondents who have had virtual team experience.

EI and IC with Mood

Figure 4-16

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per mood

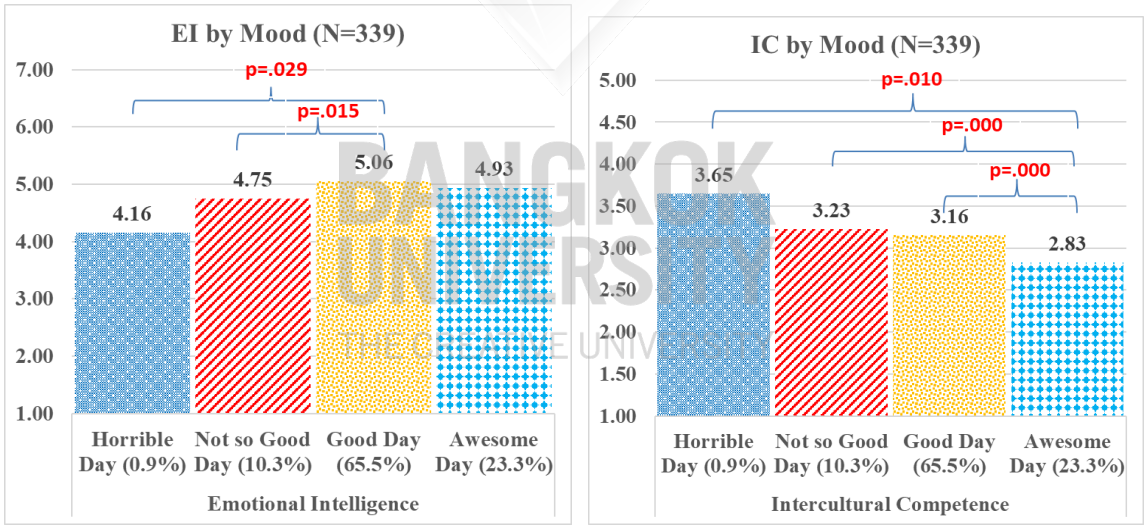

Figure 4-16 shows that the mean EI value of respondents was ranked from highest to lowest based on their positive to negative mood; good day ($\bar{x}$ = 5.06), fantastic day ($\bar{x}$ = 4.93), not so good day ($\bar{x}$ = 4.75) and horrible day ($\bar{x}$ = 4.16) respectively. Conversely, the highest to the lowest mean of IC are ranked as follow; horrible day ($\bar{x}$ = 3.65), not so good day ($\bar{x}$ = 3.23), good day ($\bar{x}$ = 3.16), and a fabulous day ($\bar{x}$ = 2.83).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that both EI and IC are statistically significant differences between respondents who have different moods. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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Table 4-6: The results of statistically significant differences between EI and IC on demographic information

Demographic Information	All respondents (N=339)		Type I: Thailand (N=106)		Type II: France (N=114)		Type III: USA (N=339)	
	Results of statistically significant difference on…							
	EI	IC	EI	IC	EI	IC	EI	IC
Cultural Types *	Yes	Yes	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Gender	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Age	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Education	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Student / Working professional status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
English Level	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Employment Status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Experience in living abroad	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Work experience	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Interaction with International Colleagues	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Work sector	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Virtual team experience	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Mood	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes

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Table 4-6 summarizes results of statistically significant difference between EI and IC on demographic information; when looking at results from all samples (n=339), both EI and IC are statistically significant differences between cultural types, educational background, status, English level, employment status, experience in living abroad, work experience, work sector, and mood. But only EI has statistically significant differences between age and interaction with international colleagues. And only IC has statistically significant differences between respondents with different virtual team experiences.

Descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Styles/Behavior

This section will present the descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Styles/Behavior of respondents from different cultural backgrounds. The framework of conflict management styles used in this research includes three ICS styles (accommodation style, dynamic style, discussion style), based on two dimensions (direct/indirect approach and emotional, expressive/restraint strategy). The results for mean values, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, F-statistic, and p-values are presented in Table 4-7 and Table 4-8, while the summary results of the contrast tests are shown with graphs. In addition, the minimum and maximum values were based on the number of times a conflict management strategy has been chosen from 18 scenarios.

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Table 4-7

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of conflict management style for three cultural backgrounds

Descriptives Conflict Management Styles

		N	Count Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (0-18)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Accommodation	Thailand	106	5.11	1.82	0.18	4.76	5.46	2	9
	France	114	5.28	2.07	0.19	4.90	5.66	2	11
	USA	119	5.88	1.84	0.17	5.55	6.22	1	10
	Total	339	5.44	1.93	0.11	5.23	5.65	1	11
Dynamic	Thailand	106	5.68	2.31	0.22	5.23	6.12	2	15
	France	114	5.62	2.27	0.21	5.20	6.04	2	11
	USA	119	7.73	2.23	0.20	7.33	8.14	2	13
	Total	339	6.38	2.47	0.13	6.12	6.64	2	15
Discussion	Thailand	106	7.21	2.50	0.24	6.73	7.69	0	12
	France	114	7.10	2.60	0.24	6.61	7.58	0	14
	USA	119	4.39	2.47	0.23	3.94	4.84	0	14
	Total	339	6.18	2.84	0.15	5.88	6.48	0	14

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ANOVA Conflict Management Styles

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Accommodation	Between Groups	37.498	2	18.749	5.130	0.006
	Within Groups	1228.012	336	3.655		
	Total	1265.510	338			
Dynamic	Between Groups	334.642	2	167.321	32.511	0.000
	Within Groups	1729.270	336	5.147		
	Total	2063.912	338			
Discussion	Between Groups	590.433	2	295.216	46.317	0.000
	Within Groups	2141.591	336	6.374		
	Total	2732.024	338			

Table 4-7 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of conflict management style for three cultural backgrounds

Contrast Coefficients			
Contrast (Comparison between)	**Cultural Background Types**		
	Thailand (Type I)	**France (Type II)**	**USA (Type III)**
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Contrast Tests

Contrast			**Value of Contrast**	**Std. Error**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Accommodation	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.17	0.258	0.649	336	0.517
		TH & USA	0.77	0.255	3.012	336	**0.003**
		FR & USA	0.60	0.251	2.401	336	**0.017**
Dynamic	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.06	0.306	-0.184	336	0.854
		TH & USA	2.05	0.303	6.772	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	2.11	0.297	7.091	336	**0.000**
Discussion	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.11	0.341	-0.326	336	0.745
		TH & USA	-2.82	0.337	-8.366	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-2.71	0.331	-8.190	336	**0.000**

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Figure 4-17

The preferred conflict management styles among the Thais, French, and Americans

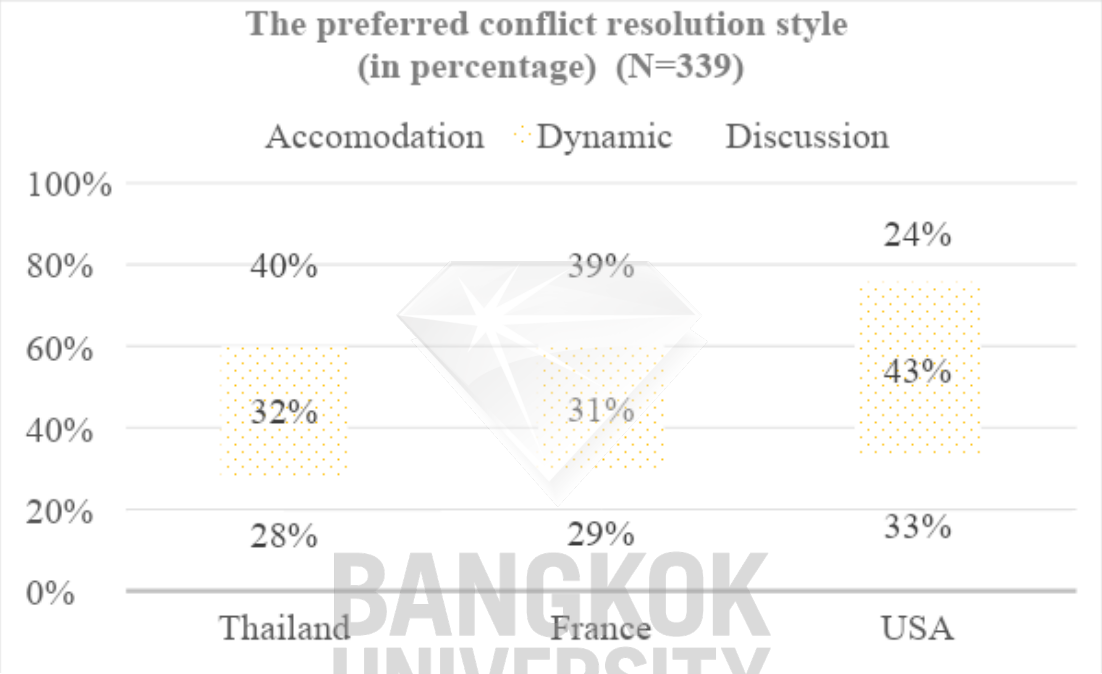

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Figure 4-17 presented the preferred conflict management style used among the Thais, French, and Americans. The result shows that the Thai (40%) and French (39%) preferred using discussion style, while American (43%) preferred using dynamic style.

Figure 4-18

Means comparison of intercultural conflict management styles per cultural background types

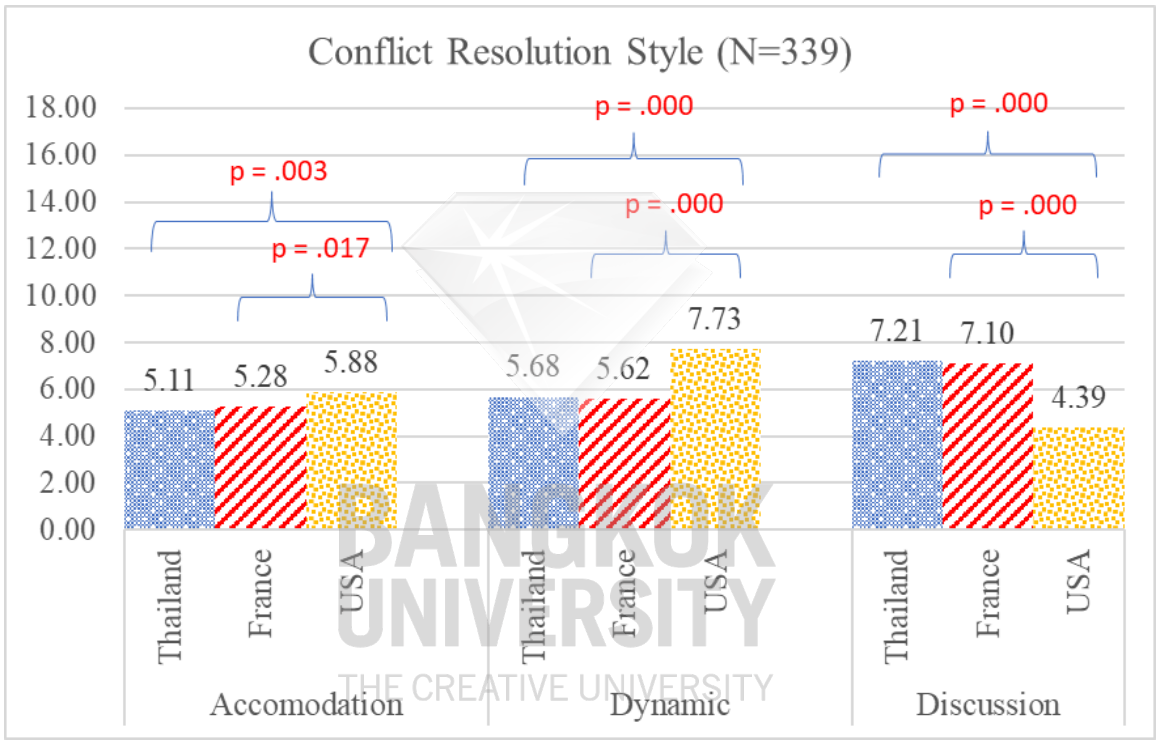

Table 4-7 and Figure 4-18 concluded that the use of accommodation style is most frequent by Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 5.88), while French and Thai are similar ($\bar{x}$ = 5.28, $\bar{x}$ = 5.11 respectively). Similarly, Americans also have the highest mean value for the use of dynamic style ($\bar{x}$ = 7.73), while the mean values for French and Thai are close ($\bar{x}$ = 5.62, $\bar{x}$ = 5.68 respectively). Conversely, the mean for the use of discussion style among Thai is highest ($\bar{x}$ = 7.21), and French is quite close to Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 7.10), while the Americans ranked lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.39).

To summarize, Thai and French have similar mean values for using all intercultural conflict management styles. In contrast, Americans have the highest mean values for the accommodation and dynamic styles but the lowest for the discussion style.

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that intercultural conflict management styles are significantly different between respondents from different cultural backgrounds.

- The use of accommodation style is significantly different between Thailand and the USA (p = .003) and France and the USA (p = .017).
- The use of dynamic and discussion styles is significantly different between Thailand and the USA (p = .000) and France and the USA (p = .000).

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Figure 4-19

The contrast results on the choices of intercultural conflict management style used among sub-sample

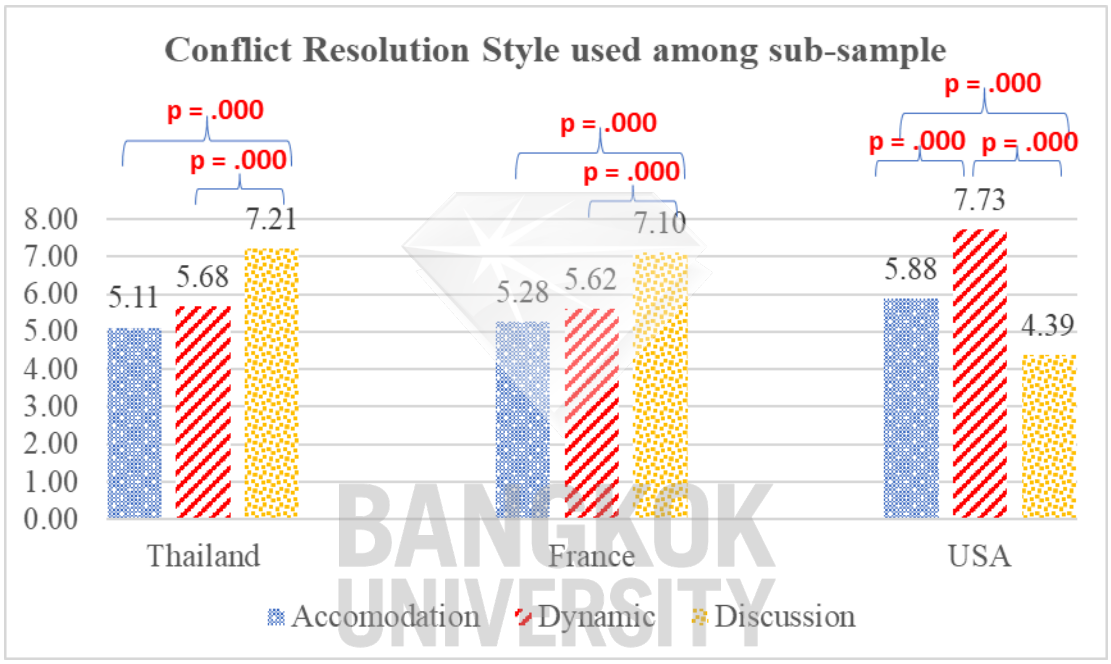

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Figure 4-19 showed the contrast results that the expected choices of intercultural conflict management styles used are significantly different between respondents from different cultural backgrounds.

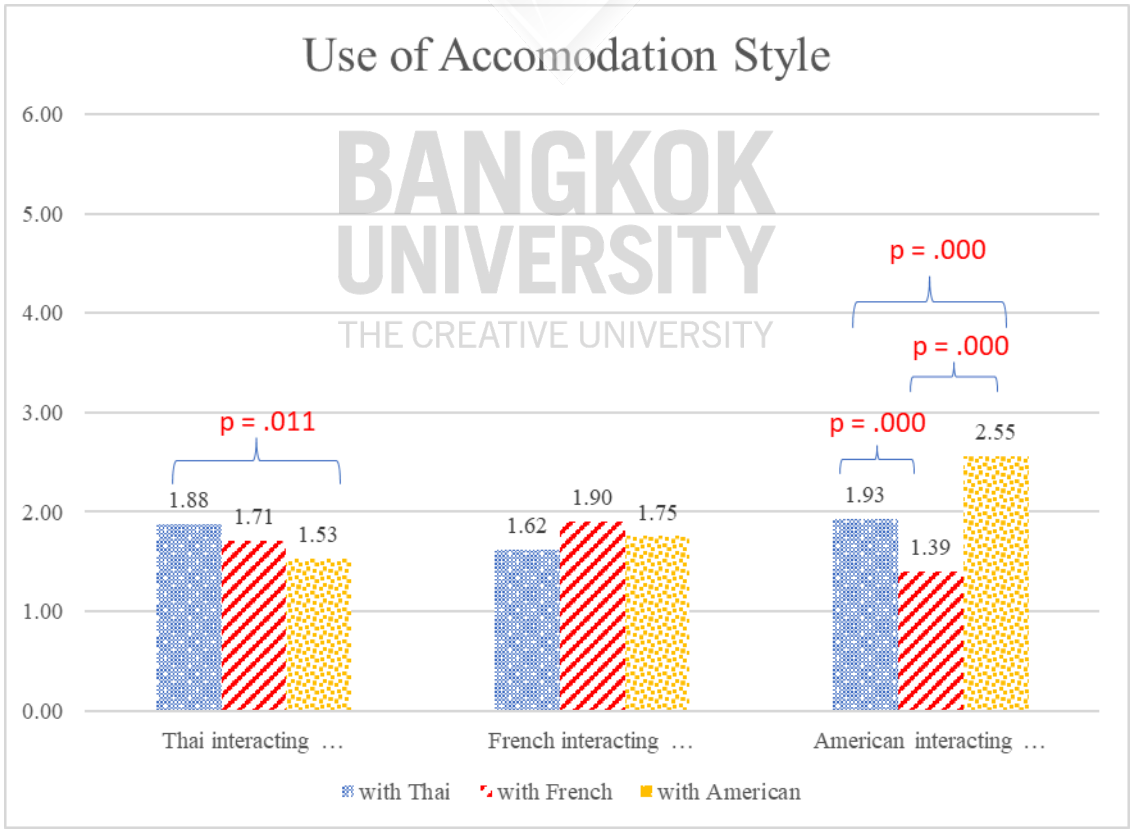
- The use of intercultural conflict management style among the Thais and French are significantly different between accommodation and discussion style (p = .000) and dynamic and discussion style (p = .000).
- The use of intercultural conflict management style among the Americans are significantly different between accommodation and discussion style (p = .000),

accommodation and dynamic style (p = .000), and dynamic and discussion style (p = .000).

Additionally, the three following graphs present the significant results of conflict management styles with team members from different cultural backgrounds.

Figure 4-20

Means comparison of the use of accommodation style per interaction with cultural differences



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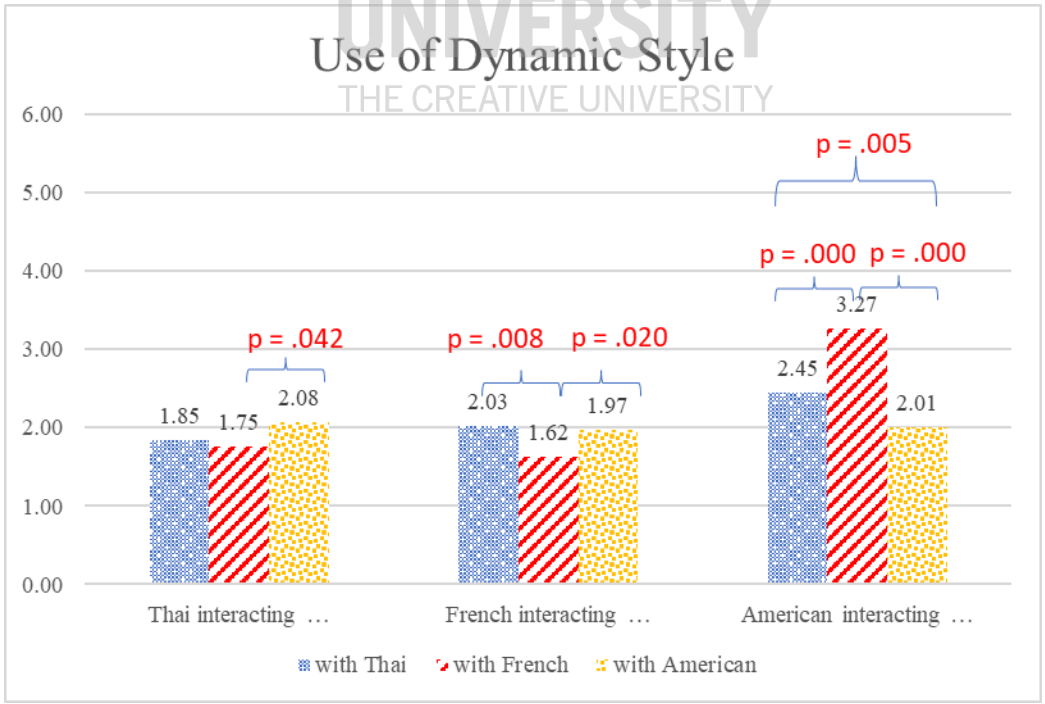
The result from Figure 4-20 shows that there are statistically significant differences in the use of accommodation style between Thai interacting with Thai and with Americans (p = .011), Americans interacting with Thai and French (p = .000), Americans interacting with Thai and American (p = .000), and American interacting with French and American (p = .000). It is concluded that the use of accommodation style is always highest with people from the same cultural background, and lower with people from a different cultural background.

Figure 4-21

Means comparison of the use of dynamic style per interaction with cultural differences



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Furthermore, the result from Figure 4-21 summarized that there are statistically significant differences in the use of the dynamic style between Thai interacting with French and Americans ($p = .042$), French interacting with Thai and French ($p = .008$), French interacting with French and Americans ($p = .020$), Americans interacting with Thai and French ($p = .000$), Americans interacting with Thai and Americans ($p = .005$). Americans were interacting with French and Americans ($p = .000$). The result concluded that Thai use the dynamic style more often to interact with Americans, French use it more with both different cultural backgrounds, but less with other French people and Americans use it A LOT with French, and also more with Thai, but not so much with other Americans. Visibly, this style is used more with people from different cultures.

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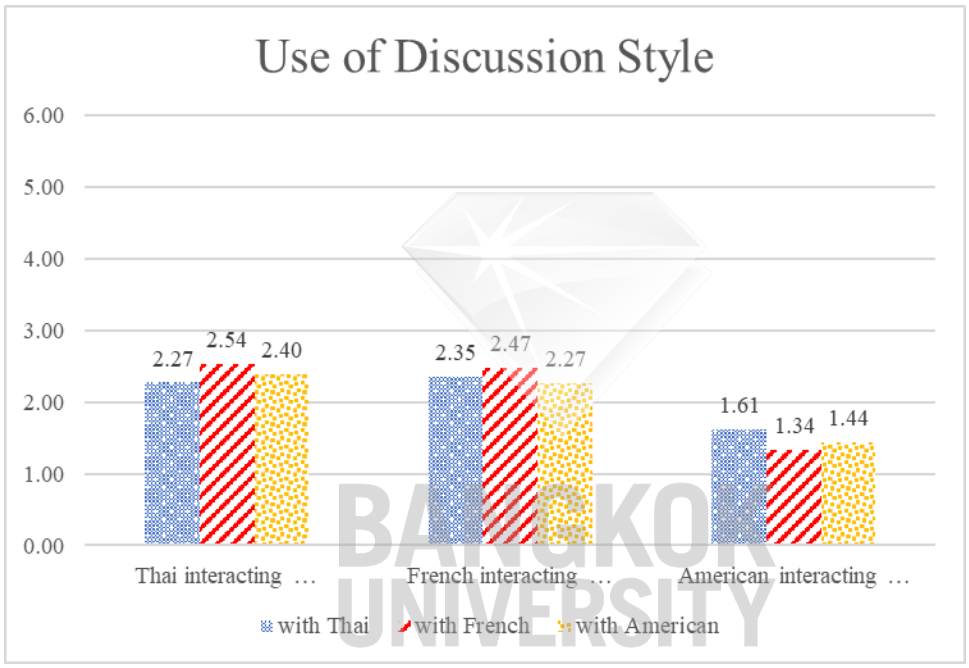
Figure 4-22

Means comparison of the use of discussion style per interaction with team members from different cultural backgrounds



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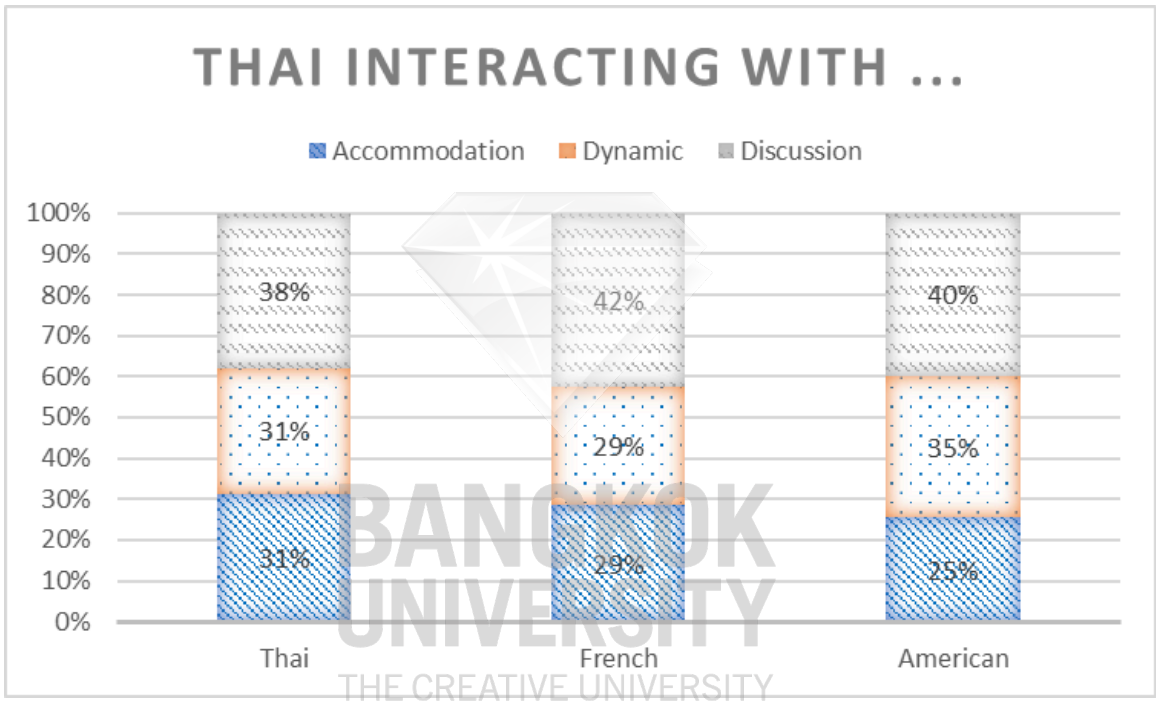
Incidentally, Figure 4-22 shows the statistically insignificant differences in the use of discussion style between the three subsamples.

Figure 4-23

Compared percentage among Thai interaction with cultural differences on the use of intercultural conflict styles



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Moreover, Figure 4-23 shows that when Thai interact with Thai (38%), French (42%), and Americans (40%), they are most likely to use discussion style when dealing with intercultural conflict and using dynamic and accommodation styles equally when Thai is interacting with Thai (31%) and French (29%). But when Thais interact with Americans, they use the dynamic style (35%) more than the accommodation style (25%).

Figure 4-24

Compared percentage of the use of intercultural conflict management styles among French interacting with culturally different team members

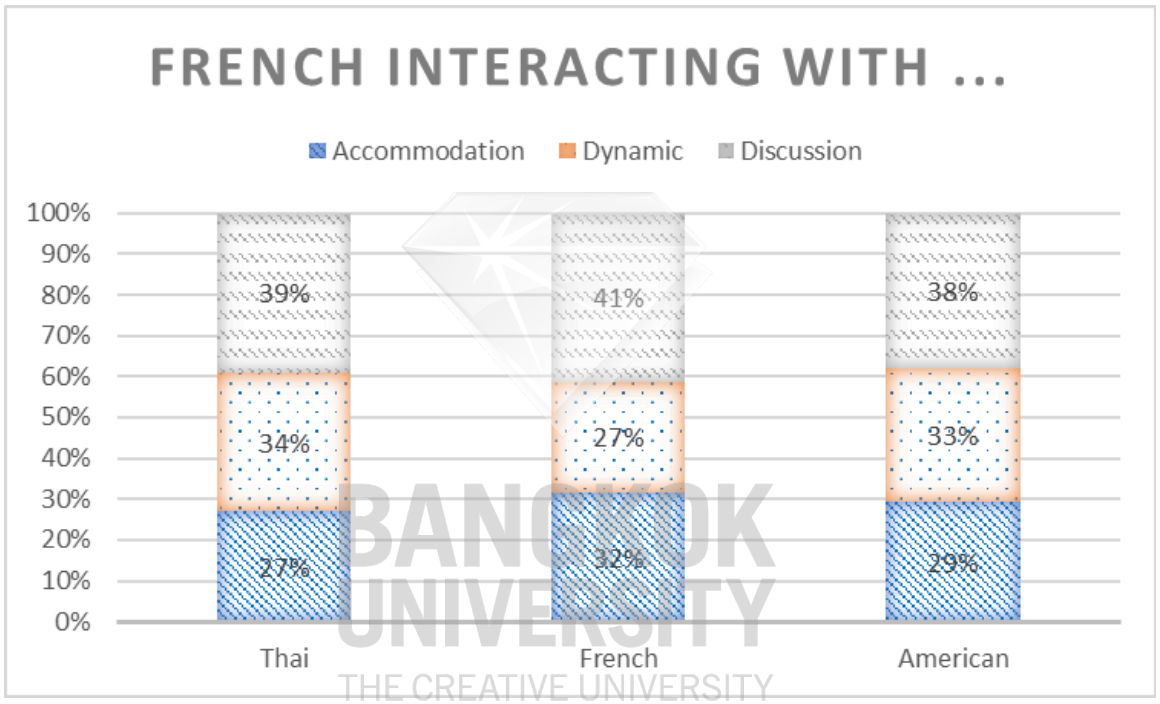

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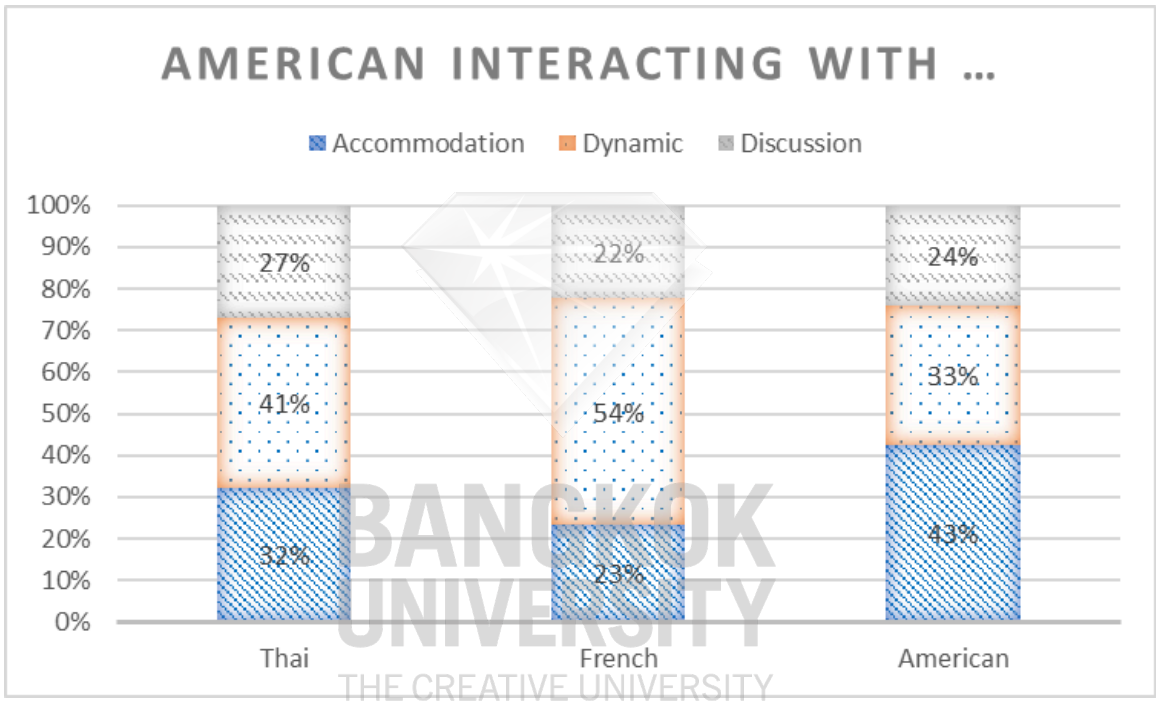
Figure 4-24 shows that when French participants were interacting with Thai (39%), French (41%), and Americans (38%), they most likely used the discussion style, followed by the use of the dynamic style and the accommodation style respectively when French interact with Thai (34%, 27%) and American (33%, 29%). But when the French interacted with the French, they used dynamic style the least (27%).

Figure 4-25

Compared percentage of the use of intercultural conflict management styles among Americans interacting with culturally different team members



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Finally, Figure 4-25 sums up that when Americans are interacting with Thai, they are more likely to use the dynamic style (41%), followed by accommodation (32%) and discussion (27%) style. They used the dynamic style (54%) the most when interacting with French and used the accommodation style (23%) and the discussion style (22%) almost equally. But when Americans interact with Americans, they are more likely to use the accommodation style (43%) than the dynamic (33%) and discussion style (24%).

Table 4-8

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of conflict management behavior for three cultural backgrounds

Descriptives_Conflict Management Behavior

						95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (0-18)	
		N	Count Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Direct	Thailand	106	7.21	2.50	0.24	6.73	7.69	0	12
	France	114	7.10	2.60	0.24	6.61	7.58	0	14
	USA	119	4.39	2.47	0.23	3.94	4.84	0	14
	Total	339	6.18	2.84	0.15	5.88	6.48	0	14
Indirect	Thailand	106	10.79	2.50	0.24	10.31	11.27	6	18
	France	114	10.90	2.60	0.24	10.42	11.39	4	18
	USA	119	13.61	2.47	0.23	13.16	14.06	4	18
	Total	339	11.82	2.84	0.15	11.52	12.12	4	18
Emotion Expressive	Thailand	106	5.68	2.31	0.22	5.23	6.12	2	15
	France	114	5.62	2.27	0.21	5.20	6.04	2	11
	USA	119	7.73	2.23	0.20	7.33	8.14	2	13
	Total	339	6.38	2.47	0.13	6.12	6.64	2	15
Emotion Restraint	Thailand	106	12.32	2.31	0.22	11.88	12.77	3	16
	France	114	12.38	2.27	0.21	11.96	12.80	7	16
	USA	119	10.27	2.23	0.20	9.86	10.67	5	16
	Total	339	11.62	2.47	0.13	11.36	11.88	3	16

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Table 4-8 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of conflict management behavior for three cultural backgrounds

ANOVA Conflict Management Behavior

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Direct	Between Groups	590.433	2	295.216	46.317	0.000
	Within Groups	2141.591	336	6.374		
	Total	2732.024	338			
Indirect	Between Groups	590.433	2	295.216	46.317	0.000
	Within Groups	2141.591	336	6.374		
	Total	2732.024	338			
Emotion Expressive	Between Groups	334.642	2	167.321	32.511	0.000
	Within Groups	1729.270	336	5.147		
	Total	2063.912	338			
Emotion Restraint	Between Groups	334.642	2	167.321	32.511	0.000
	Within Groups	1729.270	336	5.147		
	Total	2063.912	338			

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Contrast Coefficients			
Contrast (Comparison between)	Cultural Background Types		
	Thailand (Type I)	France (Type II)	USA (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Table 4-8 (Continued)

Summarized means, SD, p-value, and planned contrasted of conflict management behavior for three cultural backgrounds

Contrast Tests

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Direct	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.11	0.341	-0.326	336	0.745
		TH & USA	-2.82	0.337	-8.366	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-2.71	0.331	-8.190	336	**0.000**
Indirect	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.11	0.341	0.326	336	0.745
		TH & USA	2.82	0.337	8.366	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	2.71	0.331	8.190	336	**0.000**
Emotion Expressive	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.06	0.306	-0.184	336	0.854
		TH & USA	2.05	0.303	6.772	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	2.11	0.297	7.091	336	**0.000**
Emotion Restraint	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.06	0.306	0.184	336	0.854
		TH & USA	-2.05	0.303	-6.772	336	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-2.11	0.297	-7.091	336	**0.000**

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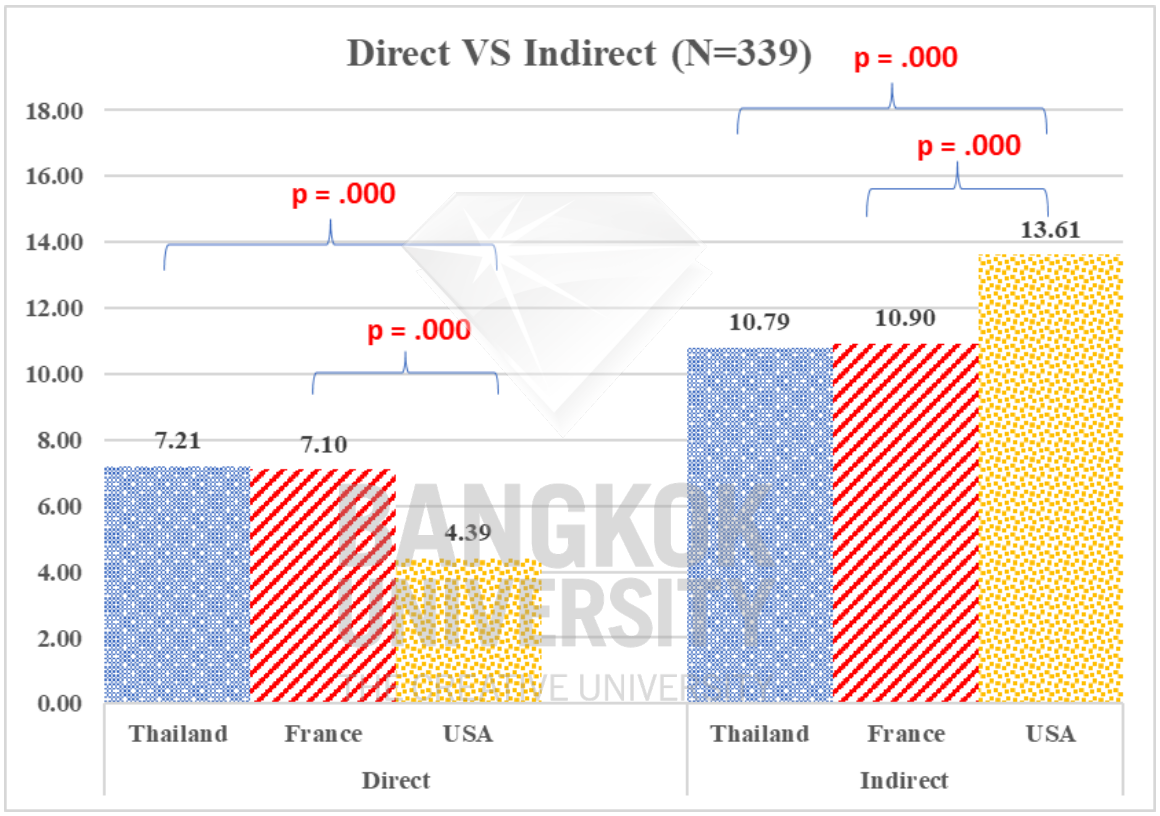
Figure 4-26

Means comparison of communication approaches (direct/indirect) per cultural backgrounds



The above Table 4-8 and Figure 4-26 displays the means of communication approaches. The result is quite surprising: the mean for the use of a direct approach among Thai is highest ($\bar{x}$ = 7.21), followed by French ($\bar{x}$ = 7.10) and American ranked lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.39). On the other hand, Americans have the highest mean value for the use

of the indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ = 13.61), while the mean values of French and Thai participants are close ($\bar{x}$ = 10.90, $\bar{x}$ = 10.79 respectively).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that communication approaches used in intercultural conflict management are statistically significantly different between respondents from different cultural backgrounds. The *p*-value and significance results for each contrast concluded that direct and indirect approaches are used significantly differently between Thailand and the USA (p = .000, p = .000) and France and the USA (p = .000, p = .000) respectively.

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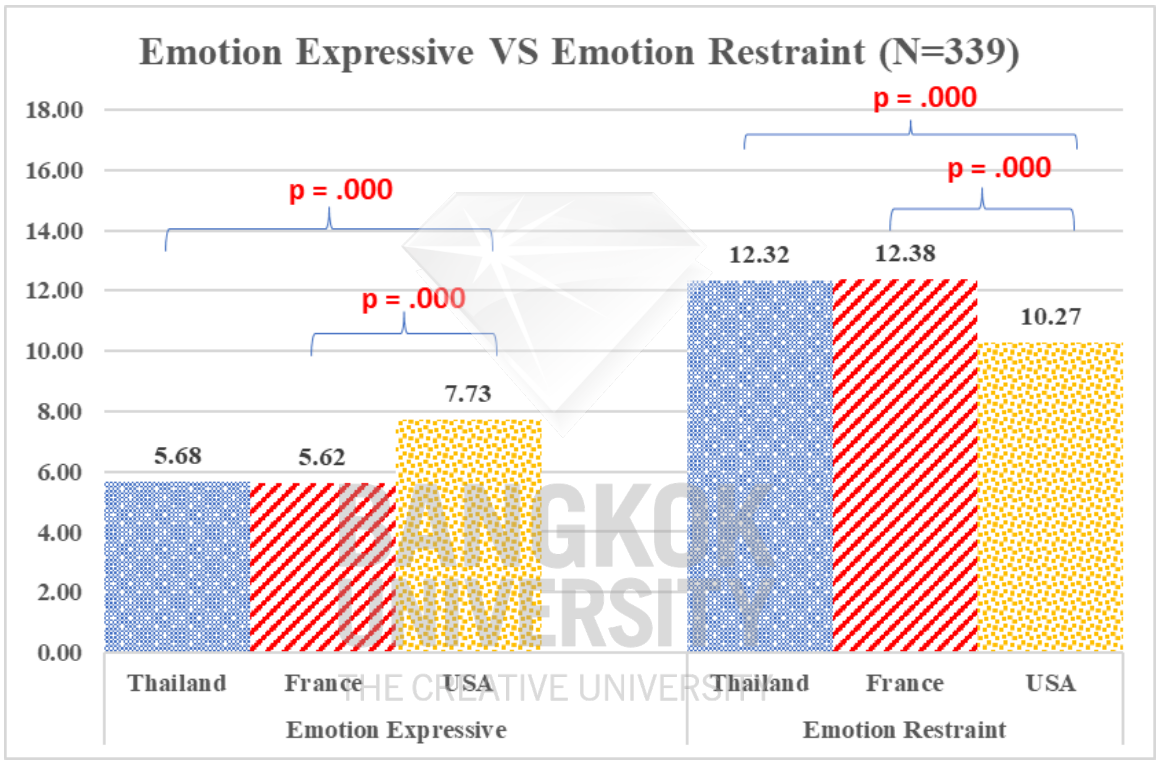
Figure 4-27

Means comparison of emotional strategies (expressive/restraint) per cultural background types



Correspondingly, Figure 4-27 displays that the mean value of the use of emotional expressiveness is highest among Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 7.73), while Thai and French are similar ($\bar{x}$ = 5.68, $\bar{x}$ = 5.62 respectively). On the contrary, French and Thai ranked similarly high on the use of the emotional restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ = 12.38, $\bar{x}$ = 12.32 respectively), while Americans rank lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 10.27).

Then, a one-way ANOVA shows that the emotional strategy in intercultural conflict management is used significantly differently by participants from different cultural backgrounds. The *p*-value and significance for each contrast concluded that emotional expressiveness are significantly different between Thailand and the USA (p = .000, p = .000) and France and the USA (p = .000, p = .000) respectively.

To summarize the results of significance, it can be concluded that from our sample, US-Americans have a different intercultural conflict management behavior than Thai and French. In contrast, Thailand and France showed only statistically insignificant differences in conflict management behavior.

Appendix 8 and 10 summarize the mean values and the standard deviations of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior and the adaptation of ICS behavior of the three subsamples from different cultural backgrounds, broken down by demographic information.

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The following graphs report a one-way ANOVA result of the means value and *p*-value between-group variables on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior (ICS) by demographic information. All results are presented with graphs for the overall sample (N=339), but only significant results are reported for the three sub-sample, Thai (N=106), French (N=114), and Americans (N=119), in appendix 9.

ICS with Gender

Figure 4-28

Means comparison of ICS per gender

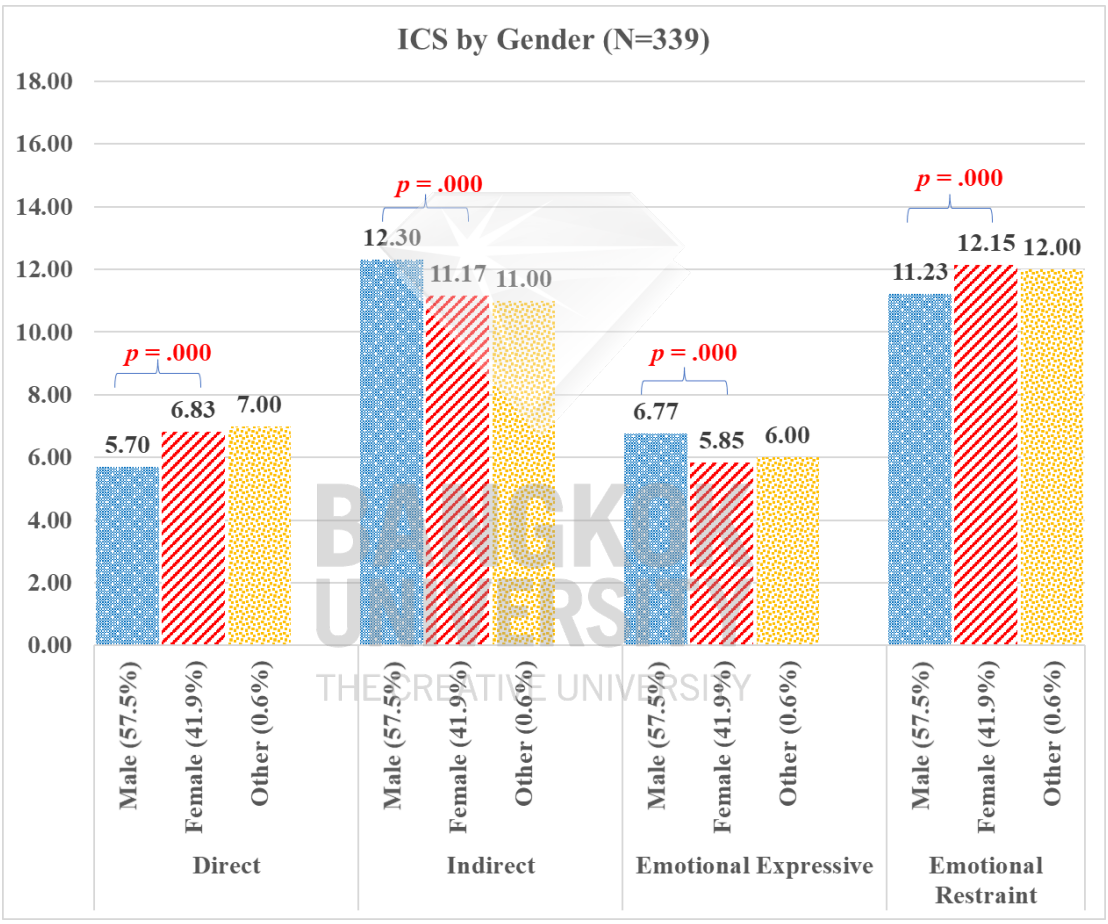

Figure 4-28 shows that women use a more direct approach and control emotion more than men, for overall ($\bar{x}$ = 6.83, $\bar{x}$ = 12.15), respectively. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between males and females. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with Age

Figure 4-29

Means comparison of ICS per age

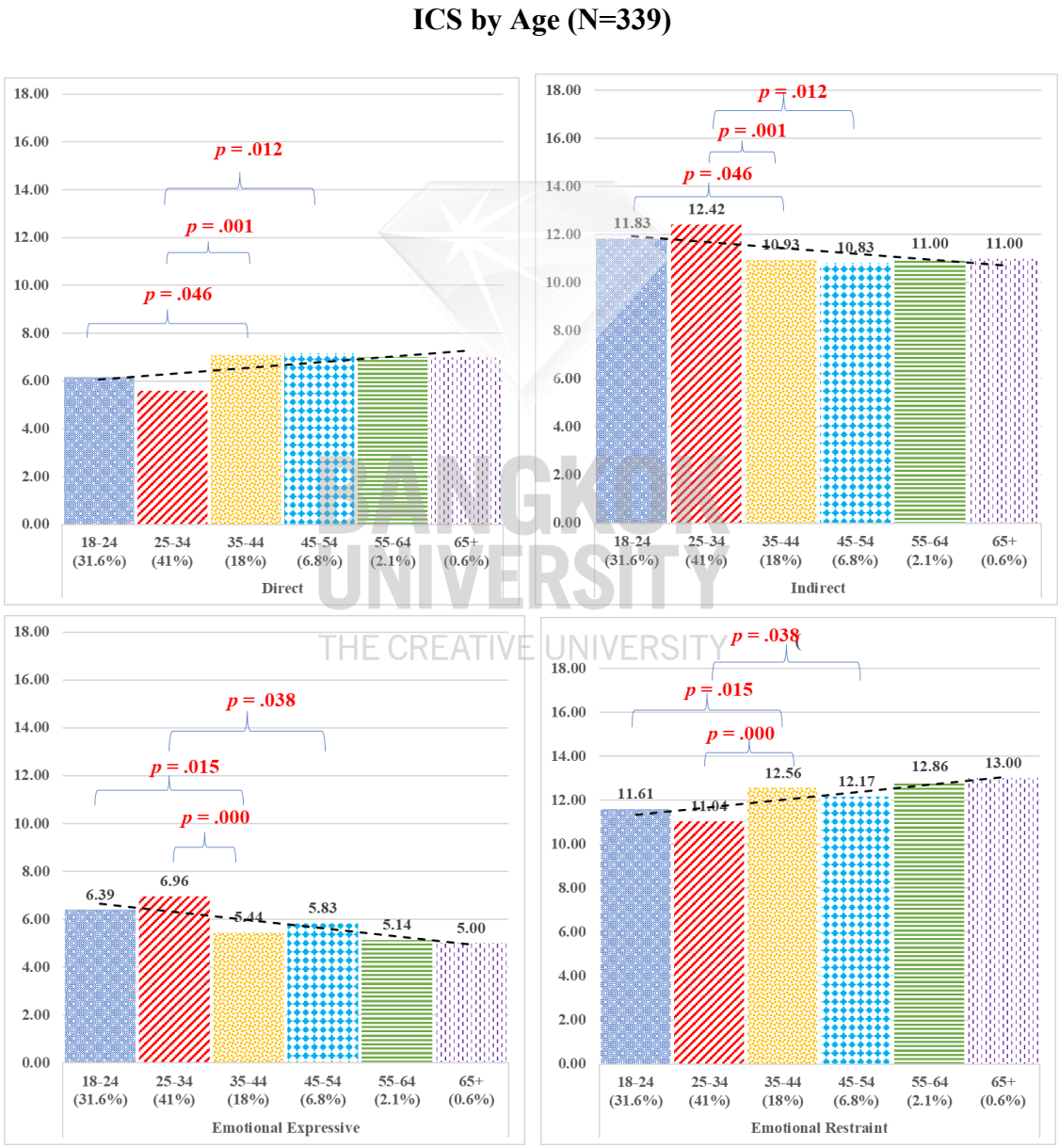

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Figure 4-29 showed that respondents aged between 25 and 34 frequently use the indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ = 12.42), while respondents aged 65 and over restrain their emotions more. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents of different ages. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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ICS with Educational Background

Figure 4-30

Means comparison of ICS per educational background

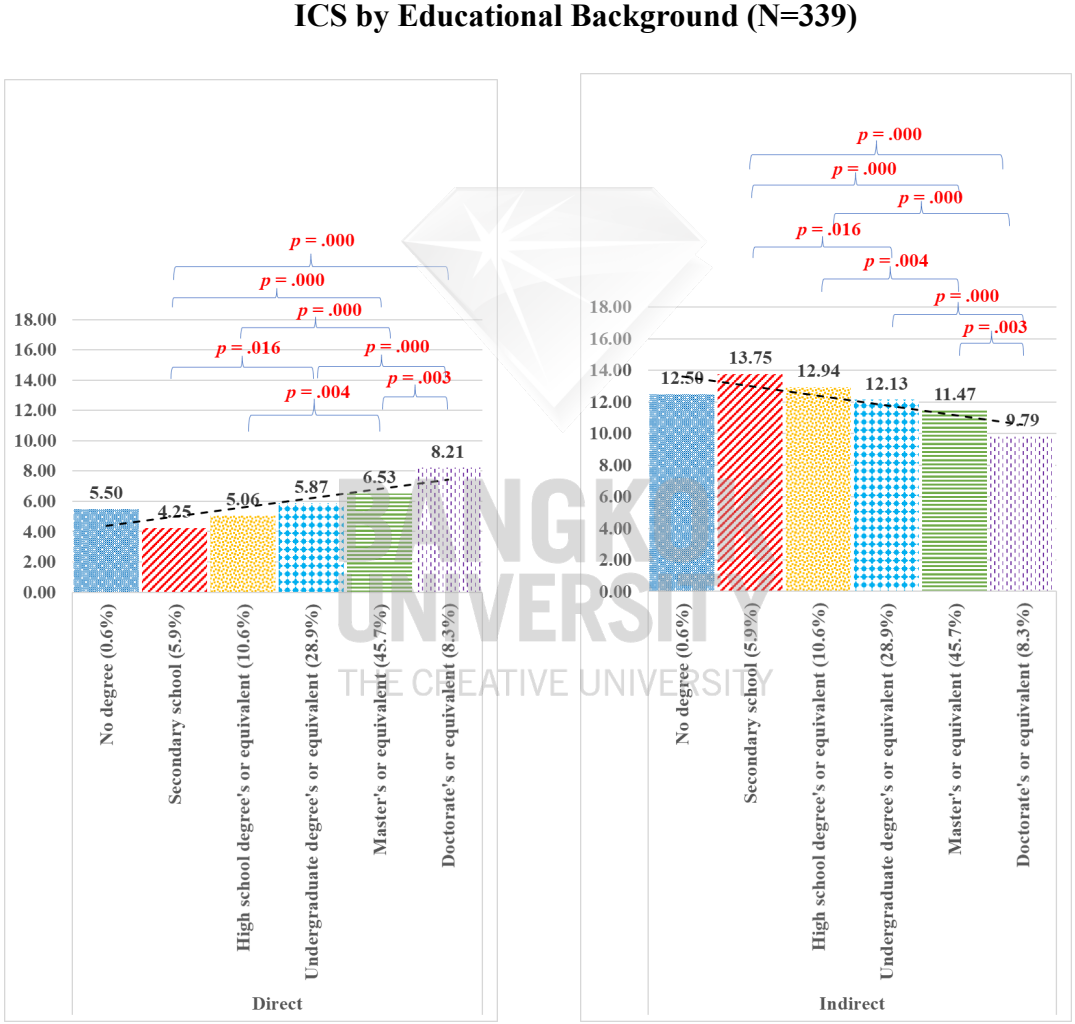

Figure 4-30 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS per educational background

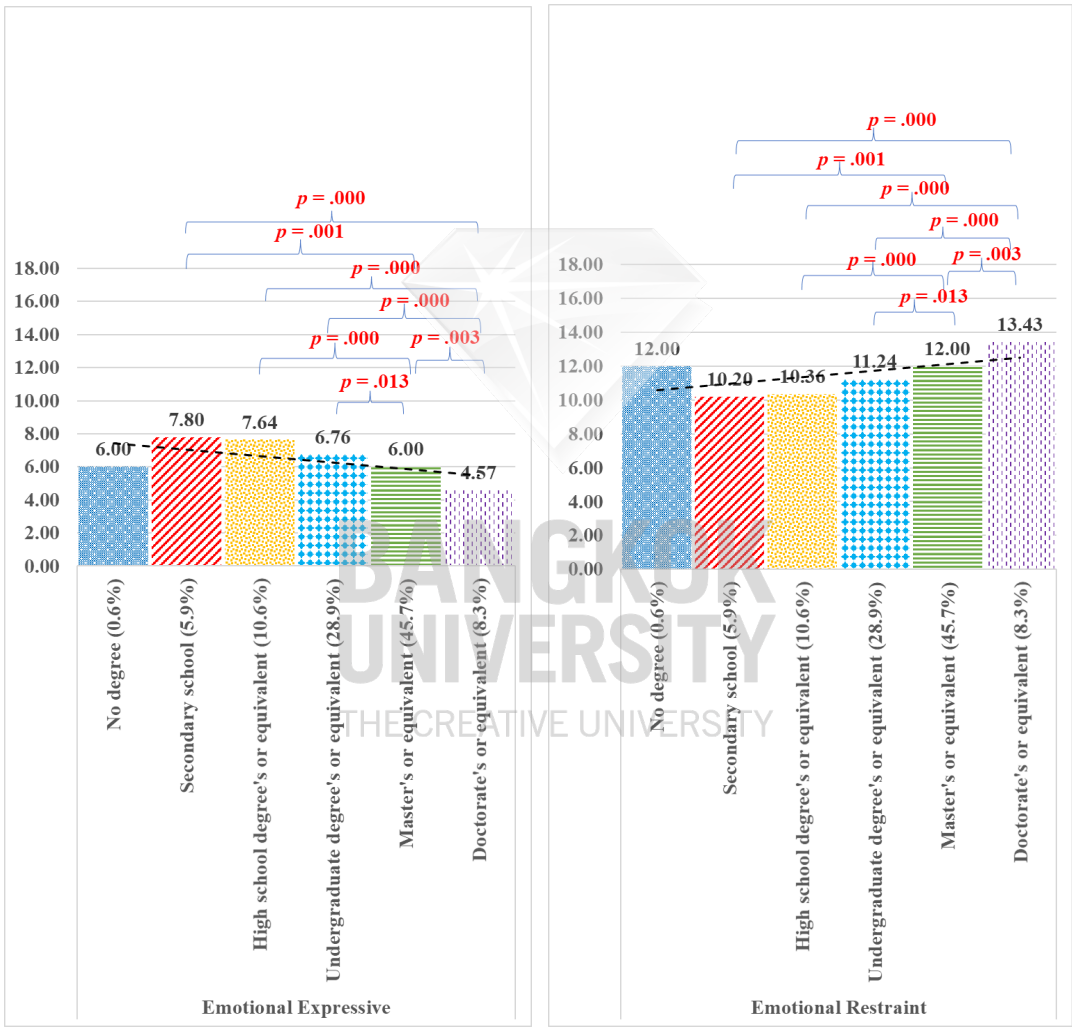

Figure 4-30 shows that respondents with a doctoral degree or equivalent frequently use a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ = 8.21 and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ = 13.43).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents from different educational backgrounds. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with Student and Working Professional Status

Figure 4-31

Means comparison of ICS per student and working professional status

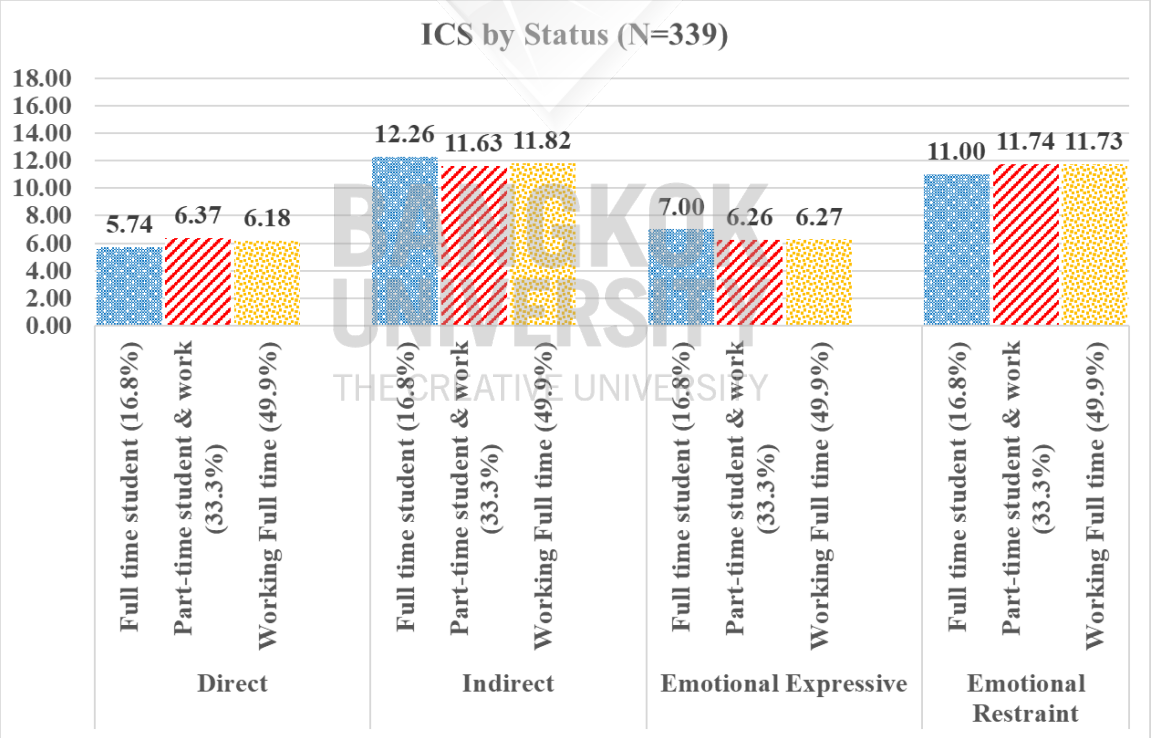

Figure 4-31 shows that respondents who work either part-time or full-time use a direct approach and emotionally restraint strategy slightly more than the other groups.

The results of a one-way ANOVA concluded that these differences are not statistically significant.

ICS with English level

Figure 4-32

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per English level

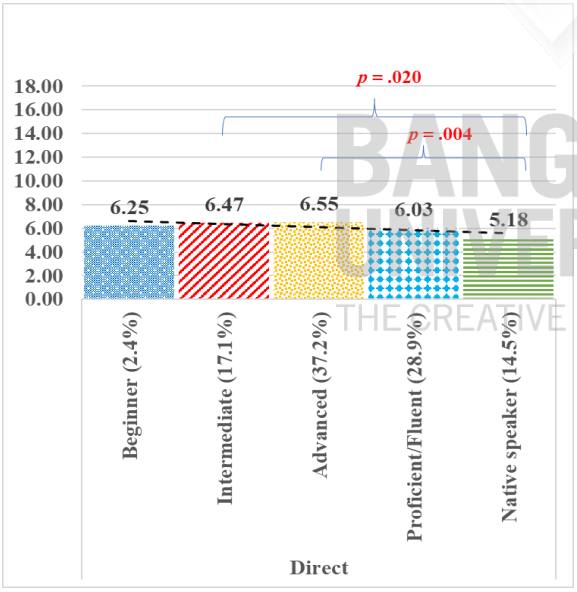

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Figure 4-32 (Continued)

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per English level

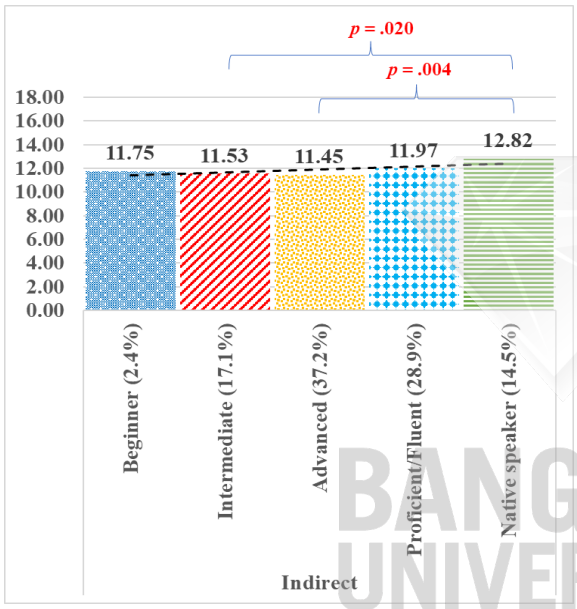

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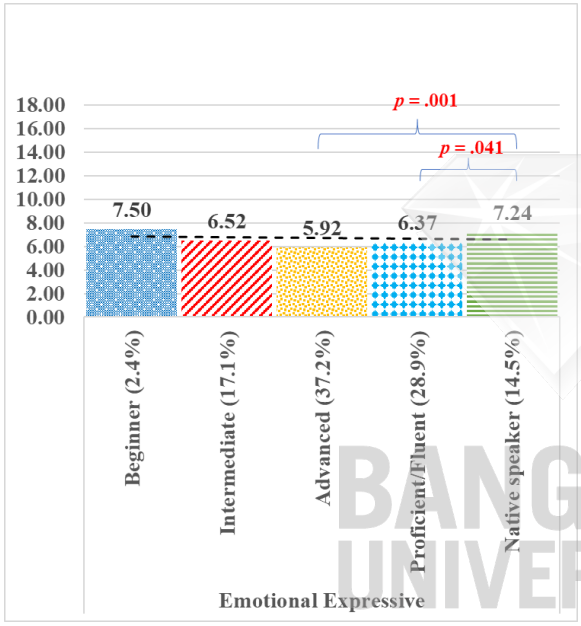
Figure 4-32 (Continued)

Means comparison of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Intercultural Competence (IC) per English level



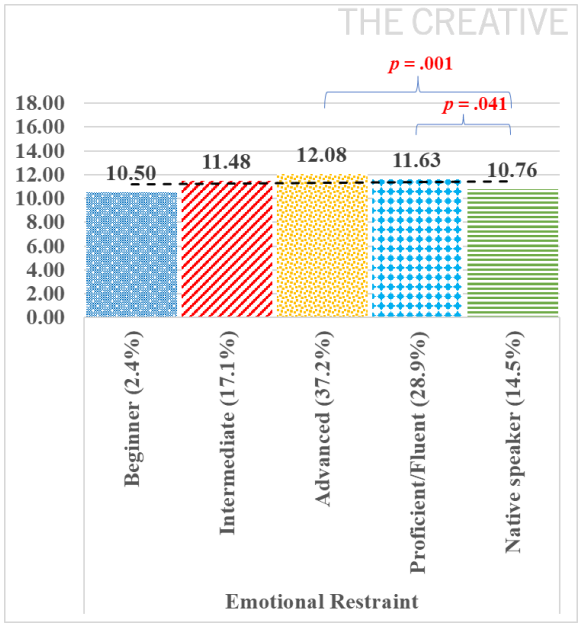


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Figure 4-32 shows that respondents with an advanced English level frequently use a direct approach and an emotional restraint strategy, ($\bar{x}$ = 6.55, $\bar{x}$ = 12.08). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents with different English levels. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with employment status

Figure 4-33

Means comparison of ICS per employment status

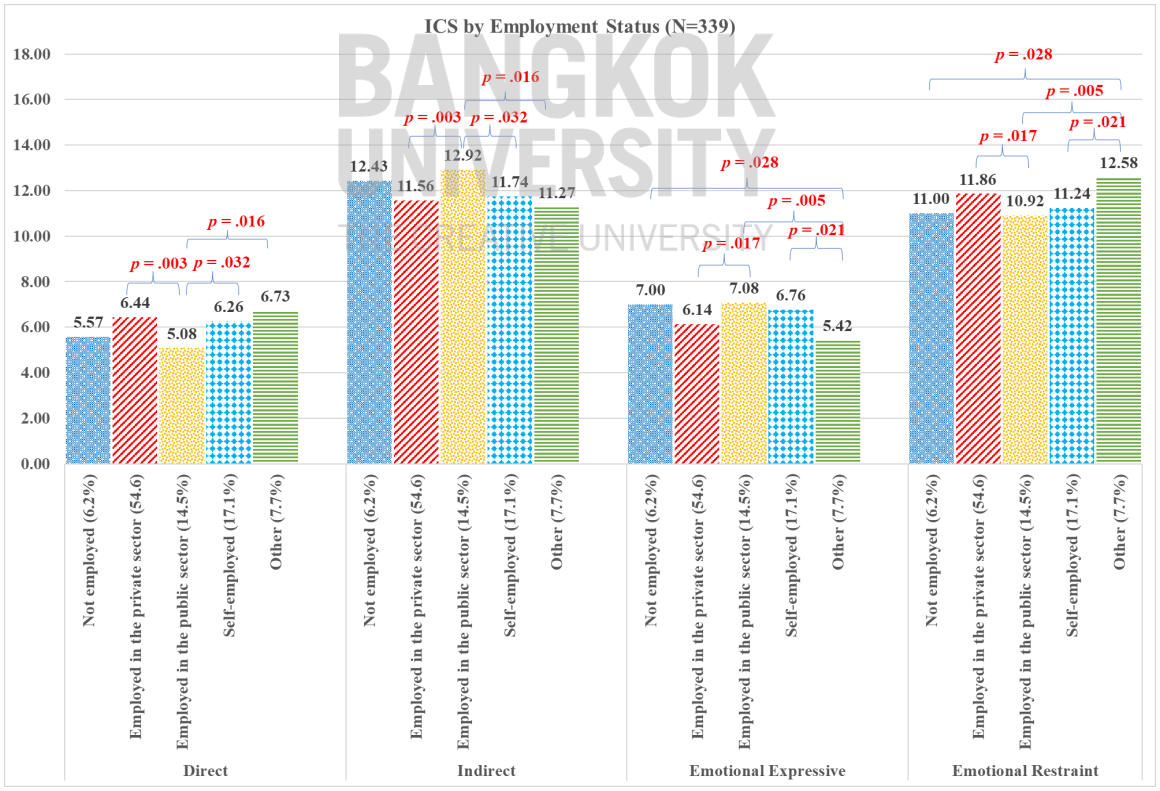

Figure 4-33 shows that respondents who were employed in the public sector frequently use an indirect approach and an emotionally expressive strategy, ($\bar{x}$ = 12.92, $\bar{x}$ = 7.08. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents who have a different employment status. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with experience in living abroad

Figure 4-34

Means comparison of ICS per experience on living abroad

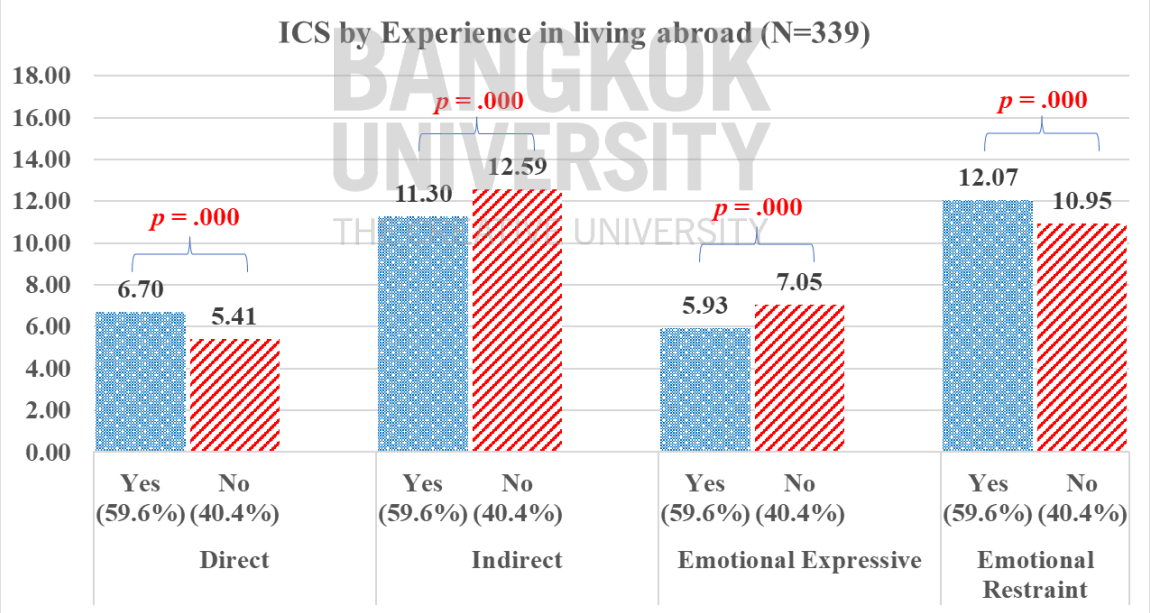

Figure 4-34 shows that respondents who have lived abroad frequently use a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ = 6.70) and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ = 12.07). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between

respondents who have and have not lived abroad. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with working experience

Figure 4-35

Means comparison of ICS per working experience

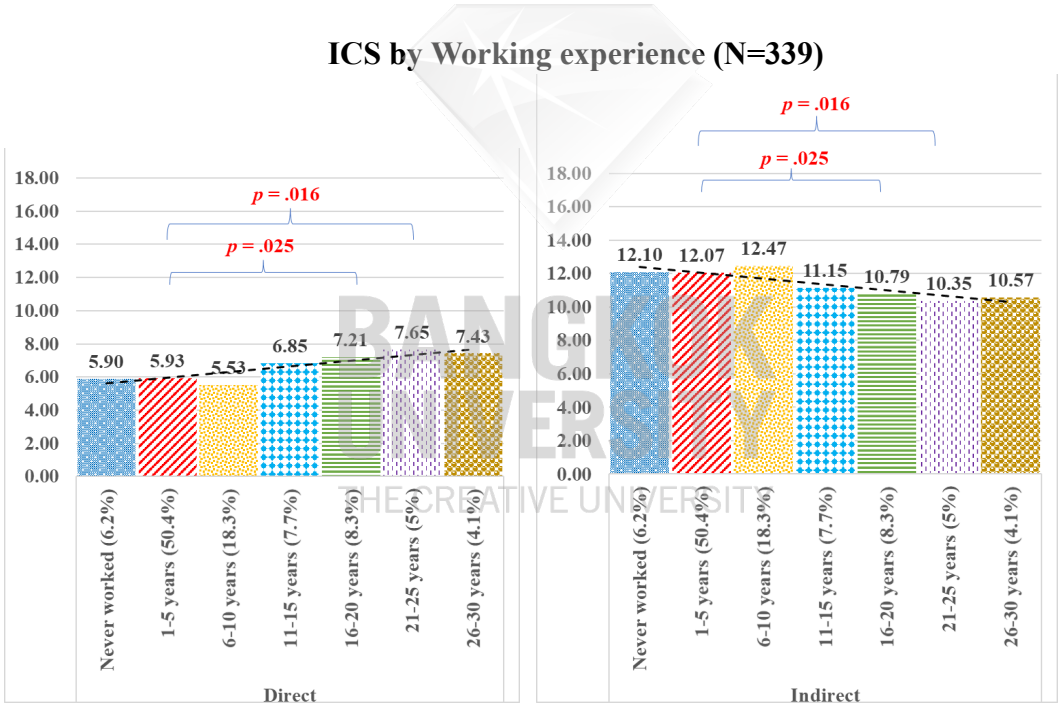

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Figure 4-35 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS per working experience

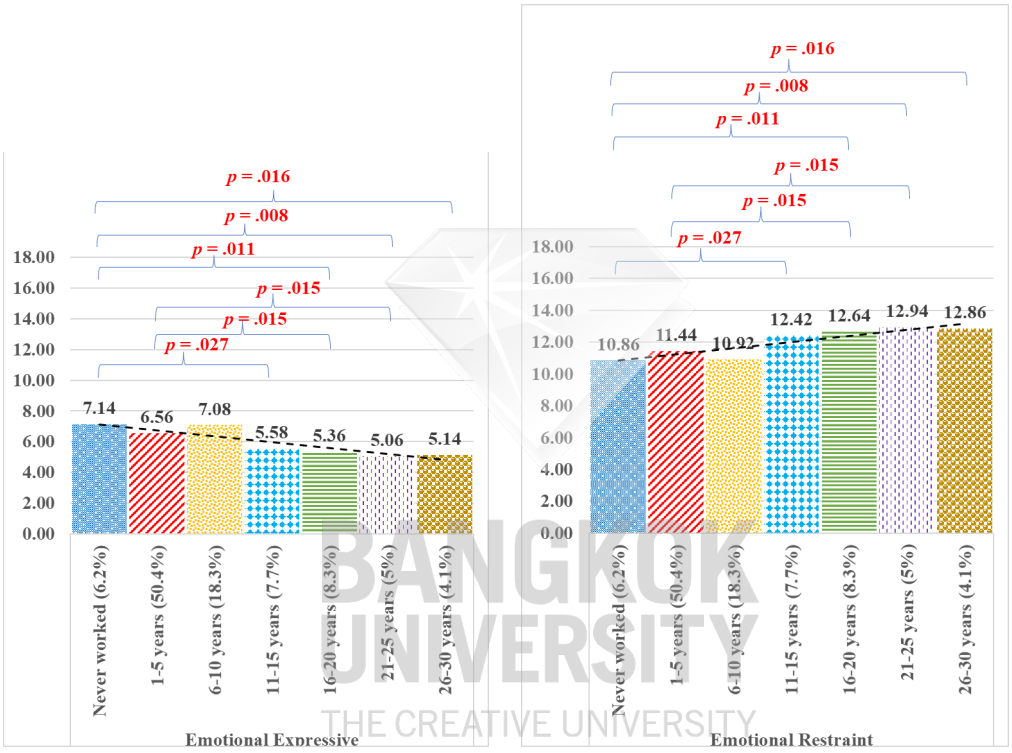


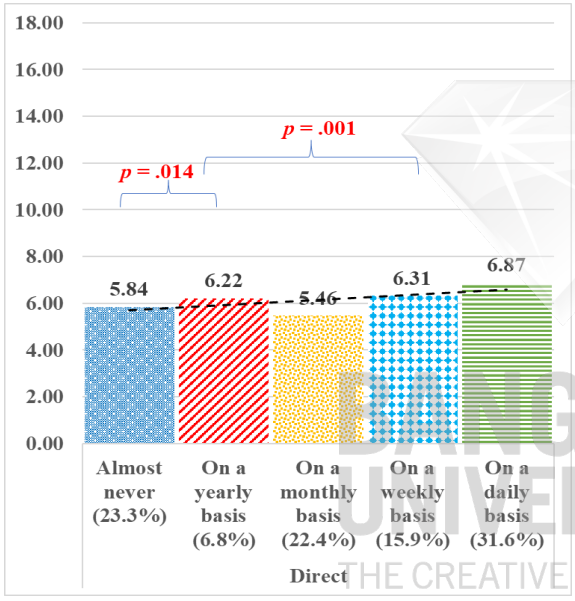
Figure 4-35 shows that respondents who have been working for 21 to 25 years frequently use a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ =7.65), and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ =12.94). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference respondents who have different working experiences. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with interaction with international colleagues

Figure 4-36

Means comparison of ICS per interaction with international colleagues

ICS by interaction with international colleagues (N=339)



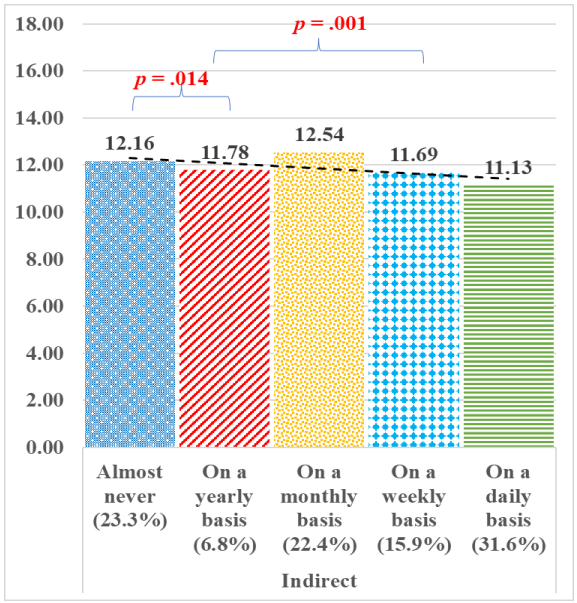


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Figure 4-36 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS per interaction with international colleagues

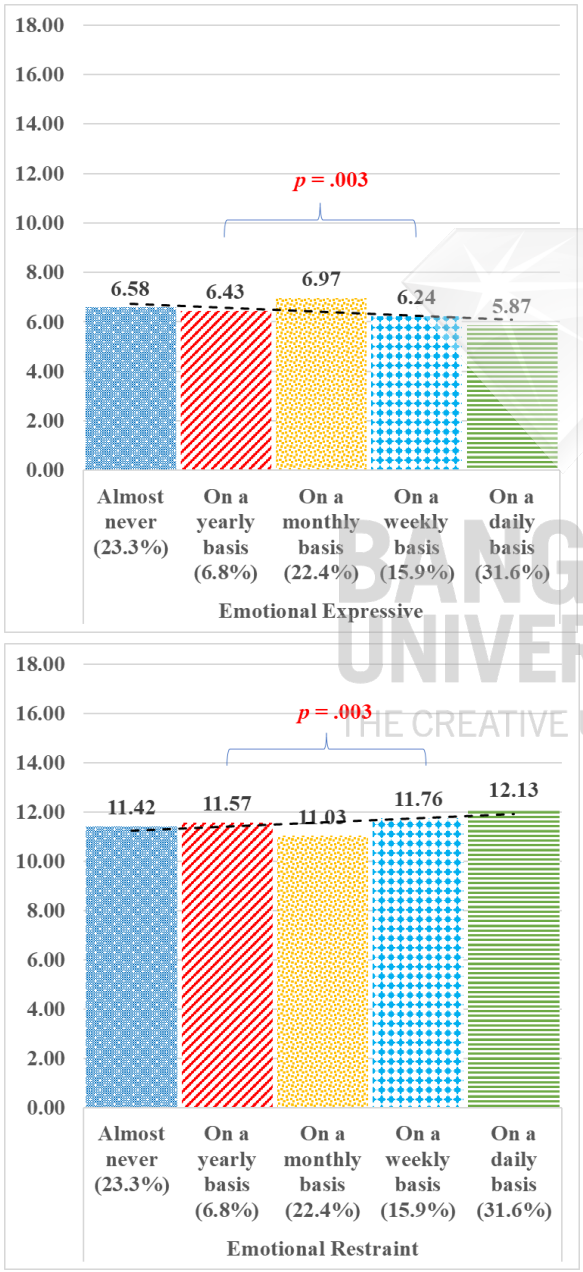

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Figure 4-36 shows that respondents who interact with international colleagues daily frequently use a direct approach, ($\bar{x}$ =6.87) and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ =12.13). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between interactions with international colleagues. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with Work Sector

Figure 4-37

Means comparison of ICS per work sector

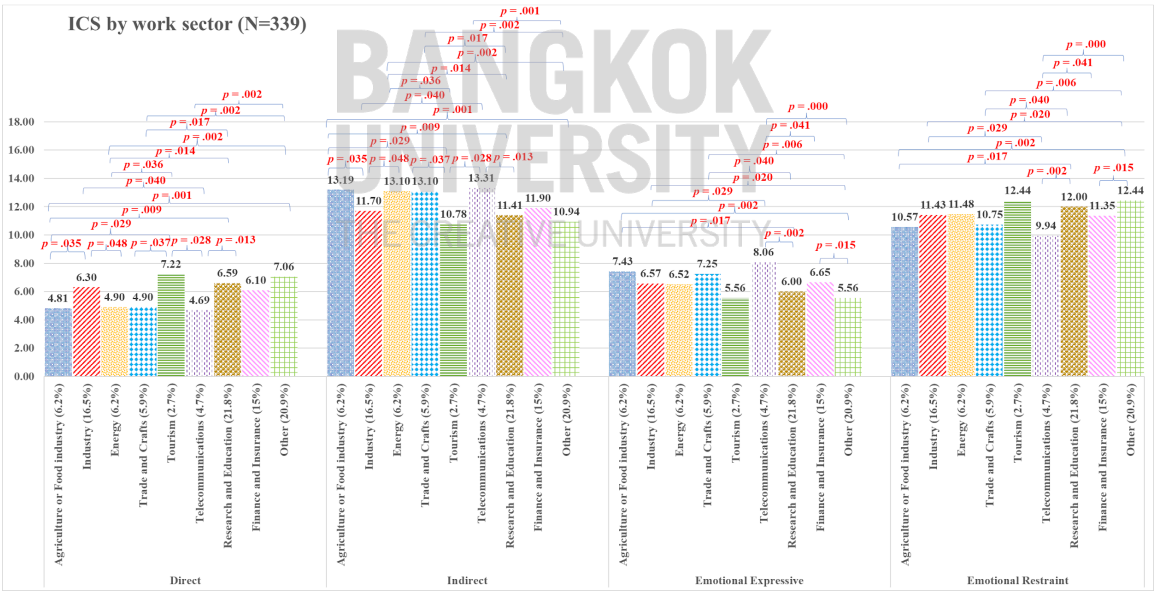

Figure 4-37 shows that respondents who work in telecommunication frequently use an indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ =13.31) and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ =12.44).

Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents from different work sectors. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS with Mood

Figure 4-38

Means comparison of ICS per mood

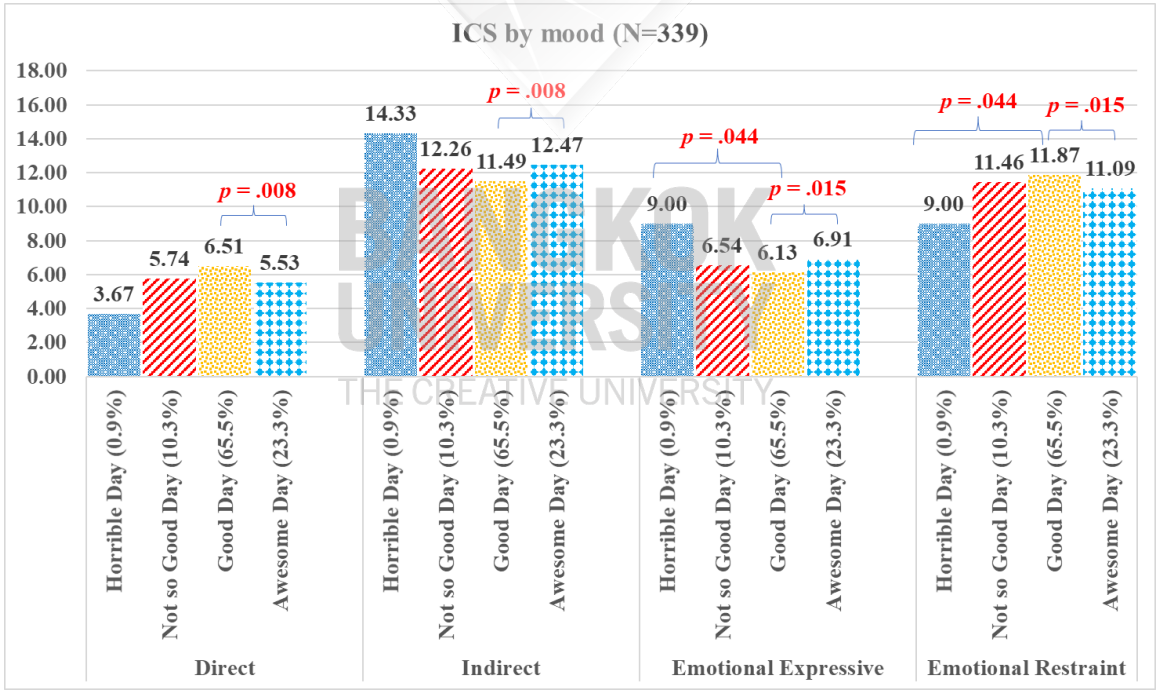

Figure 4-38 shows that respondents whose mood is good frequently use a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ =6.51) and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ =11.87). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between

respondents who have different moods. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

The next following graphs will report a one-way ANOVA result of the means value and *p*-value between-group variables on the adaptation of the use of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior (ICS) by demographic information for the overall sample (N=339), but only significant results are reported for the three sub-sample, Thai (N=106), French (N=114), and Americans (N=119), in appendix 11.

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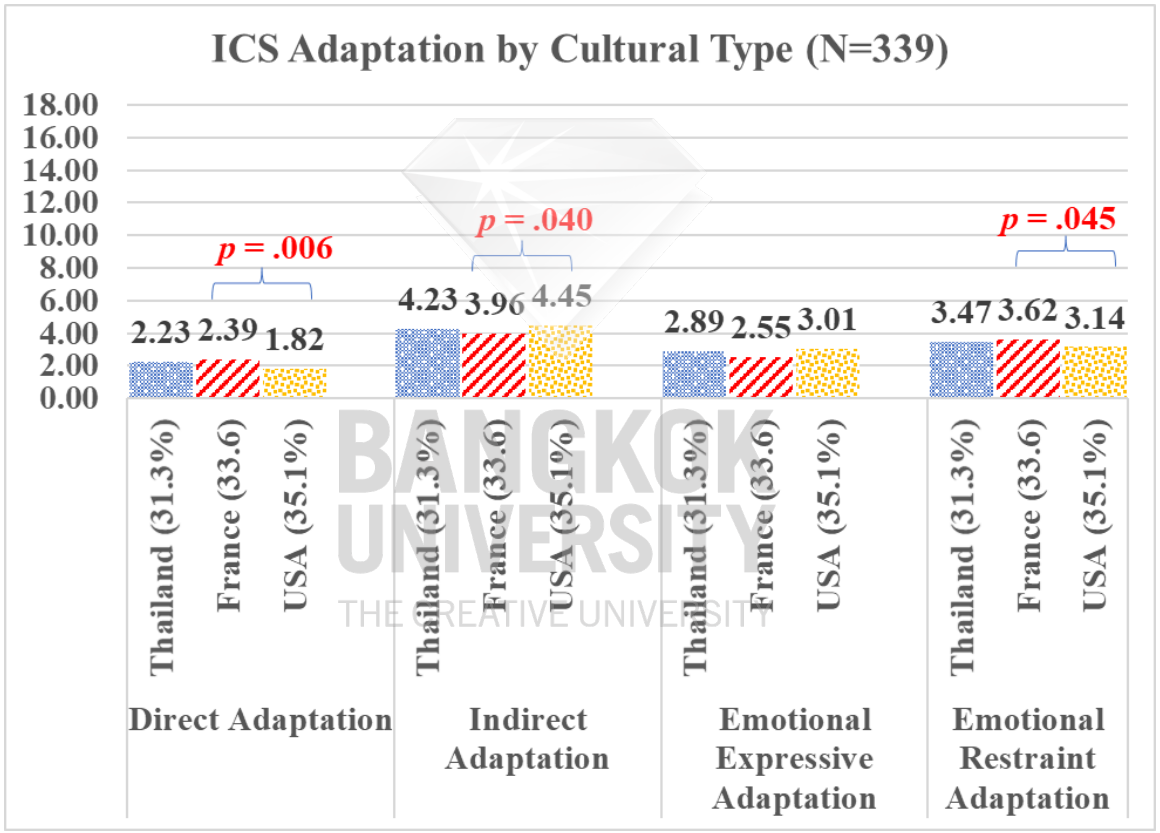
ICS Adaptation to Team Members from Different Cultural Backgrounds

Figure 4-39

Means comparison of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior (ICS) adaptation per cultural types



From my studied sample, Figure 4-39 concluded that Americans adapted their use of indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ = 4.45) and express emotions ($\bar{x}$ = 3.01) more than French ($\bar{x}$ = 3.96, $\bar{x}$ = 2.55) and Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 4.23, $\bar{x}$ = 2.89). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between French and

Americans. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS Adaptation with Gender

Figure 4-40

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per gender

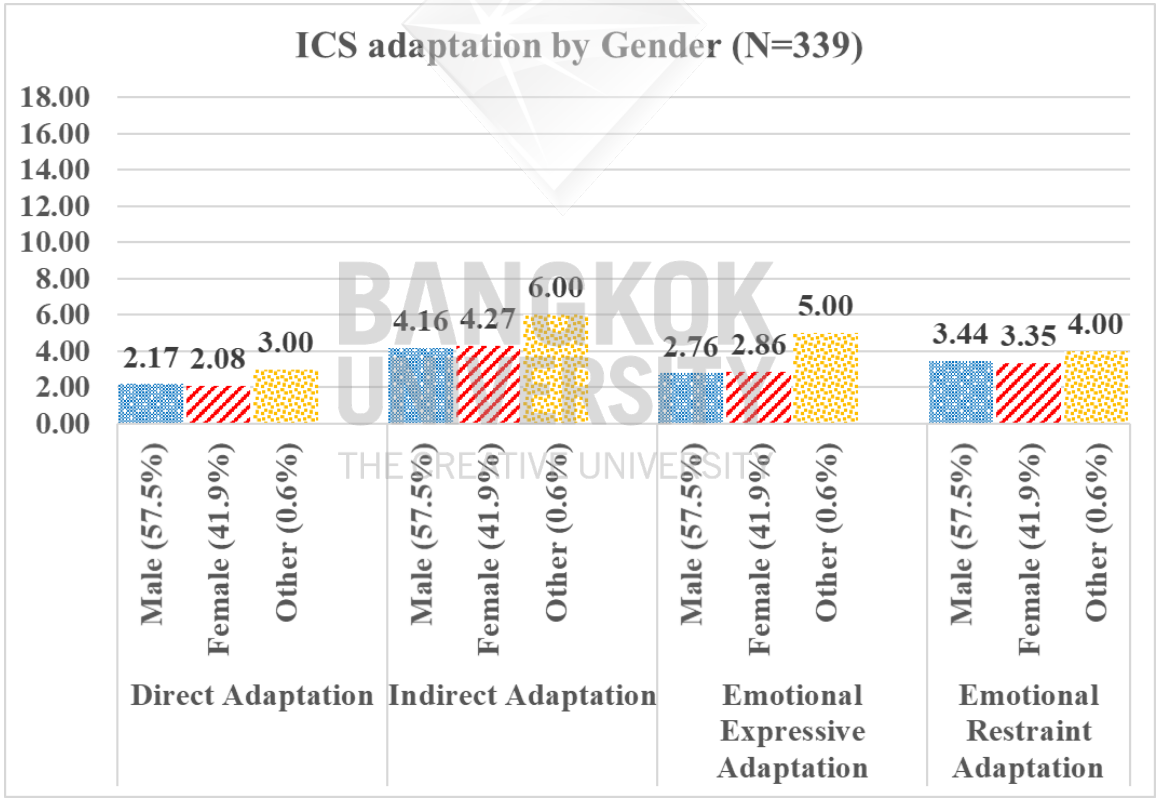


Figure 4-40 shows that men and women almost equally adapted their use of ICS behavior. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has no statistically significant difference between respondents of a different gender.

ICS Adaptation with Age

Figure 4-41

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per age

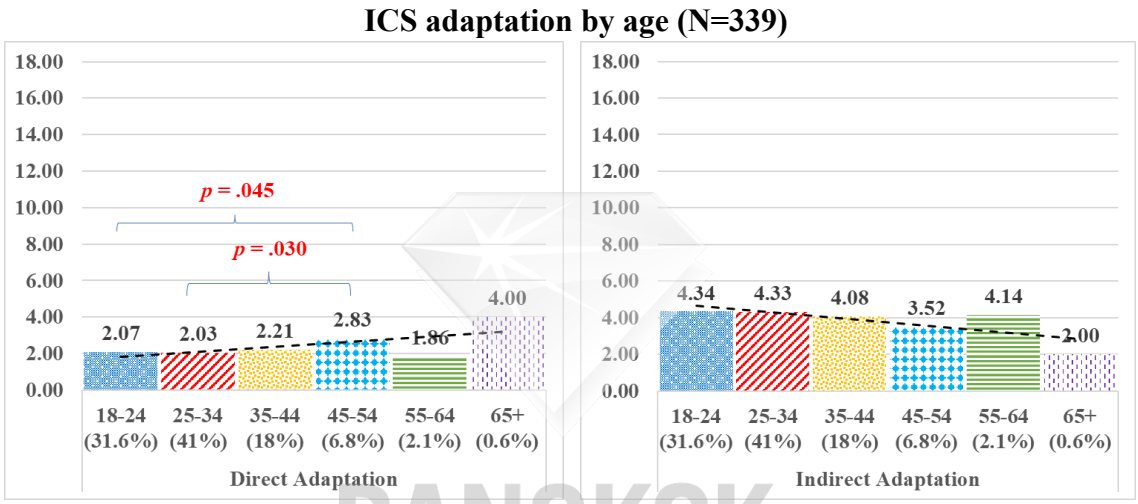


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Figure 4-41 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per age

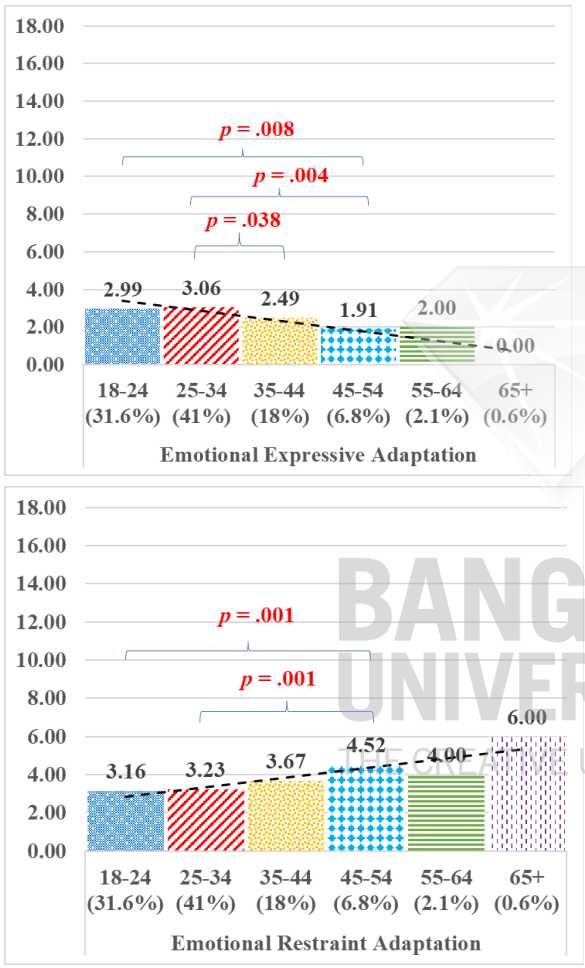

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Figure 4-41 shows that respondents aged between 18-24 and 25-34 frequently adapt their use of the indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ = 4.34, $\bar{x}$ = 4.33), while respondents aged 65 up control more on their emotions ($\bar{x}$ = 6.00). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents

of different ages. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS Adaptation with Educational Background

Figure 4-42

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per educational background

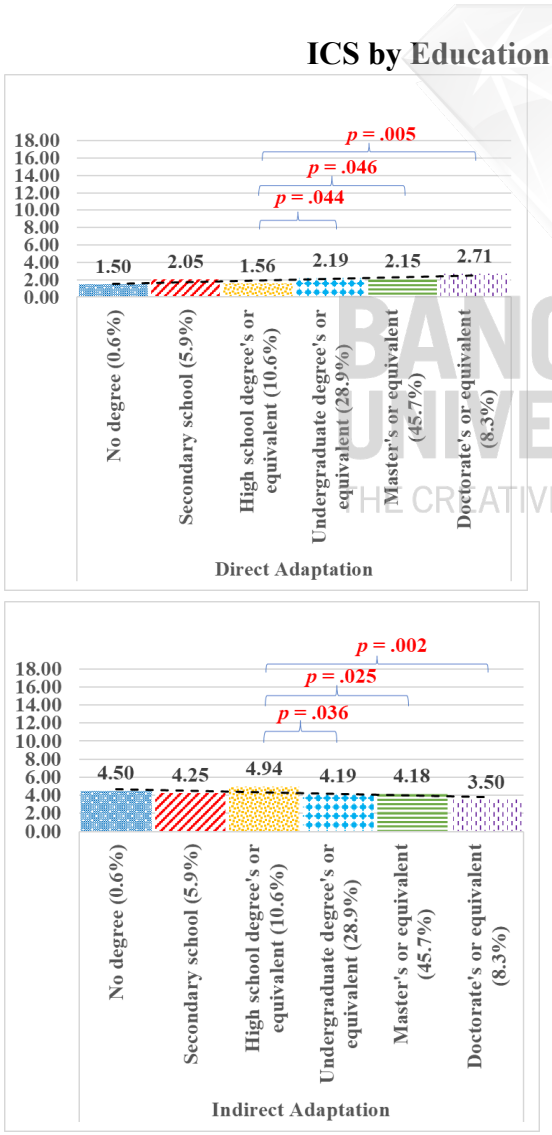

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Figure 4-42 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per educational background

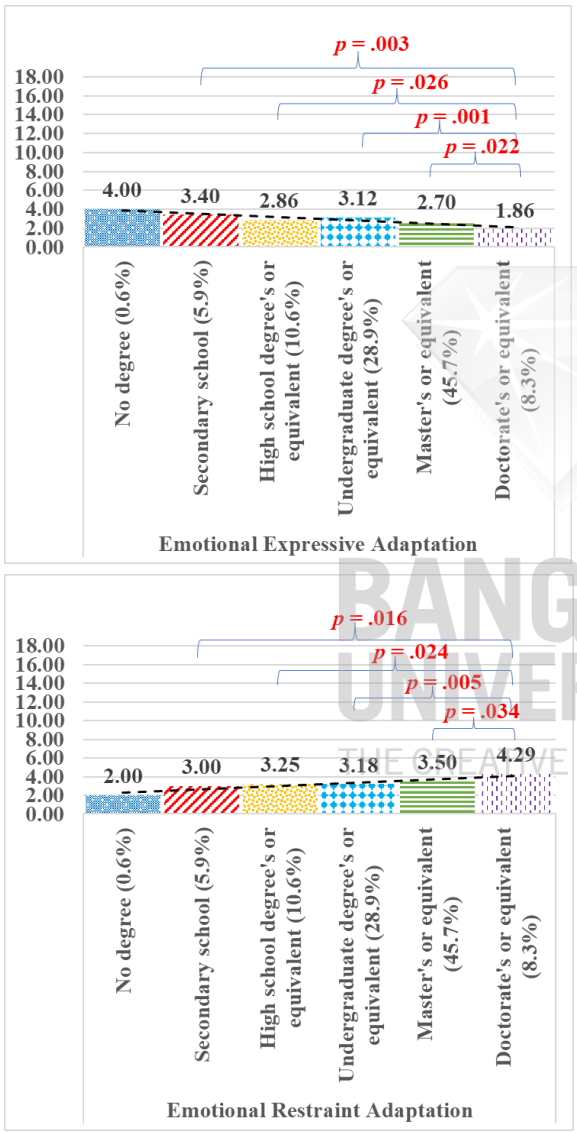

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Figure 4-42 shows that respondents with a doctoral degree or equivalent adapt their use of a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ = 2.71) and emotional restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ = 4.29) the most. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has a

statistically significant difference between respondents from different educational backgrounds. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

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ICS Adaptation with English Level

Figure 4-43

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per English level

ICS adaptation by English Level (N=339)

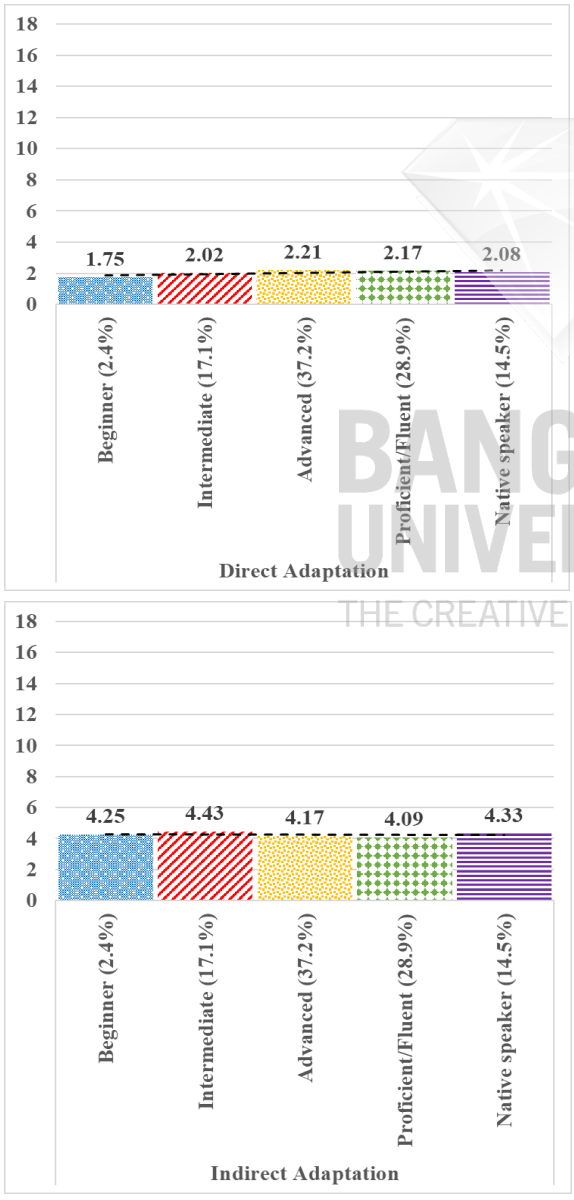

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Figure 4-43 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per English level

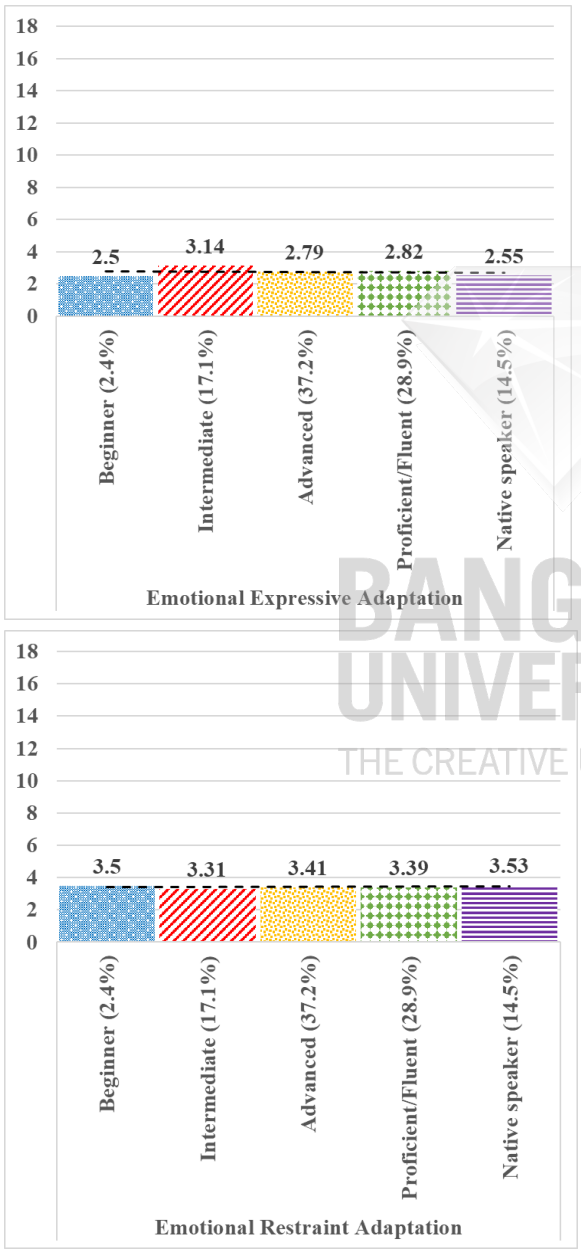

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Figure 4-43 shows that respondents with an advanced English level frequently adapt their use of a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ = 2.21) and those native speaker adapt more on an emotional restraint strategy, ($\bar{x}$ = 3.53). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has no statistically significant difference between respondents with different English levels.

ICS Adaptation with Employment Status

Figure 4-44

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per employment status

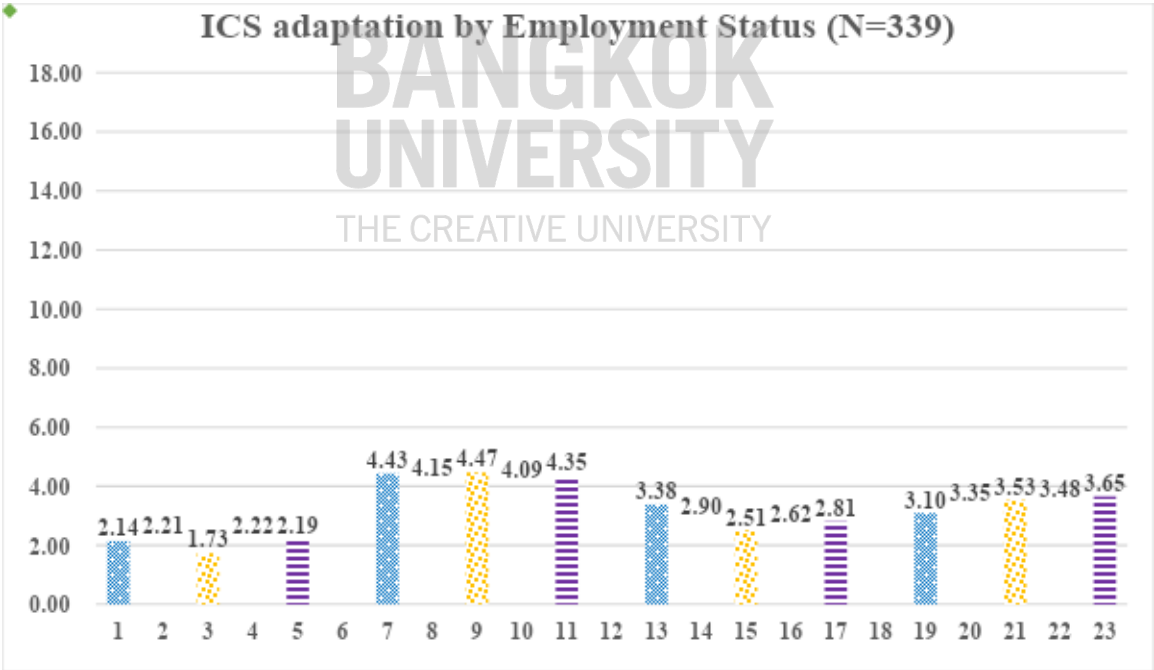

Figure 4-44 shows that respondents who were employed in the public sector frequently adapted their use of an indirect approach and an emotionally restraint strategy,

($\bar{x}$ = 4.47, $\bar{x}$ = 3.53). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has no statistically significant difference between respondents who have a different employment status.

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ICS Adaptation with Working Experience

Figure 4-45

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per working experience

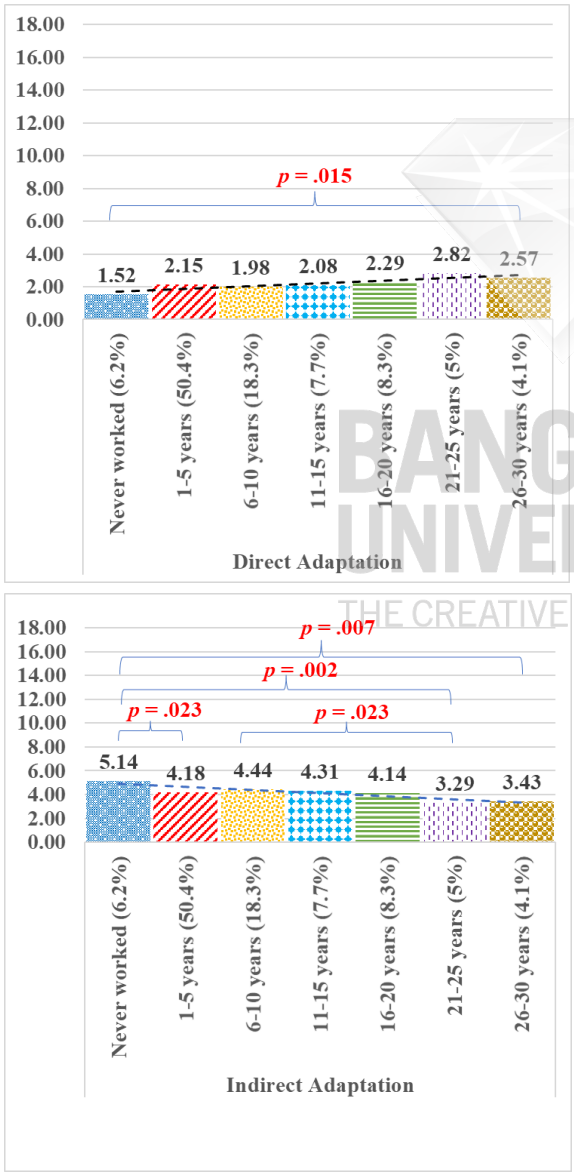

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Figure 4-45 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per working experience

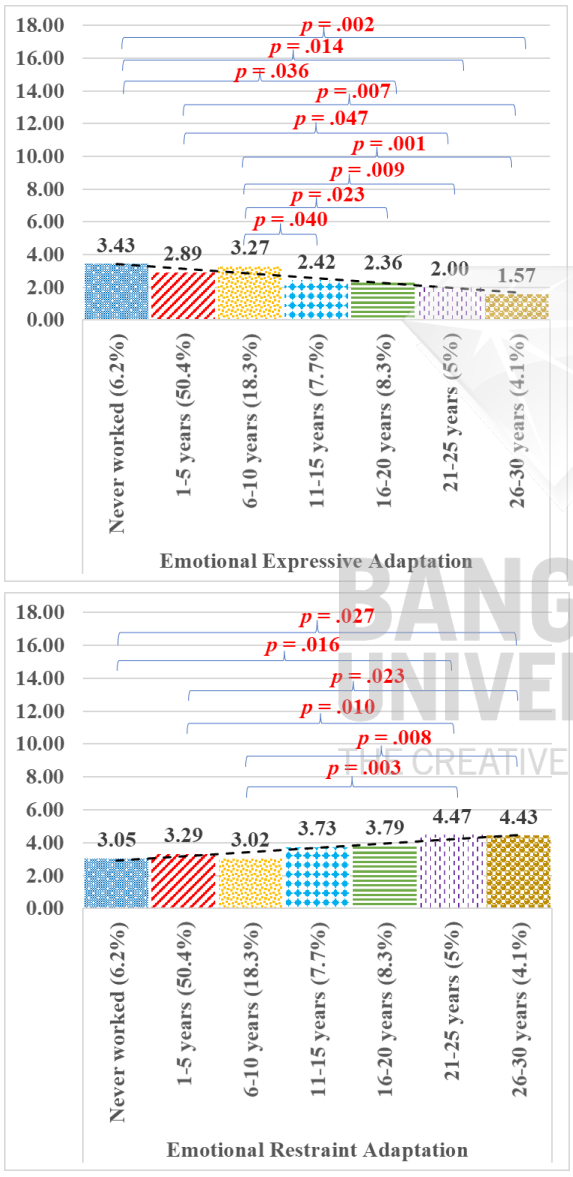

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Figure 4-45 shows that respondents who have been working 21-25 years adapted their use of the direct approach ($\bar{x}$ = 2.82) and emotional restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ = 4.47) the

most. Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents with different working experience. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS Adaptation with Interaction with International Colleagues

Figure 4-46

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per interaction with international colleagues

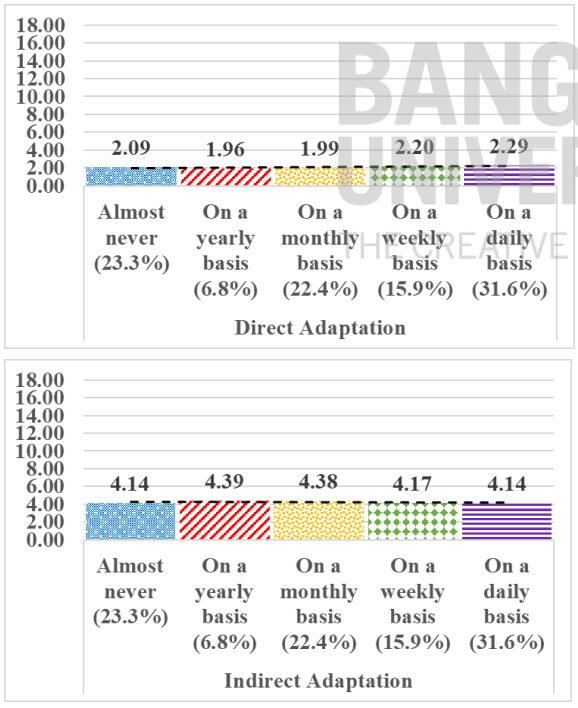

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Figure 4-46 (Continued)

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per interaction with international colleagues

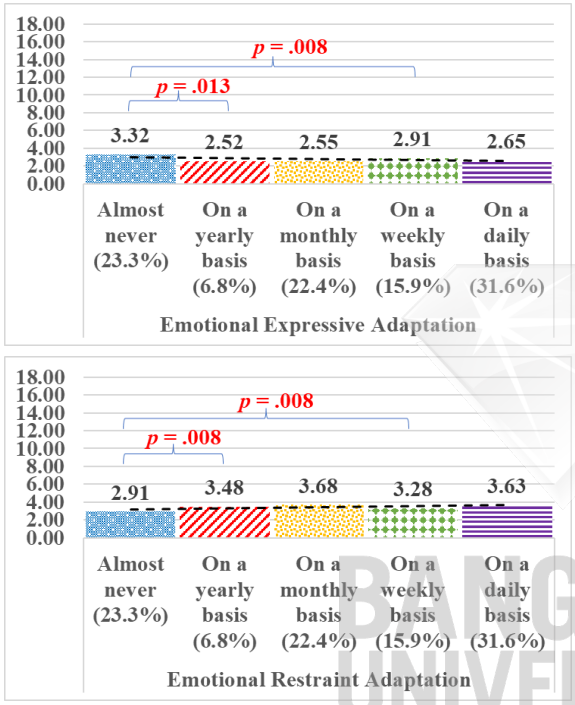

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Figure 4-46 shows that respondents who interact with international colleagues daily frequently adapt their use of a direct approach, ($\bar{x}$ =2.29) and an emotionally restraint strategy ($\bar{x}$ =3.63). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior, only emotional strategy, has a statistically significant difference between interactions with international colleagues. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS Adaptation with Work Sector

Figure 4-47

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per work sector

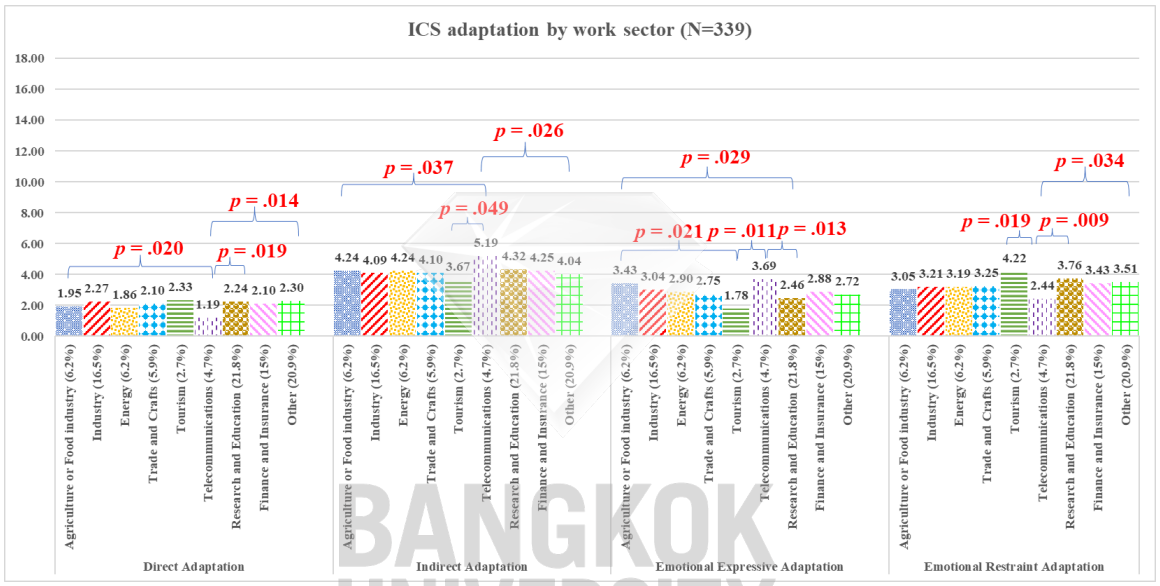

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Figure 4-47 shows that respondents who work in telecommunication frequently use an indirect approach ($\bar{x}$ =5.19) and an emotionally expressive strategy ($\bar{x}$ =3.69). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior has a statistically significant difference between respondents from different work sectors. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

ICS Adaptation with Mood

Figure 4-48

Means comparison of ICS adaptation per mood

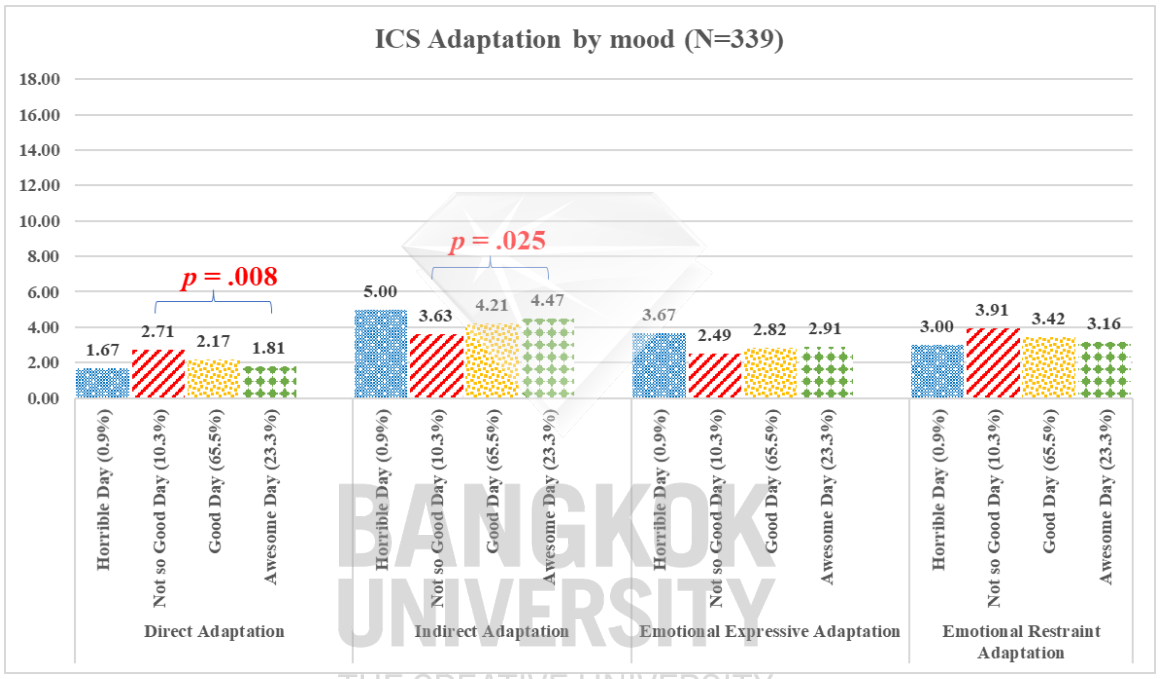

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Figure 4-48 shows that respondents whose mood is not good frequently adapt their use of a direct approach ($\bar{x}$ =2.71) and those whose mood is horrible frequently adapt their emotionally expressive strategy ($\bar{x}$ =3.67). Then, a one-way ANOVA showed that the adaptation of ICS behavior, only communication approach, has a statistically significant difference between respondents who have different moods. The contrast analysis revealed, in graphs, the comparison on every significant group means.

Below, the last two descriptive tables summarized statistically significant differences between intercultural conflict management behavior (ICS) following

demographic information. The results from the entire sample (N=339) in Table 4-9 conclude that intercultural conflict management behavior is significantly different according to cultural background, gender, age, educational background, status, employment status, experience in living abroad, work experience, interaction with international colleagues, work sector, and mood. However, there are no statistically significant differences between respondents who have had different virtual team experiences.

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Table 4-9

Statistically significant differences between intercultural conflict management behavior following demography

Demographic Information	All respondents (N=339)				Type I: Thailand (N=106)				Type II: France (N=114)				Type III: USA (N=339)			
	Results of statistically significant difference on…															
	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint
Cultural Type	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes												
Gender	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Age	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Education	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Student / Working professional status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
English Level	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Employment Status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Experience in living abroad	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Work experience	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Interaction with International Colleagues	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Work sector	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Virtual team experience	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Mood	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

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Table 4-10

Statistically significant differences between the adaptation on the use of the intercultural conflict management behavior across demographic categories

Demographic Information	All respondents (N=339)				Type I: Thailand (N=106)				Type II: France (N=114)				Type III: USA (N=339)			
	Results of statistically significant difference on…															
	Adapation				Adapation				Adapation				Adapation			
	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint	Direct	Indirect	Expressive	Restraint
Cultural Type	Yes	No	No	No												
Gender	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Age	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Education	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Student / Working professional status	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
English Level	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Employment Status	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Experience in living abroad	No	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Work experience	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
Interaction with International Colleagues	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Work sector	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Virtual team experience	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Mood	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

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Table 4-10 summarizes results of statistically significant difference between the adaptation of the use of intercultural conflict management behavior on demographic information. The results from all samples (n=339) concluded as follow:

- The use of the direct approach shows statistically significant differences across cultural types and moods.
- The use of the indirect approach shows statistically significant differences between respondents with different work experiences.
- The use of an emotionally expressive strategy shows statistically significant differences between respondents from different educational backgrounds.
- The expression of emotions shows statistically significant differences across age, status, and work experience.

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4.3 Inferential Statistics

Regarding inferential statistics, analysis of variance (ANOVA), regression, T-test, and Chi-Square were used to test our hypotheses. The summarized statistics used for each hypothesis are shown in Table 4-11.

Table 4-11

The summarized statistics used to test the hypotheses

RQ	Hypotheses	Test used
RQ1	$H1_a$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.	ANOVA
	$H1_0$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.	
	$H1.1_a$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	ANOVA
	$H1.1_0$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	
	$H1.2_a$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	ANOVA
	$H1.2_0$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	
RQ2	$H2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.	Linear Regression
	$H2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.	
	$H2.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	Linear Regression
	$H2.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	
	$H2.2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	Linear Regression

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Table 4-11 (Continued)

The summarized statistics used to test the hypotheses

RQ	Hypotheses	Test used
RQ2	$H2.2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	Linear Regression
RQ3	$H3.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	Chi-Square
	$H3.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	
	$H3.1.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	Chi-Square
	$H3.1.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	
	$H3.1.2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	Chi-Square
	$H3.1.2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	

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Table 4-11 (Continued)

The summarized statistics used to test the hypotheses

RQ	Hypotheses	Test used
RQ3	$H3.2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	Chi-Square
	$H3.2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	
	$H3.2.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	Chi-Square
	$H3.2.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	
	$H3.2.2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	Chi-Square
	$H3.2.2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	
RQ4	$H4.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.	

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Table 4-11 (Continued)

The summarized statistics used to test the hypotheses

RQ	Hypotheses	Test used
RQ4	$H4.1.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.1.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	
	$H4.1.2_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.1.2_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	
	$H4.2_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.2_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.	
	$H4.2.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.2.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	

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Table 4-11 (Continued)

The summarized statistics used to test the hypotheses

RQ	Hypotheses	Test used
RQ4	$H4.2.2_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square
	$H4.2.2_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	

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Results of The Hypothesis Testing

To test our first hypothesis, we used the analysis of variance, or ANOVA test, to analyze the differences among respondents from Thailand, France, and the USA in using Intercultural Conflict Management Styles/Behavior in two types of conflicts, namely task conflicts and relationship conflicts. Moreover, planned contrasts were also used to compare between-group means. The following tables show descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used by respondents from different cultural backgrounds, the summarized ANOVA results, and the planned contrast result of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents from different cultural backgrounds.

Table 4-12

Descriptive statistics of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used by leaders with respondents from different culture

Thai interacting…..		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (0-6)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Use of Direct	with Thai	106	2.27	1.109	0.108	2.06	2.49	0	5
	with French	106	2.54	1.475	0.143	2.25	2.82	0	6
	with American	106	2.40	1.075	0.104	2.19	2.60	0	5
	Total	318	2.40	1.234	0.069	2.27	2.54	0	6
Use of Indirect	with Thai	106	3.73	1.109	0.108	3.51	3.94	1	6
	with French	106	3.46	1.475	0.143	3.18	3.75	0	6
	with American	106	3.60	1.075	0.104	3.40	3.81	1	6
	Total	318	3.60	1.234	0.069	3.46	3.73	0	6
Use of Expressive	with Thai	106	1.85	0.993	0.096	1.66	2.04	0	5
	with French	106	1.75	1.344	0.131	1.50	2.01	0	5
	with American	106	2.08	1.066	0.104	1.87	2.28	0	6
	Total	318	1.89	1.149	0.064	1.77	2.02	0	6
Use of Restraint	with Thai	106	4.15	0.993	0.096	3.96	4.34	1	6
	with French	106	4.25	1.344	0.131	3.99	4.50	1	6
	with American	106	3.92	1.066	0.104	3.72	4.13	0	6
	Total	318	4.11	1.149	0.064	3.98	4.23	0	6

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Table 4-12 (Continued)

Descriptive statistics of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used by leaders with respondents from different culture

French interacting ….		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (0-6)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Use of Direct	with Thai	114	2.35	1.283	0.120	2.11	2.59	0	6
	with French	114	2.47	1.440	0.135	2.21	2.74	0	6
	with American	114	2.27	1.177	0.110	2.05	2.49	0	5
	Total	342	2.37	1.303	0.070	2.23	2.50	0	6
Use of Indirect	with Thai	114	3.65	1.283	0.120	3.41	3.89	0	6
	with French	114	3.53	1.440	0.135	3.26	3.79	0	6
	with American	114	3.73	1.177	0.110	3.51	3.95	1	6
	Total	342	3.63	1.303	0.070	3.50	3.77	0	6
Use of Expressive	with Thai	114	2.03	1.132	0.106	1.82	2.24	0	5
	with French	114	1.62	1.279	0.120	1.39	1.86	0	5
	with American	114	1.97	0.973	0.091	1.79	2.15	0	4
	Total	342	1.87	1.146	0.062	1.75	2.00	0	5
Use of Restraint	with Thai	114	3.97	1.132	0.106	3.76	4.18	1	6
	with French	114	4.38	1.279	0.120	4.14	4.61	1	6
	with American	114	4.03	0.973	0.091	3.85	4.21	2	6
	Total	342	4.13	1.146	0.062	4.00	4.25	1	6

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Table 4-12 (Continued)

Descriptive statistics of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used by leaders with respondents from different culture

American interacting …		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Scale (0-6)	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Use of Direct	with Thai	119	1.61	1.172	0.107	1.40	1.83	0	6
	with French	119	1.34	1.130	0.104	1.13	1.54	0	6
	with American	119	1.44	1.205	0.110	1.22	1.66	0	5
	Total	357	1.46	1.172	0.062	1.34	1.58	0	6
Use of Indirect	with Thai	119	4.39	1.172	0.107	4.17	4.60	0	6
	with French	119	4.66	1.130	0.104	4.46	4.87	0	6
	with American	119	4.56	1.205	0.110	4.34	4.78	1	6
	Total	357	4.54	1.172	0.062	4.42	4.66	0	6
Use of Expressive	with Thai	119	2.45	1.170	0.107	2.24	2.67	0	5
	with French	119	3.27	1.370	0.126	3.02	3.52	0	6
	with American	119	2.01	1.046	0.096	1.82	2.20	0	5
	Total	357	2.58	1.308	0.069	2.44	2.71	0	6
Use of Restraint	with Thai	119	3.55	1.170	0.107	3.33	3.76	1	6
	with French	119	2.73	1.370	0.126	2.48	2.98	0	6
	with American	119	3.99	1.046	0.096	3.80	4.18	1	6
	Total	357	3.42	1.308	0.069	3.29	3.56	0	6

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Table 4-12 showed that when the Thai interacting with interlocutors from the same culture, they used more indirect. On the contrary, they used more direct and less indirect when interacting with interlocutors from different culture. Regarding the emotional strategy used, the Thai used more emotion restraint. For the French, they were more direct and used more emotional restrains strategy when interacting interlocutors from the same culture. But, the Americans used more indirect approach and emotional restraint strategy when interacting with interlocutors from the same culture.

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used when interacting with different interlocutors are presented in appendix 12. And, the planned contrast result of Intercultural Conflict Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a conflict, task conflict, and relationship conflict are presented in appendix 13. Then, the contrast analysis revealed, in graphs below, the comparison on every group means.

The results of the hypotheses tests are as follows:

Cultural Background and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Conflict

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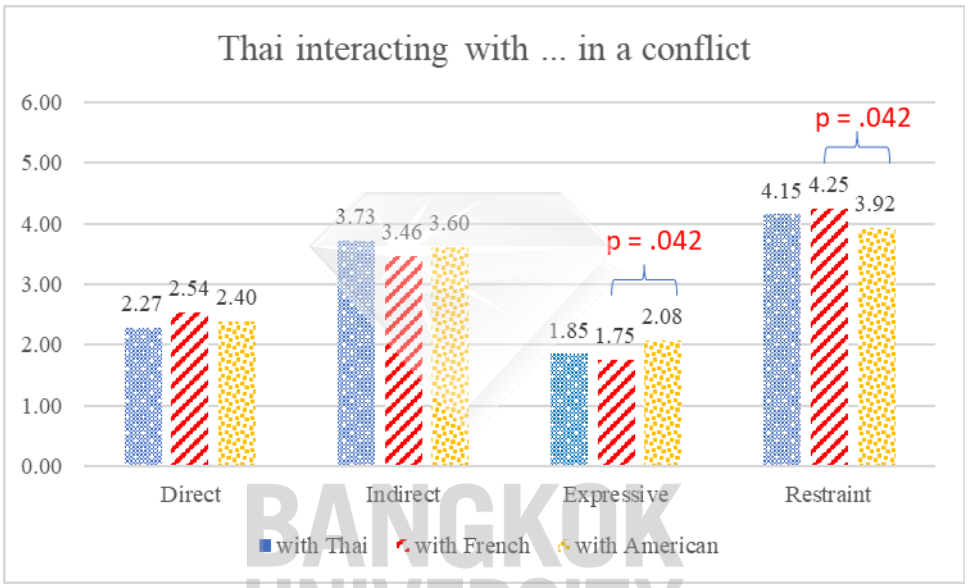
$H1_a$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.

$H1_0$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.

Figure 4-49

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used with team members from same/different cultural background



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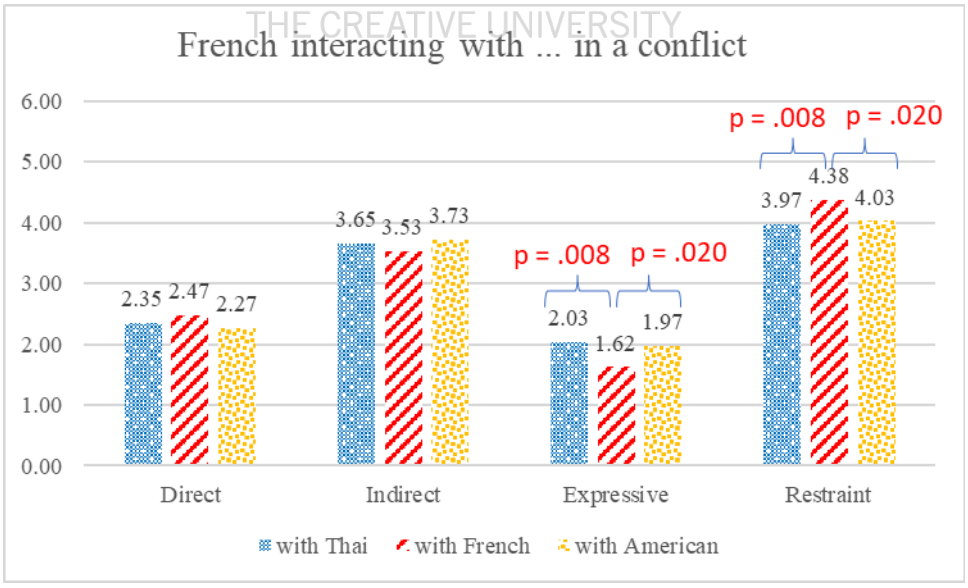
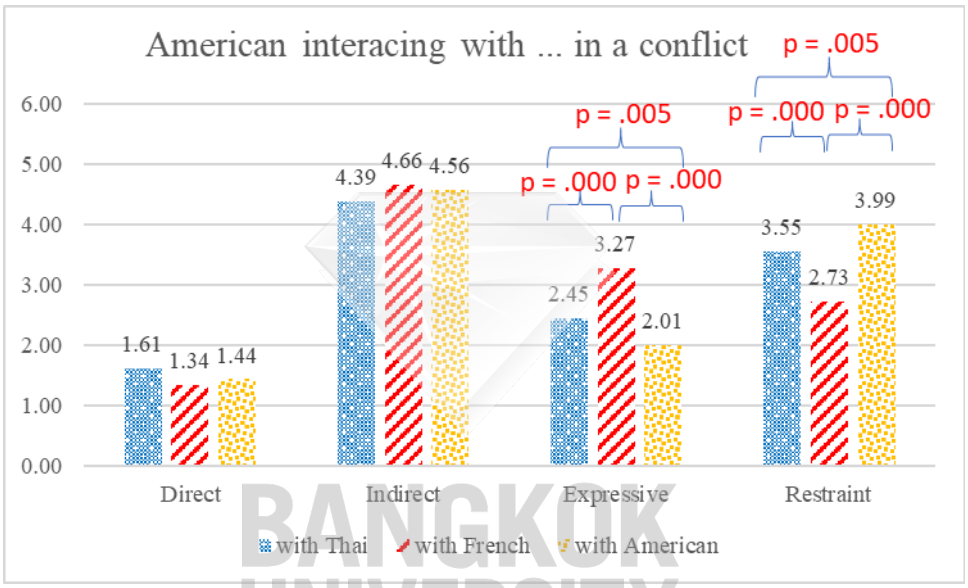


Figure 4-49 (Continued)

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used with team members from same/different cultural background



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Hypothesis 1 is partially supported. The results indicate that:

- There is a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy (expressive/restraint) in a conflict between French and team members from other cultural backgrounds, F (2,339) = 4.259, p = .015.
- There is a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy (expressive/restraint) in a conflict between Americans and team members from other cultural backgrounds, F (2,354) = 33.627, p = .000.

But, there is no statistically significant difference in using the communication approach (direct/indirect) in a conflict between team members from different cultural

backgrounds. Additionally, planned contrasts (see appendix 13 and Figure 4-49) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy (expressive/restraint) in a conflict when:

- Thai interacting with French and Americans, $t(315) = 2.04$, $p = .042$,
- French interacting with Thai and Frenchs, $t(339) = 2.68$, $p = .008$,
- French interacting with French and Americans, $t(339) = 2.33$, $p = .020$,
- Americans interacting with Thai and French, $t(354) = 5.23$, $p = .000$,
- American interacting with Thai and Americans, $t(354) = 2.86$, $p = .005$, and
- Americans interacting with French and American, $t(354) = 8.09$, $p = .000$

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Cultural Background and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Task Conflict

H1.1$_a$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

H1.1$_0$: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence their conflict management resolution behavior among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

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Figure 4-50

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a task conflict

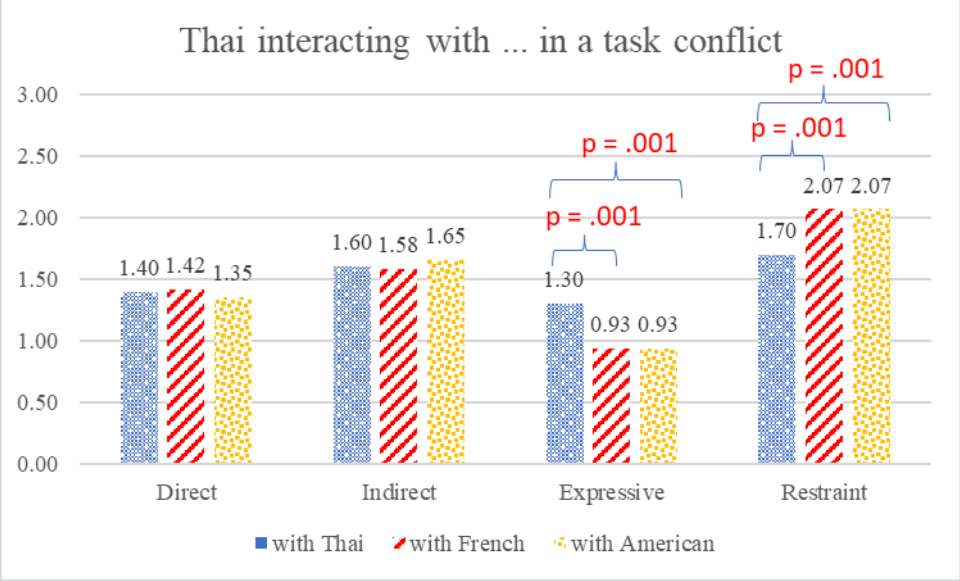
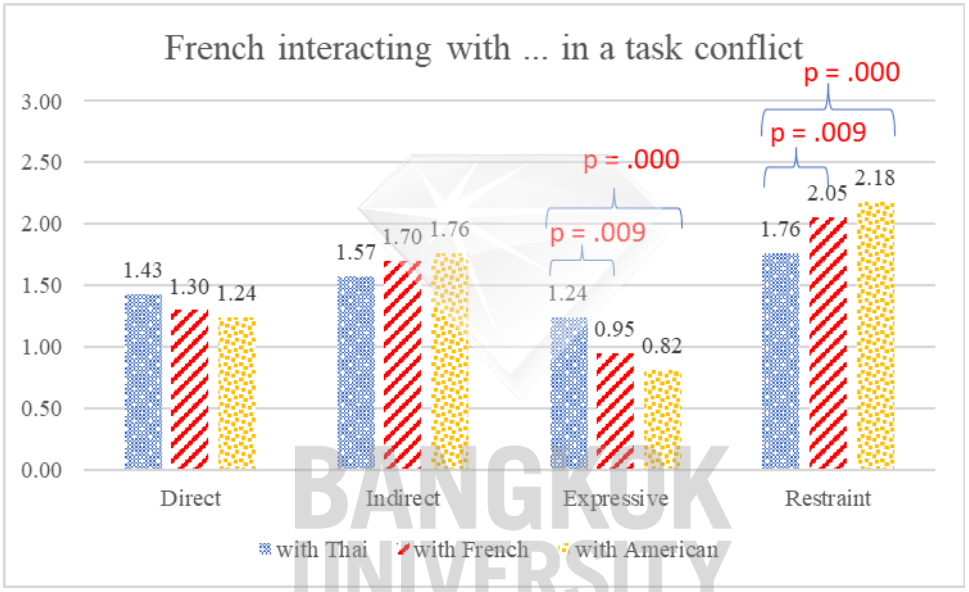
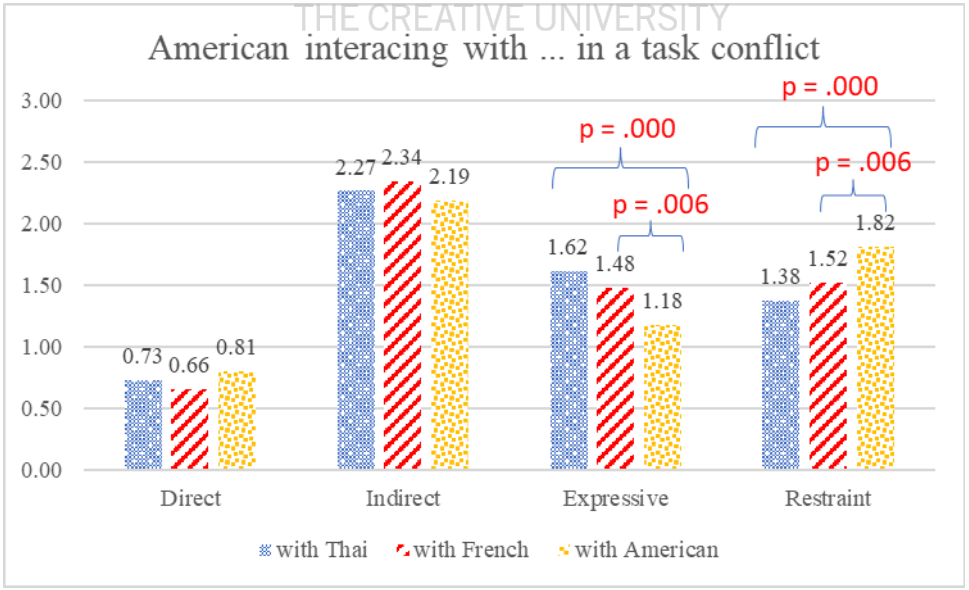


Figure 4-50 (Continued)

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a task conflict





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Hypothesis 1.1 is partially supported. The results indicate that:

- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a task conflict between Thai and others with cultural differences, $F(2,315) = 7.264$, $p = .001$.
- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a task conflict between French and others with cultural differences, $F(2,339) = 7.617$, $p = .001$.
- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a task conflict between Americans and others with cultural differences, $F(2, 354) = 8.952$, $p = .000$.

But, there is no statistically significant difference in using the communication approach (direct/indirect) in a task conflict between team members from different cultural backgrounds. Moreover, planned contrasts (see appendix 13 and Figure 4-50) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a task conflict when:

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- Thai interacting with Thai and French, $t(315) = 3.30$, $p = .001$,
- Thai interacting with Thai and American, $t(315) = 3.30$, $p = .001$,
- French interacting with Thai and French, $t(339) = 2.62$, $p = .009$,
- French interacting with Thai and American, $t(339) = 3.82$, $p = .000$,
- American interacting with Thai and American, $t(354) = 4.15$, $p = .000$, and
- American interacting with French and American, $t(354) = 2.79$, $p = .006$.

Cultural Background and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Relationship Conflict

H1.2_a: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

H1.2_0: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds do not influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

Figure 4-51

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a relationship conflict

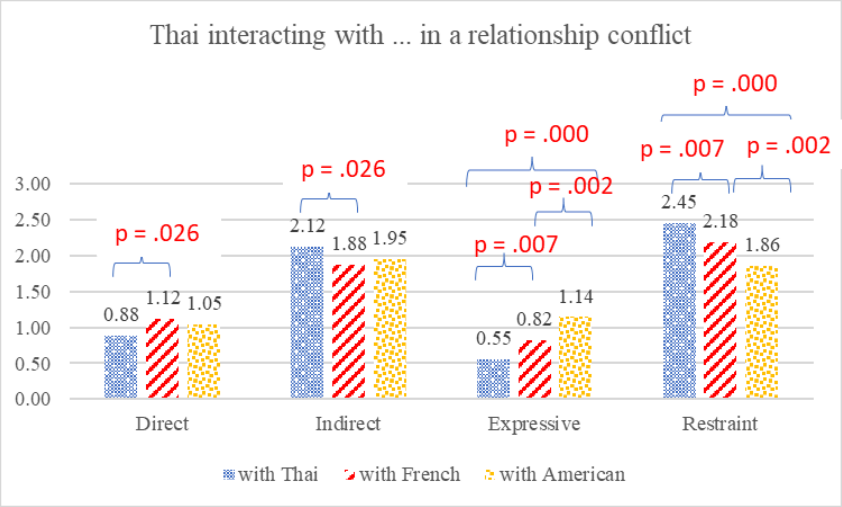
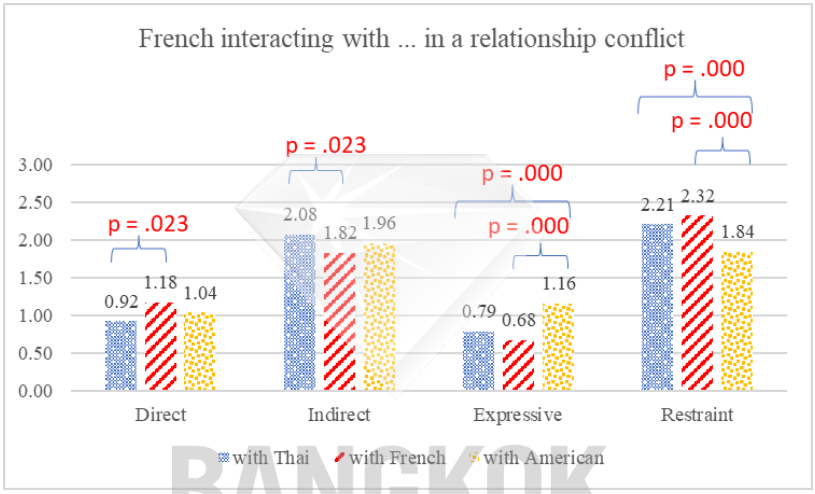
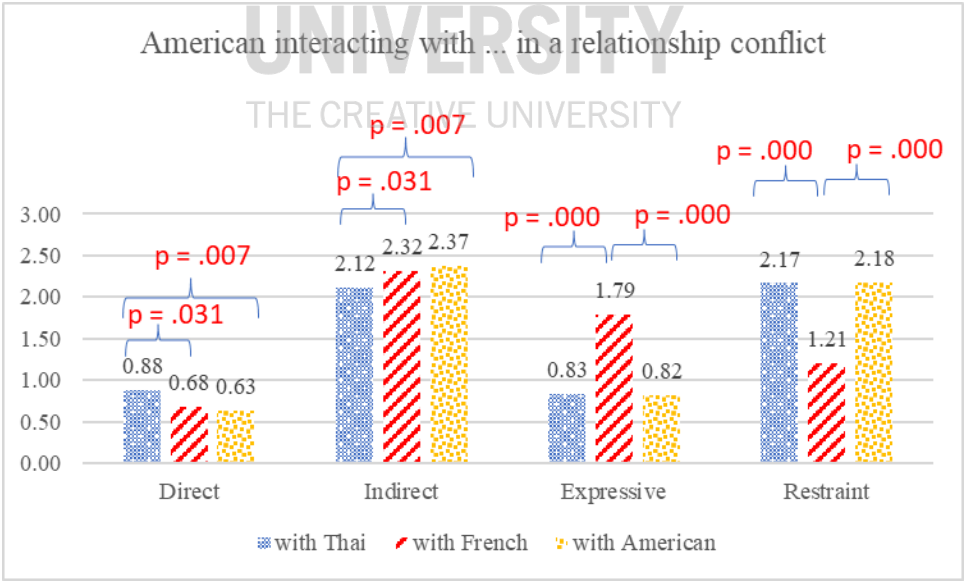


Figure 4-51 (Continued)

The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a relationship conflict





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Hypothesis 1.2 is partially supported. The results indicate that:

- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a relationship conflict between Thai and others with cultural differences, $F(2,315) = 17.512$, $p = .000$.
- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a relationship conflict between French and others with cultural differences, $F(2,339) = 12.726$, $p = .000$.
- There was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a relationship conflict between Americans and others with cultural differences, $F(2, 354) = 56.115$, $p = .000$.
- There was a statistically significant difference in using the communication approach, direct/indirect, in a relationship conflict between Americans and others with cultural differences, $F(2,354) = 4.120$, $p = .017$.

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Finally, planned contrasts (see appendix 13 and Figure 4-51) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in using the communication approach, direct/indirect, in a relationship conflict when:

- Thai interacting with Thai and French, $t(315) = 2.23$, $p = .026$,
- French interacting with Thai and French, $t(339) = 2.29$, $p = .023$,
- American interacting with Thai and French, $t(354) = 2.17$, $p = .031$, and
- American interacting with Thai and American, $t(354) = 2.71$, $p = .007$.

And, there was a statistically significant difference in using the emotional strategy, expressive/restraint, in a relationship conflict when:

- Thai interacting with Thai and French, $t(315) = 2.72$, $p = .007$,

- Thai interacting with Thai and American, $t(315) = 5.91$, $p = .000$,
- Thai interacting with French and American, $t(315) = 3.19$, $p = .002$,
- French interacting with Thai and American, $t(339) = 3.69$, $p = .000$,
- French interacting with French and American, $t(339) = 4.83$, $p = .000$,
- American interacting with Thai and French, $t(354) = 9.13$, $p = .000$, and
- American interacting with French and American, $t(354) = 9.21$, $p = .000$

Regarding, hypotheses (H2, H2.1, and H2.2), for each scene, an expected intercultural conflict management choice was defined and a higher score was assigned to it (see Chapter 3, Table 3-17). We ran a linear regression analysis to assess to which extent the level of EI was correlated with the expected choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Style used among leaders from different cultural background types in a conflict, task conflict, and relationship conflict. The strength of a relationship is considered "relatively strong" if R-Squared is equal to or above 0.5; however, R-Squared below 0.4 would result in a low correlation. Table 4-13 below summarizes the result testing these hypotheses.

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Table 4-13

Summarized regression results of EI and ICS

The summary of regression results of EI and ICS

Conflict Type	EI		ICS		R Square	df1	df2	F	Sig.
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation					
All samples									
Conflict	4.99	0.71	3.22	0.33	0.03	1	337	10.08	.002[b]
Task Conflict			3.13	0.44	0.01	1	337	3.82	.051[b]
Relationship Conflict			3.30	0.47	0.02	1	337	6.89	.009[b]
Thailand									
Conflict	5.18	0.71	3.16	0.29	0.02	1	104	1.64	.203[b]
Task Conflict			3.05	0.43	0.01	1	104	1.24	.268[b]
Relationship Conflict			3.26	0.43	0.00	1	104	0.37	.546[b]
France									
Conflict	5.24	0.61	3.12	0.34	0.00	1	112	0.16	.686[b]
Task Conflict			3.09	0.44	0.00	1	112	0.18	.674[b]
Relationship Conflict			3.15	0.48	0.00	1	112	0.04	.836[b]
USA									
Conflict	4.58	0.63	3.37	0.30	0.00	1	117	0.07	.786[b]
Task Conflict			3.24	0.42	0.00	1	117	0.05	.819[b]
Relationship Conflict			3.49	0.42	0.00	1	117	0.03	.861[b]

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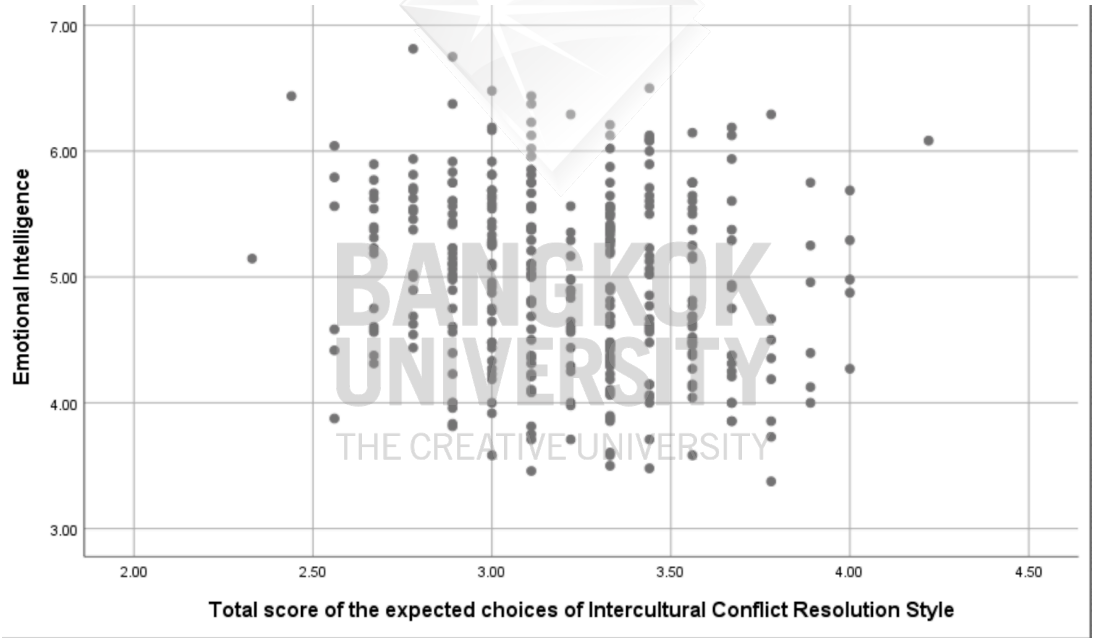
Emotional Intelligence and The Expected Choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Style in a Conflict

$H2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.

$H2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.



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The results of the linear regression (R^2 = .03, F(1, 337) = 10.08, p = .002) show that the correlation between emotional intelligence level among team leaders and the expected choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Style when interacting with multicultural virtual team members is significant (p=.002) but the predictor value (R^2 = .03) is very weak. Consequently we consider hypothesis 2 not to be supported.

Emotional Intelligence and The Expected Choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Task Conflict

$H2.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

$H2.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.

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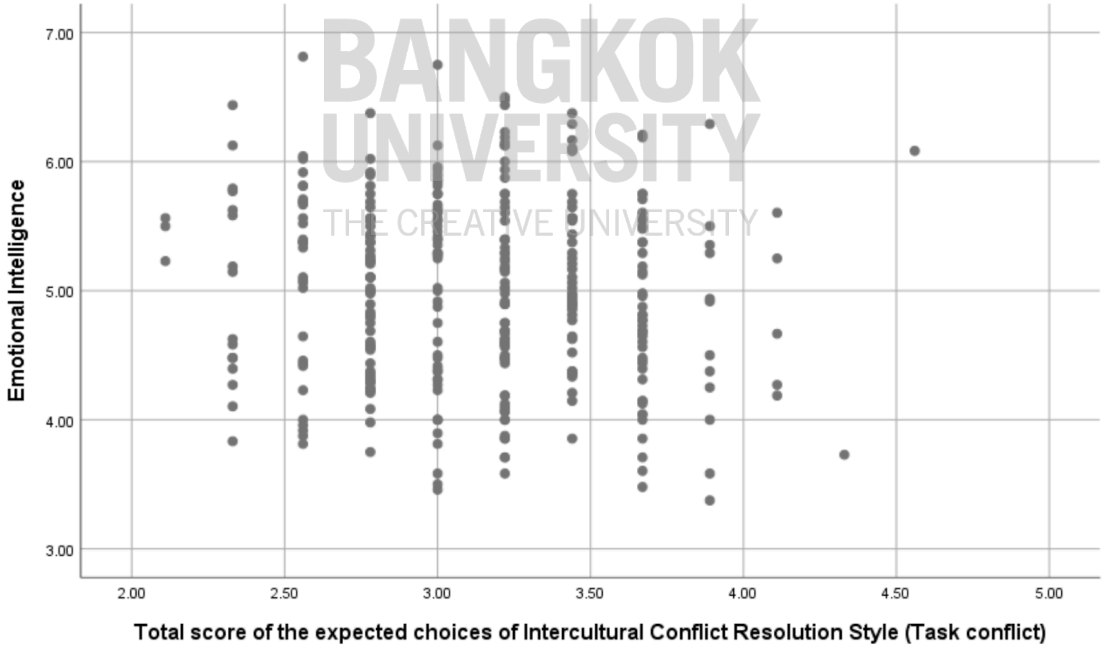

The results of the linear regression ($R^2 = .01$, $F(1, 337) = 3.82$, $p = .051$) show that the correlation between emotional intelligence level among team leaders and the

expected choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Style when interacting with multicultural virtual team members, in case of task conflict, is not significant (p=.051) and the predictor value (R^2 = .01) is very weak. Consequently we consider hypothesis 2.1 not to be supported.

Emotional Intelligence and The Expected Choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Relationship Conflict

$H2.2_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

$H2.2_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence do not better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.

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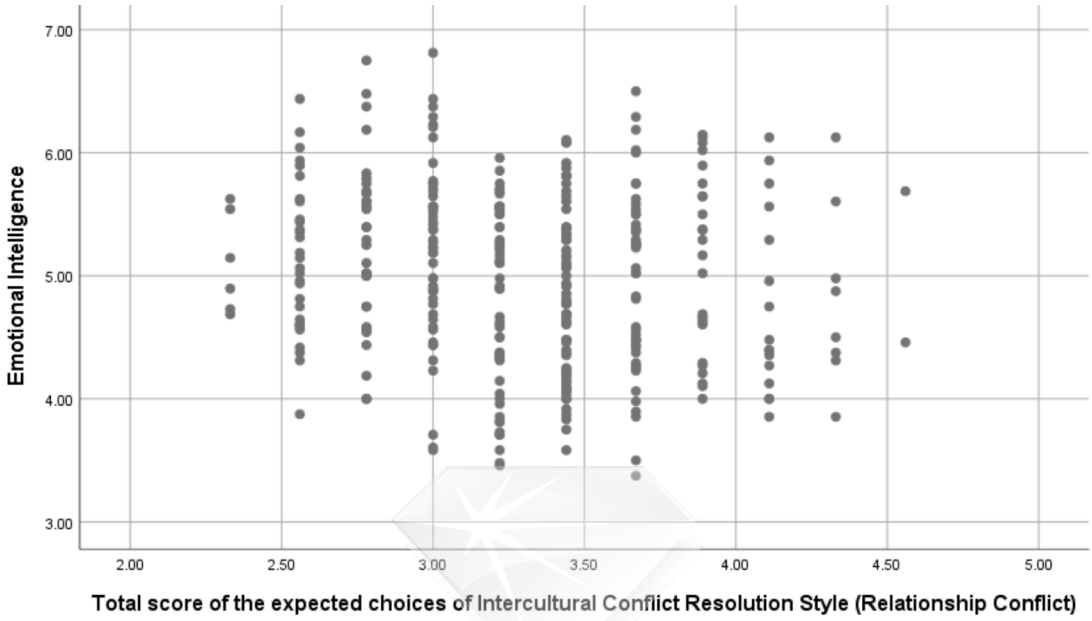

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The results of the linear regression (R^2 = .02, F(1, 337) = 6.89, p = .009) show that the correlation between emotional intelligence level among team leaders and the expected choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Style when interacting with multicultural virtual team members, in case of relationship conflict, is significant (p=.009) and the predictor value (R^2 = .02) is very weak. Consequently, we consider hypothesis 2.2 not to be supported.

Moreover, researchers further explored these associations among Thai, French, and American respondents in all types of conflict and found that none of the R-Squared values was above 0.4. Therefore, we concluded that emotional intelligence levels among team leaders from three cultural background types do not statistically significantly associated with Intercultural Conflict Management Style when interacting with multicultural virtual team members in all types of conflict.

Since all hypotheses 2, 2.1, and 2.2 and further investigation on respondents from three cultural background types were not supported. We then put an additional effort into exploring the difference between high/medium emotional intelligence and intercultural conflict Management behavior by breaking it down into two dimensions proposed by Hammer (2005): communication approach and emotional strategy.

Since our data analysis using continuous variable types didn't result in any interesting finding, we decided to explore by converting these continuous variables into categorical variables could help in identifying potential relationship patterns. For the categorical variable regarding EI and IC, the median was used as a cutting point to identify the high or medium EI and IC categories. Figure 4-52 shows that the median and mean values for EI are 5.0, 4.99, and 3.08, 3.09 for IC. The EI instrument was from 1 to 7 with a scale median value of 4.0. Since the median value of our sample distribution is much higher (=5) than the median value of the measuring instrument, we considered using a "medium" category rather than a "low." The same criteria applied with IC, which its median value was 3.08 with a scale from 1 to 5. These values exhibited a perfect normal curve distribution (when mean and median value is close to each other) in this study. Thus, when the EI score is greater than 5.0, it is marked as high EI. When the EI score is equal to or lower than 5.0, it is identified as medium EI. And when the IC score is greater than 3.08, it is marked as high IC, while it is marked as medium IC when it is equal to or lower than 3.08.

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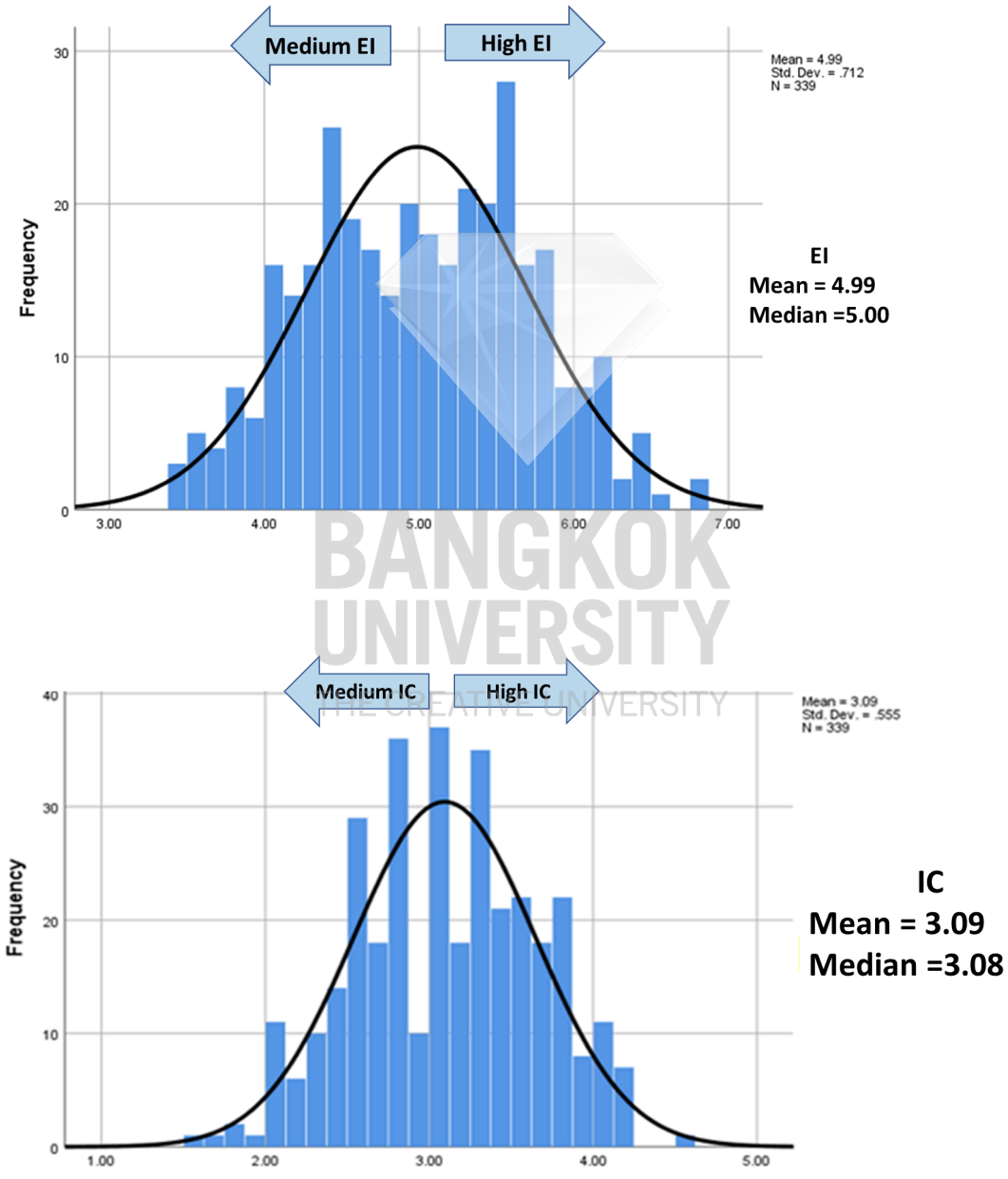
Figure 4-52

Categorization of EI and IC variables based on distribution



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Group Statistics_Relationship Conflict

	EI Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Direct_RC	Medium	167	2.49	1.536	0.119
	High	172	3.06	1.509	0.115
Indirect_RC	Medium	167	6.51	1.536	0.119
	High	172	5.94	1.509	0.115
Emotional Expressive_RC	Medium	167	3.25	1.361	0.105
	High	172	2.51	1.300	0.099
Emotional Restraint_RC	Medium	167	5.75	1.361	0.105
	High	172	6.49	1.300	0.099

The following tables (Table 4-14 and Table 4-15) show descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels and the summarized T-Test results in a conflict, task conflict, and relationship conflict.

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Table 4-14

Descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels

Group Statistics_Conflict

	EI Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Direct	Medium	167	5.31	2.937	0.227
	High	172	7.02	2.480	0.189
Indirect	Medium	167	12.69	2.937	0.227
	High	172	10.98	2.480	0.189
Emotional Expressive	Medium	167	7.11	2.544	0.197
	High	172	5.67	2.184	0.167
Emotional Restraint	Medium	167	10.89	2.544	0.197
	High	172	12.33	2.184	0.167

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Group Statistics_Task Conflict

	EI Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Direct_TC	Medium	167	2.83	1.923	0.149
	High	172	3.97	1.654	0.126
Indirect_TC	Medium	167	6.17	1.923	0.149
	High	172	5.03	1.654	0.126
Emotional Expressive_TC	Medium	167	3.86	1.694	0.131
	High	172	3.16	1.625	0.124
Emotional Restraint_TC	Medium	167	5.14	1.694	0.131
	High	172	5.84	1.625	0.124

Table 4-14 (Continued)

Descriptive statistics on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels

Group Statistics_Relationship Conflict

	EI Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Direct_RC	Medium	167	2.49	1.536	0.119
	High	172	3.06	1.509	0.115
Indirect_RC	Medium	167	6.51	1.536	0.119
	High	172	5.94	1.509	0.115
Emotional Expressive_RC	Medium	167	3.25	1.361	0.105
	High	172	2.51	1.300	0.099
Emotional Restraint_RC	Medium	167	5.75	1.361	0.105
	High	172	6.49	1.300	0.099

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Table 4-15

T-Test Results on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels

Independent Samples Test_Intercultural Conflict Resoluation Behavior/Style_Conflict

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Direct	Equal variances assumed	6.692	0.010	-5.804	337	**0.000**	-1.712	0.295	-2.292	-1.132
Indirect	Equal variances assumed	6.692	0.010	5.804	337	**0.000**	1.712	0.295	1.132	2.292
Emotional Expressive	Equal variances assumed	2.859	0.092	5.572	337	**0.000**	1.433	0.257	0.927	1.939
Emotional Restraint	Equal variances assumed	2.859	0.092	-5.572	337	**0.000**	-1.433	0.257	-1.939	-0.927

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Table 4-15 (Continued)

T-Test Results on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels

Independent Samples Test Intercultural Conflict Resoluation Behavior/Style Task Conflict

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Direct_TC	Equal variances assumed	6.123	0.014	-5.851	337	**0.000**	-1.139	0.195	-1.522	-0.756
Indirect_TC	Equal variances assumed	6.123	0.014	5.851	337	**0.000**	1.139	0.195	0.756	1.522
Emotional Expressive_TC	Equal variances assumed	0.360	0.549	3.847	337	**0.000**	0.693	0.180	0.339	1.048
Emotional Restraint_TC	Equal variances assumed	0.360	0.549	-3.847	337	**0.000**	-0.693	0.180	-1.048	-0.339

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Table 4-15 (Continued)

T-Test Results on Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior used among respondents with different EI levels

Independent Samples Test_Intercultural Conflict Resoluation Behavior/Style_Relationship Conflict

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Direct_RC	Equal variances assumed	0.244	0.622	-3.465	337	**0.001**	-0.573	0.165	-0.898	-0.248
Indirect_RC	Equal variances assumed	0.244	0.622	3.465	337	**0.001**	0.573	0.165	0.248	0.898
Emotional Expressive_RC	Equal variances assumed	0.452	0.502	5.119	337	**0.000**	0.740	0.145	0.456	1.024
Emotional Restraint_RC	Equal variances assumed	0.452	0.502	-5.119	337	**0.000**	-0.740	0.145	-1.024	-0.456

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EI Level and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior between respondents with different EI levels. Specifically, the use of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior is reported as follow:

- Direct approach, $t(337) = -5.804$, $p = .000$,
- Indirect approach, $t(337) = 5.804$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional expressive, $t(337) = 5.572$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional restraint, $t(337) = -5.572$, $p = .000$

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EI Level and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Task Conflict

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior between respondents with different EI levels in a task conflict. Specifically, the specific use of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior is reported as follows:

- Direct approach in task conflict, $t(337) = -5.851$, $p = .000$,
- Indirect approach in task conflict, $t(337) = 5.851$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional expressive in task conflict, $t(337) = 3.847$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional restraint in task conflict, $t(337) = -3.847$, $p = .000$

EI Level and Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in a Relationship Conflict

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior between respondents with different EI levels in a relationship conflict. Specifically, the specific use of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior is reported as follow:

- Direct approach in relationship conflict, $t(337) = -3.465$, $p = .000$,
- Indirect approach in relationship conflict, $t(337) = 3.465$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional expressive in relationship conflict, $t(337) = 5.119$, $p = .000$,
- Emotional restraint in relationship conflict, $t(337) = -5.119$, $p = .000$

Finally, Chi-Square was used to test the relationship, which compares the frequencies between two categorical variables (EI/IC and the intercultural conflict management behavior) in a conflict) (task conflict and relationship conflict) in the following hypotheses.

Then, the communication approach and emotional strategy used in the Intercultural conflict management behavior between respondents with cultural differences were recoded into a categorical variable. The frequencies of how respondents changed their communication approach and emotional strategy during the conflict were counted. Then, if their frequencies reach between 40 to 60 percent, they are categorized as frequently changed in their communication approach and emotional strategy. The opposite identification applied when the frequencies were less than 40 percent (rarely

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changed) (see Figure 4-53). Generally, a p-value of less than 0.05 (typically ≤ 0.05) is considered an indicator of statistical significance, giving strong evidence against the null hypothesis. Finally, Phi value and its interpretation were reported on the strength of association between both categorical variables. The summarized Chi-Square results are shown in Table 4-16.

Figure 4-53

Converting the frequencies of communication approach and emotional strategy into categorical variables

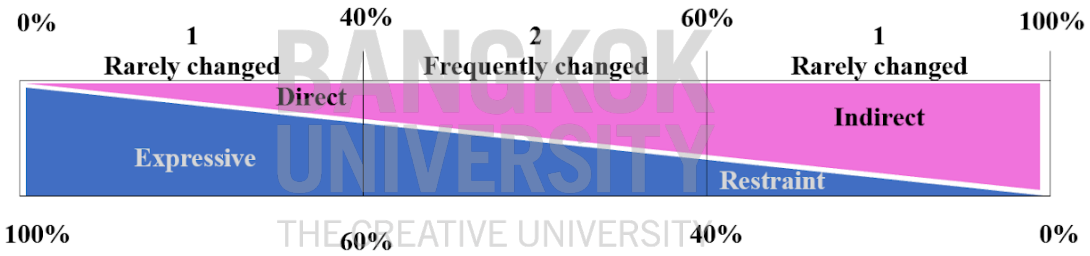

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Table 4-16

The summary of Chi-Square results for H3 and H4

				Communication approach (Direct/Indirect) (N=339)					
				Change Direct/Indirect Style		Pearson Chi-Square		Symmetric Measures	
				Rarely	Often	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Phi Value	Interpretation
H3.1	Conflict	EI Level	Medium	136	31	9.367[a]	**0.002**	**0.166**	**Strong**
			High	115	**57**				
H3.1.1	Task Conflict	EI Level	Medium	130	37	15.908[a]	**0.000**	**0.217**	**Strong**
			High	99	**73**				
H3.1.2	Relationship Conflict	EI Level	Medium	139	28	9.888[a]	**0.002**	**0.171**	**Strong**
			High	118	**54**				

				Emotional Strategy (Expressive/Restraint) (N=339)					
				Change Expressive / Restraint Style		Pearson Chi-Square		Symmetric Measures	
				Rarely	Often	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Phi Value	Interpretation
H3.2	Conflict	EI Level	**Medium**	105	**62**	15.531[a]	**0.000**	**-0.214**	**Strong**
			High	141	31				
H3.2.1	Task Conflict	EI Level	**Medium**	99	**68**	4.556[a]	**0.033**	**-0.116**	**Moderate**
			High	121	51				
H3.2.2	Relationship Conflict	EI Level	**Medium**	109	**58**	16.338[a]	**0.000**	**-0.220**	**Strong**
			High	145	27				

				Communication approach (Direct/Indirect) (N=339)					
				Change Direct/Indirect Style		Pearson Chi-Square		Symmetric Measures	
				Rarely	Often	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Phi Value	Interpretation
H4.1	Conflict	IC Level	Medium	131	28	10.859[a]	**0.001**	**0.179**	**Strong**
			High	120	**60**				
H4.1.1	Task Conflict	IC Level	Medium	112	47	1.140[a]	0.286	0.058	
			High	117	63				
H4.1.2	Relationship Conflict	IC Level	Medium	121	38	.014[a]	0.907	0.006	
			High	136	44				

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Table 4-16 (Continued)

The summary of Chi-Square results for H3 and H4

				Emotional Strategy (Expressive/Restraint) (N=339)					
				Change Expressive / Restraint Style		Pearson Chi-Square		Symmetric Measures	
				Rarely	Often	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Phi Value	Interpretation
H4.2	Conflict	IC Level	Medium	108	51	3.241[a]	0.072	-0.098	
			High	138	42				
H4.2.1	Task Conflict	IC Level	Medium	102	57	.073[a]	0.787	-0.015	
			High	118	62				
H4.2.2	Relationship Conflict	IC Level	**Medium**	110	**49**	5.259[a]	**0.022**	**-0.125**	**Moderate**
			High	144	36				

The results of the hypotheses tests are as follows:

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Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Communication Approach in a Conflict (Overall)

$H3.1_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

$H3.1_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

Hypothesis 3.1 is supported. The result indicates that a high EI level was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different

culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 9.367, p = .002, φ = 0.166 (strong).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Communication Approach in a Task Conflict

H3.1.1$_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.1.1$_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

Hypothesis 3.1.1 is supported. The result indicates that a high EI level was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a task conflict with a member from a different culture, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 15.908, p = .000, φ = 0.217 (strong).

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Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Communication Approach in a Relationship Conflict

H3.1.2$_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.1.2$_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

Hypothesis 3.1.2 is supported. The result indicates that EI level (high) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a relationship conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 9.888, p = .002, φ = 0.171 (strong).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Emotional Strategy in a Conflict (Overall)

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H3.2$_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

H3.2$_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.

Hypothesis 3.2 is supported but the opposite finding. The result indicates that EI level (medium) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 15.531, p = .000, φ = -0.214 (strong).

Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Emotional Strategy in a Task Conflict

H3.2.1$_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

H3.2.1$_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.

Hypothesis 3.2.1 is supported but the opposite finding. The result indicates that EI level (medium) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a task conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 4.556, p = .033, φ = -0.116 (moderate).

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Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Emotional Strategy in a Relationship Conflict

H3.2.2$_a$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

H3.2.2$_0$: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.

Hypothesis 3.2.2 is supported but the opposite finding. The result indicates that EI level (medium) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a relationship conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 16.338, p = .000, φ = -0.220 (strong).

Furthermore, we decided to further analyze how the subdimensions of each of our main independent variables (EI/IC) may affect the intercultural conflict management behavior in a conflict. The summarized results are shown in Table 4-17. The results concluded that:

- OEA level (high) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 20.102, p = .000, φ = 0.244 (strong).
- OEA level (medium) was significantly and very strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 29.913, p = .000, φ = -0.297 (very strong).
- UOE and ROE level (medium) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 7.071, p = .008, φ = -0.144 (moderate) and X^2 (1, N = 339) = 4.752, p = .029, φ = -0.118 (moderate).

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Table 4-17

The summary of Chi-Square results on four EI dimensions and six cultural dimensions

Overall conflict_EI dimensions (n=339)

		Direct/Indirect					
		Change Direct/Indirect Style		**Pearson Chi-Square**		**Symmetric Measures**	
		Rarely	**Often**		**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**	**Phi Value**	**Interpretation**
SEA	Medium	117	37	.548[a]	0.459	0.040	
	High	134	51				
OEA	Medium	141	25	20.102[a]	**0.000**	**0.244**	**Strong**
	High	110	**63**				
UOE	Medium	113	37	.234[a]	0.629	0.026	
	High	138	51				
ROE	Medium	124	33	3.712[a]	0.054	0.105	
	High	127	55				

		Expressive/Restraint					
		Change Expressive / Restraint Style		**Pearson Chi-Square**		**Symmetric Measures**	
		Rarely	**Often**		**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**	**Phi Value**	**Interpretation**
SEA	Medium	106	48	1.978a	0.160	-0.076	
	High	140	45				
OEA	**Medium**	98	**68**	29.913a	**0.000**	**-0.297**	**Very strong**
	High	148	25				
UOE	**Medium**	98	**52**	7.071a	**0.008**	**-0.144**	**Moderate**
	High	148	41				
ROE	**Medium**	105	**52**	4.752a	**0.029**	**-0.118**	**Moderate**
	High	141	41				

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Table 4-17 (Continued)

The summary of Chi-Square results on four EI dimensions and six cultural dimensions

Overall conflict_Cultural dimensions (n=339)							
		Direct/Indirect					
		Change Direct/Indirect Style		**Pearson Chi-Square**		**Symmetric Measures**	
		Rarely	**Often**		**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**	**Phi Value**	**Interpretation**
PD Adaptation	Medium	139	37	4.640[a]	**0.031**	**0.117**	**Moderate**
	High	112	51				
Universalism / Particularism adaptation	Medium	85	26	.552[a]	0.458	0.040	
	High	166	62				
Competition / Consensus adaptation	Medium	82	16	6.654[a]	**0.010**	**0.140**	**Moderate**
	High	169	**72**				
Monochronism / Polychronism adaptation	Medium	176	64	.214[a]	0.643	-0.025	
	High	75	24				
Explicit / Implicit Communication adaptation	Medium	117	37	.548[a]	0.459	0.040	
	High	134	51				
IDV / COL	Medium	114	23	10.060[a]	**0.002**	**0.172**	**Strong**
	High	137	**65**				

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Table 4-17 (Continued)

The summary of Chi-Square results on four EI dimensions and six cultural dimensions

		Expressive/Restraint					
		Change Expressive / Restraint Style		**Pearson Chi-Square**		**Symmetric Measures**	
		Rarely	**Often**		**Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)**	**Phi Value**	**Interpretation**
PD Adaptation	**Medium**	118	**58**	5.604a	**0.018**	**-0.129**	**Moderate**
	High	128	35				
Universalism / Particularism adaptation	Medium	80	31	.020a	0.887	-0.008	
	High	166	62				
Competition / Consensus adaptation	Medium	63	35	4.748a	**0.029**	**-0.118**	**Moderate**
	High	183	**58**				
Monochronism / Polychronism adaptation	Medium	172	68	.334a	0.563	-0.031	
	High	74	25				
Explicit / Implicit Communication adaptation	Medium	113	41	.093a	0.760	0.017	
	High	133	52				
IDV / COL	Medium	90	47	5.456a	**0.020**	**-0.127**	**Moderate**
	High	156	46				

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Intercultural Competence (IC) and Communication Approach in a Conflict

$H4.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.

$H4.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.

Hypothesis 4.1 is supported. The result indicates that IC level (high) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 10.859, p = .001, φ = 0.179 (strong).

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Intercultural Competence (IC) and Communication Approach in a Task Conflict

$H4.1.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

$H4.1.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

Hypothesis 4.1.1 fails to be supported. The result indicates that IC level was not significantly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a task conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 1.140, p = .286.

Intercultural Competence (IC) and Communication Approach in a Relationship Conflict

H4.1.2$_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.1.2$_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

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Hypothesis 4.1.2 fails to be supported. The result indicates that IC level was not significantly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a relationship conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 0.014, p = .907.

Intercultural Competence (IC) and Emotional Strategy in a Conflict

$H4.2_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.

$H4.2_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.

Hypothesis 4.2 fails to be supported. The result indicates that IC level was not significantly associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 3.241 p = .072.

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Intercultural Competence (IC) and Emotional Strategy in a Task Conflict

$H4.2.1_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

$H4.2.1_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

Hypothesis 4.2.1 fails to be supported. The result indicates that IC level was not significantly associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a task conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 0.073 p = .787.

Intercultural Competence (IC) and Emotional Strategy in a Relationship Conflict

H4.2.2$_a$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

H4.2.2$_0$: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are less likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.

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Hypothesis 4.2.2 is supported but the opposite finding. The result indicates that IC level (medium) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a relationship conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 5.259, p = .022, φ = -0.125 (moderate).

Additionally, the results from Table 4-17 (Chi-square for IC dimension) concluded that:

- Power distance adaptation and Competition / Consensus adaptation (high) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their

communication approach when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 4.640, p = .031, φ = 0.117 (moderate) and X^2 (1, N = 339) = 6.654, p = .010, φ = 0.140 (moderate).

- IDV Adaptation (high) was significantly and strongly associated with the way respondents adapted their communication approach when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 10.060, p = .002, φ = 0. 172 (strong)
- Power distance adaptation (high) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 5.604, p = .018, φ = -0.129 (moderate).
- Power distance adaptation (medium) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 5.604, p = .018, φ = -0.129 (moderate).
- Competition / Consensus adaptation and Individualism Adaptation (high) was significantly and moderately associated with the way respondents adapted their emotional strategy when dealing with a conflict with a member from a different culture in a multicultural virtual team, X^2 (1, N = 339) = 4.748, p = .029, φ = -0.118 (moderate) and X^2 (1, N = 339) = 5.456, p = .020, φ = -0.127 (moderate).

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Mainly, Table 4-18 summarizes the result of all hypotheses.

Table 4-18

The summarized results of all hypotheses

Hypotheses	Test used	Result
H1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members.	ANOVA	Partially supported
H1.1: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	ANOVA	Partially supported
H1.2: Team leaders' cultural backgrounds influence the choice of their intercultural conflict management style among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	ANOVA	Partially supported
H2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members.	Regression	Not Supported
H2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict.	Regression	Not Supported
H2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict.	Regression	Not Supported
H3.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	Chi-Square	Supported
H3.1.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	Chi-Square	Supported

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Table 4-18 (Continued)

The summarized results of all hypotheses

Hypotheses	Test used	Result
H3.1.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the communication approach of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	Chi-Square	Supported
H3.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds.	Chi-Square	Opposite finding
H3.2.1: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of task conflict.	Chi-Square	Opposite finding
H3.2.2: Team leaders with higher emotional intelligence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy of their intercultural conflict management behavior to team members from different cultural backgrounds, in the case of relationship conflict.	Chi-Square	Opposite finding
H4.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (communication approach) to a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Supported
H4.1.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Rejected

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Table 4-18 (Continued)

The summarized results of all hypotheses

Hypotheses	Test used	Result
H4.1.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the communication approach aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Rejected
H4.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the choice of their intercultural conflict management style (emotional strategy) to a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Rejected
H4.2.1: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a task conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Rejected
H4.2.2: Team leaders with higher intercultural competence are more likely to adapt the emotional strategy aspect of their intercultural conflict management style during a relationship conflict with a team member from a different cultural background.	Chi-Square	Opposite finding

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CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings and discussions on our model and the main variables it includes (emotional intelligence, intercultural competence, and intercultural conflict management styles and behavior). Findings and discussion are provided for each of our main research questions as well as for our hypotheses.

5.1 Demographics-Related Findings and Discussion

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The total sample of 339 included in this study consisted of respondents from three nationalities with different cultural dimensions: Thai (n=106, high power distance & collectivism), French (n=114, high power distance & individualism), and American (n=119, low power distance & individualism). The overall age range is between 18 to 65 up. The majority held a master's degree or equivalent education and advanced English. They were a group of working professionals employed in the private sector in the research and education field with 1-5 years of working experience. Most of them have had international experiences living abroad and have global interaction at work daily with a virtual working experience.

The Thai sub-sample is composed of more women and has a higher age range (between 35-44) than the French and American sub-samples. Regarding the educational

background, the Thai and French sub-samples hold a higher degree (Master's or equivalent) than the American one (Undergraduate degree or equivalent); they also have had more experience living abroad than Americans. As expected, Americans have the highest English level, whereas Thai and French are, in average, at the advanced English level.

Regarding the working environment, Thai and American respondents were mainly working full-time. And since French is the youngest sample, more among them are working and studying part-time. All sub-samples were primarily employed in the private sector and had a previous virtual working experience. Still, Thai and French are more often interacting daily with international colleagues, while Americans primarily interact monthly. Regarding working experience, Thai had in average a longer working experience (6-10 years) than French and Americans (1-5 years). Lastly, concerning the mood, most of the sample had a good mood (at least before completing our serious game!). Thus, it can be concluded that our samples are not strictly homogeneous since they don't possess equal characteristics or demographics, but there is still value in comparing them for this research, since they share a lot of communalities.

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Findings Related to Our Main Variables (EI, IC, ICS)

Emotional intelligence is defined as the individual's ability to perceive, understand, and evaluate one's own and others' feelings and emotions and manage their feelings to guide one's thinking and action. In terms of EI level measured with WLEIS,

the result from this study concluded that French ($\bar{x}$ = 5.24) and Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 5.18) have a higher EI level than Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 4.58) (Figure 4-4). This doesn't mean that French and Thai people have higher EI than Americans, at least in our sample. This finding should not be generalized to the entire country population. And when looking at the results of EI level in each dimension, Thai had a slightly higher EI level in SEA (ability to understand your emotions) and UOE (ability to use emotion to guide your performance). Still, French is slightly higher in OEA (ability to understand others' emotions) and ROE (ability to manage your emotions) (Figure 4-3).

Intercultural Competence is the ability to appropriately and effectively adapt to cultural differences. It was measured in the serious game through the degree of adaptation to cultural diversity related to six cultural dimensions. The results showed that French ($\bar{x}$ = 3.41) had the highest IC level, followed by Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 3.06) and Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 2.82), respectively (Figure 4-4). And when looking more closely into each dimension, French scored the highest in every IC dimension, followed by Thai in four IC dimensions (high/low power distance, universalism/particularism, competition/consensus, and individualism/collectivism), and Americans in two IC dimensions (monochronism/ polychronism and explicit/implicit communication) (Figure 4-2). Again, the IC level results based on this study should not be generalized to the entire country population that all French have higher IC than the two other countries' samples, as the sub-samples are not strictly equivalent on demographic variables.

From our samples, we noticed that:

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- EI scores were not significantly influenced by gender (Figure 4-5). This result contradicts previous studies (Craig et al., 2009; Harrod & Scheer, 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) that EI scores of females were significantly higher than males. But in terms of IC scores, Thai female respondents significantly scored higher ($\bar{x}$ = 3.20) than male respondents (3.02). The results on IC reflect Holm, Nokelainen, and Tirri (2009) that women reach higher IC scores than men.
- Concerning the age seniority of participants (Figure 4-6), we noticed an increase of EI and IC scores when age increased. This result reflects the existing literature that EI significantly increases with age seniority (Bar-on, 2000; Kafetsios, 2004; Singh 2006; Stein, 2009). It was partially significant for our American sample. Regarding the IC literature, it also matches with Schwarzenthal, Juang, Schachner, Van de Vijver, and Handrick (2017), who summarized that IC increased with age when measured by the situational judgment test, not a self-reported measurement.
- Regarding the top three EI and IC, they were significantly influenced by the level of their education background; doctoral degree ($\bar{x}$= 5.42, $\bar{x}$= 3.42), master's degree ($\bar{x}$= 5.11, $\bar{x}$= 3.28), and undergraduate or equivalent ($\bar{x}$= 4.90, $\bar{x}$= 2.96) respectively (Figure 4-7). This EI result is consistent with Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002) that EI is significantly increased with education.
- For both EI and IC scores, respondents with advanced English levels statistically score higher than other levels. And there were statistically significant differences

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in EI and IC between respondents who have different English levels. This was partially significant for our Thai and American samples (Figure 4-9).

– The top three EI scores are those of respondents whose employment type is "other" ($\bar{x}$= 5.33), employed in the private sector ($\bar{x}$= 5.05), and not employed (full-time students or retired) ($\bar{x}$= 4.92). And, the top three IC scores are those of respondents whose employment types are "other" ($\bar{x}$= 3.40), employed in private sector ($\bar{x}$= 3.16), and employed in the public sector ($\bar{x}$= 3.06). This was partially significant for our Thai sample (Figure 4-10).
– Respondents who have lived abroad have the highest score in both EI and IC ($\bar{x}$= 5.11, $\bar{x}$= 3.18 respectively) (Figure 4-11). These findings are aligned with Shaftel, Shaftel, and Ahluwalia (2007) research who concluded that experience living abroad leads to higher IC.
– Concerning the amount of working experience among participants (Figure 4-12), there was an increase in EI and IC scores. This was partially significant for our Thai sample in terms of EI score. This result on EI score matches with the previous studies that the more working experience respondents have, the higher EI they score (Goleman, 1998; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Maddocks & Sparrows, 1998). Moreover, the more frequent interaction with international colleagues, the higher EI respondents have (Figure 4-13).
– Top three EI scores of respondents who work in "other sector" ($\bar{x}$ = 5.19), tourism ($\bar{x}$ = 5.13), and finance and insurance ($\bar{x}$ = 5.08) respectively. And, the top three

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IC scores of respondents who work in industry ($\bar{x}$ = 3.24), "other sector" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.14), and research and education ($\bar{x}$ = 3.11) (Figure 4-14).

- Respondents who have had virtual team experience have the highest score in both EI and IC ($\bar{x}$= 5.11, $\bar{x}$= 3.18 respectively) (Figure 4-15). Mysirlaki and Paraskeva (2019) also found a positive association between emotional intelligence and virtual team effectiveness.
- Sakata (2006) developed the "Niko-Niko calendar," which uses Niko-scale as a tool to see the team member's moods via emoji visibly. Niko is a Japanese term that means "with a smile.' This concept has helped to understand why people behave how they behave. One of the demographic questions in this study used emoji to signify respondents' mood. And our results showed that the more positive feeling the Thai respondents had, the higher EI they scored (Figure 4-16).

Last but not least, our dependent variable ***Intercultural conflict management***, is defined as the way to reduce, terminate, or eliminate conflict when interacting with one another from different cultures. Hammer (2005) proposed four intercultural conflict management styles, including discussion (direct and emotionally restraint), engagement (direct and emotionally expressive), accommodation (indirect and emotionally restraint), and dynamic (indirect and emotionally expressive) style. However, the engagement style was seen as the most inappropriate/unlikely to be used and was dropped out after the pilot study feedback, thus in this study, only three styles of Intercultural Conflict Management remained. And we also studied the two dimensions for intercultural conflict management behavior including direct/indirect and emotional expressive/restraint.

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The direct strategy focuses on using a straightforward approach to deal with disagreements, such as applying precise words, explicit language to increase understanding, preferring face-to-face discussion to resolve the conflict. In contrast, indirect culture strategies focus on using indirect approaches to deal with disagreements such as ambiguity in language, use of analogies and metaphors, hinting or saying one thing to refer to another, use of the third party to mediate during the conflict management process. Moreover, an emotionally expressive strategy tends to let out emotion and value more overt and visible displays of emotion and feeling through nonverbal behaviors. And, in an emotionally restrained strategy, the focus is on containing, hiding, masking, and minimizing the expression of overt emotion through nonverbal behavior. Emotions are controlled internally.

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Concerning ***Intercultural Conflict Management Style***, our samples reflected that Americans preferred the use of dynamic style ($\bar{x}$ = 7.73) and of the accommodation style ($\bar{x}$ = 5.88), while Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 7.21) and French ($\bar{x}$ = 7.10) were similar in terms of using discussion style as their preferred one (Figure 4-19). Consequently, Figure 4-17 shows the percentage of the preferred choices of intercultural conflict management style which reflect the same result as follow:

- Accommodation style: 28% for Thais, 29% for French, and 33% for Americans,
- Dynamic style: 32% for Thais, 31% for French, and 43% for Americans, and
- Discussion style: 40% for Thais, 39% for French, and 24% for Americans.

For the Thais, two of the intercultural conflict management styles are used almost equally (accommodation: 28% and dynamic: 32%), while the discussion style is used

significantly (p=.000) more (40%) (Figure 4-19). If we look more closely at the behaviors that composed these styles, we can see that Thais have a preference for using the emotionally restraint strategy (Figure 4-27) as well as the indirect communication approach (Figure 4-26). Both behaviors are commonly listed in the literature as attributes of Thai cultural behaviors.

Similar to the Thai sample, French also used almost equally accommodation (29%) and dynamic (31%) styles, and the discussion style is used significantly (p=.000) more (39%). However, our French sample reflected that both behaviors (indirect and emotionally restraint) partially contradict the previous literature on French cultural behavior. Nevertheless, the reported result that the French scored highest in both EI and IC might be a reason for adapting their behavior in a conflict situation.

Americans significantly used dynamic style the most (43%, p=.000), followed by the accommodation style (33%, p=.000) and the dynamic style (24%, p=.000) style. Regarding the behaviors used among the American sample, the result showed that they preferred using an indirect and emotionally restraint communication approach, which also contradicted the existing literature. Two possible reasons might support the findings: Americans are goal-oriented; thus, they might adapt their cultural behaviors to help accomplish the task in the game. And since America is composed of many diverse, multicultural ethnic groups, their cultural behavior might differ.

Specifically, when looking more closely at how each style of ICS was used with the interaction between the interlocutors from three countries, the results from the study summarized that:

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Thais most likely used the discussion style (direct approach and emotionally restraint) when they interacted with interlocutors from the same and different (French and American) cultures, followed by using the dynamic style (indirect and emotionally expressive approach) when interacting with the Americans but equally used the accommodation style (indirect and emotionally restraint approach) and the dynamic style when interacting with Thai and French. Based on the literature (Hall & Hall, 1990; Hammer, 2005; Hofstede, 1980, 2001), this result was unexpected. Since Thais are collectivist, have a high power distance, communicate in an implicit way and hide their emotions, their expected conflict management style was the accommodation style (indirect and emotionally restraint).

For French, they also most likely used the discussion style (direct and emotionally restraint approach) when they interacted with interlocutors from the same and from different cultures (Thai and American), followed by the dynamic style (indirect and emotionally expressive approach), while are least likely used accommodation style (indirect and emotionally restraint approach) when interacted with Thai and Americans. But when the French interacted with the interlocutors from the same culture, they were least likely to use the dynamic style. This unexpected result contradicted Hammer (2005) and Hofstede (1980, 2001). Since the French are individualist and have a high power distance, their expected style was the dynamic style (direct and emotionally expressive).

Last, the Americans most likely used the dynamic style (indirect and emotionally expressive approach) and least likely used the discussion style (direct and emotionally restraint approach) when interacting with interlocutors from a different culture (Thai and

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French). However, when they interacted with other Americans, they used the accommodation style (indirect and emotionally restraint approach) the most, and used the discussion style the least. This result is also unexpected since, again, it contradicted the existing literature (Hammer, 2005; Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Since Americans are individualists and have a low power distance, their expected style was the discussion style (direct and emotionally restraint).

It can be concluded that the use of the accommodation style (Figure 4-20) is always higher when interacting with interlocutors from the same cultural background and lower when interacting with people from a different cultural background. On the contrary, the dynamic style (Figure 4-21) was used more when interacting with interlocutors from different cultures and less with people from the same cultural background. And finally, the discussion style (Figure 4-22) was used more when Thai interacted with interlocutors from diverse cultural backgrounds, but French used it more when interacting with interlocutors from the same cultural background. And Americans used this style more with Thai interlocutors but less with French interlocutors.

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These results are not aligned with Hammer's (2005) findings since he mentioned that Americans prefer the discussion style and Thai prefer the accommodation style. Based on his previous findings, it was expected that Thais would favor using the accommodation style (indirect and emotionally restraint) which is not directly reflected as the preferred choice for our Thai sample since their preferred style was the discussion style (direct and emotionnaly restraint). Nevertheless, looking at the overall intercultural conflict management behaviors used during the game, we found that the indirect and

emotionally restraint behaviors emerged as prominent, as described hereafter. But since Hammer's (2005) work has considered only one cultural dimension, individualism and collectivism, and the interaction between interlocutors from the different cultures has not been studied before, the results might differ. Also, some other factors such as EI and IC level, age, work experience, international experience, interaction with international colleagues may influence the results.

Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior is based on two dimensions: the communication approach (direct/indirect) and the emotional strategy (expressive/ restraint) used. The results from our overall sample pointed out what follows:

- Communication approach (Figure 4-26): all three cultures frequently used an indirect approach than a direct approach. However, when looking at a particular approach, Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 13.61) used the indirect approach the most. On the contrary, both French ($\bar{x}$ = 7.10) and Thais ($\bar{x}$ = 7.21) used the direct approach more than Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 4.39).
- Emotional strategy (Figure 4-27): the overall sample used an emotionally restraint strategy more than emotional expressiveness. And again, when looking at the sub-samples separately, Americans ($\bar{x}$ = 7.73) used emotional expressiveness the most. In contrast, both Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 12.32) and French ($\bar{x}$ = 12.38) used an emotionally restraint strategy the most.

When it comes to intercultural conflict management behavior demonstrated by our sample, we noticed that:

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- Women used a more direct approach and control emotion more than men in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 6.83, $\bar{x}$ = 12.15) as well as in all sub-samples: Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 7.41, $\bar{x}$ = 12.47), French ($\bar{x}$ = 7.48, $\bar{x}$ = 12.68) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 4.75, $\bar{x}$ = 10.81) (Figure 4-28).
- Respondents aged between 25 and 34 frequently use the indirect approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 12.42) and in the American sub-sample ($\bar{x}$ = 14.08), while respondents aged 65 and over restrain their emotions more in the French ($\bar{x}$ = 14.00) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 12.00) sub-samples only (Figure 4-29).
- Respondents with a doctoral degree or equivalent frequently use a direct approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 8.21) and the Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 8.08) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 7.60) sub-samples, and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 13.43) and in all three sub-samples: Thai ($\bar{x}$ = 13.33), French ($\bar{x}$ = 13.64) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 13.20) (Figure 4-30).
- Respondents with an advanced English level frequently use a direct approach and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 6.55, $\bar{x}$ = 12.08) and the French sub-sample ($\bar{x}$ = 7.26, $\bar{x}$ = 12.64) (Figure 4-32).
- Respondents who were employed in the public sector frequently use an indirect approach and an emotionally expressive strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 12.92, $\bar{x}$ = 7.08), and in the French ($\bar{x}$ = 12.00, $\bar{x}$ = 6.75) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 13.93, $\bar{x}$ = 7.63) sub-samples (Figure 4-33).

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- Respondents who have lived abroad frequently use a direct approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 6.70) and in the French ($\bar{x}$ = 7.18) and American ($\bar{x}$ = 5.17) sub-samples, and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ = 12.07) and all sub-samples ($\bar{x}$ = 12.40, $\bar{x}$ = 12.57, $\bar{x}$ =10.70) respectively (Figure 4-34).
- Respondents who have been working for 21 to 25 years frequently use a direct approach, in the overall sample only ($\bar{x}$ =7.65), and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ =12.94) and the American sub-sample ($\bar{x}$ =11.75) (Figure 4-35).
- Respondents who interact with international colleagues daily frequently use a direct approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ =6.87) and in the French sub-sample ($\bar{x}$ =7.70), and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample only ($\bar{x}$ =12.13) (Figure 4-36).
- Respondents who work in the telecommunication industry frequently use an indirect approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ =13.31) and in the Thai sub-sample ($\bar{x}$ =17.00), and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample only ($\bar{x}$ =12.44) (Figure 4-37).
- Respondents whose mood is good frequently use a direct approach, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ =6.51) and the Thai ($\bar{x}$ =7.35) and French ($\bar{x}$ =7.11) sub-samples, and an emotionally restraint strategy, in the overall sample ($\bar{x}$ =11.87) and the American sub-sample (Figure 4-38).

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These results concerning the use of emotional strategy in Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior are aligned with Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) and Ting-Toomey (1999) who state that collectivist cultures prefer to maintain and restrain their emotions. In contrast, individualists encourage a more open and emotionally expressive communication behavior when dealing with conflicts. Moreover, Americans and Europeans are more emotionally expressive, yet Americans separate it from objective and rational decisions. Thus, emotional strategy varied. On the contrary, the Thai preferred controlling their emotions. However, the result on the communication approach was quite surprising because Thais used a more direct communication approach than the Americans who used this approach less. This result contradicted the previous literature (Hammer, 2005; Kim & Nam, 1998; Pheng & Leong, 2000) that people from individualistic cultures prefer a direct strategy and solution-oriented styles, and collectivistic culture tends to use an indirect approach. As discussed earlier, these might result from the other important (demographic and cultural) factors on the situational-based scenarios in the game.

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5.2 Research Question Findings and Discussion

The following discussion of the significant results is based on the theoretical framework and research questions.

RQ1.1: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of task conflict?

RQ1.2: To what extent do team leader's cultural backgrounds influence their choice of an intercultural conflict management behavior during conflicts happening among multicultural virtual team member, in the case of relationship conflict?

Our findings revealed that cultural background influences the choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior/Style. It reported that the cultural background doesn't significantly affect the use of communication approaches (direct and indirect). In contrast, cultural background dramatically influences the use of emotional strategy (expressive and restraint) in the overall conflict and task conflict. However, in a relationship conflict, cultural background significantly affects the use of both communication approach and emotional strategy.

RQ2.1: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of task conflict?

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RQ2.2: To what extent do team leaders with higher emotional intelligence better manage intercultural conflict among multicultural virtual team members, in the case of relationship conflict?

Our findings revealed that emotional intelligence doesn't significantly predict the "expected" Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior, as it was predicted to be used among team members from different cultural background types in a (task or relationship) conflict. The critical point is that using the "expected" score for evaluating good handling of a conflict is probably not the best choice, since there might not be a single "best" choice, especially when dealing with multicultural team members from various backgrounds.

Thus, a further investigation aimed to look more closely into how emotional intelligence influences the choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior. It concluded that different emotional intelligence levels statistically influence the choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in all types of conflict. Specifically, respondents with high EI are more likely to use an indirect and emotionally restraint strategy in all types of conflict. In other words, people with high EI prefer using an accommodation style. Moreover, Dasgupta (2018) pointed out that individuals with high EI consistently sought collaborative solutions when confronted with conflict.

RQ3.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

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RQ3.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher emotional intelligence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

Our findings revealed that the emotional intelligence level influences the adaptation of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior. The results summarized that respondents with high EI often change their communication approach but don't often change their emotional strategy in all types of conflicts. To support the influence on the emotional strategy used, McShane and Von Glinow (2018) stated that people with higher EI have better awareness of their emotions. They can better make sense of them; thus, they can adjust their emotional responses to specific situations.

RQ4.1: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of task conflict?

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RQ4.2: To what extent are team leaders with higher intercultural competence more likely to adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior to the multicultural virtual team members' cultural background, in case of relationship conflict?

Our findings revealed that the intercultural competence level influences the adaptation of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior. The results concluded that respondents with high IC often change their communication approach in overall conflict but don't often change the emotional strategy in relationship conflict.

In summary, the findings of this study confirm, but also contradict the existing theory to some extent. The results concerning the emotional strategy demonstrate the

current theory that people in high power distance (Thai and French) used emotional restraints. In contrast, low power distance (Americans) used emotional expression. Interestingly, the findings of the communication approach used by our participants with three different cultural backgrounds was quite surprising. All three are more likely to use an indirect approach which contradicts the existing literature that individualists and low power distance prefer using a direct approach.

According to Trukisky et al. (1991, as cited in Hammer, 2005), individualists prefer a direct strategy while collectivists use a straightforward approach to maintain relational harmony during the conflict. In addition, the Americans are widely recognized for their cultural diversity. Even Americans may be surprised to know the degree of deep-level diversity across their ethnic groups (McShane & Von Glinow, 2018).

The results concluded on no statistically significant differences between the communication approach and the emotional strategy used among Thais and French. Therefore, both Thais and French used the same communication approach and emotional strategy. Notably, the results of the communication approach (direct/indirect) and emotional strategy (expressive/restraint) used conclude that the accommodation style was the preferred intercultural conflict management style for all three cultures.

Four possible reasons could be used to explain these results, which contradict the existing literature based on cultural differences are task-oriented, leaders/coordinators role in a multicultural virtual team, intercultural experience, and criticism of Hofstede's work. Firstly, the goal for the serious game was task-oriented since it clearly stated that players needed to accomplish the task. Secondly, the players took the role of the

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coordinator of a multicultural virtual team, and focused on their goals of getting the job done. They typically collaborated in the work process through electronic media. People from low power distance cultures typically encourage participation and prefer participatory and collaborative decision-making.

Additionally, the role of the coordinator is to keep group members organized and stay focused on the task's goal. Thus, they focused mainly on getting the job done using different strategies to work collaboratively and minimize conflict.

Since most respondents have had international experience, this might be another reason to support that our sub-samples have reacted differently to conflict than expected. In other words, the samples have a level of IC awareness of cultural differences which may influence their intercultural conflict management behavior. Furthermore, Tjosvold et al. (2014) added that people use open-minded discussion or direct approaches to lessen the conflict, since individuals can freely express their views and build a mutual benefit relationship. Lastly, criticism of Hofstede's work can be considered, that his work focused on one company that was not fulfilling the requirement of cultural research (Shaiq et al., 2011).

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In summary, according to the finding of this study, cultural background, EI, and IC influenced ICS and the adaptation of ICS to cultural diversity to some extent. Specifically, for the cultural differences in conflict management behavior, it was partially demonstrated that it varied from culture to culture. And the relationship of EI with the conflict management behavior could be significantly established. Finally, the role of EI

and IC were demonstrated in a substantial relationship with the adaptation of conflict management behavior.

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CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This final chapter summarizes our significant results and findings, based on the theoretical framework and research questions, the contribution to theory and practice, the limitations and recommendations, and suggestions for future research. The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of cultural background and emotional intelligence on the choice of intercultural conflict management styles and behavior of leaders of multicultural virtual team members in the case of a (task or relationship) conflict. This study also investigated the influence of emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on adapting intercultural conflict management styles/behavior to interlocutors from a different culture.

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A quasi-experimental research design was used to investigate the relationship between cultural background, emotional intelligence (EI), intercultural competence (IC), intercultural conflict management styles/behavior (ICS), and the adaptation to the intercultural conflict management styles/behavior in a context of multicultural virtual team in different conflict types. The unit of analysis was at the individual level and used an innovative data collection method based on a “serious game”. The scenarios and main characters in the serious game included respondents from three cultural backgrounds, based on the combination of two cultural dimensions: high/low power distance and individualism/collectivism. Respondents were Thais (high power distance and

collectivism), French (high power distance and individualism), and Americans (low power distance and individualism).

Regarding the serious game, the researcher conducted two pilot studies to ensure that all eighteen scenarios for ICS and alternative answers were carefully and well developed. The participants who participated in both pilots came from worldwide and had solid intercultural experiences to ensure the validity of the serious game. Importantly, the participants from the pilot study disagree to include the engagement style in the serious game because it was seen as the most aggressive response which is not typical in a conflict situation. Thus, it is not included in this study, and only three styles of Intercultural Conflict Resolution/Management remain which are discussion, accommodation, and dynamic styles. In conclusion, there were three main sections in the serious game to collect data on EI, IC, and ICS. Finally, the serious game was launched in three versions: Thai, French, and English. However, the Thai and French versions have most of the game in English, and approximately 25 percent were in either Thai or French. The sampling designs included in this study were purposive or judgmental, snowball, and quota sampling designs. The study includes 339 participants who were graduate students and working professionals from various professional fields.

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6.1 Key Findings

This study helps to understand the influence of cultural background and EI on the intercultural conflict management behavior and how EI and IC influence how people adapt their intercultural conflict management behavior when interacting with

interlocutors from the same or different cultures during the conflict. Our key findings revealed that, to some extent, cultural background influences the choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior/Style. In a conflict and task conflict, cultural background influences the use of emotional strategy (expressive and restraint) but not the communication approaches (direct and indirect). However, cultural background significantly affects the use of both communication approach and emotional strategy in a relationship conflict.

Regarding the results on emotional intelligence, our results showed that different emotional intelligence levels statistically influence the choice of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior in all types of conflict. Thus, from our sample, it can be concluded that people with high EI prefer using a dynamic style (indirect and emotionally expressive).

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Additionally, our study explored how emotional intelligence level influences the adaptation of Intercultural Conflict Management Behavior. The results showed that respondents with high EI often change their communication approach but don't often change their emotional strategy in all types of conflicts. Regarding intercultural competence, the results concluded that respondents with high IC often change their communication approach in overall conflict but don't often change the emotional strategy in relationship conflict.

The results (Figure 4-19) concluded that Thai and French significantly used discussion style more than dynamic and accommodation style. Whereas, Americans

significantly used most the dynamic style, followed by the accommodation style and the discussion style, respectively.

Further research was conducted to investigate if there was a change in intercultural conflict management behavior when participants interacted with interlocutors from the same or different cultures. The summary of findings based on each cultural background is as follow; Thais used the accommodation style when interacting with interlocutors from Thailand, while they used both accommodation and dynamic styles when interacting with interlocutors from a different culture. Americans used both the accommodation and dynamic styles with interlocutors from the same or different cultures. The French were more likely to use a dynamic style with interlocutors from the same or different cultures.

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When looking at specific intercultural conflict management behaviors, we could see (Figure 4-26) that all three cultural backgrounds are more likely to use an indirect communication approach when dealing with intercultural conflict and used emotional strategy in various interactions. Thais are more likely to use emotional restraint when interacting with Thai interlocutors but use emotional expression when interacting with interlocutors from a different culture. Americans are more likely to use both emotionally restraint and expressiveness with the same or different interlocutors, whereas French are more likely to express their emotion.

Group Statistics_Relationship Conflict

	EI Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Direct_RC	Medium	167	2.49	1.536	0.119
	High	172	3.06	1.509	0.115
Indirect_RC	Medium	167	6.51	1.536	0.119
	High	172	5.94	1.509	0.115
Emotional Expressive_RC	Medium	167	3.25	1.361	0.105
	High	172	2.51	1.300	0.099
Emotional Restraint_RC	Medium	167	5.75	1.361	0.105
	High	172	6.49	1.300	0.099

Furthermore (Table 4-15), in terms of EI and IC, people with high EI are more likely to use an indirect approach and an emotionally restraint strategy in conflicts. In addition, they are more likely to adapt/change their communication approach but don't often adapt/change their emotional strategy in all types of conflicts. Whereas people with high IC are more likely to use adapt/change their communication approach in overall conflict but don't often adapt/change their emotional strategy in a relationship conflict. Because relationship conflict can damage task conflict (Dasgupta, 2018), thus respondents might not want to change their emotional strategy often to escalate the conflict.

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6.2 Contribution to Theory and Practice

When it comes to our contribution to theory, it comes in two folds:

- Use of an innovative and explorative data collection methodology
- Contribution to the existing body of knowledge of the International Business and Conflict management literatures

The first contribution of this research is the innovative data collection methodology developed, CRIT, the serious game. This novel method comprised two primary objectives;

- An immersive, engaging, and entertaining data collection methods through the use of a serious game, which provides a simulation of an actual virtual working environment,
- An educational tool, where participants can receive feedback on how to improve their EI, IC and Conflict Management style based on the scores they obtained. .

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Regarding the first objective, data collection was done through different phases in the serious game. The use of a serious games is measurable, just like the traditional measurement methods but is better compared for several reasons. Serious games offer a practical and controlled environment where learners/participants can practice various skills. It also offers something of interest and fun. The interactivity in the serious games helps keep hooked on it and motivates more learners/participants. It encourages practical application, learning by doing, from the game with the instant feedback. Since, games are usually played in a social and collaborative environment, thus it encourages collaborative

learning which builds learners/participants' collaborative and social decision making, critical thinking, problem-solving, and people management. The challenging part was how to create each scenario, based on theory, closest to real work environment situations. Consequently, this study used the critical incident techniques to generate a realistic story for this game.

The second objective was to create a learning experience for the respondents/ players to learn and improve after having completed the game. Apart from the lucky draw campaign, score feedback and recommendation after the game completion was provided as a token of appreciation for respondents/players who agreed to get it. As mentioned in an earlier chapter, the platform we used didn't allow us to provide instant score feedback, so the researcher manually created the summary document to report individual score feedback and recommendation that were mailed to the player few days later. It was time-consuming making each of them in Excel, but worth working on it as many respondents/players appreciated receiving it. The following part will present the comments and feedback from the respondents after completing the game. Most of them are positive comments; however, the only drawback of this game was on the gameplay time, which was too long, but some players mentioned that they enjoyed the game and forgot about the time spent during the gameplay.

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Overall comments and feedback from the respondents	
Anonymous #1	Love the game! Very accurate to the real working life.
Anonymous #2	Great game, thanks
Anonymous #3	This is great. I feel like I'm on a real project and have a meeting conference with real people.
Anonymous #4	The game is a bit time-consuming, but I would love to see the result of what I just played!
Anonymous #5	It was quite an interesting game. A serious game indeed, but I enjoyed it.
Anonymous #6	Good project!
Anonymous #7	Fun with learning opportunities!
Anonymous #8	I have never done a survey like this, very innovative and fun.
Anonymous #9	What a fun game!
Anonymous #10	Fun, the arrangement of the scenarios is very well done. It feels like the player is the real coordinator who has to decide on the action. Thank you for a quality game.
Anonymous #11	All are good. I learned so much. Thanks.
Anonymous #12	That was real life right here.
Anonymous #13	The game did not only give me the knowledge and a reminder of how I really feel towards the situation. I believe it is one of the good test experiences. Thank you and good luck!
Anonymous #14	Great game! It was both challenging and fun at the same time.
Anonymous #15	It was very interesting—a very good game to redo.
Anonymous #16	Very nice serious game. I would have been more comfortable in French than the subtleties of language between the different answers to be given. This work makes it possible to ask questions about the sensitivity of the interlocutors. I tried to be myself from the answers I gave.

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Anonymous #17	Interesting international management game.
Anonymous #18	Perfect and fun, thanks.
Anonymous #19	It was great.
Anonymous #20	Super survey.
Anonymous #21	Very interesting. The only improvement I could think of is the fact of reminding people to screenshot the different names because it's easy to forget them during the exercise.
Anonymous #22	Thx for this simulation :)
Anonymous #23	Very good game, thank you. It reflected the importance of email communications in a virtual environment.
Anonymous #24	The game/survey flow was well built and fluid.
Anonymous #25	Quite entertaining and interesting
Anonymous #26	Good job for putting that situation together. It was really interesting, and I think we should do this kind of situation game more often during our studies. I wasn't prepared that way, but I'm now facing all those issues in my work, and team communication can be very sensitive sometimes, so we learn how to act before it could be very helpful.
Anonymous #27	This game is very interesting
Anonymous #28	This game is very well done and very comprehensive
Anonymous #29	It is good learning material with much visual input and very realistic insights. Well done. If you have additional questions, feel free to contact me.
Anonymous #30	It was great! Really interesting, looking forward to having feedback!
Anonymous #31	Thank you for creating this game. It was well made and quite entertaining. It forced me, once again, to take a look at my communication style and think about how I can improve it.

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Anonymous #32	Please share with me the results of your survey. Good luck!
Anonymous #33	I like your game, and you make a great effort in it. Good luck.
Comments and feedback after the respondents received the score feedback and recommendation documents	
Anonymous #1	Thank you for sending me the score feedback, offering me an opportunity to better understand myself :)
Anonymous #2	It's much appreciated for your email, and the CRIT game is very useful for self-reflection.
Anonymous #3	Thank Ms. Somjai, for a very nice game. The score feedback will help me so much.
Anonymous #4	Congratulations on your PhD in progress! And I just "played" your serious game; in addition to the research purpose, this is an excellent managerial exercise; well done!
Anonymous #5	Thank you, I like this experience so much.
Anonymous #6	Thank you very much for sending me the feedback and taking the time to frame the score feedback. This gives me the opportunity to adapt and change may do good for the people working with me and me working with others.
Anonymous #7	This game is unlike the typical survey. I forgot about the time spent while playing this game because it was fun to play. The situation reflected the reality of working environments as a coordinator. Additionally, it can be adapted to be used for both employees and employers in many multinational companies. I really like this game.

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- Contribution to the existing body of knowledge of the International Business and Conflict management literatures

Conflict management, Emotional Intelligence, and Intercultural Competence have long been studied before since an extensive literature can be found. However, the result from our systematic literature review in chapter two reported that none of the previous studies had explored the influence of emotional intelligence and intercultural competence on intercultural conflict management style and behavior, especially in a virtual team context, in the case of task and relationship conflict. Even though our intercultural conflict management style was based on Hammer (2005) but the recommended style from him was not culturally specific, and it was based on only one cultural dimension (individualism/ collectivism). Thus, we explored deeper to study the use of intercultural conflict management style and behavior among team leaders when interacting with interlocutors from different cultural. We deeply believe that our findings can contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the International Business and Intercultural Conflict Management literature.

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- Contribution for Practitioners

Finally, our contribution to practitioners, especially those who work virtually in a multinational company, is related to intercultural conflict management. Practitioners will better understand that stereotyping to judge interlocutors from different backgrounds based on cultural dimensions generally might not be appropriate in coping with conflict since it might escalate the conflict. The significant results concluded that collaborative intercultural conflict management behavior uses an indirect approach, whereas adjusting the appropriate emotional strategy when coping with intercultural conflict. Here are some recommendations. Stereotyping should not be used when managing intercultural conflict

since not only cultural background may influence the intercultural conflict management styles and behaviors, but other factors should be taken into consideration, such as age seniority, educational background, international experience, and working and virtual team experiences. Team leaders should consider assessing EI and IC levels among their team members. Then, they should provide training on intercultural competence, so that team members have a better understanding of the different cultural knowledge and be able to work smoothly and effectively and better manage intercultural conflict in a multicultural virtual team.

6.3 Limitations and Recommendations

Every research has limitations. The limitations of this study could be grouped in two areas: the serious game and the research context and methodology. For the limitations related to the serious game, it would be beneficial to use a real game platform that allows interactive and scores feedback features (since we had to use the limited features of a survey instrument tool to re-create a serious game environment). It will help to improve the game's enjoyability and ability to let the players receive their score and recommendation all along the game and/or after the game completion. We believe that the Genagame serious game platform (genagame.com) could help us address such limitations. The time to complete the whole game was a bit too long, thus shortening the scenarios might need to be considered. However, if the serious game could be developed by adding more fun and interactive features, then the players might further enjoy the

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game and may forget about the time spent during the game, increasing their engagement level.

Another limitation of this research is related to its context and methodology. The size of our sample was relatively small (100 respondents per country/culture) and consequently cannot lead to any form of generalizability, but we believe it has some explorative value. The game involved only 3 culture types, each represented by a single country. Consequently, including more countries and different culture types in the game could be useful to widen the scope of this study and lead to more generalizable findings. When it comes to the design of the scenarios and choices provided to the player to address the conflict, it will have been interesting to capture the reasons why they picked this choice, to make sure it was aligned with our underlying measurement dimensions.

Since this study used two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions when looking at the cultural difference, it may be interesting to look further into the Globe study, which is the more recent study and contains more cultural dimensions. Moreover, even though it is challenging to use a global population, the probability sampling design will help increase its generalizability.

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6.4 Future Research

The researcher would like to propose the following suggestions for future research. Firstly, since this research was purely quantitative, the future use of qualitative (and/or mixed methods) part will help to enrich the results of our initial findings. Next,

concerning conflict context in the scenarios, due to the time constraint in the game, the initial idea to investigate how conflict escalated in different conflict stages on all types of conflict (including process conflict) was dropped out. However, it will still be fascinating to explore more on different conflict stages for the three popular types of conflicts (since the "process conflict" type was dropped out from our study due to time limitation of our game). Moreover, future research could go a step further by including the following management stages.

Thirdly, regarding the criticism of Hofstede's work, cultural elements used in the GLOBE study is recommended (Shaiq et al., 2011) for a more effective analysis since it consists of over 160 scholars from 62 cultures, provided the more precise state to develop an understanding of cultures by separating values from practices, and proposed more detailed cultural dimensions. Fourthly, Breuer, Huffmeier, Hibben, & Hertel (2020) stated that trust is often a critical success factor in ensuring effective collaboration. Recent meta-analyses showed that team trust matters more in virtual, reflecting additional uncertainties and risks under conditions of electronic communication. Therefore, future research could also include interpersonal trust as another variable to explore. Including more cultures in our scenarios and inviting respondents from other cultures/countries will also be a good way to further extend this research. Last but not least, it will be very rewarding if further research were conducted based on our initial research work, since we believe that there are still many exciting aspects to explore.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Feedback from all participants in the first Pilot study

Break up room 1: Cultural Background Type I (Thailand): Scene # 3, 7-9, 15, 16

Scene	Conflict Type	Character	Cultural Type	Brief story
3	Task	Somjai	I	Hezam' job have been re-located to the every region equally except for Asian team (due to its geographical situation that close to Thailand)
7	Relationship	Somjai	I	Anonymous letter (unequal treat in the Asian Team)
8	Relationship	Somjai	I	Anonymous letter (Somjai deny and said nothing to worry about)
9	Relationship	Somjai	I	Anonymous letter (report on three new replacements)
15	Task	Somjai	I	Product Launch: Location for an event, Grand Palace
16	Task	Somjai	I	Product Launch: Location for an event, ICON Siam (suggested)

Q1: Does this scene look realistic to you?

Q2: What could be added/modified to improve this scene?

Q3: Does each possible answer reflects well enough the conflict resolution style?

What will you add/change for any of these 4 choices/options?

Q4: If you had to rank from 1 to 4 which answer/style will be more appropriate to answer to Somjai (Thailand) what will be your ranking? (1 (most appropriate) and (4) less appropriate)

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Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
3	- Yes - Yes - Yes - Yes	- I would prefer not to say "I'll have a low expectation" in the email for the last option. - Each one is quite long. Worry about the fatuique effect. - a bit Long	- Yes - Yes - I feel the language in the email can be too glaring, even those from direct and expressive cultures are less accusatory.	324 1 324 1 341 2 314 2
7	- Yes - Yes - Yes - Yes	-	- I don't see much difference in option 3 and option 4. - Same here Direct EE and Direct ER have just a bit different...	124 3 124 3 123 4 124 3
8	- Yes - Yes - Yes	- Too long and complicated for participants.	- I don't understand the logic of option 4. Why the sentence like this "if you're sure everything... then what's the reason for...." would be classified as "Indirect"? - i feel Email 3 is more emotionally expressive than email 4.	231 4 432 1 431 2 432 1
9	- Yes - Yes - Yes	- My personal feeling is people would react very differently in this scenario if they're answering this question while taking the real working situation into consideration. - The email samples are very nuanced. I am noticing that when the samples are EE there seems to be an assumption of expression of negative emotion - Too long and complicated for participants.	- I am not sure if there is much of a difference between email 3 and 4, except for the word "kindly"	432 1 342 1 243 1

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Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
15	- Yes - Yes	- Would anyone really response like what we have in option 1, even tho he/she belongs to your classification type (direct, EE)? - based on Somjai's tone ang language, Response #1 is highly unlikely. Again, I am noticing that there is an assumption that strong negative emotion	- 1 seems to rude. - 2 is the only one that not mention CEO	432 1 432 1 432 1
16	- Yes - Yes - Not so sure	- each options need more specific sentences and need to show the differences to reflect with the conflict resolution style. - Is the question why neccessary? Takes time for participants and hard to answer.	- Get a bit confuse with 3# and 4# - I don't see much difference in option 3 and option 4. - 3-4 very similar	214 3 342 1 413 2

Break up room 2: Cultural Background Type II (France): Scene # 2, 10-14

Scene	Conflict Type	Character	Cultural Type	Brief story
2	Task	Nicolas	II	Coordinator finally allowed Hezam to take leave to take care of sick dad and Nicolas voices his concern and blame that you are putting the project in danger.
10	Relationship	Nicolas	II	Somjai was late for skype meeting
11	Relationship	Nicolas	II	Finally, Somjai didn't join the meeting (without any notice)
12	Relationship	Nicolas	II	Somjai sent an apology email for unexpected accident happened and a long holiday in Thailand which delay sending a report to Nicolas.
13	Task	Nicolas	II	Product Launch (Budget allocation: budget cut 30% from what Nicolas has asked for)
14	Task	Nicolas	II	Product Launch (Budget allocation: budget cut 30% from what Nicolas has asked for)

Q1: Does this scene look realistic to you?

Q2: What could be added/modified to improve this scene?

Q3: Does each possible answer reflects well enough the conflict resolution style?

What will you add/change for any of these 4 choices/options?

Q4: If you had to rank from 1 to 4 which answer/style will be more appropriate to answer to Nicolas (French) what will be your ranking? (1 (most appropriate) and (4) less appropriate)

Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
2	- yes it is realistic - Why should a French person complain about being 15 minutes late? - The fact that everything is online (meetings etc.) was not clear for everybody - What makes a "scene" is not very clear - Explain why / if the player has some pressure from the hierarchy (to get a promotion or so...)	- A video where Nicolas expressed his anger would be helpful - Suggestion to put multiple choice answers in the question "why did you choose this answer? (including the hypotheses)	- Answers will depend on the level of engagement of the respondent: if you get some benefit or so than you will answer differently. Give more CONTEXT to the participant of his role / situation in the teamwork - i chose email 2 because i always like to show the other person that i understand where they are coming from but we have to put ourselves in other shoes also	
10	- Difficult to imagine the tone of the person talking. Suggestion of having actors saying these sentences. Or not the player him/herself saying the sentence. Emotions are difficult to be expressed in writing		- response 2 looks more like a statement of organizational norms rather than a "discussion style"	- response 1 most appropriate; response 4 less appropriate
11	- Yes - Yes			- ABR: I think this "survey" (ranking of best answer possibilities) should be done in another way: in a more formalized survey, and if you are looking for adaptation to

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Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
				the American culture, make only Americans answer!
12	- Yes		- ABR: Starting from here or next scene I had more difficulties finding my preferred answer. This is also where I moved from answer 4 to 2 (more indirect) while I think that my style is quite direct and the ones of the team members concerned (Danielle...) too. Maybe consider rewriting answers here and next scene.	
13	No comment			
14				

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Break up room 3: Cultural Background Type III (USA): Scene # 1, 4-6, 17-18

Scene	Conflict Type	Character	Cultural Type	Brief story
1	Task	Danielle	III	Danielle heard a rumor about Hezam (will take another 2-week leave to take care of his sick dad).
4	Relationship	Danielle	III	Negative FB post
5	Relationship	Danielle	III	Negative FB post (with social media announcement)
6	Relationship	Danielle	III	Negative FB post (project seems to be delayed)
17	Task	Danielle	III	Successful project: Bonus time (equally distributed)
18	Task	Danielle	III	Successful project: Bonus time (equally distributed)

Q1: Does this scene look realistic to you?

Q2: What could be added/modified to improve this scene?

Q3: Does each possible answer reflects well enough the conflict resolution style?

What will you add/change for any of these 4 choices/options?

Q4: If you had to rank from 1 to 4 which answer/style will be more appropriate to answer to Somjai (Thailand) what will be your ranking? (1 (most appropriate) and (4) less appropriate)

Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
1	- Yes - Yes - Yes - Yes - It does seems realistic I have personally had a similar situation when working in the KSA	- I believe that context would be useful, duration of the project how long the project has been running for and how much time is remaining - I feel 3 weeks off is not realistic for middle east or in fact for most countries. 1 week yes, but 3 weeks seems too long. I worked in Dubai and never saw anyone off for more than 1 week.	- Although the questions need a little more work they seem to address direct and indirect individualism and collectivism	4312 3421-Power distance for each of the countries: 64- Thailand, 90 UAE, 35 UK and 40 USA. Higher is paternalistic and autocratic and more likely to challenge superiors. However from my perspective the response reflects my international experience of inclusion and collaboration 3, 4, 2 and 1
4	- Yes	- The Facebook posts could be more explicitly linked to the company/ team		4213 2314 none is appropriate and 4 is the most inappropriate
5	- I find it a little bit of a stretch to involve HR right ofter one ambiguous post. I would expect HR to get involved if the company is attached directly.			2134
6	- Yes			3421
17	- In the introduction "everyone seems to agree except Danielle," but they are later asked for an official vote. This seems redundant if the other team members were already consulted before the initial decision.		- I generally find words that are in all capital letters a bit rude. Maybe just say "Don't you agree?"	

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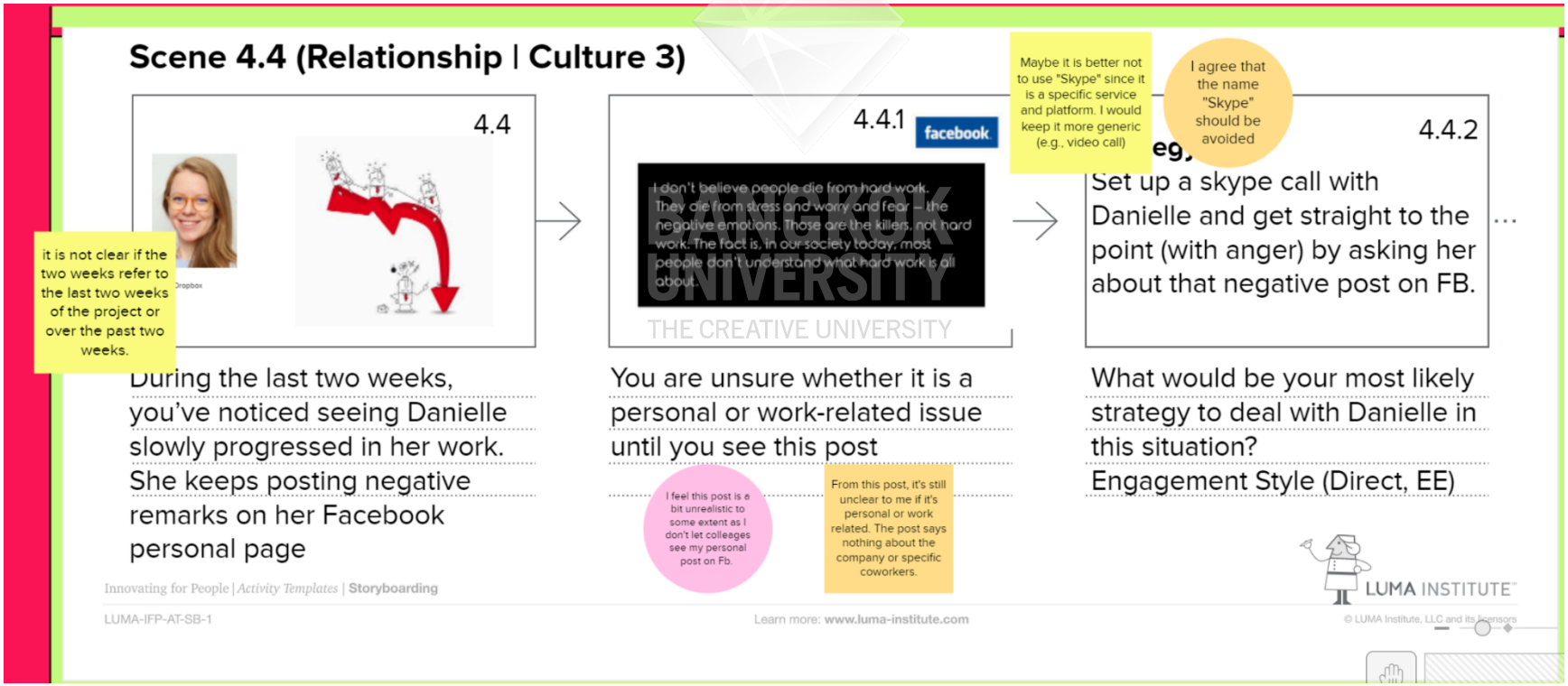
Scene no.	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
18			- I find that the word CHOOSE in all capital letters is rude	

Example of comments in Mural



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Scene 4.5 (Relationship | Culture 3)

4.5

ANNOUNCEMENT
Social Media Policy for Staff

POLICY

This policy guides employee use of social media, which should be broadly understood for purposes of this policy to include blogs, wikis, microblogs, message boards, chat rooms, electronic newsletters, online forums, social networking sites, and other sites and services that permit users to share information with others in a contemporary manner.

You had discussed with HR regarding social media usag among employees, then HR send you a copy of social m policy

It is not clear if the discussion with HR is a direct result of Danielle's Facebook Post.

4.5.1

ANNOUNCEMENT
Social Media Policy for Staff

PROCEDURES

The following principles apply to the professional use of social media on behalf of the Office Solutions Incorporated as well as the personal use of social media when referencing the company.

Employees should be aware that the Office Solutions Incorporated may observe content and information made available by employees through social media. Employees should use their best judgment in posting material that is neither inappropriate nor harmful to the company, its employees, or customers.

Although not an exclusive list, some specific examples of prohibited social media conduct include posting commentary, content, or images that are defamatory, pornographic, proprietary, harassing, defamatory, or that can create a hostile work

4.5.2

Choice # 1: Send an email to group members by referring to a new policy launched by HR and strongly express your feeling of not seeing any post that will create a hostile work environment.

How would you communicate this policy with Danielle?

Dynamic Style (Indirect, EE)

4.5.3

Choice # 2: Send an email to group members by referring to a new policy launched by HR and politely asking for friendly cooperation from group members.

Accommodating Style (Indirect, ER)

4.5.4

Choice # 3: Send an email to Danielle with the attachment of the social media policy and strongly express your feeling of not seeing any post that will create a hostile work environment.

Engagement Style (Direct, EE)

"Strongly express" may be quite subjective. Is this intentional?

4.5.5

Choice # 4: Send an email to Danielle with the attachment of the social media policy and asking politely friendly cooperation from group members

Discussion Style (Direct, ER)

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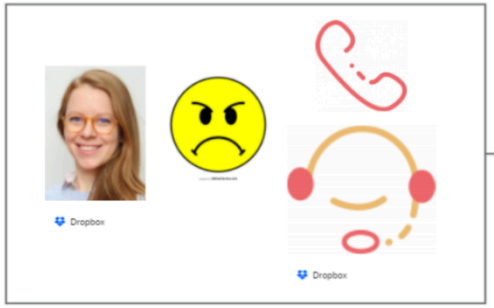
Scene 4.6 (Relationship | Culture 3)

4.6



Today, during the meeting, Danielle was unhappy because the project seems to be delayed.

4.6.1

Again, you see Danielle's FB post

Again, I'm not sure if this is directly enough linked to the company/ team.

4.6.2

Choice # 1:
Sending an email with a reattachment of social media policy on the subject of "Friendly reminder."

How would you react to Danielle?

Accommodating Style (Indirect, ER)

Is this email to the whole group or only Danielle?

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Scene 4.18 (Task | Culture 3)

4.18

Finally, this is the last skype meeting to announce that the bonus has been equally distributed.

4.18.1

Of course, Danielle is not happy about that.

4.18.2

Response # 1: We work as a team from the beginning, and I am sure everyone values the word “consensus.” Respect the vote and be happy or leaving a team with your attitude. You CHOOSE!

What would you say to Danielle?

Engagement Style (Direct, EE)

4.18.3

Response # 2:
I am delighted to work with this team. You guys are the best teamwork I’ve ever worked with. I hope you also agree and respect the consensus which has been made by us. The project would not be successful without anyone in this group. Be proud of yourself and our group.

4.18.4

Response # 3: The coin has two-sided; everyone has good and bad. No one is perfect! Working with multicultural group members is challenging since it requires many more skills, and one of the critical skills is understanding. I hope you’ve learned a lot from this project. N… it’s YOU… choose t… d… o… w…

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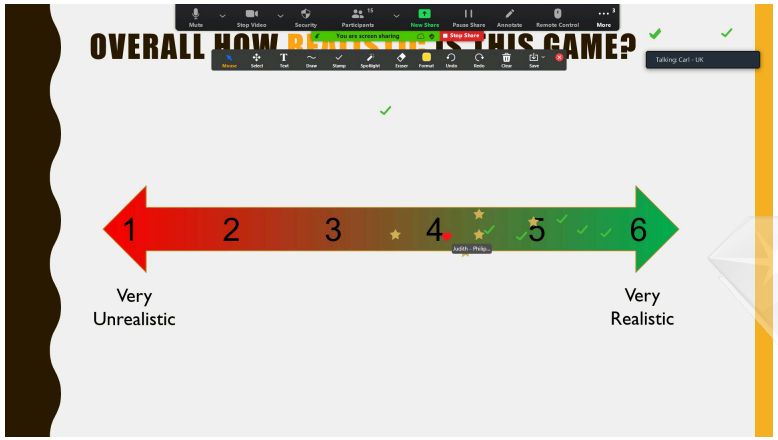
4.18.5

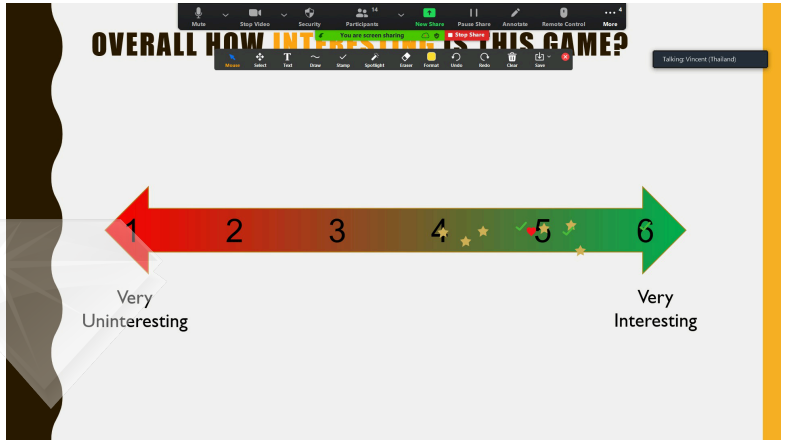
grammatically inccorect: maybe try "Respect the vote and be happy with it or leave the team"

pr… job. I … …o end happily, including you. Please

Question: How realistic are these scenes?

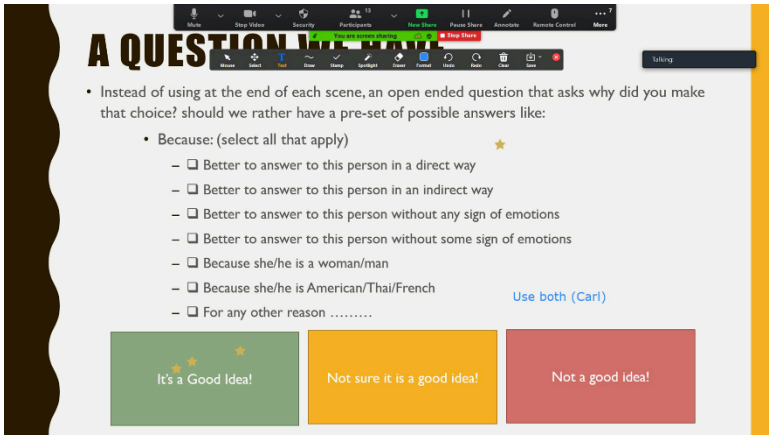


Question: How attractive are these scenes?



Question: How good are the proposed answer choices for each scene?

Question: Instead of using at the end of each scene, an open-ended question asks why you made that choice? Should we instead have a pre-set of possible answers?



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APPENDIX 2: Feedback from all participants in the second Pilot study

1. Overall, did you find this serious game to be: Average of 4.5

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very Boring	Quite Boring	Slightly Boring	Slightly Entertaining	Quite Entertaining	Very Entertaining

2. Overall, did you find this serious game to provide: Average of 4

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very Low learning	Quite low learning	Slightly low learning	Slightly high learning	Quite high	Very high learning

3. Overall, did you find this serious game to be: Average of 4.64

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very Short	Quite Short	Slightly short	Slightly long	Quite long	Very long

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4. In my opinion, is this completion time acceptable? Average of 3.86

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very Unacceptable	Quite Unacceptable	Slightly Unacceptable	Slightly Acceptable	Quite Acceptable	Very Acceptable

5. Did you experience any technical problems? (e.g., viewing videos, navigating from page to page, etc.…)? Please explain ….

   - No technical problems at all except for 1 respondent who mentioned she had a little problem downloading the content at the beginning of the game.

6. Did you encounter any visuals/videos that were not readable or understandable?

    - Three respondents mentioned that the anonymous letter was difficult to read.

7. As you may have experienced, some parts of the game were translated into your native language (French/English/Thai); what was your feeling about that?

Here are their comments:

Ok
well
It assists understanding. That's good!
Anyway, English is not my native language.
I believe that it was a good solution for this game.
OK
Acceptable
Very good, it has made it easier to understandable (Translated)
The videos was nice but some not smooth wording on dialog and question
To me, all translation parts are comprehensible. I don’t have problems while reading the text.
It is a very relevant opportunity to widen the extent of the study to a French speaking public.
it has to be very logical who and why would speak / write French instead of English

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8. Could you guess this serious game is trying to assess?

Here are their comments:

Communication style
Intercultural conflict issues.
Yes, I believe it wanted to make clear and show how we think and act in accordance with our own culture and the expectations we have regarding the culture of others.
conflict resolution styles :)
communication styles
Conflict resolution
Communication efficiency (Translated)
Team work, Coordinator, Multicultural environment
yes, I feel that the game is trying to measure how we communicate with people in the diverse cultures both spoken and written forms. How we express our thoughts and feelings or we don't express our bad and negative feelings in particular situations.
a word missing in this question?

9. Would you recommend a friend to play this serious game for their personal development? Please explain why?

   Here are their comments:

No, too long
I think I will if s/he wants a bettering understanding of cultural differences.

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No, I think there is still room to improve the answers. I agree with some parts of the answer, but not the whole one. I mean sometimes I would prefer to choose A because of one or two sentences in A, but also B because one or two sentences there. I sometimes feel that a mix of sentences in two answers would be a better choice.
Definitively yes, congratulations!
Yes! The game is quite interesting because it allows the player to learn about international work.
Yes, the game gives us the second (or even third or fourth thought) of how to interact/respond in a conversation.
Yes
Yes but need to lessen the game play time (Translated)
Yes, this game is critical thinking and exciting to see the next seen.
yes, I think it is a good game. I don't feel that this game is a part of the doctoral dissertation at all. I think that this is a common skill we all should learn because it is an essential part of a career, even you are an entrepreneur; you still need to have this.
Yes, conflict resolution in the corporate field indirectly reveals aspects of one's personality.
only if more feedback was provided to the players

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10. Finally, any comments, suggestions to improve this 1st version of the CRIT serious game?

Here are their comments:

Some minor grammatical errors need to be corrected, like the first letter of a word should not be capitalized when it is not the first word of a sentence.
I think maybe you should consider how to make the answers more mutually exclusive.
It is good learning material with much visual input and very realistic insights. Well done. If you have additional questions, feel free to contact me (philipp.campina@posteo.de).
On the introductory page: - Delete the random "l" in the last sentence - 2nd paragraph, 2nd sentence : time instead of tie - 4th paragraph: "a few days" - Sometimes you use the term "questionnaire" and sometimes "serious game"… This is confusing to me, especially in the last sentences of this text. Which is it? 36. It may be helpful to specify which is Email 1 and which is Email 2. Logically, I assume the one on the left is Email 1 but this could be specified. 42. I think you can delete "After reading the emails below" 44. I think you can also delete "Please watch the video below". To me, this feels like extra text to read (so it takes more time), and it is quite self-explanatory that we must watch the video in order to respond to the following question. CRIT the serious game - I find it confusing to be told that I'm starting a new game here. I think there should be some transition, but maybe this could be a short video only about the sub-project. And you could maybe replace the LINK video at the very beginning of the game with a CRIT animation about the general project (NewChaise, team members…)? I'm not sure if you need to talk about LINK at all. 52, 55, 58 etc. instead of "Text below explains the situation," how about "A new situation has come up" or even no description? 63, response 1: "but" 67. I feel like a more natural response would be to raise the issue with the CEO. It also feels strange to vote when all of the options have not been discussed. Maybe the group could come to a consensus by finding a third solution? 72. I find these options a bit strange.

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Instead of “high,” maybe use “significant” Regarding learning, I wish there was an explanation at the end telling me if certain choices were better than others throughout the game to help me know what to do in the future.
more choices, perhaps
Here are my suggestions: 1. Game play time is too long. 2. Translate into Thai throughout the whole game. 3. Some text image is too small. 4. Very good VDO but some character speak loud while some speak soft (make it difficult to hear).
My personal opinion of this game, Asia and South Asia lead many problem which is not fair to show this image cause every country have people that professional and not professional. Thank you :)
Maybe the font used in the template. I think it is quite difficult to read especially when the text is long.
see my e-mail! :-)

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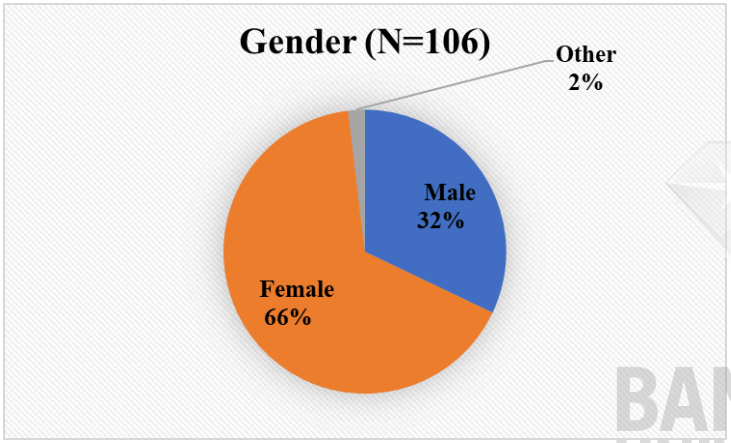
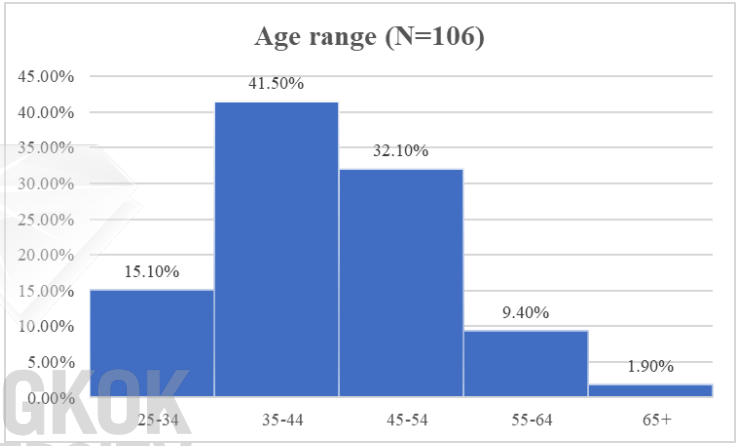
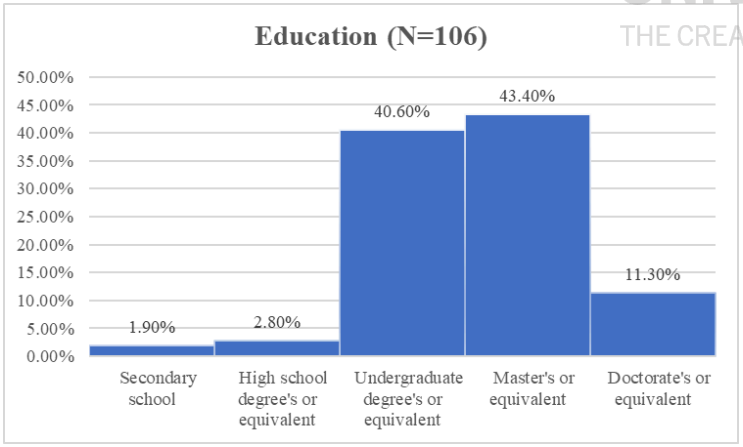
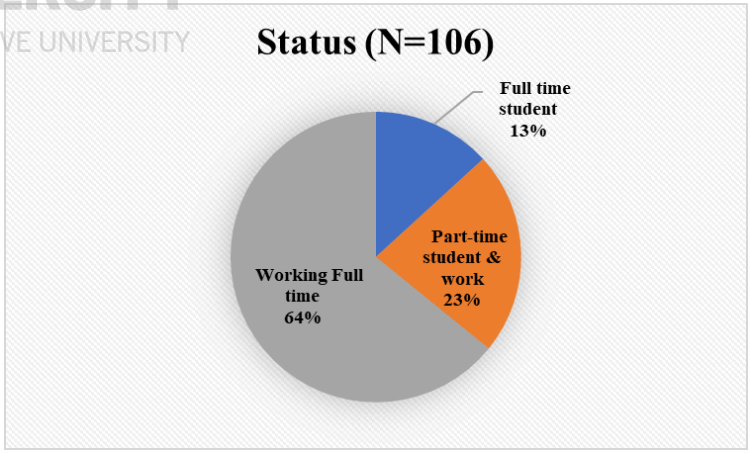
APPENDIX 3: Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data of Thai respondents represented cultural type I, Thailand (N=106)









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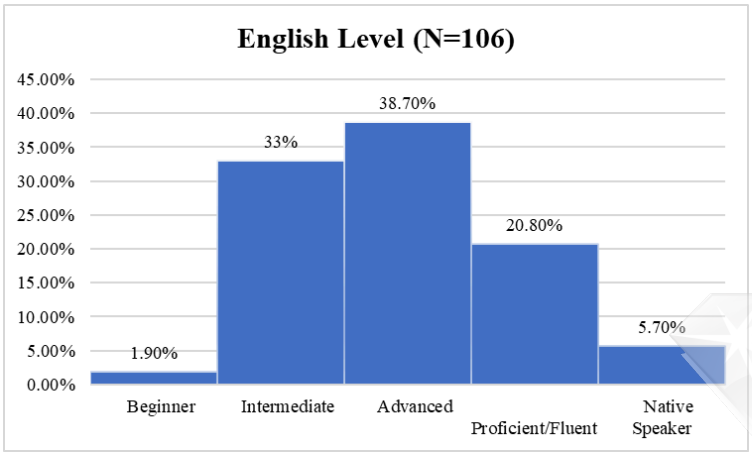

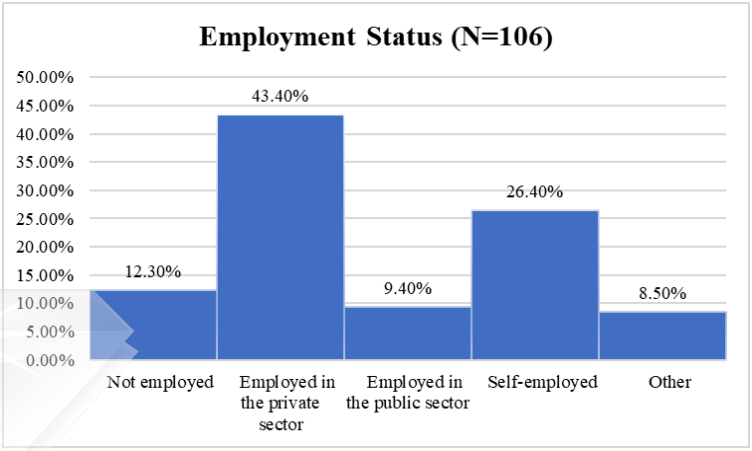

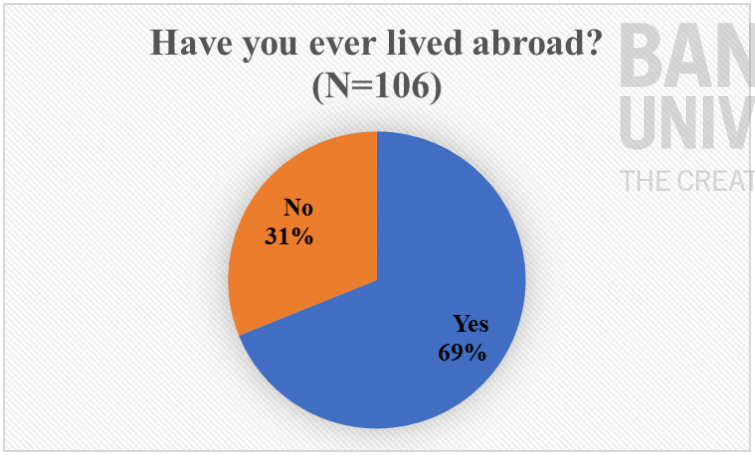

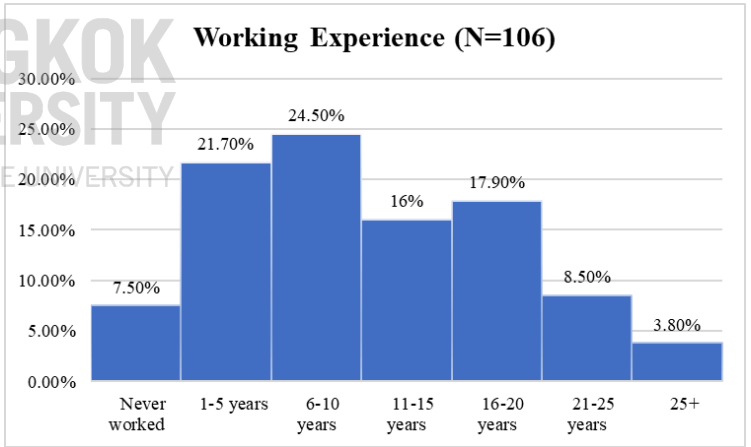

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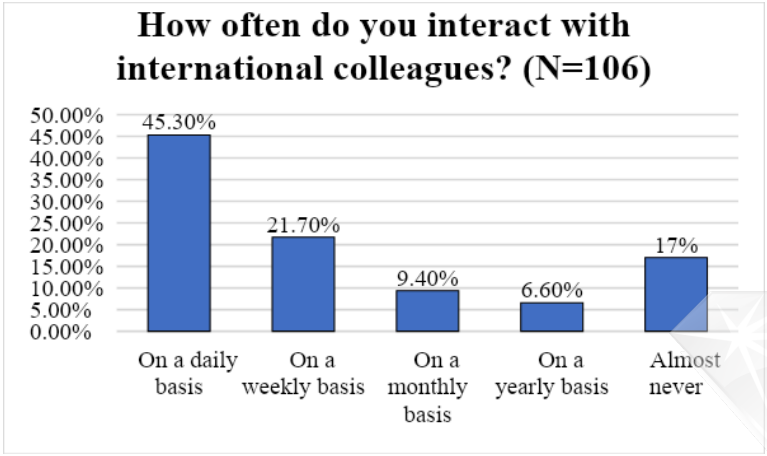

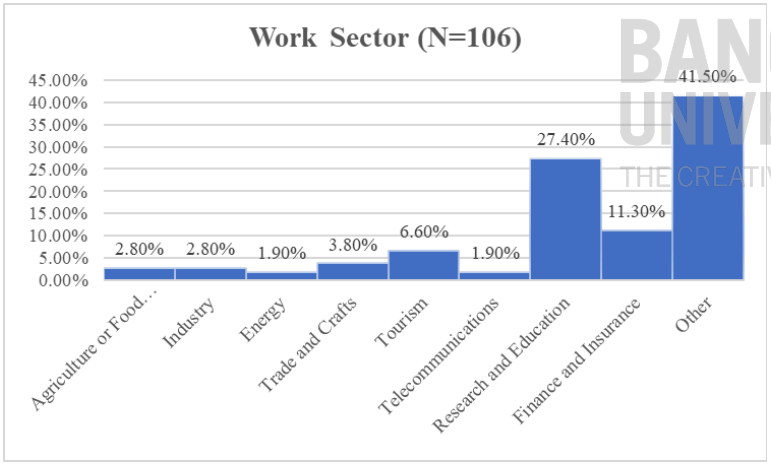

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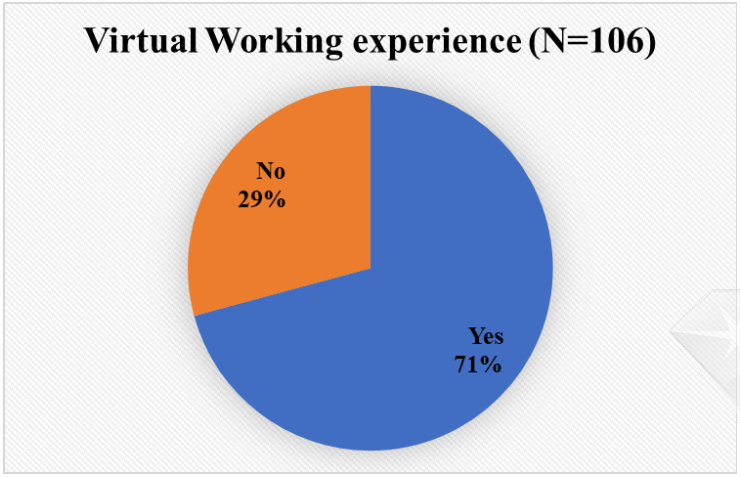

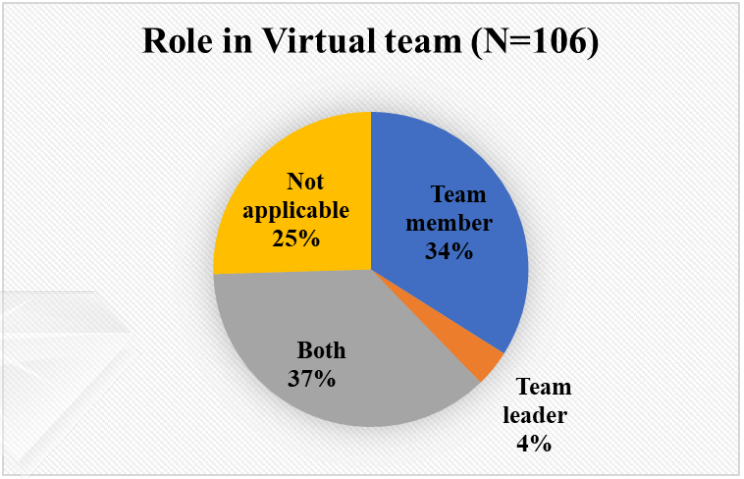

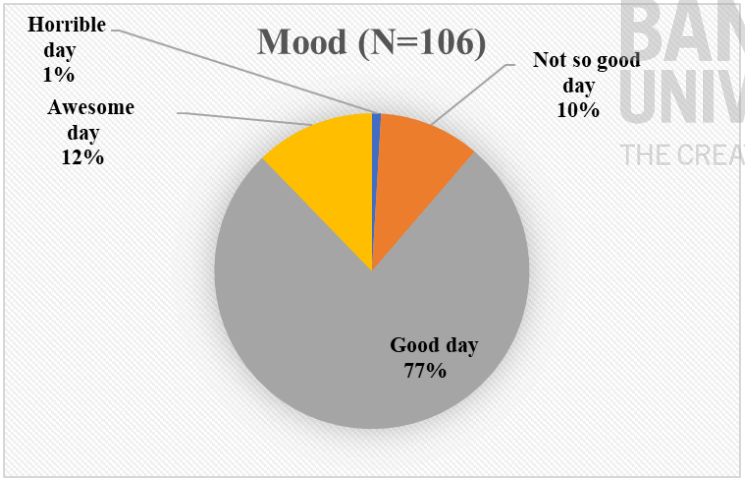

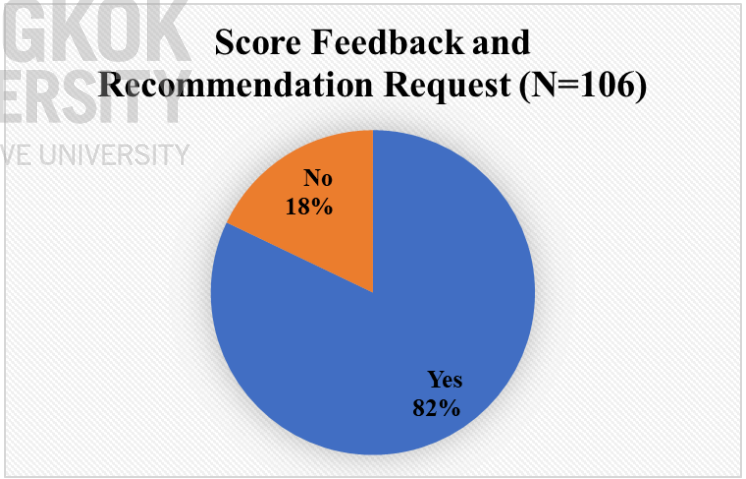

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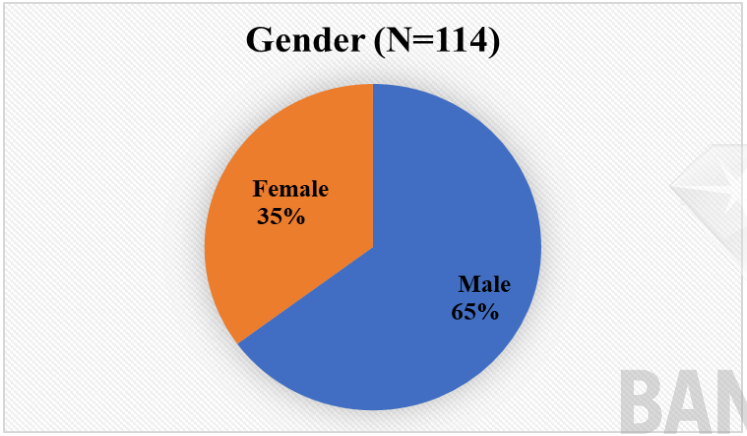
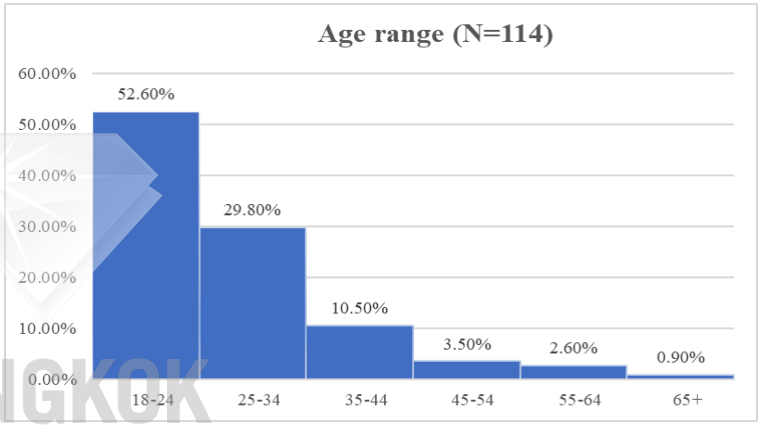
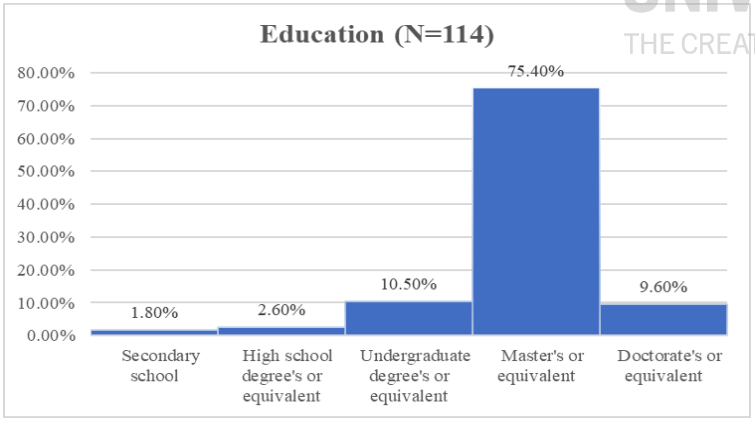
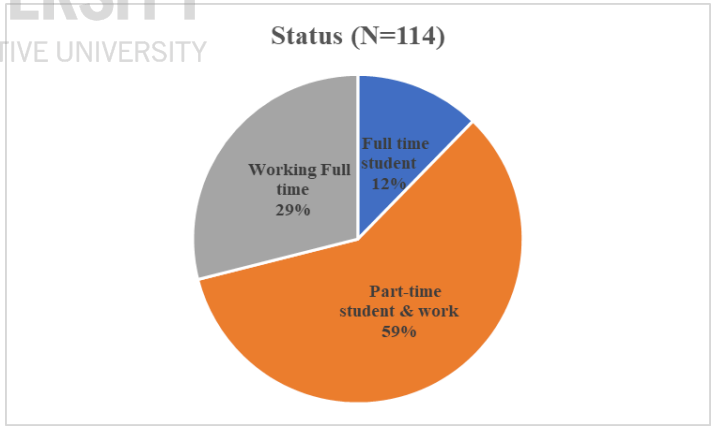
APPENDIX 4: Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data of French respondents represented cultural type II, France (N=114)









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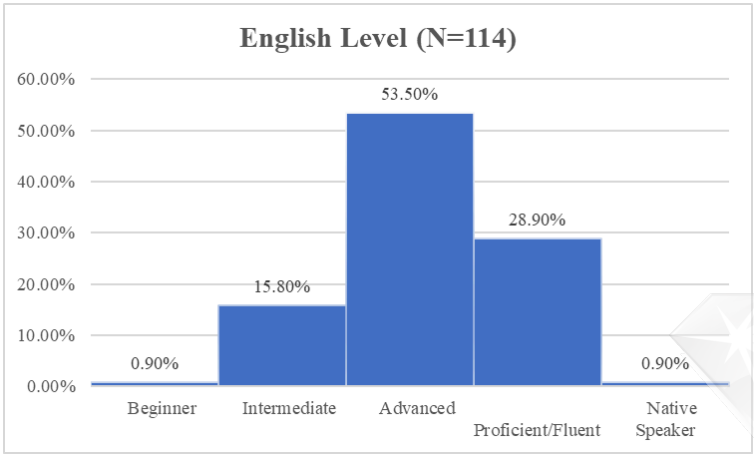

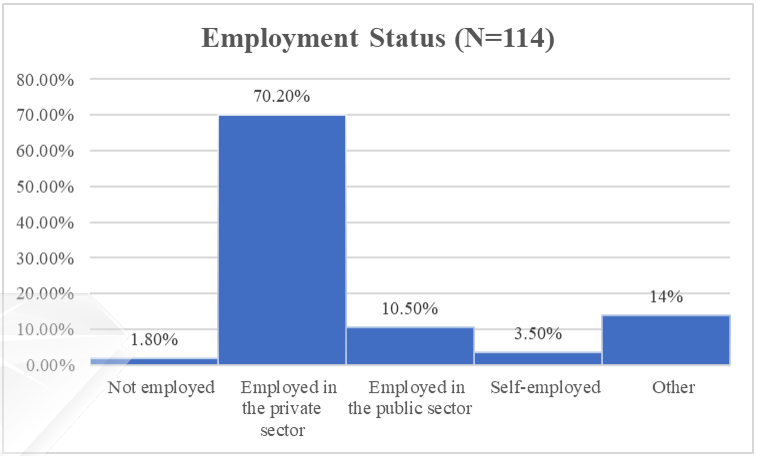

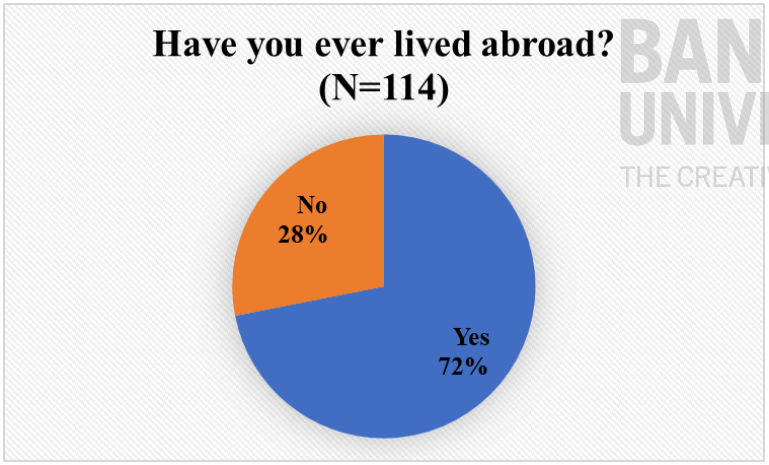

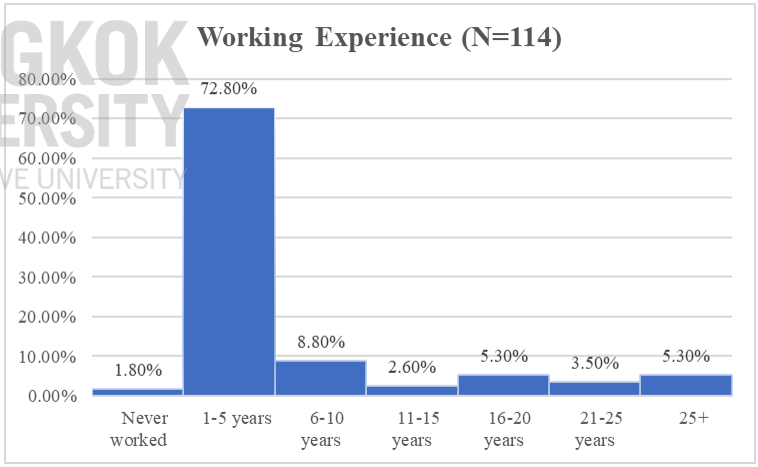

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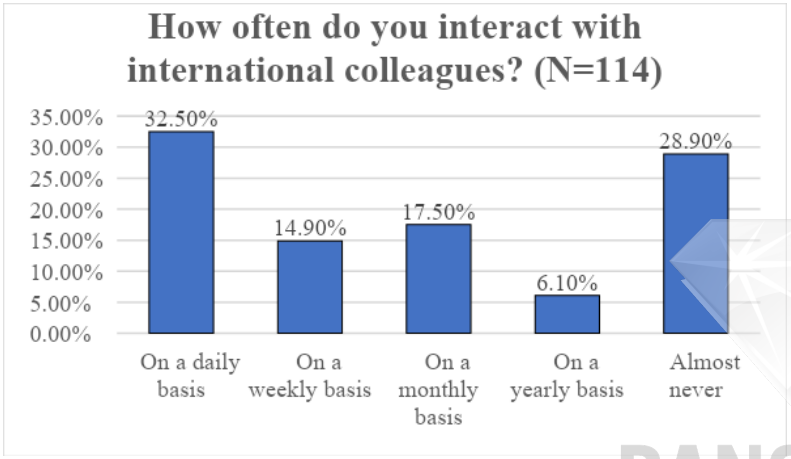

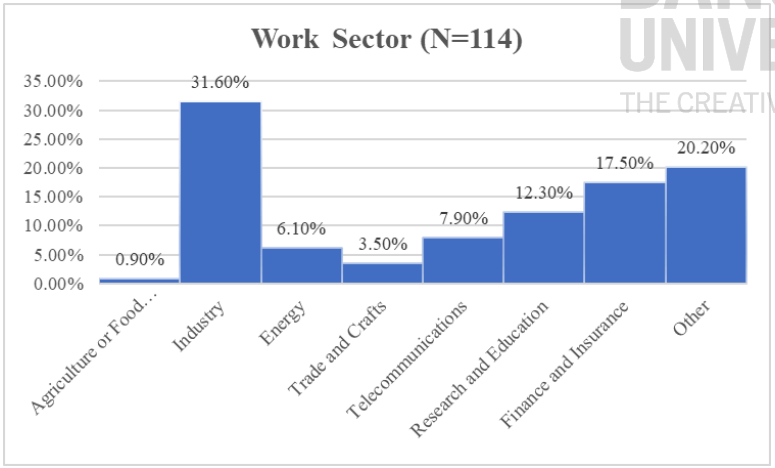

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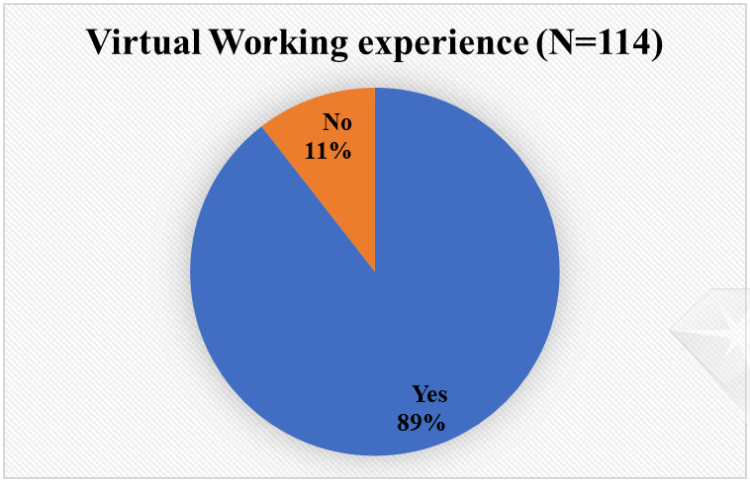

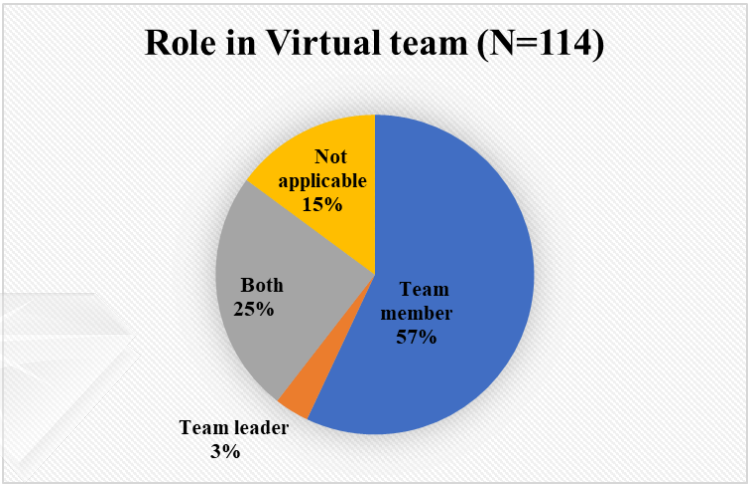

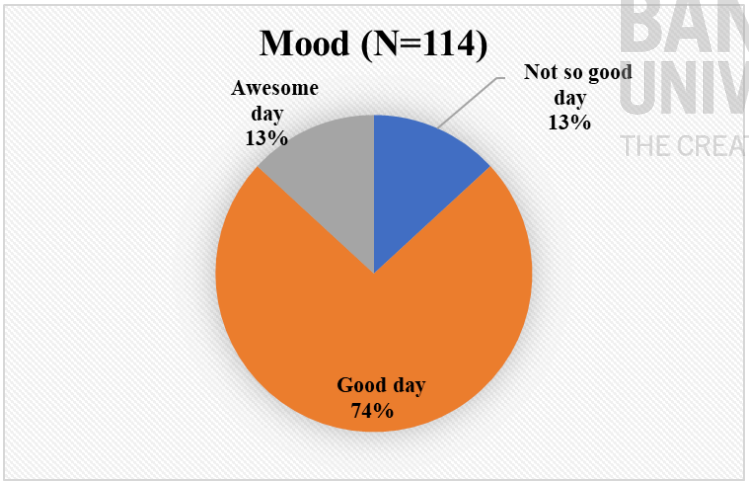

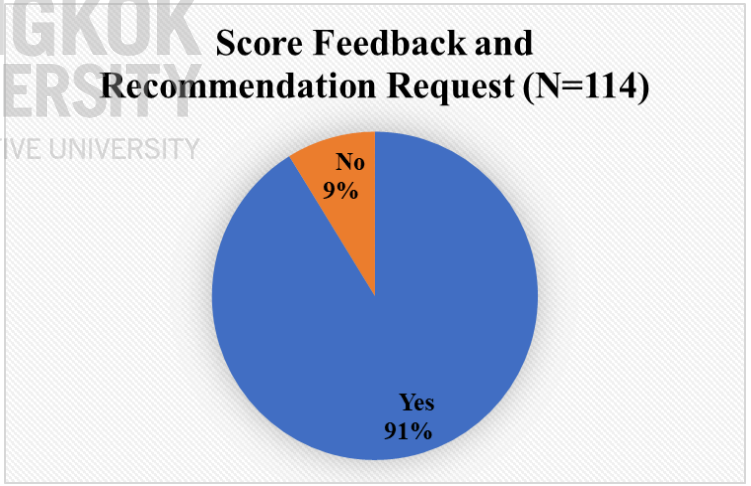

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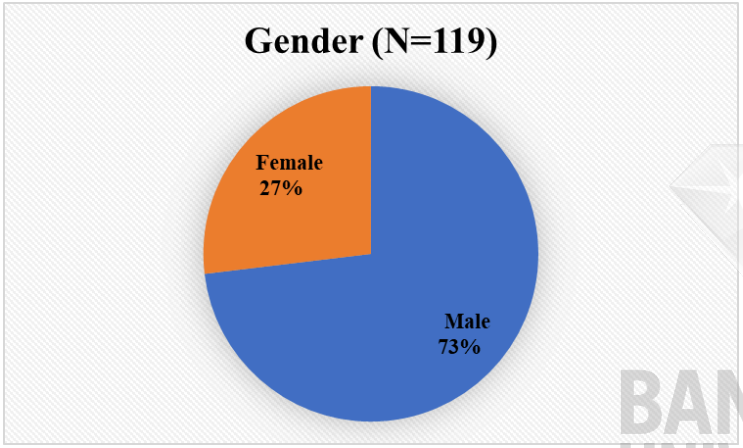
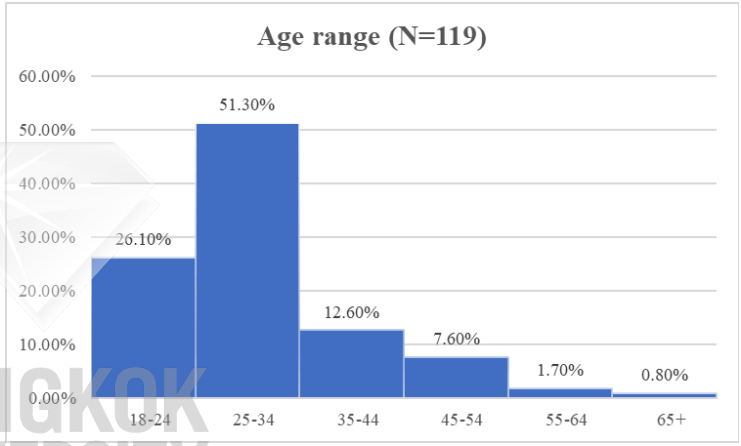
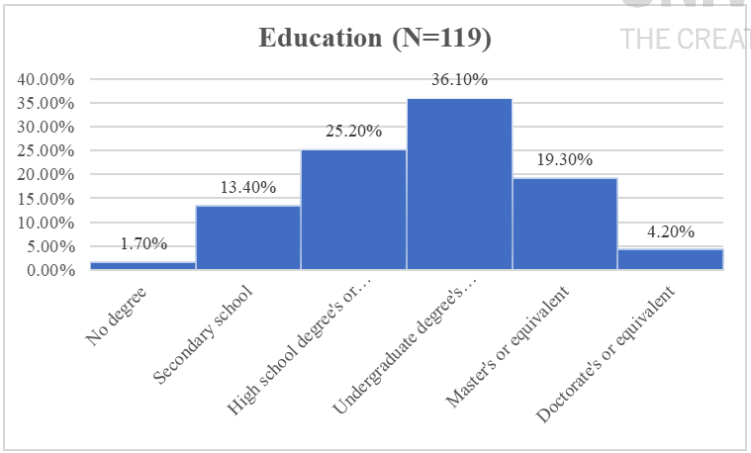
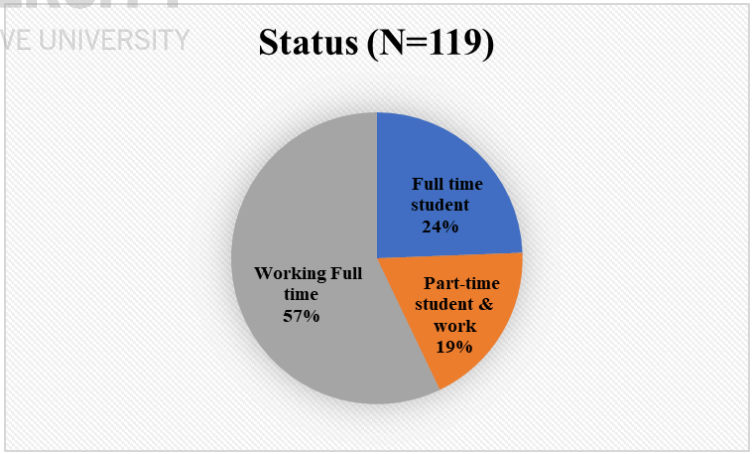
APPENDIX 5: Pie charts and graphs presenting demographic data of American respondents represented cultural type III, USA (N=119)









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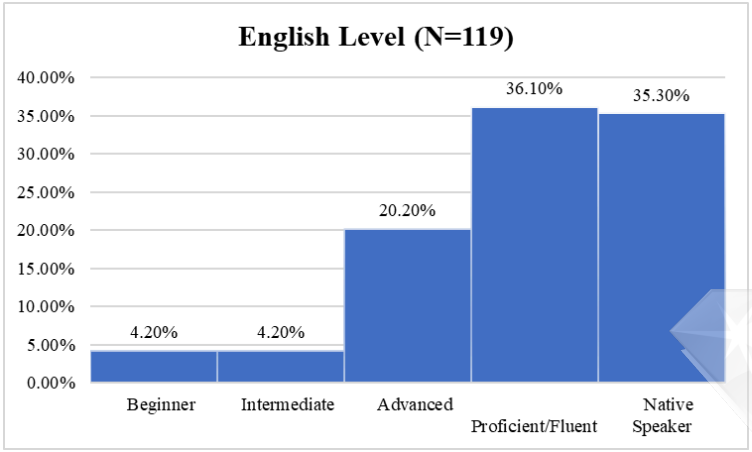

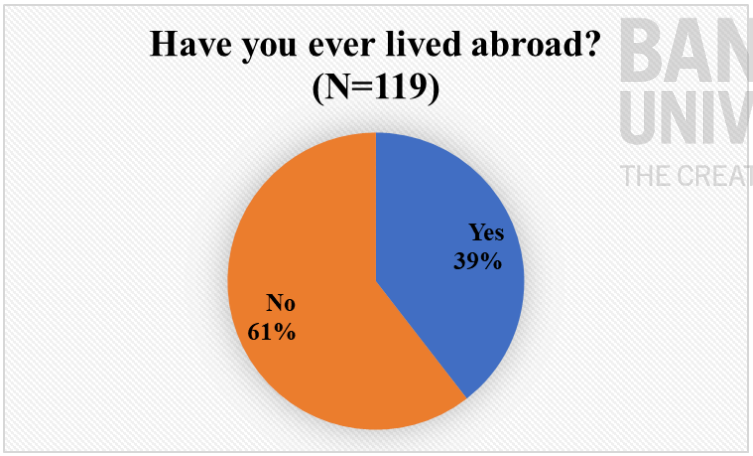

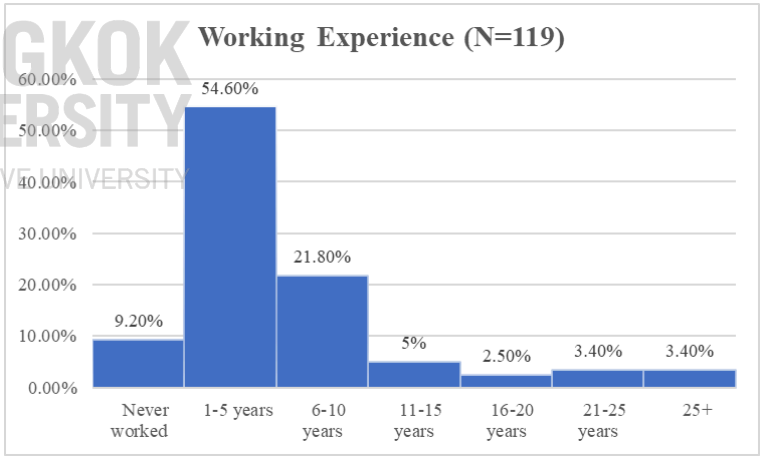

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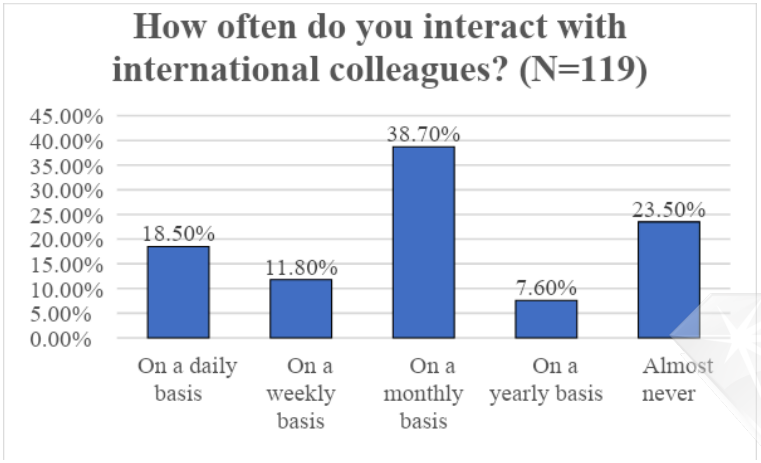

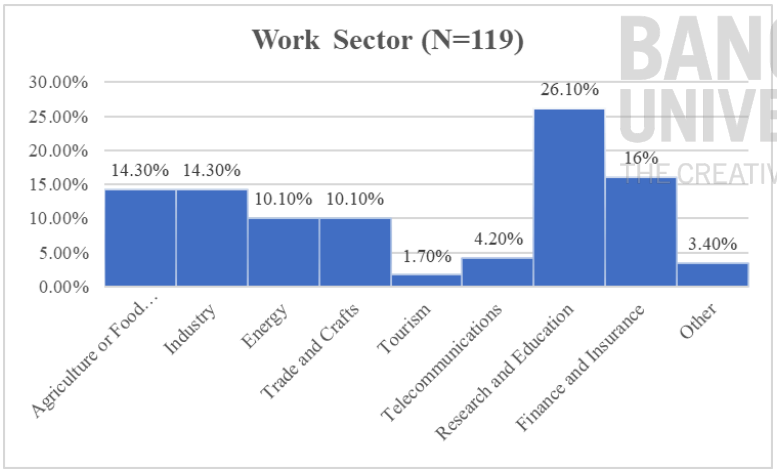

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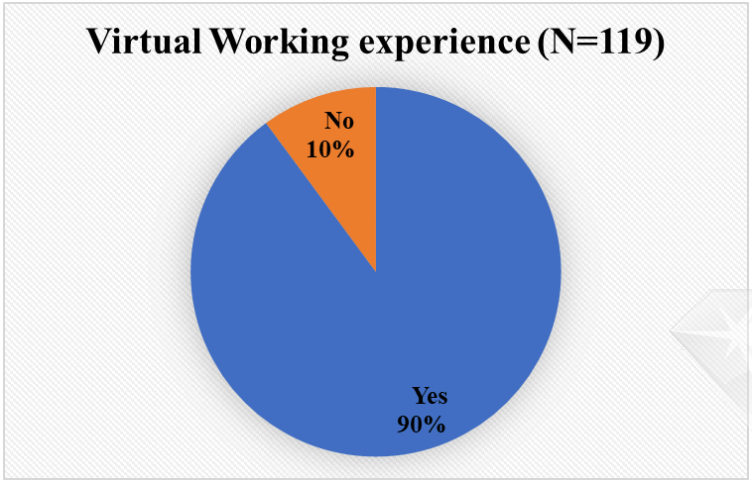

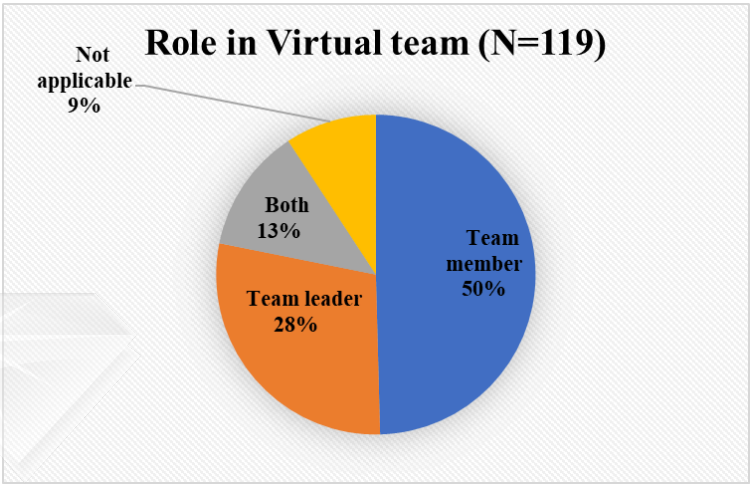

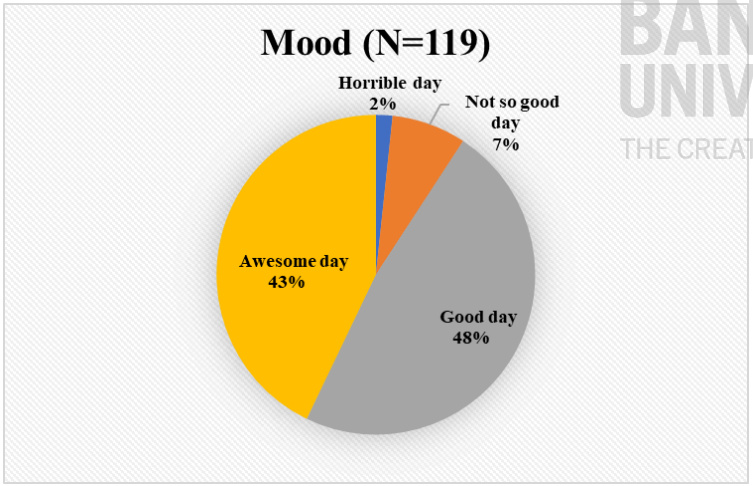

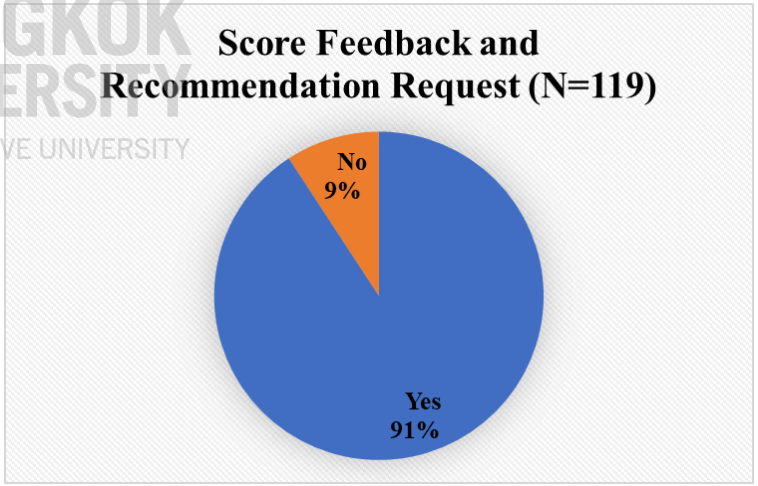

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APPENDIX 6: The summarized data for open-ended questions in the demographic part.

Which country did you primarily live in during the formative years to age 18?	All (N = 339)			Thailand (N = 106)			France (N = 114)			American (N = 119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage
Australia	4	1.20%	Australia	1	0.90%	Brazil	1	0.90%	Australia	3	2.50%
Bangkok	1	0.30%	Bangkok	1	0.90%	Czech Republic	1	0.90%	China	1	0.80%
Brazil	1	0.30%	China	3	2.80%	France	109	95.60%	France	10	8.40%
China	4	1.20%	Hong Kong	1	0.90%	Iran	1	0.90%	Russia	2	1.70%
Czech Republic	1	0.30%	Indoresia	1	0.90%	Switzerland	1	0.90%	USA	103	86.60%
France	119	35.10%	Thailand	94	88.70%	Tunisia	1	0.90%	Total	119	100%
Hong Kong	1	0.30%	United Kingdom	1	0.90%	Total	114	100%			
Indonesia	1	0.30%	USA	2	1.90%						
Iran	1	0.30%	Vietnam	2	1.90%						
Russia	2	0.60%	Total	106	100%						
Switzerland	1	0.30%									
Thailand	94	27.70%									
Tunisia	1	0.30%									
United Kingdom	1	0.30%									
USA	105	31%									
Vietnam	2	0.60%									
Total	339	100%									

Which country have you spent most time of your life?	All (N = 339)			Thailand (N = 106)			France (N = 114)			American (N = 119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage
Australia	1	0.30%	Australia	1	0.90%	Czech Republic	1	0.90%	France	12	10.10%
China	3	0.90%	China	3	2.80%	France	112	98.20%	Russia	2	1.70%
Czech Republic	1	0.30%	Hong Kong	1	0.90%	Iran	1	0.90%	USA	105	88.20%
France	124	36.60%	Indoresia	1	0.90%	Total	114	100%	Total	119	100%
Hong Kong	1	0.30%	Thailand	93	87.70%						
Indonesia	1	0.30%	Thailand & Australian (equally)	1	0.90%						
Iran	1	0.30%	United Kingdom	1	0.90%						
Russia	2	0.60%	USA	3	2.80%						
Thailand	93	27.40%	Vietnam	2	1.90%						
Thailand & Australian (equally)	1	0.30%	Total	106	100%						
United Kingdom	1	0.30%									
USA	108	31.90%									
Vietnam	2	0.60%									
Total	339	100%									

If you have lived abroad, which country did you live? Please list with a maximum of 5 countries.	All (N = 339)			Thailand (N = 106)			France (N = 114)			American (N = 119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage
N/A	155	45.70%	N/A	35	33%	N/A	32	28.10%	N/A	88	73.90%
UK	1	0.30%	America	1	0.90%	UK	1	0.90%	Africa	1	0.80%
Africa	1	0.30%	Argentina	2	1.90%	Africa, Poland	1	0.90%	Australia	1	0.80%
Africa, Poland	1	0.30%	Argentina and China	1	0.90%	Argentina Senegal	1	0.90%	Britain	1	0.80%
America	1	0.30%	Argentina, Austria and Australia	1	0.90%	Australia	1	0.90%	Canada	3	2.50%
Argentina	2	0.60%	Australia	3	2.80%	Australia and Spain	1	0.90%	China	3	2.50%
Argentina and China	1	0.30%	Australia and Italy	1	0.90%	Australia Germany	1	0.90%	China, Paris, Korea, Seoul, Thailand and Russia	1	0.80%
Argentina Senegal	1	0.30%	Australia and Panama	1	0.90%	Austria	1	0.90%	FRANCE GERMANY USA	1	0.80%
Argentina, Austria and Australia	1	0.30%	Australia and Thailand	1	0.90%	Austria Ireland UK	1	0.90%	France, Australia, South Korea, Thailand and Russia	1	0.80%
Australia	5	1.50%	Australia, USA	1	0.90%	Belgium	1	0.90%	Japan	1	0.80%
Australia and Italy	1	0.30%	Bolivia and Spain	1	0.90%	Brazil	3	2.60%	Japan, Canada	1	0.80%
Australia and Panama	1	0.30%	Cambodia	1	0.90%	Brazil and USA	2	1.80%	Japan's Hong Kong	1	0.80%
Australia and Spain	1	0.30%	China	1	0.90%	Brazil, England, Germany, Canada	1	0.90%	Liberia, USA	1	0.80%
Australia and Thailand	1	0.30%	China, australia,canada	1	0.90%	Brazil, USA, Germany	1	0.90%	Russia France Japan Korea China	1	0.80%

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If you have lived abroad, which country did you live? Please list with a maximum of 5 countries.	All (N = 339)			Thailand (N = 106)			France (N = 114)			American (N = 119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage
Australia Germany	1	0.30%	China , UK and Thailand	1	0.90%	Bulgaria	1	0.90%	Russia , Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Mongolia	1	0.80%
Australia, USA	1	0.30%	England	4	3.80%	Bulgaria Germany	1	0.90%	Saudi Arabia, Iraq , Afghanistan	1	0.80%
Austria	1	0.30%	France	1	0.90%	Canada	4	3.50%	Thailand	1	0.80%
Austria Ireland UK	1	0.30%	France , Hong Kong	1	0.90%	Canada, USA	1	0.90%	USA	11	9.20%
Belgium	1	0.30%	Germany	2	1.90%	Chile , Spain, Italy, and Australia	1	0.90%	Total	119	100%
Bolivia and Spain	1	0.30%	Hungary	1	0.90%	China	1	0.90%			
Brazil	3	0.90%	Italy and Thailand	1	0.90%	China and Latvia	1	0.90%			
Brazil and USA	2	0.60%	Japan	2	1.90%	Czech Republic	1	0.90%			
Brazil, England, Germany, Canada	1	0.30%	Malaysia and Thailand	1	0.90%	Czech Republic, Brazil, Slovenia, Croatia	1	0.90%			
Brazil, USA, Germany	1	0.30%	Mexico	1	0.90%	England, Bahrain, Spain, Lebanon	1	0.90%			
Britain	1	0.30%	New Zealand, UK, USA, and China	1	0.90%	Finland	2	1.80%			
Bulgaria	1	0.30%	New Zealand Australia France	1	0.90%	France	1	0.90%			
Bulgaria Germany	1	0.30%	Paraguay	1	0.90%	France, Ireland, Croatia, South Africa, Luxembourg	1	0.90%			
Cambodia	1	0.30%	Russia, South Korea, Thailand	1	0.90%	Germany	1	0.90%			
Canada	7	2.10%	Singapore	1	0.90%	Germany, Sweden	1	0.90%			
Canada, USA	1	0.30%	Spain, United Arab Emirates, Paraguay	1	0.90%	Hungary	1	0.90%			
Chile, Spain, Italy, and Australia	1	0.30%	Switzerland	1	0.90%	India	1	0.90%			
China	5	1.50%	Thailand	3	2.80%	Ireland	1	0.90%			
China and Latvia	1	0.30%	UK	2	1.90%	Italy	4	3.50%			
China, australia,canada	1	0.30%	UK and USA	2	1.90%	Korea	1	0.90%			
China, Paris, Korea, Seoul, Thailand and Russia	1	0.30%	UK, France	1	0.90%	Lithuania	1	0.90%			
China, UK and Thailand	1	0.30%	UK, India and South Africa	1	0.90%	Malaysia	1	0.90%			
Czech Republic	1	0.30%	UK, USA, Australia, Singapore, Korea and China	1	0.90%	Malta and Netherlands	1	0.90%			
Czech Republic , Brazil, Slovenia, Croatia	1	0.30%	USA	13	12.30%	Netherlands	1	0.90%			
England	4	1.20%	USA and Australia	1	0.90%	New Zealand	1	0.90%			
England, Bahrain, Spain, Lebanon	1	0.30%	USA and Finland	1	0.90%	Portugal - Colombia	1	0.90%			
Finland	2	0.60%	USA and Taiwan	1	0.90%	Romania , Hungary	1	0.90%			
France	2	0.60%	USA, Australia	1	0.90%	Slovakia, Tunisia	1	0.90%			
FRANCE GERMANY USA	1	0.30%	USA, France	1	0.90%	South Korea, Taiwan and Sweden	1	0.90%			
France , Hong Kong	1	0.30%	USA, Korea, Singapore	1	0.90%	Spain	4	3.50%			
France , Australia, South Korea , Thailand and Russia	1	0.30%	USA, Malaysia, Korea, Japan and UK	1	0.90%	Spain, Thailand, Germany, Italy	1	0.90%			
France , Ireland, Croatia , South Africa , Luxembourg	1	0.30%	USA, UK, Australia, India, and Africa	1	0.90%	Spain, USA, and Columbia	1	0.90%			
Germany	3	0.90%	Venezuela , USA, UK, New Zealand and Singapore	1	0.90%	Sweden	2	1.80%			
Germany, Sweden	1	0.30%	Vietnam and Spain	1	0.90%	Switzerland	1	0.90%			
Hungary	2	0.60%	Total	106	100%	Thailand, Indonesia, China	1	0.90%			
India	1	0.30%				Thailand, Sweden	1	0.90%			
Ireland	1	0.30%				UK	1	0.90%			
Italy	4	1.20%				UK, Spain, Australia , Malaysia, Thailand	1	0.90%			
Italy and Thailand	1	0.30%				UK, Switzerland, USA, Japan, Australia	1	0.90%			
Japan	3	0.90%				United Arab Emirates , USA, Finland	1	0.90%			
Japan, Canada	1	0.30%				USA	5	4.40%			
Japan's Hong Kong	1	0.30%				USA and Canada	1	0.90%			
Korea	1	0.30%				USA and China	1	0.90%			
Liberia, USA	1	0.30%				USA, Canada, China	1	0.90%			
Lithuania	1	0.30%				USA, Canada, Spain, Singapore	1	0.90%			
Malaysia	1	0.30%				USA, Germany	1	0.90%			
Malaysia and Thailand	1	0.30%				USA, Singapore , Morocco, Africa	1	0.90%			
Malta and Netherlands	1	0.30%				USA, Spain, UK	1	0.90%			
Mexico	1	0.30%				USA, Switzerland, Belgium, Germany	1	0.90%			
Netherlands	1	0.30%				USA, UK	1	0.90%			
New Zealand	1	0.30%				USA, UK and Italy	1	0.90%			
New Zealand , UK, USA, and China	1	0.30%				Total	114	100%			

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If you have lived abroad, which country did you live? Please list with a maximum of 5 countries.	All (N = 339)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage
Paraguay	1	0.30%
Portugal - Colombia	1	0.30%
Romania, Hungary	1	0.30%
Russia France JapanKorea China	1	0.30%
Russia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Mongolia	1	0.30%
Russia, South Korea, Thailand	1	0.30%
Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Afghanistan	1	0.30%
Singapore	1	0.30%
Slovakia, Tunisia	1	0.30%
South Korea, Taiwan and Sweden	1	0.30%
Spain	4	1.20%
Spain, United Arab Emirates, Paraguay	1	0.30%
Spain, Thailand, Germany, Italy	1	0.30%
Spain, USA, and Colombia	1	0.30%
Sweden	2	0.60%
Switzerland	2	0.60%
Thailand	4	1.20%
Thailand, Indonesia, China	1	0.30%
Thailand, Sweden	1	0.30%
UK	3	0.90%
UK and USA	2	0.60%
UK, France	1	0.30%
UK, India and South Africa	1	0.30%
UK, Spain, Australia, Malaysia, Thailand	1	0.30%
UK, Switzerland, USA, Japan, Australia	1	0.30%
UK, USA, Australia, Singapore, Korea and China	1	0.30%
United Arab Emirates, USA, Finland	1	0.30%
USA	29	8.60%
USA and Australia	1	0.30%
USA and Canada	1	0.30%
USA and China	1	0.30%
USA and Finland	1	0.30%
USA and Taiwan	1	0.30%
USA, Australia	1	0.30%
USA, Canada, China	1	0.30%
USA, Canada, Spain, Singapore	1	0.30%
USA, France	1	0.30%
USA, Germany	1	0.30%
USA, Korea, Singapore	1	0.30%
USA, Malaysia, Korea, Japan and UK	1	0.30%
USA, Singapore, Morocco, Africa	1	0.30%
USA, Spain, UK	1	0.30%
USA, Switzerland, Belgium, Germany	1	0.30%
USA, UK	1	0.30%
USA, UK and Italy	1	0.30%
USA, UK, Australia, India, and Africa	1	0.30%
Venezuela, USA, UK, New Zealand and Singapore	1	0.30%
Vietnam and Spain	1	0.30%
Total	339	100%

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If you have had lived abroad, how many years in total?	All (N = 339)			Thailand (N = 106)			France (N = 114)			American (N = 119)	
	N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage		N (frequency)	Percentage
N/A	170	50.10%	N/A	35	33%	N/A	38	33.30%	N/A	97	81.50%
0.5 years	15	4.40%	0.5 years	3	2.80%	0.5 years	9	7.90%	0.5 years	3	2.50%
1	45	13.30%	1	16	15.10%	1	27	23.70%	1	2	1.70%
1 Month	1	0.30%	1.5	3	2.80%	1,5	3	2.60%	1 Month	1	0.80%
1,5	3	0.90%	10	2	1.90%	1.5	3	2.60%	12	1	0.80%
1.5	6	1.80%	11	2	1.90%	10	3	2.60%	2	6	5%
10	5	1.50%	12	1	0.90%	11	1	0.90%	25	1	0.80%
11	3	0.90%	13	1	0.90%	12	1	0.90%	3	1	0.80%
12	3	0.90%	14	1	0.90%	15	2	1.80%	3.5	1	0.80%
13	1	0.30%	15	3	2.80%	2	9	7.90%	30+	1	0.80%
14	1	0.30%	17	1	0.90%	20	1	0.90%	38	1	0.80%
15	5	1.50%	2	9	8.50%	23	2	1.80%	5	2	1.70%
17	1	0.30%	2.5	2	1.90%	3	3	2.60%	6	1	0.80%
2	24	7.10%	24	1	0.90%	4	5	4.40%	8	1	0.80%
2.5	2	0.60%	3	8	7.50%	4,5	1	0.90%	Total	119	100%
20	1	0.30%	3.5	1	0.90%	4.5	1	0.90%			
23	2	0.60%	4	6	5.70%	5	2	1.80%			
24	1	0.30%	5	5	4.70%	6	1	0.90%			
25	1	0.30%	6	1	0.90%	7	1	0.90%			
3	12	3.50%	7	3	2.80%	8	1	0.90%			
3.5	2	0.60%	9	2	1.90%	Total	114	100%			
30+	1	0.30%	Total	106	100%						
38	1	0.30%									
4	11	3.20%									
4,5	1	0.30%									
4.5	1	0.30%									
5	9	2.70%									
6	3	0.90%									
7	4	1.20%									
8	2	0.60%									
9	2	0.60%									
Total	339	100%									

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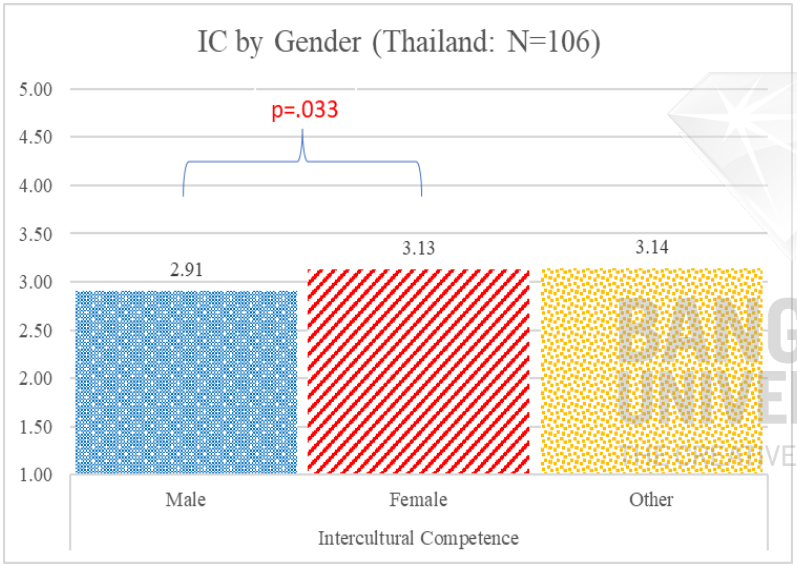
APPENDIX 7: The significant results on the difference between EI and IC and demographic information for three cultural types.

Type I (Thailand)



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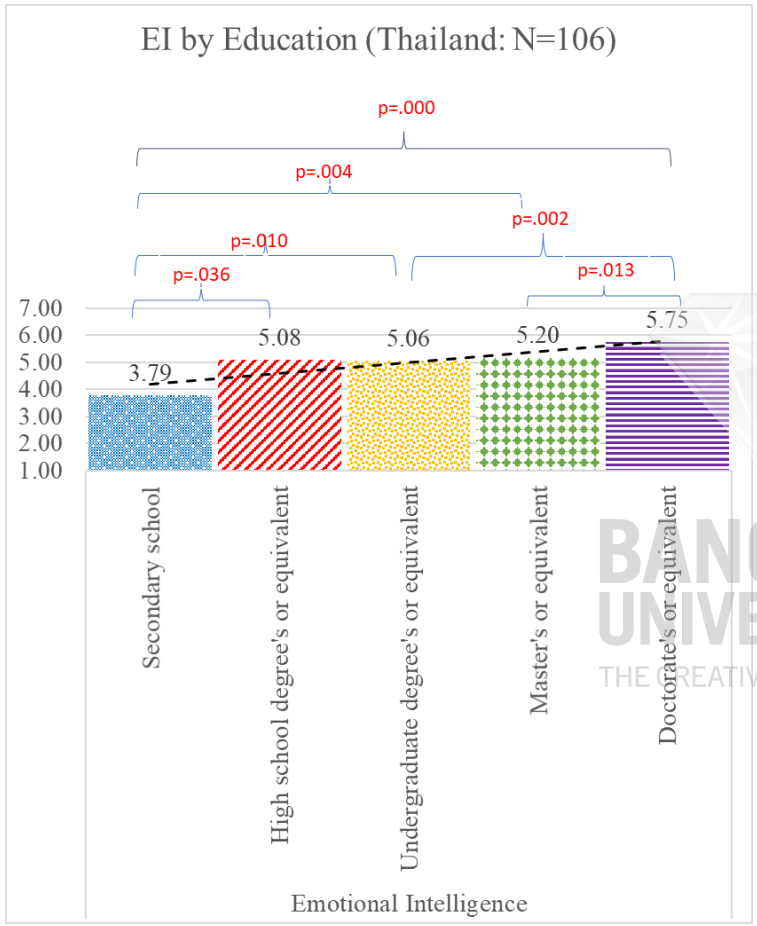

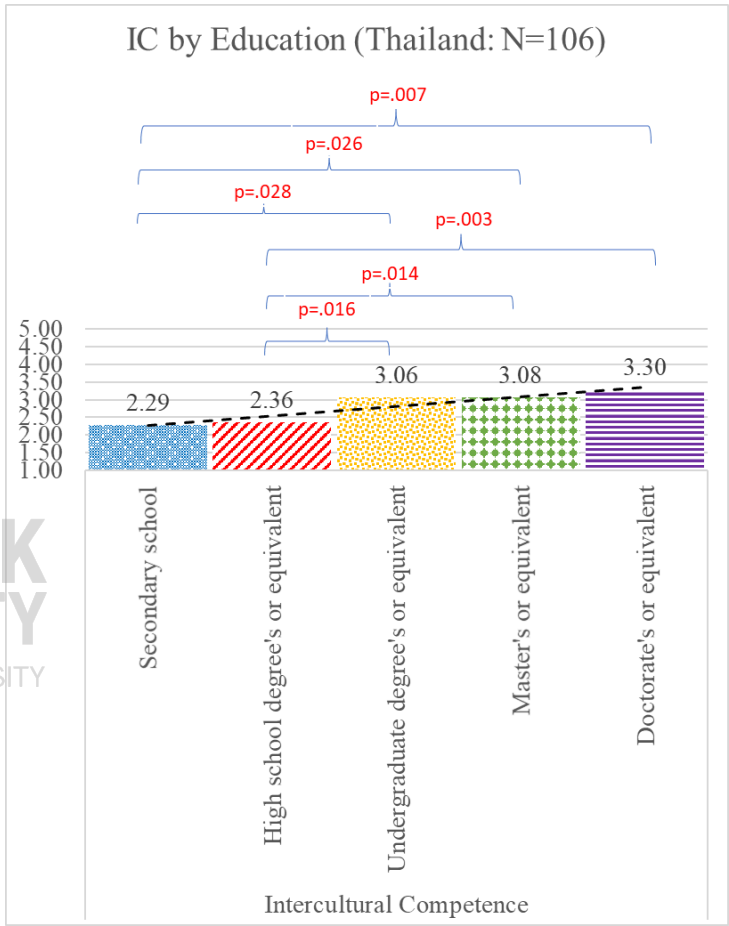

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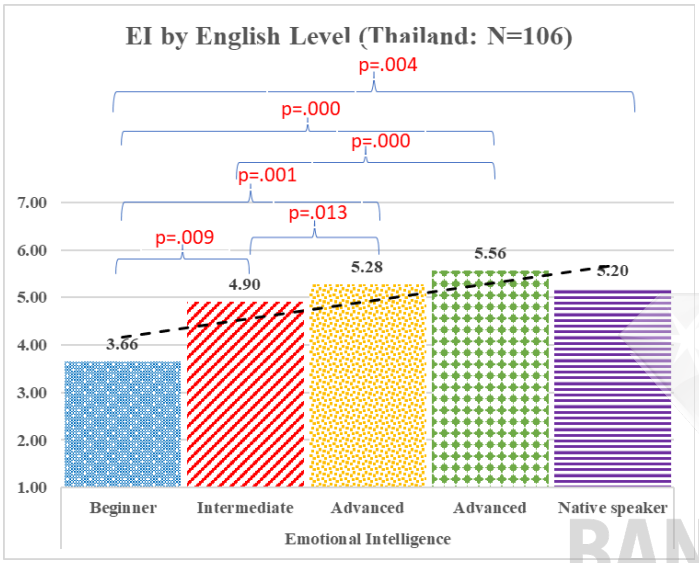

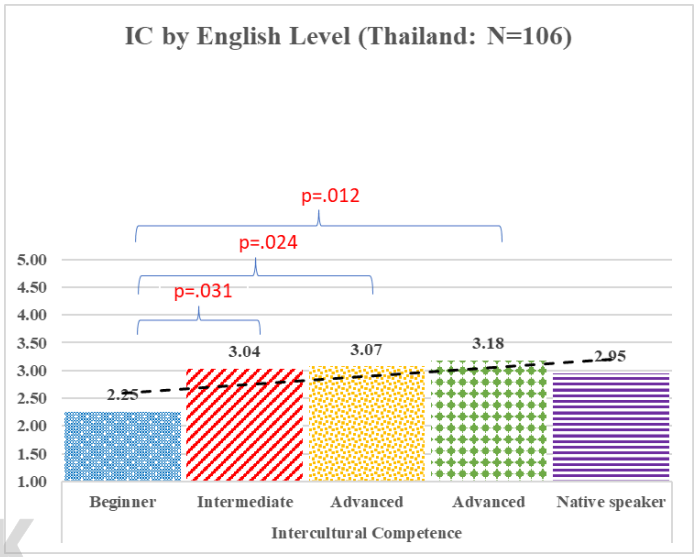

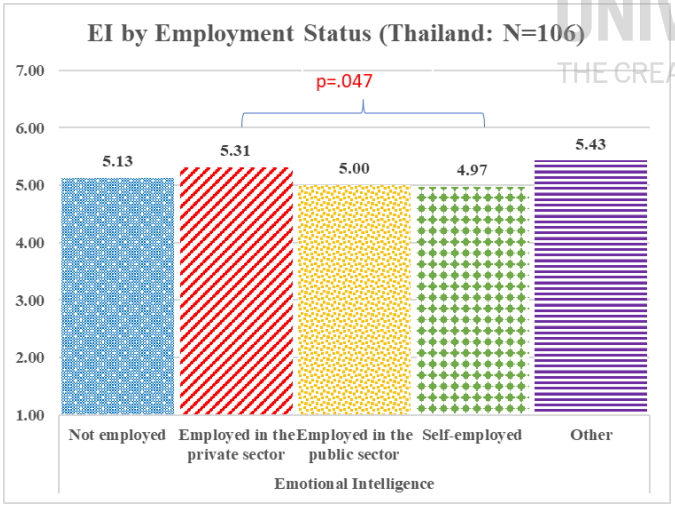

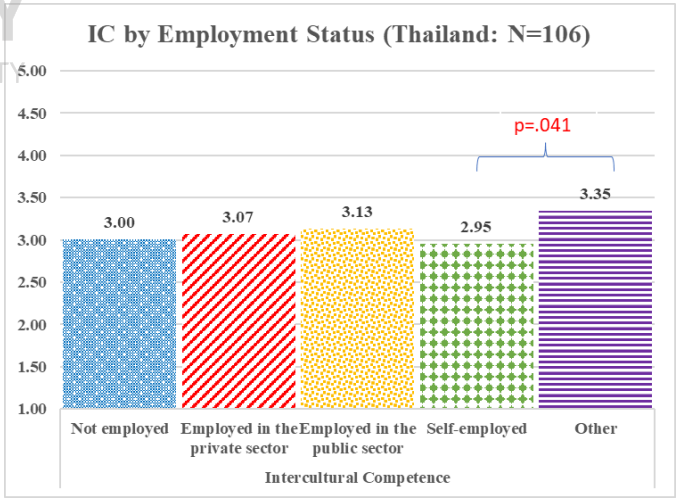

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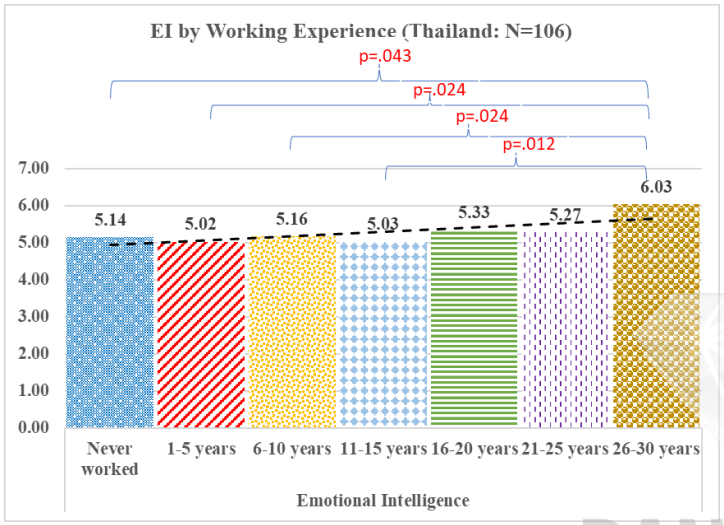

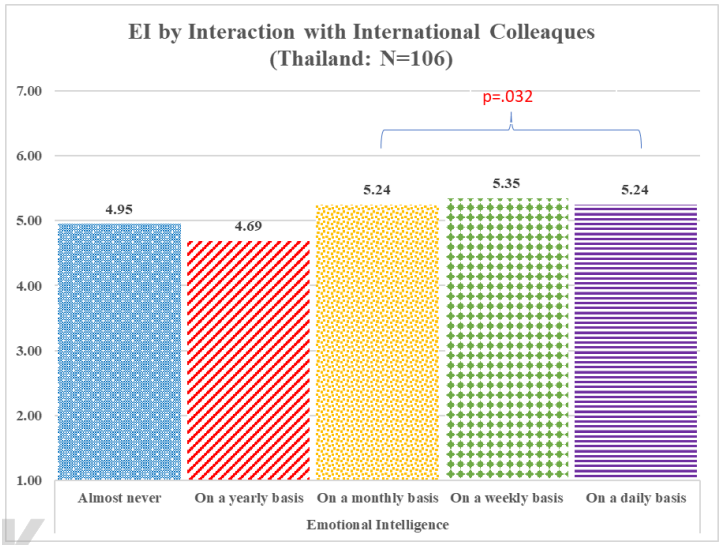

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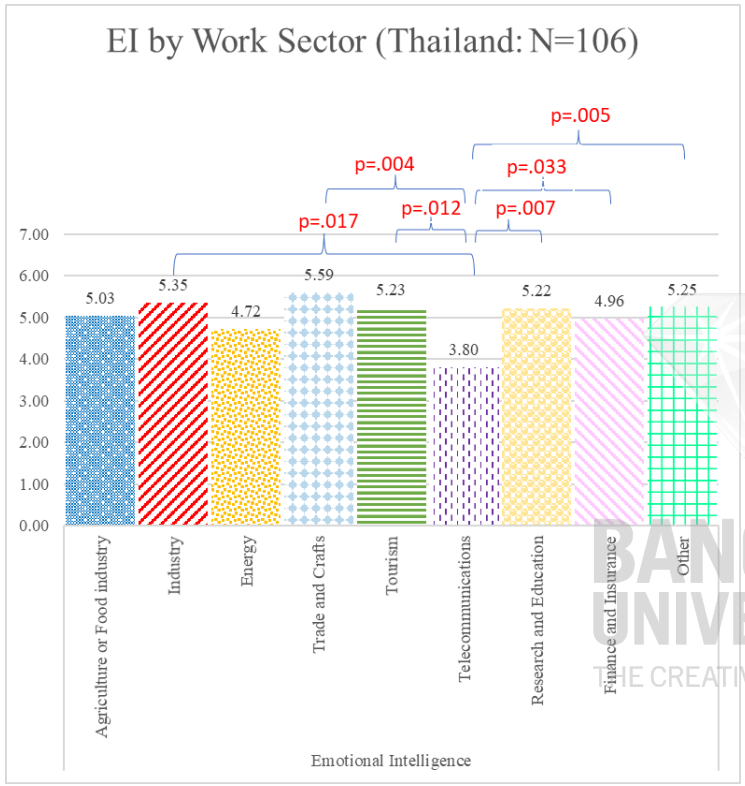

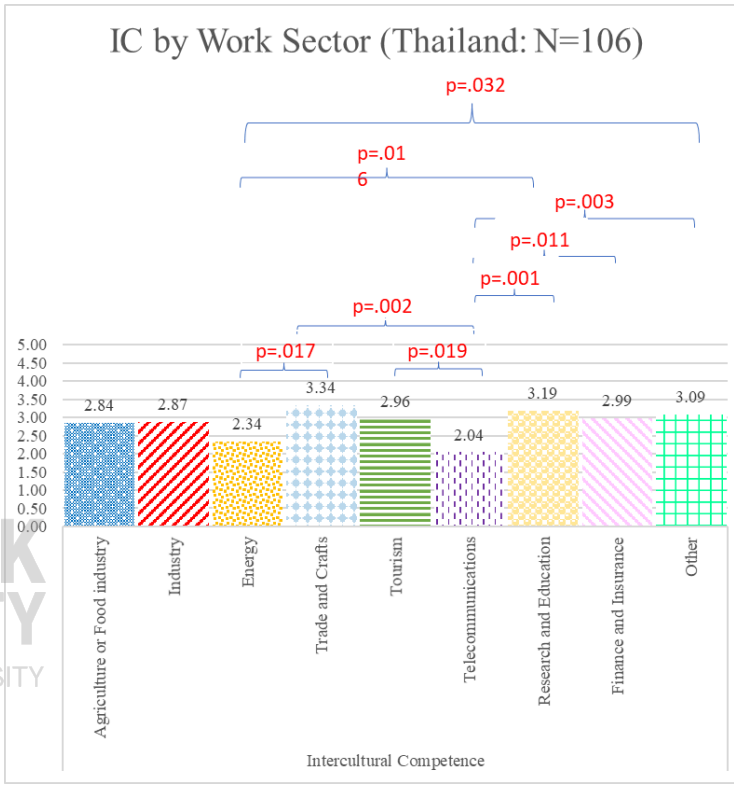

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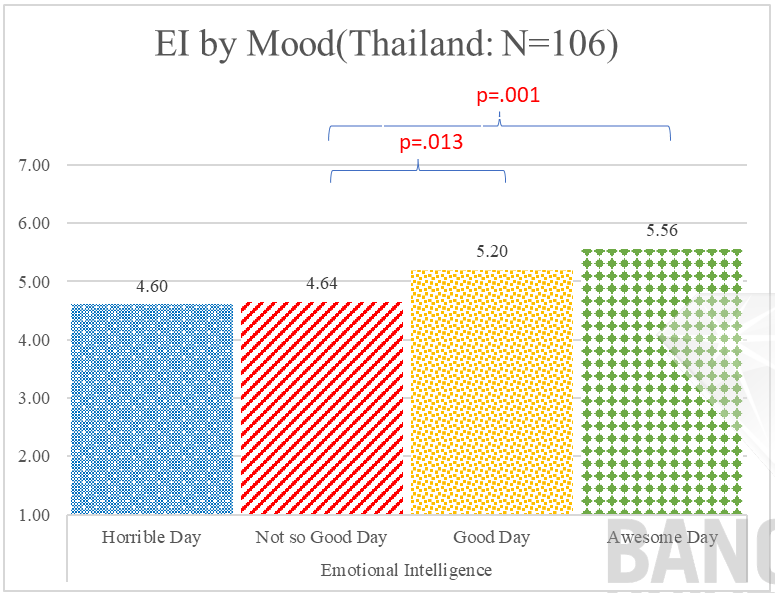

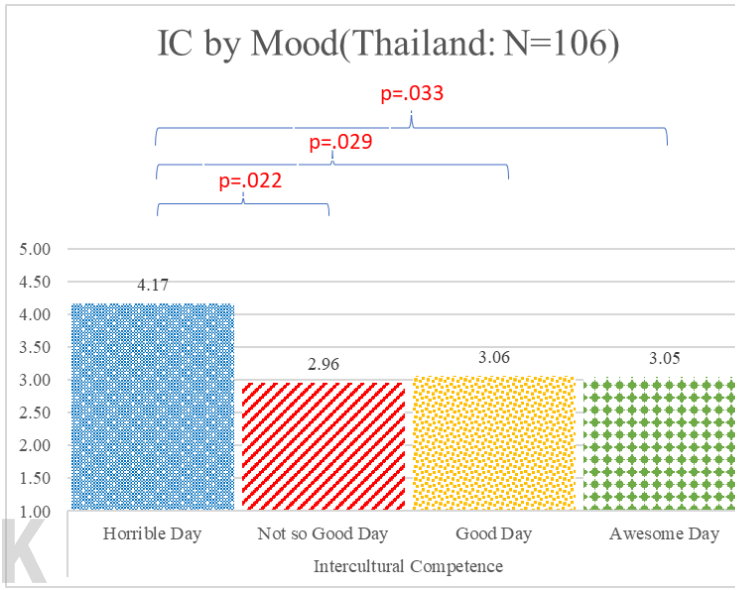

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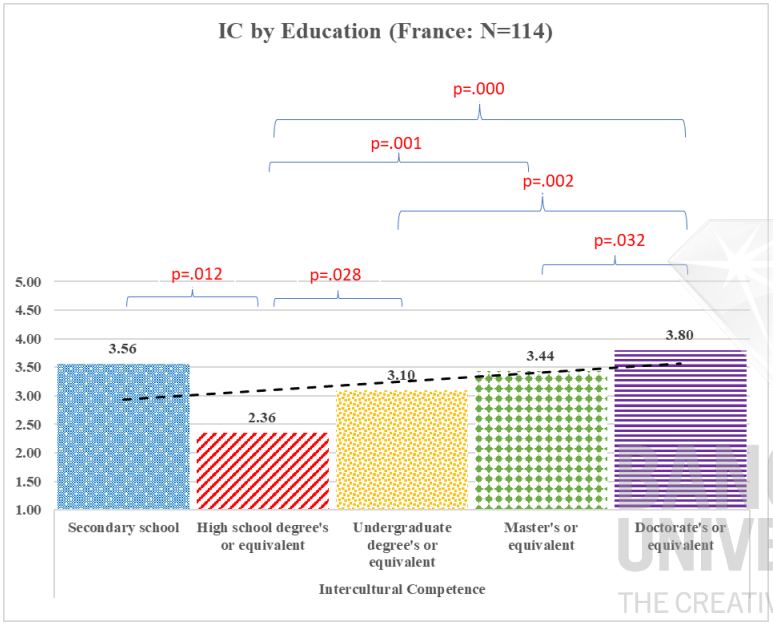

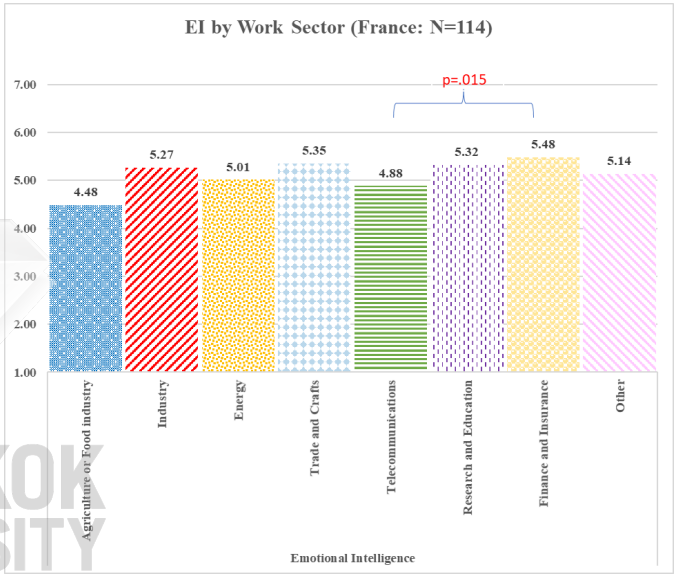

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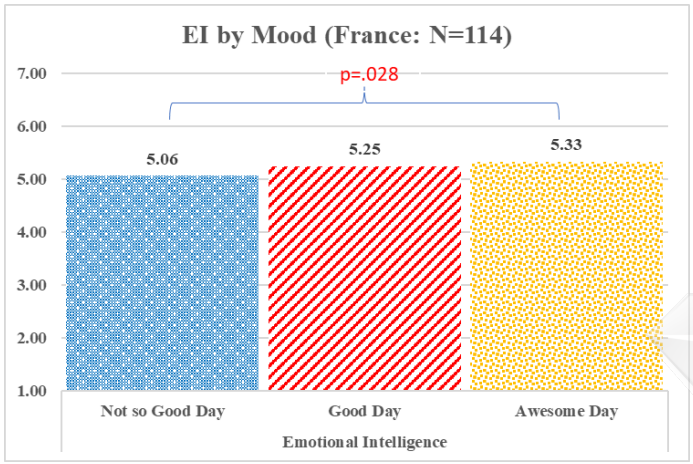

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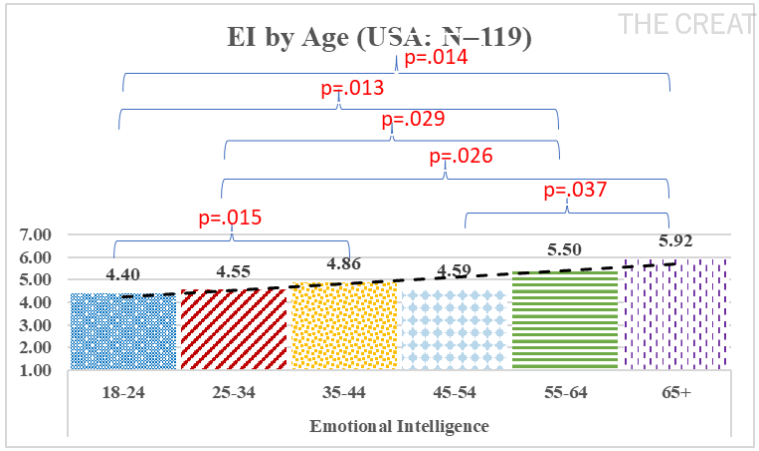
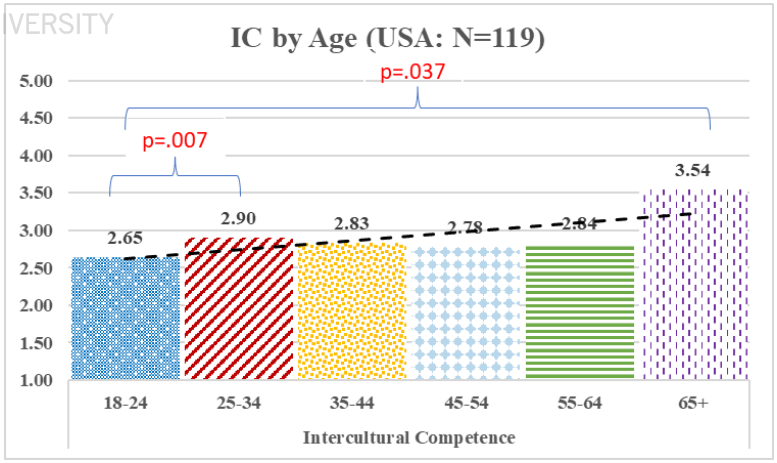
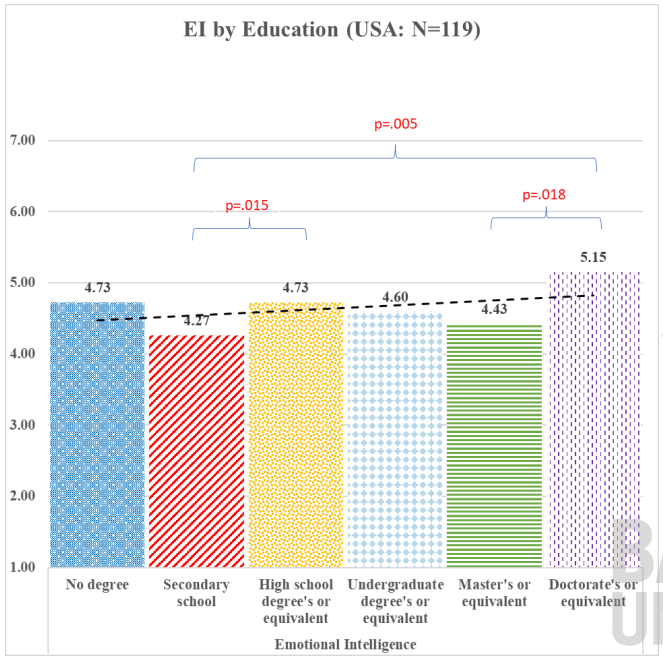
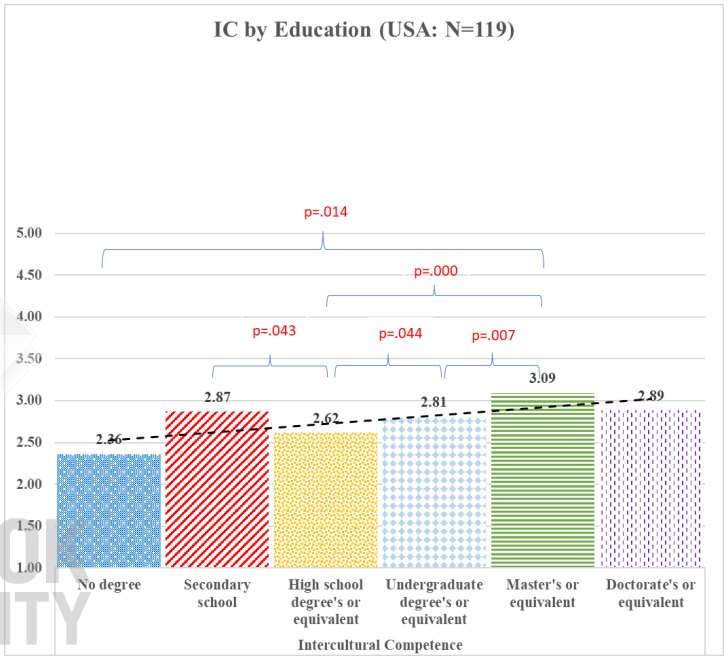
Type III (USA)









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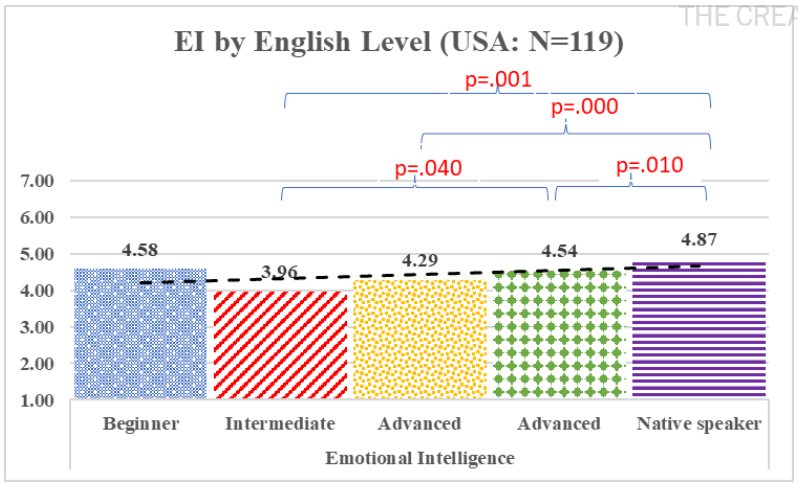

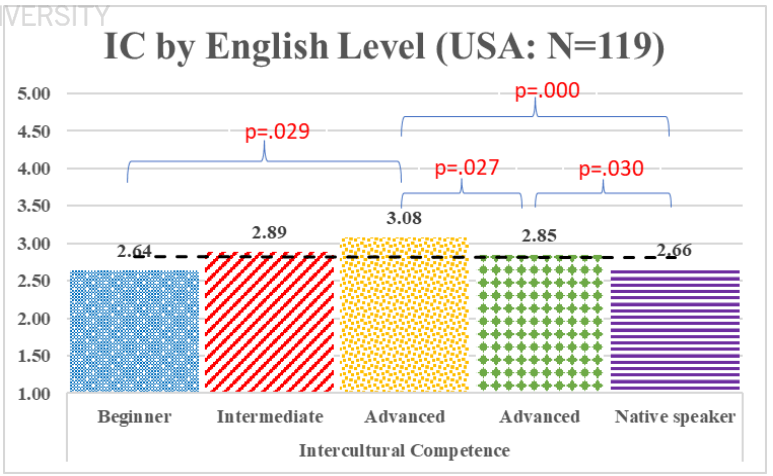

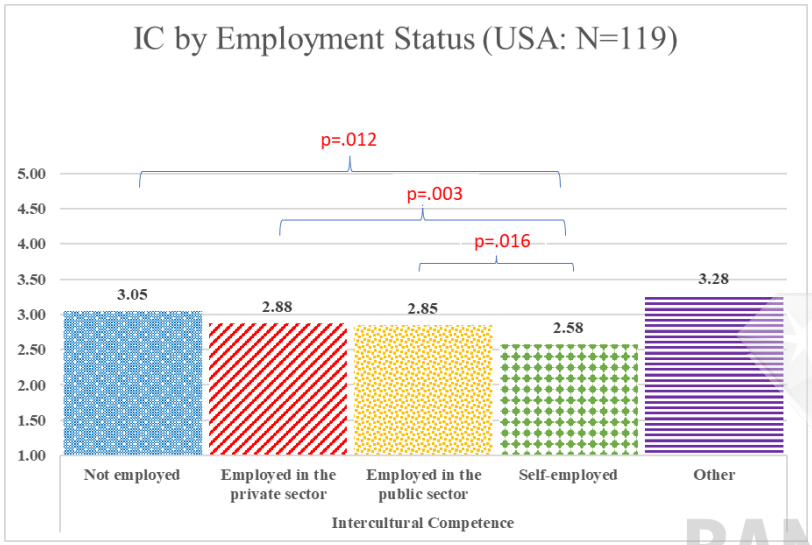

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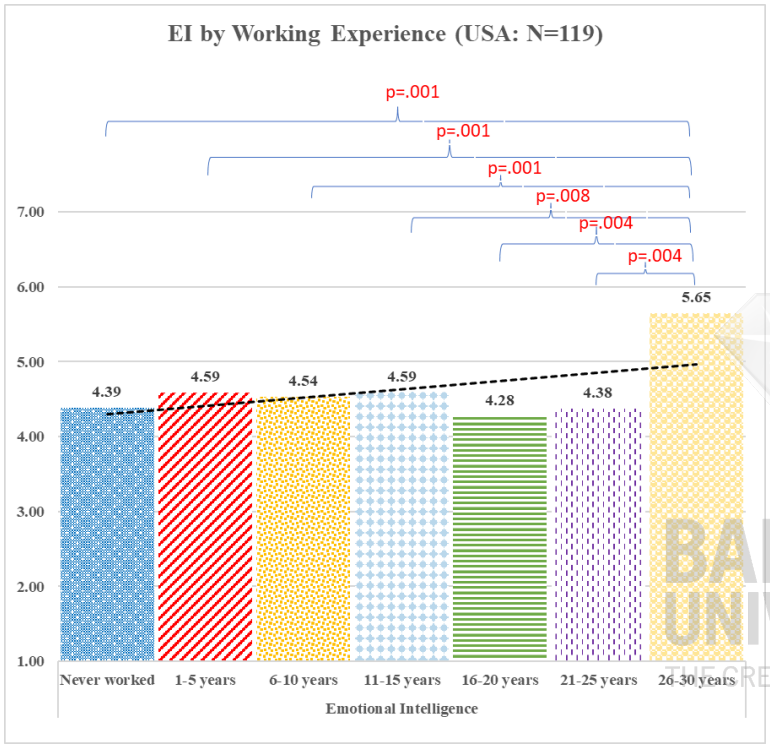

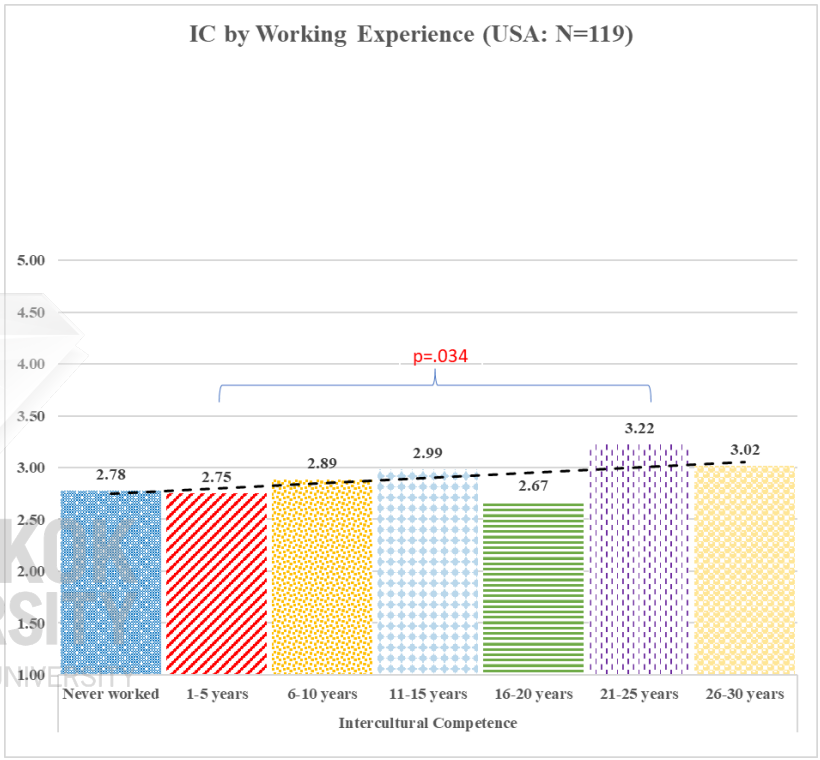

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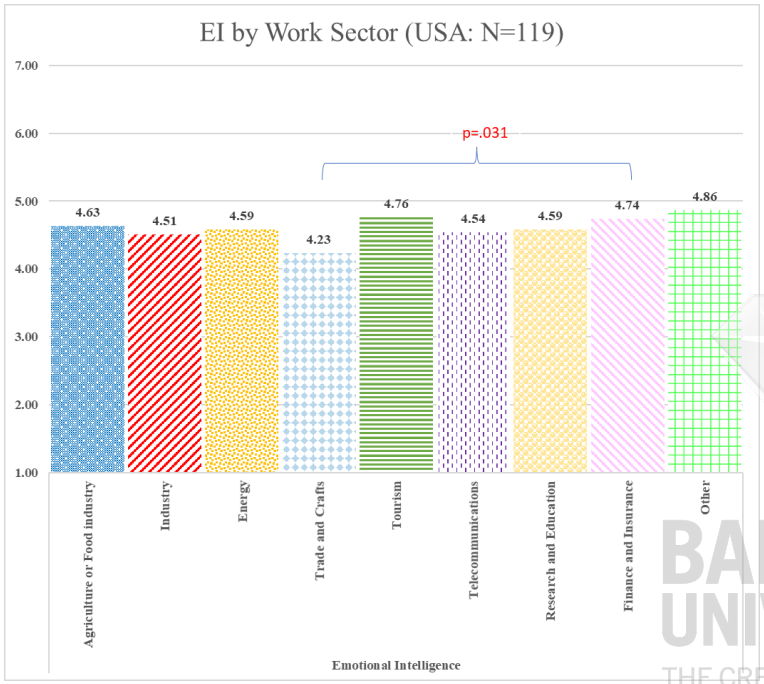

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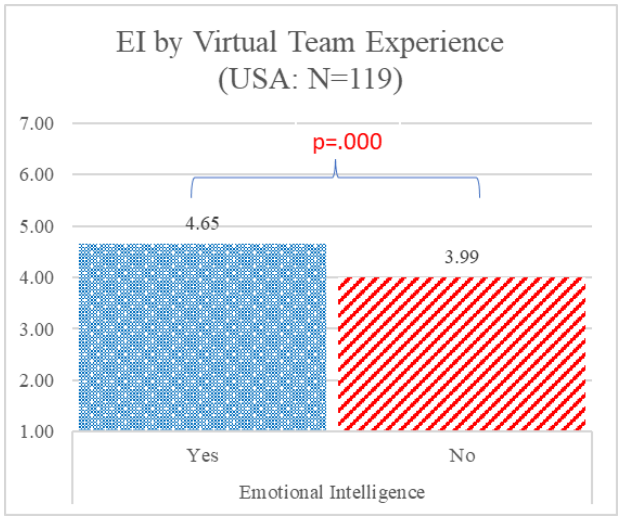

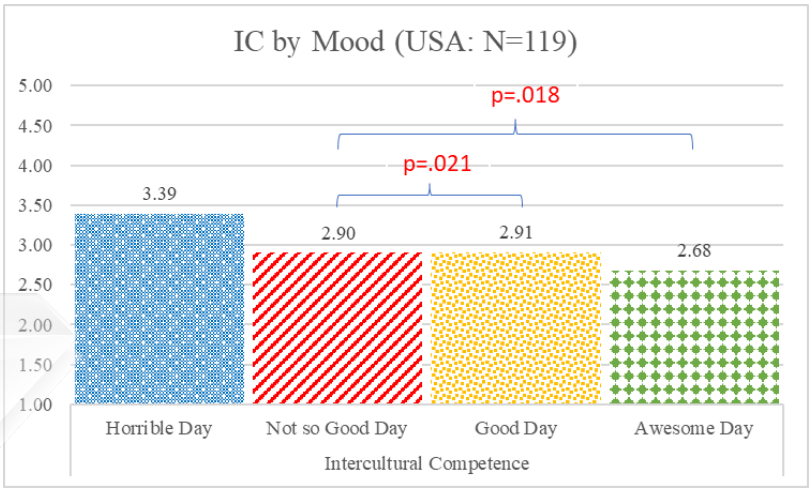

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Appendix 8: Summarized mean values and standard deviation of Intercultural Conflict Resolution Behavior on demographic information

Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Direct)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	7.21	2.50	0.24												
France	114	7.10	2.60	0.24												
USA	119	4.39	2.47	0.23												
Gender																
Male	195	5.70	2.99	0.21	34	6.79	2.87	0.49	74	6.89	2.71	0.31	87	4.25	2.65	0.28
Female	142	6.83	2.50	0.21	70	7.41	2.31	0.28	40	7.48	2.36	0.37	32	4.75	1.90	0.34
Other	2	7.00	2.83	2.00	2	7.00	2.83	2.00								
Age																
18-24	107	6.17	2.59	0.25	16	6.69	2.73	0.68	60	7.00	2.22	0.29	31	4.29	2.27	0.41
25-34	139	5.58	3.04	0.26	44	6.70	2.78	0.42	34	7.12	2.85	0.49	61	3.92	2.49	0.32
35-44	61	7.07	2.38	0.30	34	7.82	2.02	0.35	12	7.00	2.80	0.81	15	5.40	2.03	0.52
45-54	23	7.17	3.01	0.63	10	7.90	2.02	0.64	4	9.25	3.50	1.75	9	5.44	3.09	1.03
55-64	7	7.00	3.42	1.29	2	8.50	2.12	1.50	3	7.00	5.29	3.06	2	5.50	0.71	0.50
65+	2	7.00	2.83	2.00					1	5.00			1	9.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	5.50	0.71	0.50									2	5.50	0.71	0.50
Secondary school	20	4.25	2.24	0.50	2	5.00	1.41	1.00	2	9.50	0.71	0.50	16	3.50	1.37	0.34
High school degree's or equivalent	36	5.06	2.45	0.41	3	7.00	5.00	2.89	3	1.67	1.53	0.88	30	5.20	1.94	0.35
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	5.87	2.78	0.28	43	7.37	2.32	0.35	12	6.58	1.88	0.54	43	4.16	2.48	0.38
Master's or equivalent	155	6.53	2.72	0.22	46	6.93	2.50	0.37	86	7.10	2.37	0.26	23	3.57	2.57	0.54
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	8.21	3.15	0.60	12	8.08	2.61	0.75	11	8.64	3.35	1.01	5	7.60	4.39	1.96
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	5.74	2.10	0.28	14	6.14	1.46	0.39	14	7.29	1.82	0.49	29	4.79	2.02	0.38
Working Full time	169	6.18	3.18	0.24	68	7.50	2.55	0.31	33	7.36	3.23	0.56	68	4.28	2.79	0.34
Part-time student & work	113	6.37	2.50	0.33	24	6.84	2.66	0.78	67	6.88	2.43	0.43	22	4.89	1.96	0.74
English Level																
Beginner	8	6.25	1.16	0.41	2	7.00	1.41	1.00	1	4.00			5	6.40	0.55	0.24
Intermediate	58	6.47	2.72	0.36	35	6.74	2.37	0.40	18	6.89	2.89	0.68	5	3.00	2.35	1.05
Advanced	126	6.55	2.75	0.25	41	7.32	2.64	0.41	61	7.26	2.17	0.28	24	3.42	2.04	0.42
Advanced	98	6.03	2.88	0.29	22	7.14	2.12	0.45	33	7.09	3.15	0.55	43	4.65	2.43	0.37
Native speaker	49	5.18	3.15	0.45	6	9.50	3.21	1.31	1	4.00			42	4.60	2.70	0.42
Employment status																
Not employed	21	5.57	2.13	0.47	13	5.46	2.30	0.64	2	8.50	0.71	0.50	6	4.83	1.17	0.48
Employed in the private sector	185	6.44	2.91	0.21	46	7.87	2.45	0.36	80	7.19	2.69	0.30	59	4.31	2.32	0.30
Employed in the public sector	49	5.08	3.13	0.45	10	6.70	2.63	0.83	12	6.00	3.36	0.97	27	4.07	2.91	0.56
Self-employed	58	6.26	2.68	0.35	28	7.50	2.40	0.45	4	6.25	1.26	0.63	26	4.92	2.53	0.50
Other	26	6.73	2.15	0.42	9	6.00	1.94	0.65	16	7.50	1.59	0.40	1	1.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	6.70	2.79	0.20	73	7.15	2.54	0.30	82	7.18	2.73	0.30	47	5.17	2.79	0.41
No	137	5.41	2.75	0.23	33	7.33	2.46	0.43	32	6.88	2.25	0.40	72	3.88	2.11	0.25

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Direct)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	5.90	2.57	0.56	8	6.75	2.92	1.03	2	9.50	0.71	0.50	11	4.64	1.50	0.45
1-5 years	171	5.93	2.89	0.22	23	7.13	3.05	0.64	83	6.90	2.52	0.28	65	4.26	2.52	0.31
6-10 years	62	5.53	2.67	0.34	26	6.31	2.17	0.43	10	6.90	2.92	0.92	26	4.23	2.55	0.50
11-15 years	26	6.85	2.69	0.53	17	7.35	2.69	0.65	3	9.00	2.00	1.15	6	4.33	0.52	0.21
16-20 years	28	7.21	2.42	0.46	19	7.84	2.19	0.50	6	7.17	1.47	0.60	3	3.33	2.08	1.20
21-25 years	17	7.65	2.26	0.55	9	8.11	1.27	0.42	4	9.00	2.94	1.47	4	5.25	1.89	0.95
26-30 years	14	7.43	3.74	1.00	4	8.75	2.06	1.03	6	7.00	4.00	1.63	4	6.75	5.12	2.56
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	6.87	2.81	0.27	48	7.31	2.36	0.34	37	7.70	2.60	0.43	22	4.50	2.84	0.61
On a weekly basis	54	6.31	3.05	0.42	23	7.43	2.69	0.56	17	7.59	2.18	0.53	14	2.93	1.77	0.47
On a monthly basis	76	5.46	2.71	0.31	10	7.80	2.35	0.74	20	6.20	2.53	0.56	46	4.63	2.51	0.37
On a yearly basis	23	6.22	2.61	0.54	7	7.43	2.37	0.90	7	7.00	2.38	0.90	9	4.67	2.40	0.80
Almost never	79	5.84	2.78	0.31	18	6.22	2.76	0.65	33	6.73	2.79	0.49	28	4.54	2.35	0.44
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	4.81	2.84	0.62	3	9.67	3.21	1.86	1	4.00			17	4.00	1.90	0.46
Industry	56	6.30	3.02	0.40	3	9.67	2.08	1.20	36	7.08	2.45	0.41	17	4.06	2.97	0.72
Energy	21	4.90	2.49	0.54	2	6.00	0.00	0.00	7	6.57	2.88	1.09	12	3.75	1.82	0.52
Trade and Crafts	20	4.90	2.88	0.64	4	8.00	2.00	1.00	4	6.25	3.50	1.75	12	3.42	1.83	0.53
Tourism	9	7.22	2.77	0.92	7	7.29	2.21	0.84					2	7.00	5.66	4.00
Telecommunications	16	4.69	2.85	0.71	2	1.00	1.41	1.00	9	6.00	2.96	0.99	5	3.80	0.84	0.37
Research and Education	74	6.59	3.03	0.35	29	7.86	2.12	0.39	14	8.29	3.38	0.90	31	4.65	2.52	0.45
Finance and Insurance	51	6.10	2.49	0.35	12	7.00	2.70	0.78	20	6.85	1.87	0.42	19	4.74	2.45	0.56
Other	71	7.06	2.40	0.29	44	6.75	2.35	0.35	23	7.48	2.43	0.51	4	8.00	2.83	1.41
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	6.18	2.87	0.17	75	7.43	2.48	0.29	102	7.11	2.58	0.26	107	4.43	2.51	0.24
No	55	6.16	2.73	0.37	31	6.68	2.52	0.45	12	7.00	2.83	0.82	12	4.00	2.13	0.62
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	3.67	0.58	0.33	1	3.00							2	4.00	0.00	0.00
Not so Good Day	35	5.74	2.57	0.43	11	6.45	1.69	0.51	15	6.87	2.33	0.60	9	3.00	1.87	0.62
Good Day	222	6.51	2.89	0.19	81	7.35	2.58	0.29	84	7.11	2.55	0.28	57	4.46	2.82	0.37
Awesome Day	79	5.53	2.72	0.31	13	7.31	2.39	0.66	15	7.27	3.24	0.84	51	4.57	2.14	0.30

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Indirect)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	10.79	2.50	0.24												
France	114	10.90	2.60	0.24												
USA	119	13.61	2.47	0.23												
Gender																
Male	195	12.30	2.99	0.21	34	11.21	2.87	0.49	74	11.11	2.71	0.31	87	13.75	2.65	0.28
Female	142	11.17	2.50	0.21	70	10.59	2.31	0.28	40	10.53	2.36	0.37	32	13.25	1.90	0.34
Other	2	11.00	2.83	2.00	2	11.00	2.83	2.00								
Age																
18-24	107	11.83	2.59	0.25	16	11.31	2.73	0.68	60	11.00	2.22	0.29	31	13.71	2.27	0.41
25-34	139	12.42	3.04	0.26	44	11.30	2.78	0.42	34	10.88	2.85	0.49	61	14.08	2.49	0.32
35-44	61	10.93	2.38	0.30	34	10.18	2.02	0.35	12	11.00	2.80	0.81	15	12.60	2.03	0.52
45-54	23	10.83	3.01	0.63	10	10.10	2.02	0.64	4	8.75	3.50	1.75	9	12.56	3.09	1.03
55-64	7	11.00	3.42	1.29	2	9.50	2.12	1.50	3	11.00	5.29	3.06	2	12.50	0.71	0.50
65+	2	11.00	2.83	2.00					1	13.00			1	9.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	12.50	0.71	0.50									2	12.50	0.71	0.50
Secondary school	20	13.75	2.24	0.50	2	13.00	1.41	1.00	2	8.50	0.71	0.50	16	14.50	1.37	0.34
High school degree's or equivalent	36	12.94	2.45	0.41	3	11.00	5.00	2.89	3	16.33	1.53	0.88	30	12.80	1.94	0.35
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	12.13	2.78	0.28	43	10.63	2.32	0.35	12	11.42	1.88	0.54	43	13.84	2.48	0.38
Master's or equivalent	155	11.47	2.72	0.22	46	11.07	2.50	0.37	86	10.90	2.37	0.26	23	14.43	2.57	0.54
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	9.79	3.15	0.60	12	9.92	2.61	0.75	11	9.36	3.35	1.01	5	10.40	4.39	1.96
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	12.26	2.10	0.28	14	11.86	1.46	0.39	14	10.71	1.82	0.49	29	13.21	2.02	0.38
Working Full time	169	11.82	3.18	0.24	68	10.50	2.55	0.31	33	10.64	3.23	0.56	68	13.72	2.79	0.34
Part-time student & work	113	11.63	2.50	0.33	24	11.16	2.66	0.78	67	11.12	2.43	0.43	22	13.11	1.96	0.74
English Level																
Beginner	8	11.75	1.16	0.41	2	11.00	1.41	1.00	1	14.00			5	11.60	0.55	0.24
Intermediate	58	11.53	2.72	0.36	35	11.26	2.37	0.40	18	11.11	2.89	0.68	5	15.00	2.35	1.05
Advanced	126	11.45	2.75	0.25	41	10.68	2.64	0.41	61	10.74	2.17	0.28	24	14.58	2.04	0.42
Advanced	98	11.97	2.88	0.29	22	10.86	2.12	0.45	33	10.91	3.15	0.55	43	13.35	2.43	0.37
Native speaker	49	12.82	3.15	0.45	6	8.50	3.21	1.31	1	14.00			42	13.40	2.70	0.42
Employment status																
Not employed	21	12.43	2.13	0.47	13	12.54	2.30	0.64	2	9.50	0.71	0.50	6	13.17	1.17	0.48
Employed in the private sector	185	11.56	2.91	0.21	46	10.13	2.45	0.36	80	10.81	2.69	0.30	59	13.69	2.32	0.30
Employed in the public sector	49	12.92	3.13	0.45	10	11.30	2.63	0.83	12	12.00	3.36	0.97	27	13.93	2.91	0.56
Self-employed	58	11.74	2.68	0.35	28	10.50	2.40	0.45	4	11.75	1.26	0.63	26	13.08	2.53	0.50
Other	26	11.27	2.15	0.42	9	12.00	1.94	0.65	16	10.50	1.59	0.40	1	17.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	11.30	2.79	0.20	73	10.85	2.54	0.30	82	10.82	2.73	0.30	47	12.83	2.79	0.41
No	137	12.59	2.75	0.23	33	10.67	2.46	0.43	32	11.13	2.25	0.40	72	14.13	2.11	0.25

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Indirect)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	12.10	2.57	0.56	8	11.25	2.92	1.03	2	8.50	0.71	0.50	11	13.36	1.50	0.45
1-5 years	171	12.07	2.89	0.22	23	10.87	3.05	0.64	83	11.10	2.52	0.28	65	13.74	2.52	0.31
6-10 years	62	12.47	2.67	0.34	26	11.69	2.17	0.43	10	11.10	2.92	0.92	26	13.77	2.55	0.50
11-15 years	26	11.15	2.69	0.53	17	10.65	2.69	0.65	3	9.00	2.00	1.15	6	13.67	0.52	0.21
16-20 years	28	10.79	2.42	0.46	19	10.16	2.19	0.50	6	10.83	1.47	0.60	3	14.67	2.08	1.20
21-25 years	17	10.35	2.26	0.55	9	9.89	1.27	0.42	4	9.00	2.94	1.47	4	12.75	1.89	0.95
26-30 years	14	10.57	3.74	1.00	4	9.25	2.06	1.03	6	11.00	4.00	1.63	4	11.25	5.12	2.56
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	11.13	2.81	0.27	48	10.69	2.36	0.34	37	10.30	2.60	0.43	22	13.50	2.84	0.61
On a weekly basis	54	11.69	3.05	0.42	23	10.57	2.69	0.56	17	10.41	2.18	0.53	14	15.07	1.77	0.47
On a monthly basis	76	12.54	2.71	0.31	10	10.20	2.35	0.74	20	11.80	2.53	0.56	46	13.37	2.51	0.37
On a yearly basis	23	11.78	2.61	0.54	7	10.57	2.37	0.90	7	11.00	2.38	0.90	9	13.33	2.40	0.80
Almost never	79	12.16	2.78	0.31	18	11.78	2.76	0.65	33	11.27	2.79	0.49	28	13.46	2.35	0.44
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	13.19	2.84	0.62	3	8.33	3.21	1.86	1	14.00			17	14.00	1.90	0.46
Industry	56	11.70	3.02	0.40	3	8.33	2.08	1.20	36	10.92	2.45	0.41	17	13.94	2.97	0.72
Energy	21	13.10	2.49	0.54	2	12.00	0.00	0.00	7	11.43	2.88	1.09	12	14.25	1.82	0.52
Trade and Crafts	20	13.10	2.88	0.64	4	10.00	2.00	1.00	4	11.75	3.50	1.75	12	14.58	1.83	0.53
Tourism	9	10.78	2.77	0.92	7	10.71	2.21	0.84					2	11.00	5.66	4.00
Telecommunications	16	13.31	2.85	0.71	2	17.00	1.41	1.00	9	12.00	2.96	0.99	5	14.20	0.84	0.37
Research and Education	74	11.41	3.03	0.35	29	10.14	2.12	0.39	14	9.71	3.38	0.90	31	13.35	2.52	0.45
Finance and Insurance	51	11.90	2.49	0.35	12	11.00	2.70	0.78	20	11.15	1.87	0.42	19	13.26	2.45	0.56
Other	71	10.94	2.40	0.29	44	11.25	2.35	0.35	23	10.52	2.43	0.51	4	10.00	2.83	1.41
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	11.82	2.87	0.17	75	10.57	2.48	0.29	102	10.89	2.58	0.26	107	13.57	2.51	0.24
No	55	11.84	2.73	0.37	31	11.32	2.52	0.45	12	11.00	2.83	0.82	12	14.00	2.13	0.62
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	14.33	0.58	0.33	1	15.00							2	14.00	0.00	0.00
Not so Good Day	35	12.26	2.57	0.43	11	11.55	1.69	0.51	15	11.13	2.33	0.60	9	15.00	1.87	0.62
Good Day	222	11.49	2.89	0.19	81	10.65	2.58	0.29	84	10.89	2.55	0.28	57	13.54	2.82	0.37
Awesome Day	79	12.47	2.72	0.31	13	10.69	2.39	0.66	15	10.73	3.24	0.84	51	13.43	2.14	0.30

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Emotional Expressive)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	5.68	2.31	0.22												
France	114	5.62	2.27	0.21												
USA	119	7.73	2.23	0.20												
Gender																
Male	195	6.77	2.60	0.19	34	5.97	2.76	0.47	74	5.78	2.35	0.27	87	7.93	2.28	0.24
Female	142	5.85	2.16	0.18	70	5.53	2.03	0.24	40	5.33	2.12	0.33	32	7.19	2.01	0.35
Other	2	6.00	4.24	3.00	2	6.00	4.24	3.00								
Age																
18-24	107	6.39	2.30	0.22	16	6.31	2.33	0.58	60	5.60	2.11	0.27	31	7.97	1.85	0.33
25-34	139	6.96	2.65	0.22	44	6.18	2.68	0.40	34	5.91	2.53	0.43	61	8.10	2.26	0.29
35-44	61	5.44	2.13	0.27	34	5.09	1.78	0.31	12	5.33	2.71	0.78	15	6.33	2.23	0.57
45-54	23	5.83	2.27	0.47	10	4.80	1.55	0.49	4	5.00	1.83	0.91	9	7.33	2.45	0.82
55-64	7	5.14	2.04	0.77	2	4.00	0.00	0.00	3	5.33	2.52	1.45	2	6.00	2.83	2.00
65+	2	5.00	1.41	1.00					1	4.00			1	6.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	6.00	1.41	1.00									2	6.00	1.41	1.00
Secondary school	20	7.80	1.54	0.34	2	7.50	0.71	0.50	2	5.00	1.41	1.00	16	8.19	1.28	0.32
High school degree's or equivalent	36	7.64	2.17	0.36	3	7.00	3.00	1.73	3	9.67	1.53	0.88	30	7.50	2.10	0.38
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	6.76	2.57	0.26	43	5.72	2.15	0.33	12	6.25	2.56	0.74	43	7.93	2.52	0.38
Master's or equivalent	155	6.00	2.37	0.19	46	5.74	2.47	0.36	86	5.57	2.16	0.23	23	8.13	1.74	0.36
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	4.57	2.13	0.40	12	4.67	2.06	0.59	11	4.36	1.91	0.58	5	4.80	3.11	1.39
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	7.00	2.20	0.29	14	7.00	1.80	0.48	14	5.57	2.44	0.65	29	7.69	1.97	0.37
Working Full time	169	6.27	2.67	0.21	68	5.32	2.35	0.29	33	5.27	2.45	0.43	68	7.71	2.43	0.29
Part-time student & work	113	6.26	2.18	0.29	24	6.09	2.03	0.60	67	5.82	2.16	0.38	22	7.21	1.85	0.67
English Level																
Beginner	8	7.50	1.31	0.46	2	7.00	0.00	0.00	1	9.00			5	7.40	1.52	0.68
Intermediate	58	6.52	2.45	0.32	35	6.26	2.43	0.41	18	6.22	2.05	0.48	5	9.40	2.51	1.12
Advanced	126	5.92	2.33	0.21	41	5.44	2.39	0.37	61	5.36	2.00	0.26	24	8.17	1.66	0.34
Advanced	98	6.37	2.63	0.27	22	5.23	2.09	0.45	33	5.52	2.64	0.46	43	7.60	2.38	0.36
Native speaker	49	7.24	2.43	0.35	6	5.17	1.72	0.70	1	11.00			42	7.45	2.35	0.36
Employment status																
Not employed	21	7.00	2.43	0.53	13	7.23	2.83	0.79	2	4.50	0.71	0.50	6	7.33	1.21	0.49
Employed in the private sector	185	6.14	2.48	0.18	46	5.11	2.04	0.30	80	5.63	2.33	0.26	59	7.64	2.32	0.30
Employed in the public sector	49	7.08	2.56	0.37	10	6.00	2.49	0.79	12	6.75	2.86	0.83	27	7.63	2.37	0.46
Self-employed	58	6.76	2.36	0.31	28	5.71	2.05	0.39	4	5.75	2.36	1.18	26	8.04	2.11	0.41
Other	26	5.42	2.08	0.41	9	5.89	2.71	0.90	16	4.88	1.20	0.30	1	10.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	5.93	2.40	0.17	73	5.60	2.43	0.28	82	5.43	2.23	0.25	47	7.30	2.16	0.31
No	137	7.05	2.43	0.21	33	5.85	2.05	0.36	32	6.13	2.34	0.41	72	8.01	2.24	0.26

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Emotional Expressive)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	7.14	2.10	0.46	8	7.00	2.14	0.76	2	4.00	0.00	0.00	11	7.82	1.78	0.54
1-5 years	171	6.56	2.60	0.20	23	6.04	3.07	0.64	83	5.72	2.32	0.25	65	7.80	2.29	0.28
6-10 years	62	7.08	2.34	0.30	26	6.19	2.25	0.44	10	6.80	2.49	0.79	26	8.08	2.04	0.40
11-15 years	26	5.58	2.06	0.40	17	5.18	1.91	0.46	3	4.33	1.53	0.88	6	7.33	1.86	0.76
16-20 years	28	5.36	2.00	0.38	19	5.32	1.92	0.44	6	4.33	1.86	0.76	3	7.67	1.15	0.67
21-25 years	17	5.06	1.52	0.37	9	4.56	1.42	0.47	4	5.00	1.83	0.91	4	6.25	0.96	0.48
26-30 years	14	5.14	2.74	0.73	4	4.00	0.00	0.00	6	5.17	1.94	0.79	4	6.25	4.79	2.39
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	5.87	2.26	0.22	48	5.54	2.29	0.33	37	5.30	1.82	0.30	22	7.55	2.13	0.45
On a weekly basis	54	6.24	2.59	0.35	23	5.57	2.78	0.58	17	5.29	1.76	0.43	14	8.50	1.74	0.47
On a monthly basis	76	6.97	2.34	0.27	10	4.50	1.58	0.50	20	6.60	2.44	0.54	46	7.67	2.04	0.30
On a yearly basis	23	6.43	2.45	0.51	7	6.14	1.77	0.67	7	5.43	1.99	0.75	9	7.44	3.00	1.00
Almost never	79	6.58	2.70	0.30	18	6.67	2.00	0.47	33	5.61	2.82	0.49	28	7.68	2.58	0.49
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	7.43	2.38	0.52	3	5.33	2.31	1.33	1	8.00			17	7.76	2.33	0.57
Industry	56	6.57	2.37	0.32	3	4.33	0.58	0.33	36	6.00	1.97	0.33	17	8.18	2.51	0.61
Energy	21	6.52	2.56	0.56	2	5.50	2.12	1.50	7	4.29	2.14	0.81	12	8.00	1.81	0.52
Trade and Crafts	20	7.25	2.43	0.54	4	5.25	1.50	0.75	4	4.50	1.00	0.50	12	8.83	1.53	0.44
Tourism	9	5.56	1.81	0.60	7	5.43	1.99	0.75					2	6.00	1.41	1.00
Telecommunications	16	8.06	3.00	0.75	2	12.50	3.54	2.50	9	7.44	2.35	0.78	5	7.40	2.88	1.29
Research and Education	74	6.00	2.38	0.28	29	5.07	1.94	0.36	14	5.00	2.42	0.65	31	7.32	2.14	0.38
Finance and Insurance	51	6.65	2.55	0.36	12	5.92	2.64	0.76	20	5.95	2.48	0.55	19	7.84	2.22	0.51
Other	71	5.56	2.23	0.26	44	5.91	2.18	0.33	23	4.91	2.17	0.45	4	5.50	2.89	1.44
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	6.39	2.53	0.15	75	5.52	2.41	0.28	102	5.62	2.28	0.23	107	7.74	2.28	0.22
No	55	6.33	2.13	0.29	31	6.06	2.02	0.36	12	5.67	2.35	0.68	12	7.67	1.78	0.51
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	9.00	2.00	1.15	1	11.00							2	8.00	1.41	1.00
Not so Good Day	35	6.54	2.75	0.46	11	6.36	2.50	0.75	15	5.27	2.52	0.65	9	8.89	1.96	0.65
Good Day	222	6.13	2.38	0.16	81	5.56	2.24	0.25	84	5.69	2.20	0.24	57	7.60	2.27	0.30
Awesome Day	79	6.91	2.50	0.28	13	5.46	2.26	0.63	15	5.60	2.59	0.67	51	7.67	2.24	0.31

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Emotional Restraint)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	12.32	2.31	0.22												
France	114	12.38	2.27	0.21												
USA	119	10.27	2.23	0.20												
Gender																
Male	195	11.23	2.60	0.19	34	12.03	2.76	0.47	74	12.22	2.35	0.27	87	10.07	2.28	0.24
Female	142	12.15	2.16	0.18	70	12.47	2.03	0.24	40	12.68	2.12	0.33	32	10.81	2.01	0.35
Other	2	12.00	4.24	3.00	2	12.00	4.24	3.00								
Age																
18-24	107	11.61	2.30	0.22	16	11.69	2.33	0.58	60	12.40	2.11	0.27	31	10.03	1.85	0.33
25-34	139	11.04	2.65	0.22	44	11.82	2.68	0.40	34	12.09	2.53	0.43	61	9.90	2.26	0.29
35-44	61	12.56	2.13	0.27	34	12.91	1.78	0.31	12	12.67	2.71	0.78	15	11.67	2.23	0.57
45-54	23	12.17	2.27	0.47	10	13.20	1.55	0.49	4	13.00	1.83	0.91	9	10.67	2.45	0.82
55-64	7	12.86	2.04	0.77	2	14.00	0.00	0.00	3	12.67	2.52	1.45	2	12.00	2.83	2.00
65+	2	13.00	1.41	1.00					1	14.00			1	12.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	12.00	1.41	1.00									2	12.00	1.41	1.00
Secondary school	20	10.20	1.54	0.34	2	10.50	0.71	0.50	2	13.00	1.41	1.00	16	9.81	1.28	0.32
High school degree's or equivalent	36	10.36	2.17	0.36	3	11.00	3.00	1.73	3	8.33	1.53	0.88	30	10.50	2.10	0.38
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	11.24	2.57	0.26	43	12.28	2.15	0.33	12	11.75	2.56	0.74	43	10.07	2.52	0.38
Master's or equivalent	155	12.00	2.37	0.19	46	12.26	2.47	0.36	86	12.43	2.16	0.23	23	9.87	1.74	0.36
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	13.43	2.13	0.40	12	13.33	2.06	0.59	11	13.64	1.91	0.58	5	13.20	3.11	1.39
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	11.00	2.20	0.29	14	11.00	1.80	0.48	14	12.43	2.44	0.65	29	10.31	1.97	0.37
Working Full time	169	11.73	2.67	0.21	68	12.68	2.35	0.29	33	12.73	2.45	0.43	68	10.29	2.43	0.29
Part-time student & work	113	11.74	2.18	0.29	24	11.91	2.03	0.60	67	12.18	2.16	0.38	22	10.79	1.85	0.67
English Level																
Beginner	8	10.50	1.31	0.46	2	11.00	0.00	0.00	1	9.00			5	10.60	1.52	0.68
Intermediate	58	11.48	2.45	0.32	35	11.74	2.43	0.41	18	11.78	2.05	0.48	5	8.60	2.51	1.12
Advanced	126	12.08	2.33	0.21	41	12.56	2.39	0.37	61	12.64	2.00	0.26	24	9.83	1.66	0.34
Advanced	98	11.63	2.63	0.27	22	12.77	2.09	0.45	33	12.48	2.64	0.46	43	10.40	2.38	0.36
Native speaker	49	10.76	2.43	0.35	6	12.83	1.72	0.70	1	7.00			42	10.55	2.35	0.36
Employment status																
Not employed	21	11.00	2.43	0.53	13	10.77	2.83	0.79	2	13.50	0.71	0.50	6	10.67	1.21	0.49
Employed in the private sector	185	11.86	2.48	0.18	46	12.89	2.04	0.30	80	12.38	2.33	0.26	59	10.36	2.32	0.30
Employed in the public sector	49	10.92	2.56	0.37	10	12.00	2.49	0.79	12	11.25	2.86	0.83	27	10.37	2.37	0.46
Self-employed	58	11.24	2.36	0.31	28	12.29	2.05	0.39	4	12.25	2.36	1.18	26	9.96	2.11	0.41
Other	26	12.58	2.08	0.41	9	12.11	2.71	0.90	16	13.13	1.20	0.30	1	8.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	12.07	2.40	0.17	73	12.40	2.43	0.28	82	12.57	2.23	0.25	47	10.70	2.16	0.31
No	137	10.95	2.43	0.21	33	12.15	2.05	0.36	32	11.88	2.34	0.41	72	9.99	2.24	0.26

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Descriptive ICS by demographic information (Emotional Restraint)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	10.86	2.10	0.46	8	11.00	2.14	0.76	2	14.00	0.00	0.00	11	10.18	1.78	0.54
1-5 years	171	11.44	2.60	0.20	23	11.96	3.07	0.64	83	12.28	2.32	0.25	65	10.20	2.29	0.28
6-10 years	62	10.92	2.34	0.30	26	11.81	2.25	0.44	10	11.20	2.49	0.79	26	9.92	2.04	0.40
11-15 years	26	12.42	2.06	0.40	17	12.82	1.91	0.46	3	13.67	1.53	0.88	6	10.67	1.86	0.76
16-20 years	28	12.64	2.00	0.38	19	12.68	1.92	0.44	6	13.67	1.86	0.76	3	10.33	1.15	0.67
21-25 years	17	12.94	1.52	0.37	9	13.44	1.42	0.47	4	13.00	1.83	0.91	4	11.75	0.96	0.48
26-30 years	14	12.86	2.74	0.73	4	14.00	0.00	0.00	6	12.83	1.94	0.79	4	11.75	4.79	2.39
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	12.13	2.26	0.22	48	12.46	2.29	0.33	37	12.70	1.82	0.30	22	10.45	2.13	0.45
On a weekly basis	54	11.76	2.59	0.35	23	12.43	2.78	0.58	17	12.71	1.76	0.43	14	9.50	1.74	0.47
On a monthly basis	76	11.03	2.34	0.27	10	13.50	1.58	0.50	20	11.40	2.44	0.54	46	10.33	2.04	0.30
On a yearly basis	23	11.57	2.45	0.51	7	11.86	1.77	0.67	7	12.57	1.99	0.75	9	10.56	3.00	1.00
Almost never	79	11.42	2.70	0.30	18	11.33	2.00	0.47	33	12.39	2.82	0.49	28	10.32	2.58	0.49
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	10.57	2.38	0.52	3	12.67	2.31	1.33	1	10.00			17	10.24	2.33	0.57
Industry	56	11.43	2.37	0.32	3	13.67	0.58	0.33	36	12.00	1.97	0.33	17	9.82	2.51	0.61
Energy	21	11.48	2.56	0.56	2	12.50	2.12	1.50	7	13.71	2.14	0.81	12	10.00	1.81	0.52
Trade and Crafts	20	10.75	2.43	0.54	4	12.75	1.50	0.75	4	13.50	1.00	0.50	12	9.17	1.53	0.44
Tourism	9	12.44	1.81	0.60	7	12.57	1.99	0.75					2	12.00	1.41	1.00
Telecommunications	16	9.94	3.00	0.75	2	5.50	3.54	2.50	9	10.56	2.35	0.78	5	10.60	2.88	1.29
Research and Education	74	12.00	2.38	0.28	29	12.93	1.94	0.36	14	13.00	2.42	0.65	31	10.68	2.14	0.38
Finance and Insurance	51	11.35	2.55	0.36	12	12.08	2.64	0.76	20	12.05	2.48	0.55	19	10.16	2.22	0.51
Other	71	12.44	2.23	0.26	44	12.09	2.18	0.33	23	13.09	2.17	0.45	4	12.50	2.89	1.44
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	11.61	2.53	0.15	75	12.48	2.41	0.28	102	12.38	2.28	0.23	107	10.26	2.28	0.22
No	55	11.67	2.13	0.29	31	11.94	2.02	0.36	12	12.33	2.35	0.68	12	10.33	1.78	0.51
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	9.00	2.00	1.15	1	7.00							2	10.00	1.41	1.00
Not so Good Day	35	11.46	2.75	0.46	11	11.64	2.50	0.75	15	12.73	2.52	0.65	9	9.11	1.96	0.65
Good Day	222	11.87	2.38	0.16	81	12.44	2.24	0.25	84	12.31	2.20	0.24	57	10.40	2.27	0.30
Awesome Day	79	11.09	2.50	0.28	13	12.54	2.26	0.63	15	12.40	2.59	0.67	51	10.33	2.24	0.31

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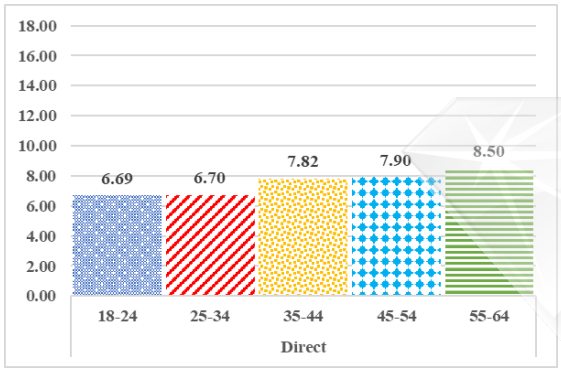
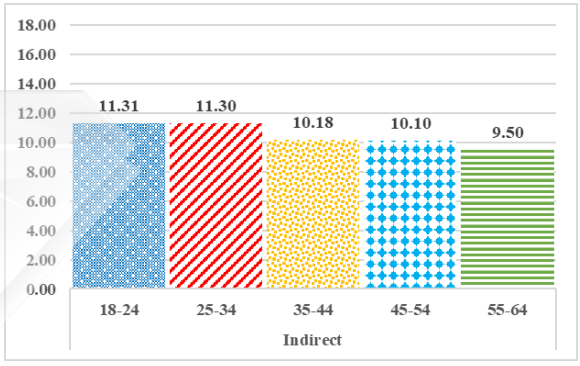
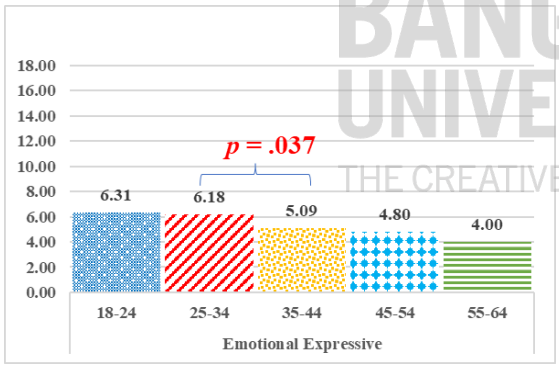
Appendix 9: The significant results on the difference between ICS and demographic information for three cultural types.

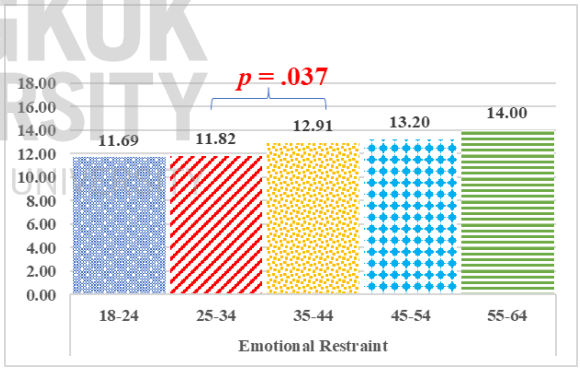
Type I (Thailand)

ICS by Age (Thailand, N=106)









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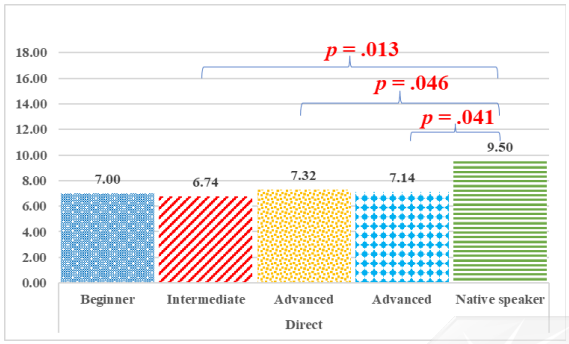
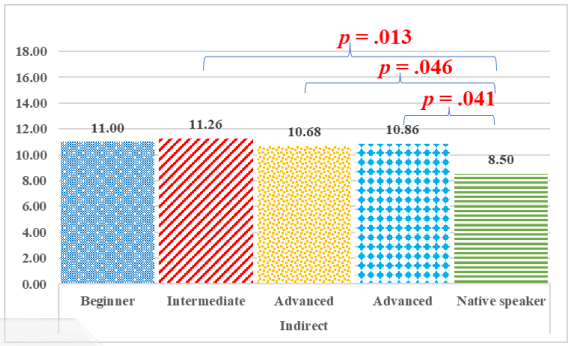
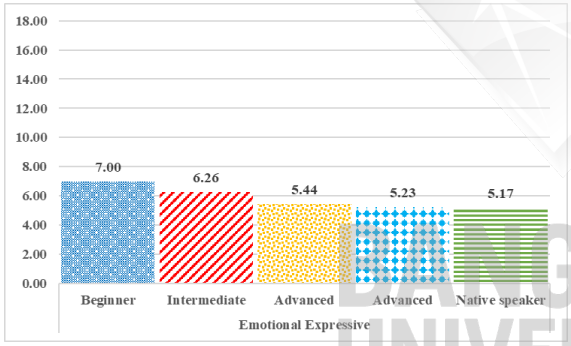
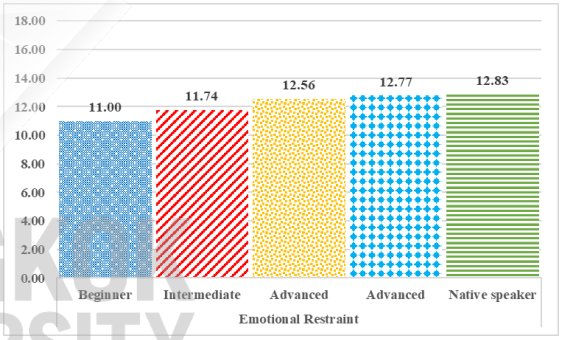
ICS by English Level (Thailand, N=106)









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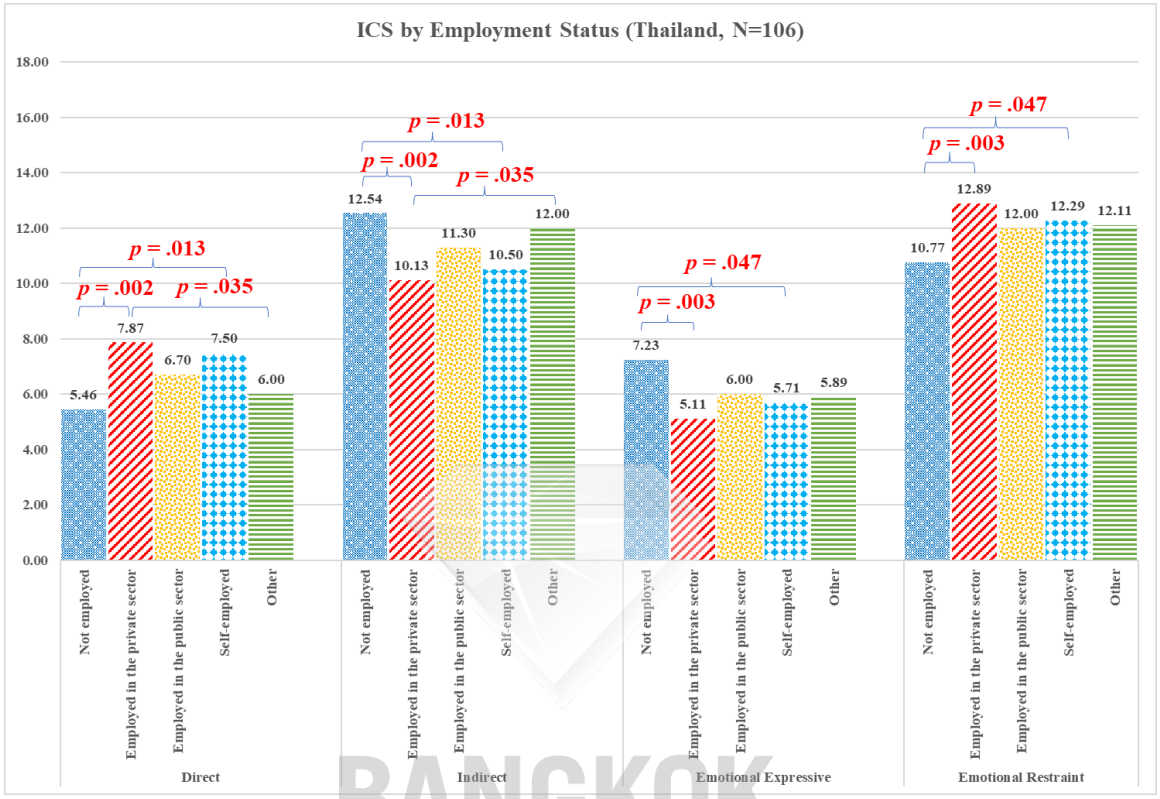

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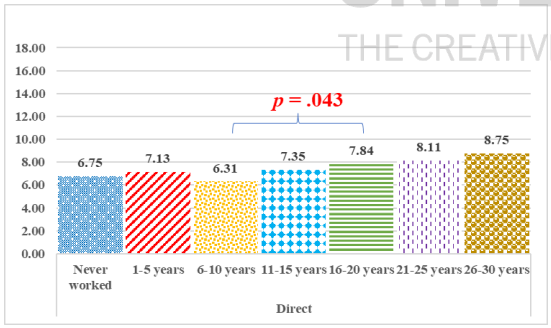
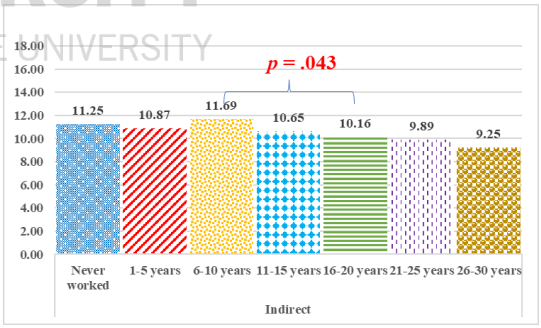
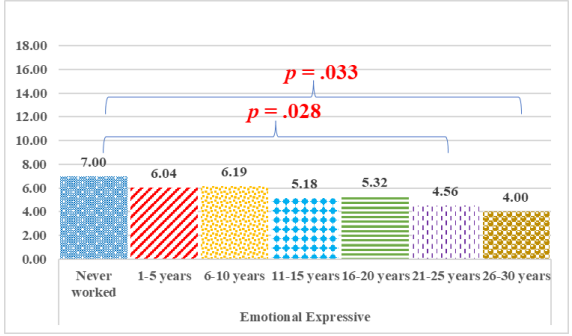
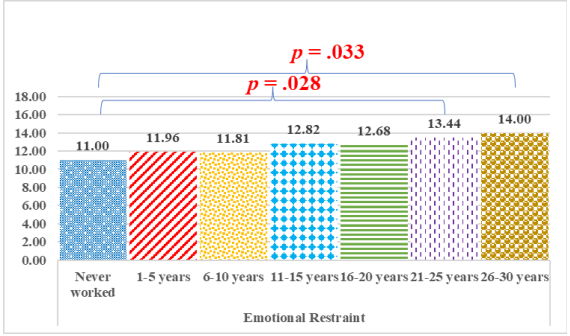
ICS by Work Experience (Thailand, N=106)

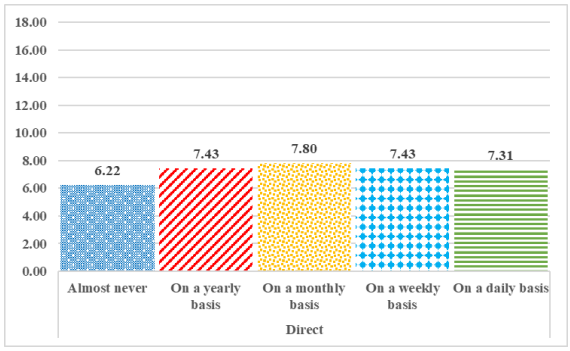


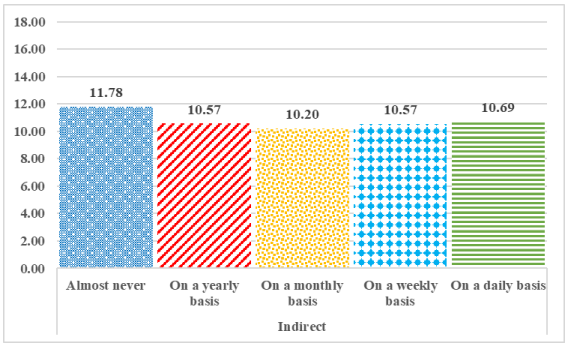


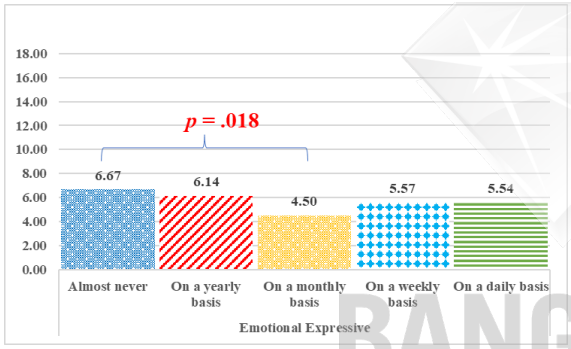


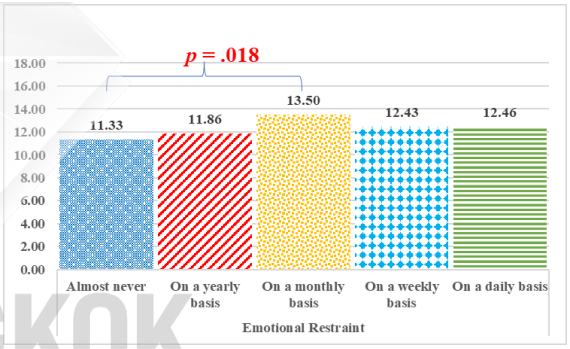


ICS by interaction with international colleagues (Thailand, N=106)









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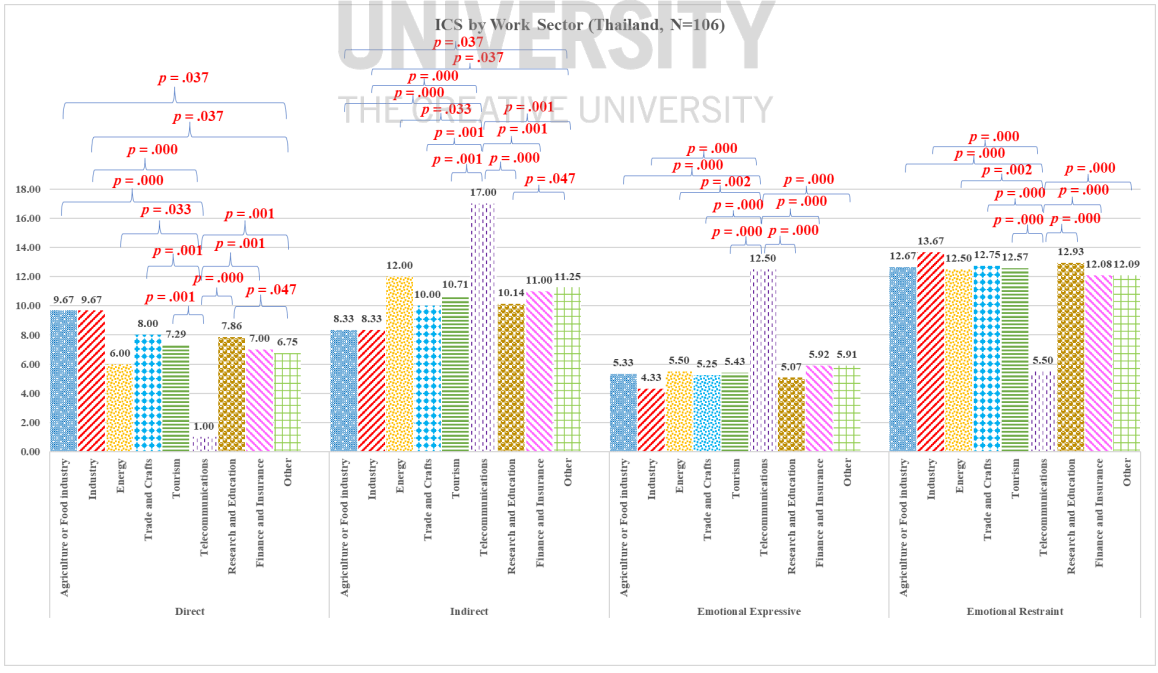

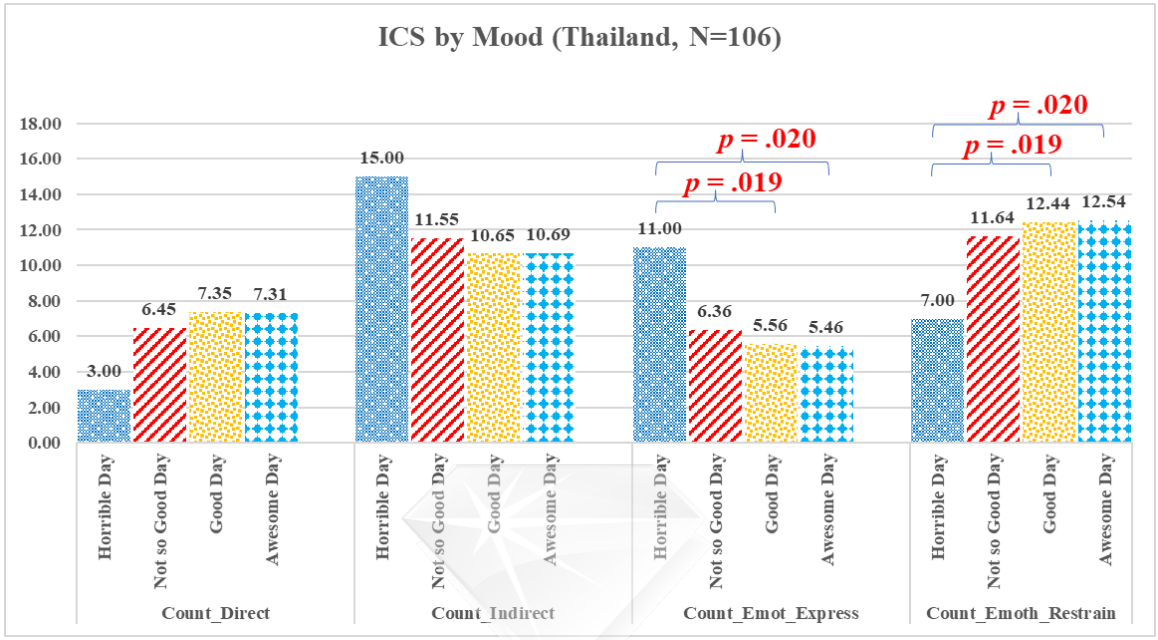

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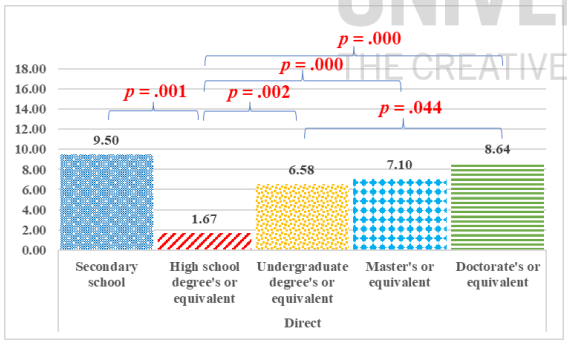
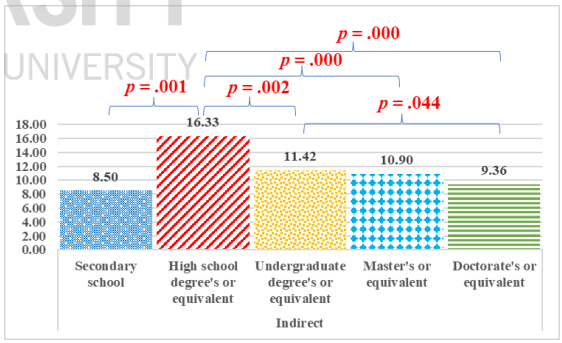
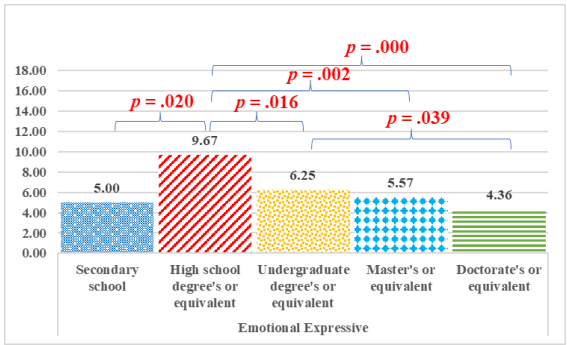
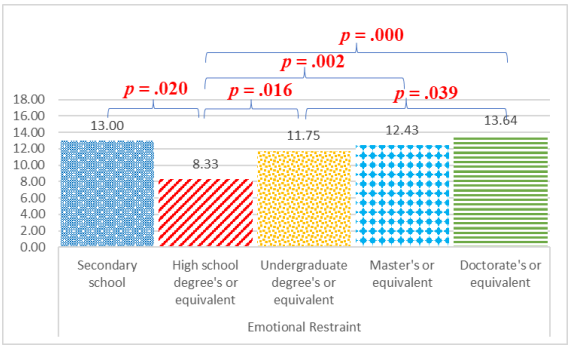
Type II (France)

ICS by Education Background (France, N=114)

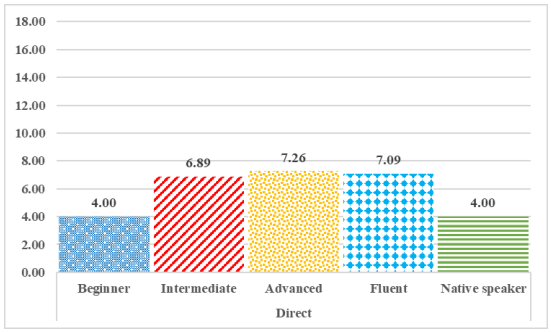


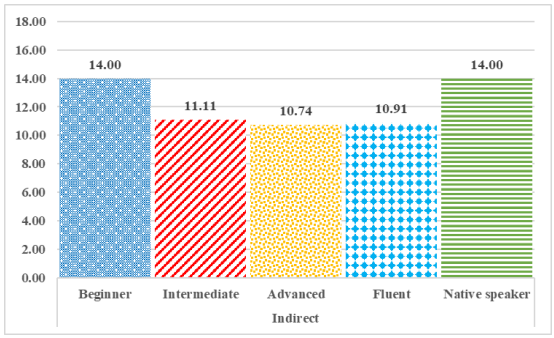


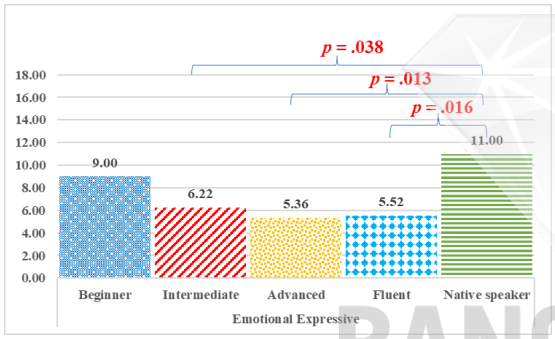


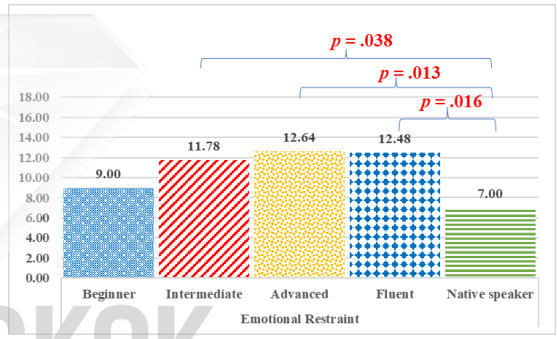


ICS by English Level (France, N=114)









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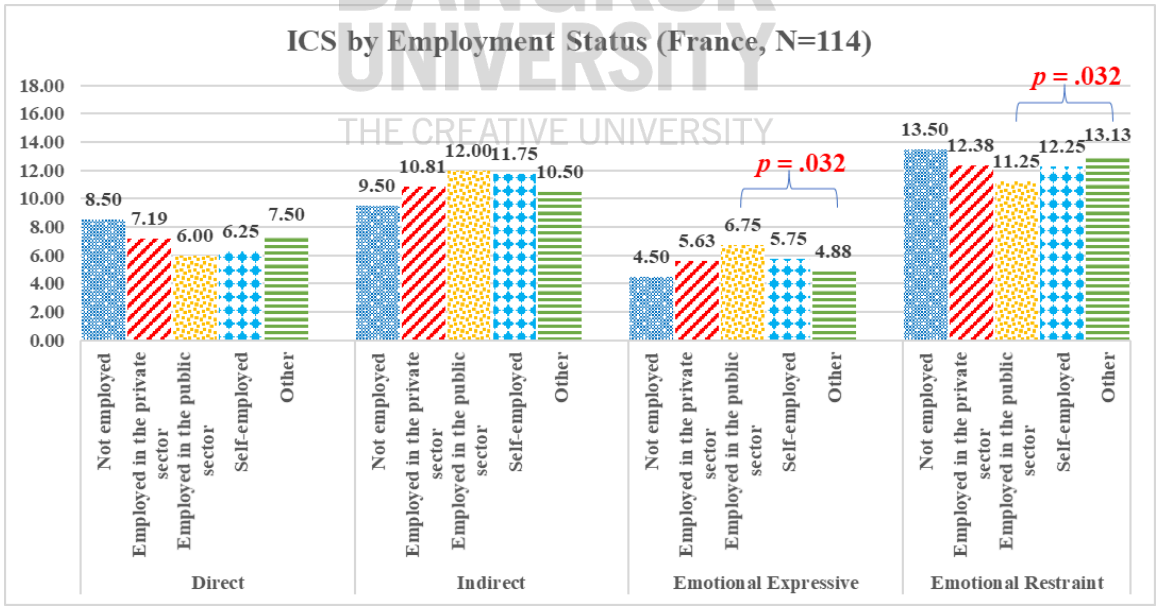
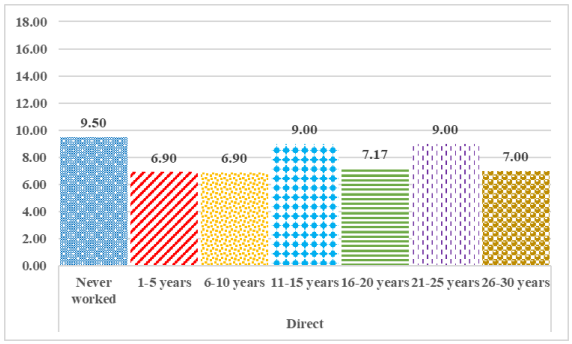
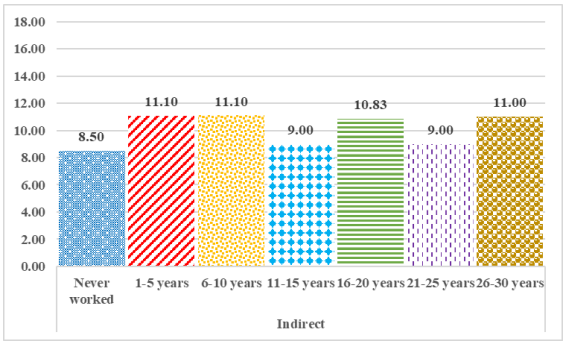
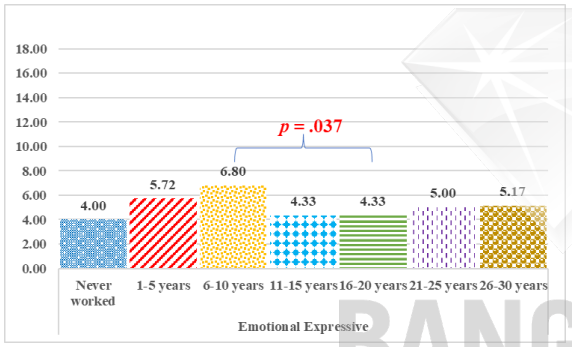
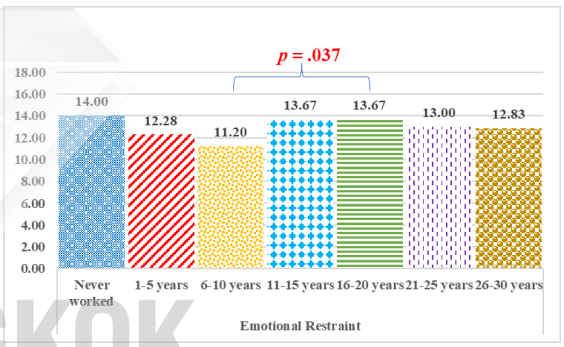


ICS by Work Experience (France, N=114)









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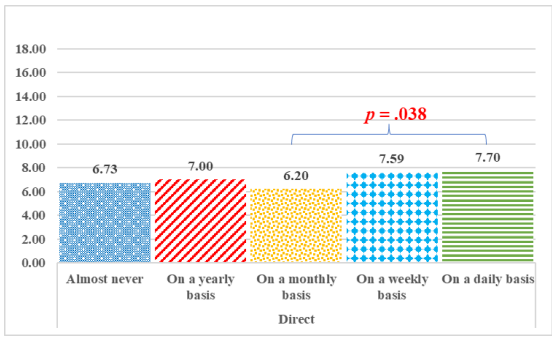
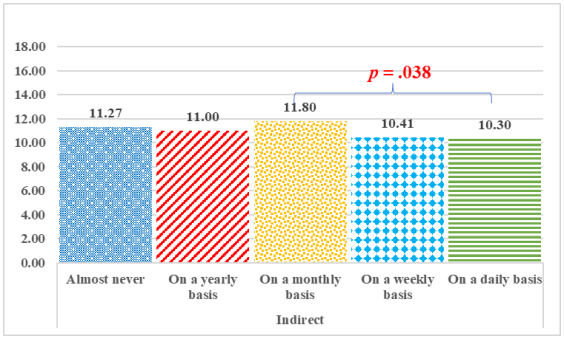
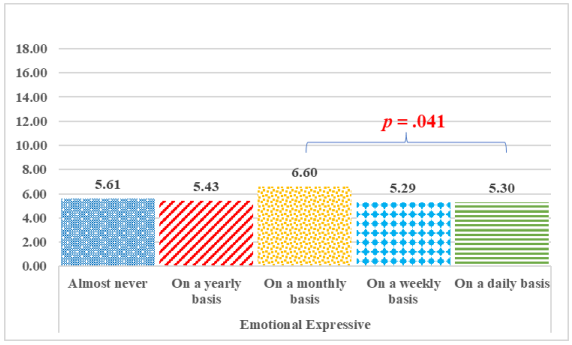
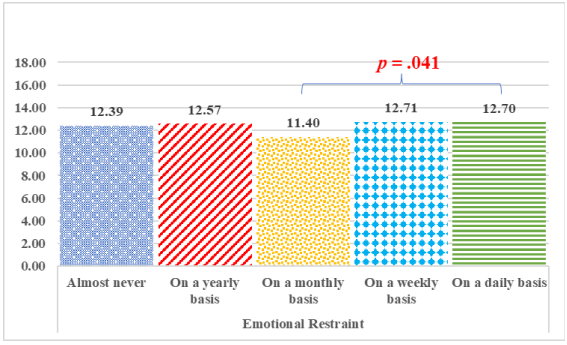
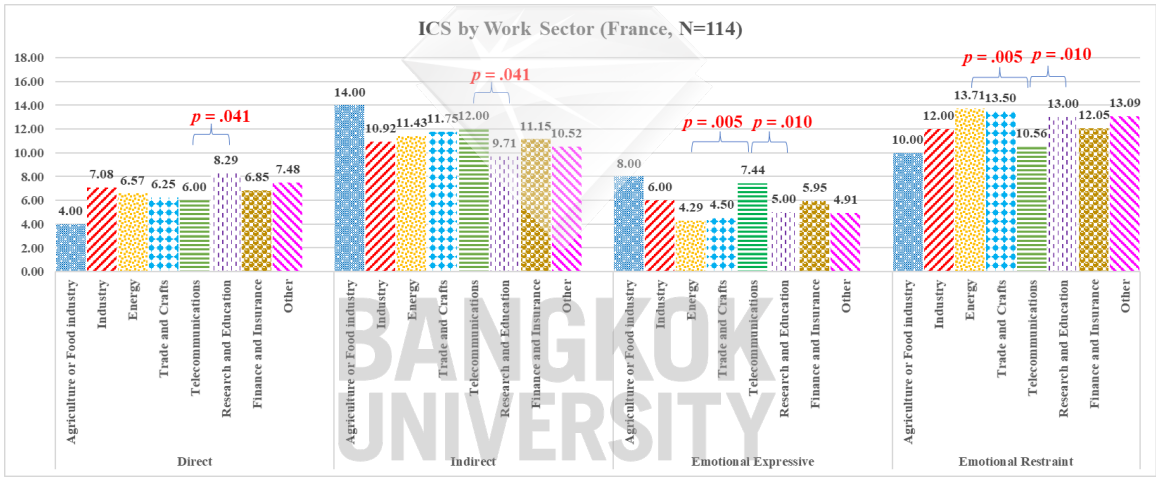
ICS by interaction with international colleagues (France, N=114)











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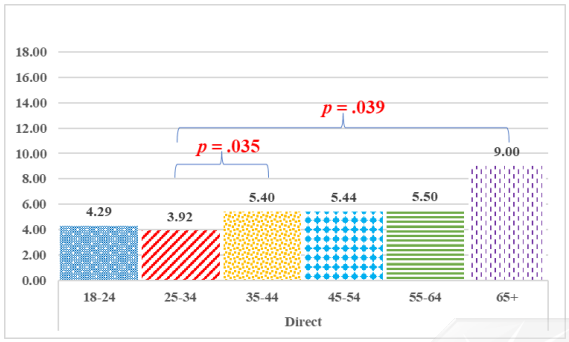
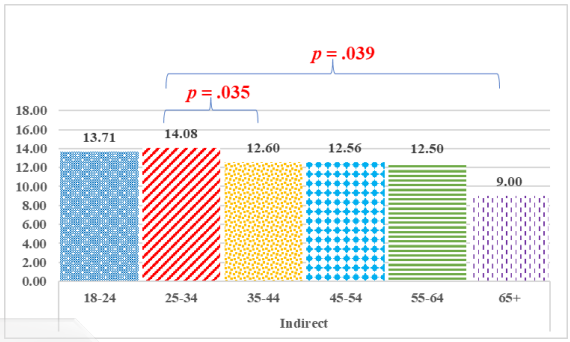
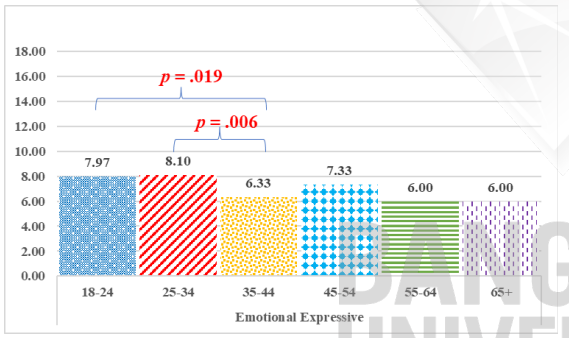
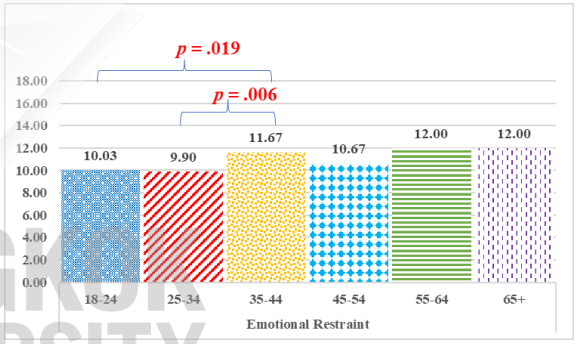
Type III (USA)

ICS by Age (USA, N=119)









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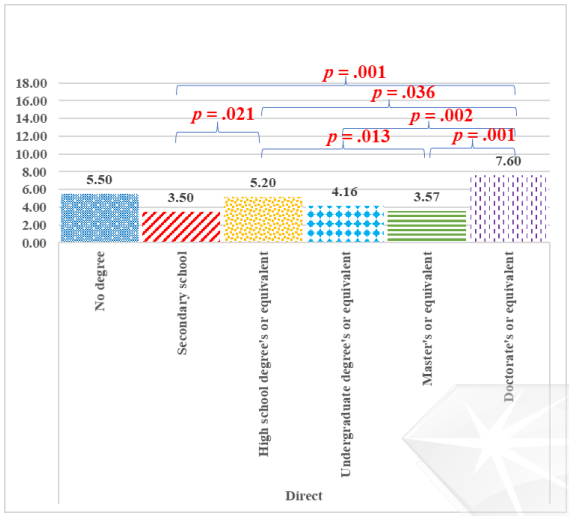
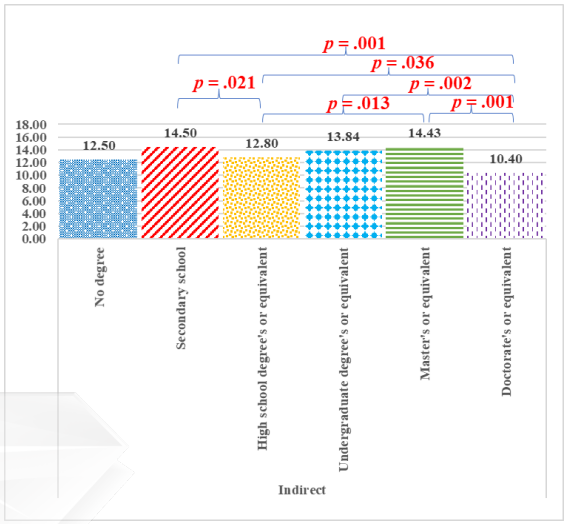
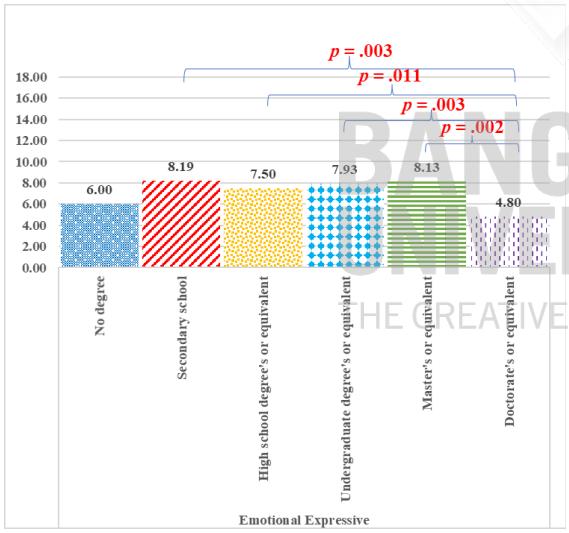
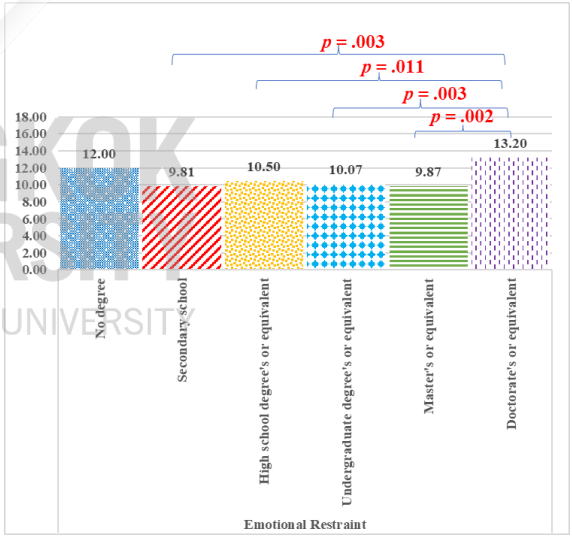
ICS by Educational Background (USA, N=119)









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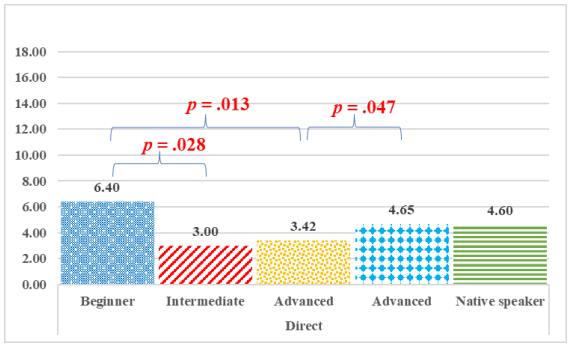
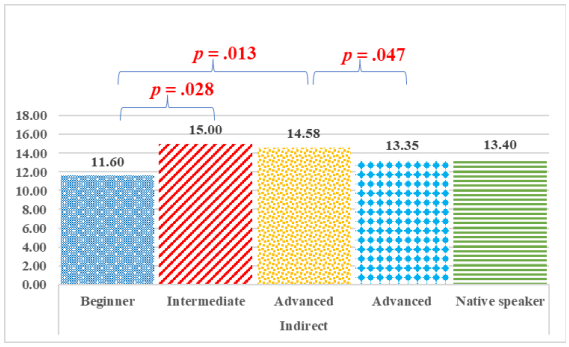
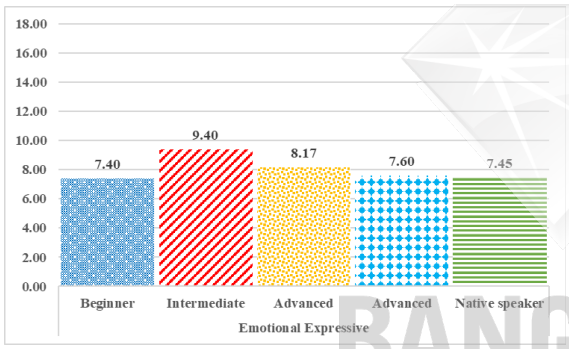
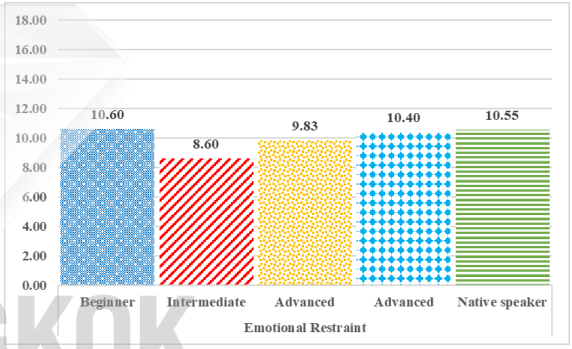
ICS by English Level (USA, N=119)









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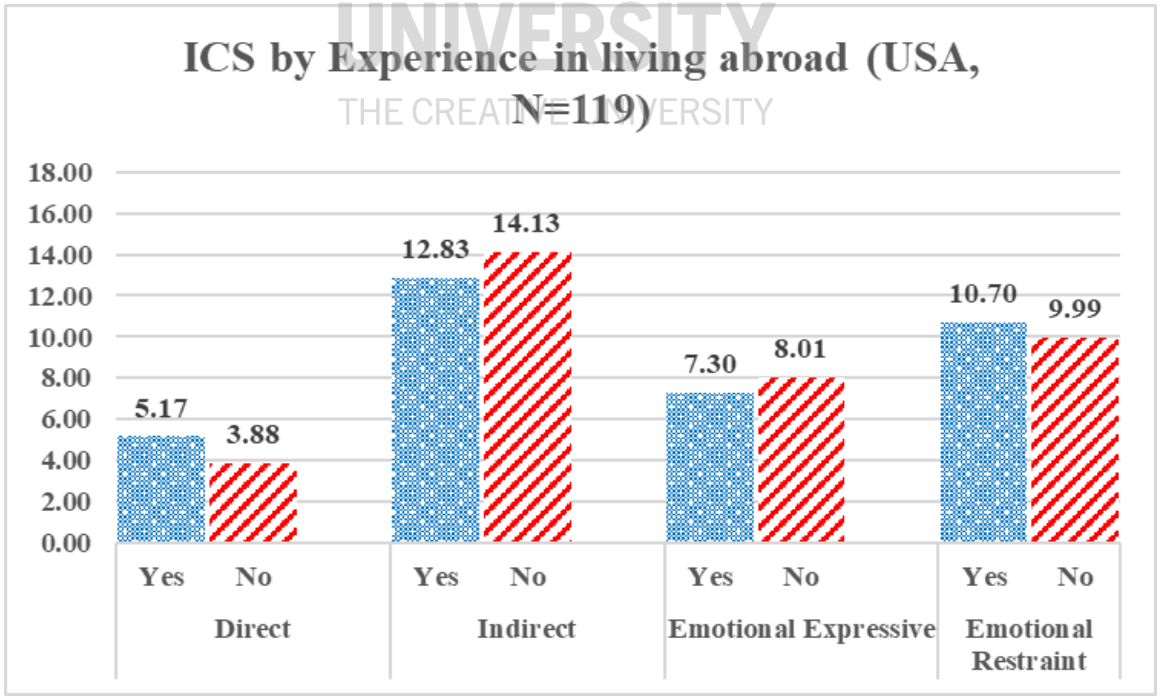
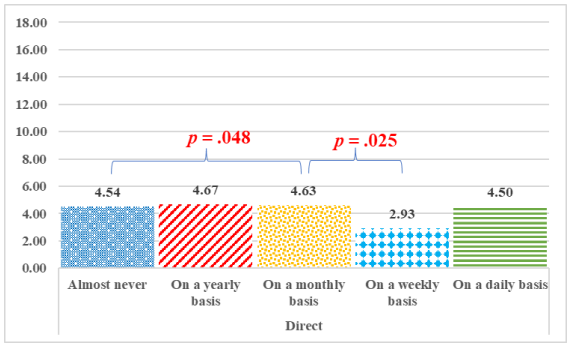
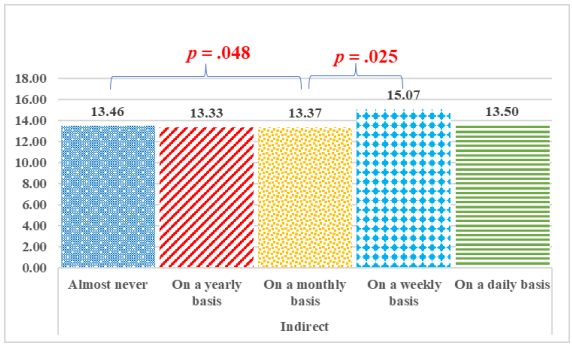
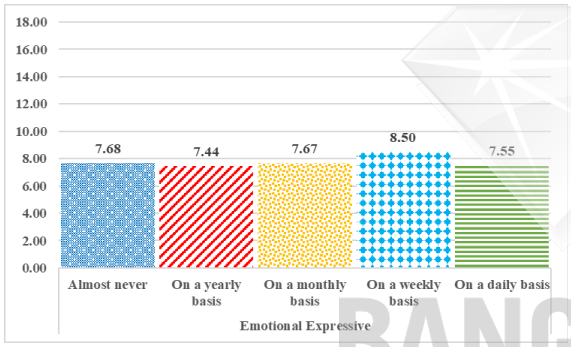
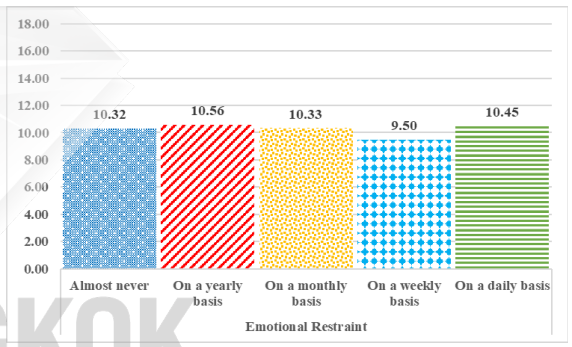


ICS by interaction with international colleagues (USA, N=119)









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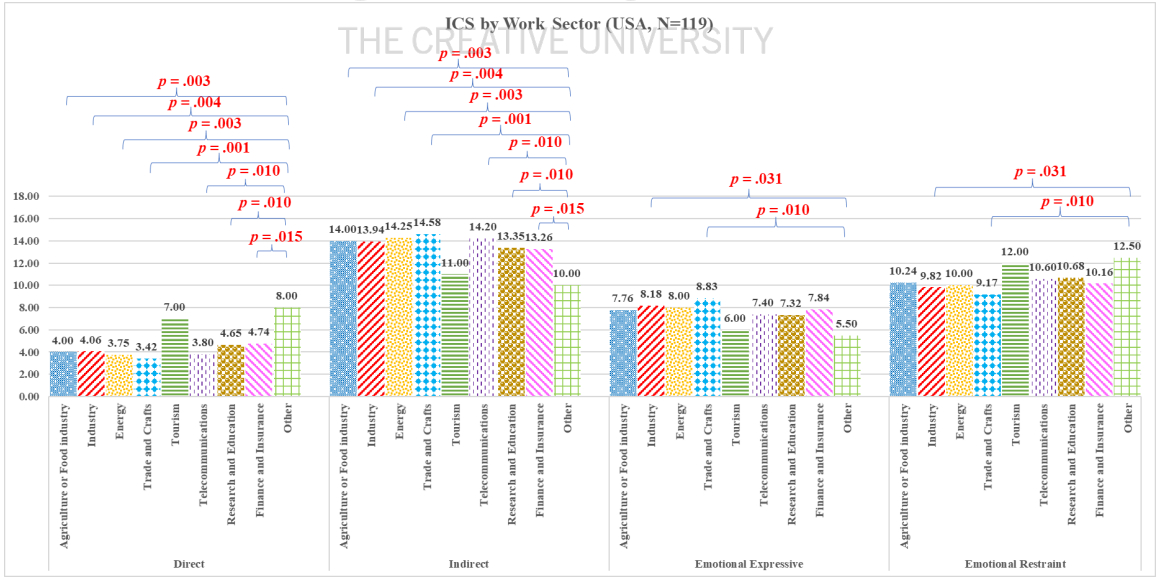

Appendix 10: Summarized means and SD of the adaptation on the use of Intercultural Conflict Resolution Behavior on demographic information

Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Direct Adaptation)																
	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	2.23	1.54	0.15												
France	114	2.39	1.85	0.17												
USA	119	1.82	1.43	0.13												
Gender																
Male	195	2.17	1.72	0.12	34	2.21	1.59	0.27	74	2.54	1.92	0.22	87	1.84	1.52	0.16
Female	142	2.08	1.51	0.13	70	2.21	1.55	0.19	40	2.13	1.70	0.27	32	1.75	1.14	0.20
Other	2	3.00	0.00	0.00	2	3.00	0.00	0.00								
Age																
18-24	107	2.07	1.56	0.15	16	2.44	1.26	0.32	60	2.27	1.73	0.22	31	1.52	1.23	0.22
25-34	139	2.03	1.64	0.14	44	1.98	1.55	0.23	34	2.35	2.07	0.36	61	1.89	1.43	0.18
35-44	61	2.21	1.64	0.21	34	2.18	1.62	0.28	12	3.00	1.76	0.51	15	1.67	1.45	0.37
45-54	23	2.83	1.85	0.39	10	3.30	1.49	0.47	4	3.25	2.63	1.31	9	2.11	1.83	0.61
55-64	7	1.86	0.90	0.34	2	1.50	0.71	0.50	3	1.67	1.15	0.67	2	2.50	0.71	0.50
65+	2	4.00	1.41	1.00					1	3.00			1	5.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	1.50	0.71	0.50									2	1.50	0.71	0.50
Secondary school	20	2.05	1.96	0.44	2	1.00	1.41	1.00	2	6.50	3.54	2.50	16	1.63	0.96	0.24
High school degree's or equivalent	36	1.56	1.38	0.23	3	1.67	2.08	1.20	3	0.33	0.58	0.33	30	1.67	1.35	0.25
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	2.19	1.62	0.16	43	2.44	1.40	0.21	12	2.42	2.19	0.63	43	1.88	1.62	0.25
Master's or equivalent	155	2.15	1.55	0.12	46	2.02	1.56	0.23	86	2.34	1.61	0.17	23	1.74	1.21	0.25
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	2.71	2.03	0.38	12	2.58	1.88	0.54	11	2.64	2.29	0.69	5	3.20	2.17	0.97
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	2.12	1.72	0.23	14	2.00	1.24	0.33	14	3.14	2.41	0.64	29	1.69	1.34	0.25
Working Full time	169	2.07	1.59	0.12	68	2.24	1.64	0.20	33	2.15	1.64	0.29	68	1.87	1.52	0.18
Part-time student & work	113	2.24	1.61	0.21	24	2.21	1.30	0.38	67	2.34	1.80	0.32	22	1.81	1.56	0.60
English Level																
Beginner	8	1.75	1.75	0.62	2	3.00	1.41	1.00	1	4.00			5	0.80	1.30	0.58
Intermediate	58	2.02	1.50	0.20	35	1.94	1.51	0.26	18	2.22	1.59	0.38	5	1.80	1.30	0.58
Advanced	126	2.21	1.68	0.15	41	2.24	1.55	0.24	61	2.38	1.89	0.24	24	1.75	1.22	0.25
Advanced	98	2.17	1.59	0.16	22	2.32	1.70	0.36	33	2.55	1.92	0.33	43	1.81	1.16	0.18
Native speaker	49	2.08	1.74	0.25	6	3.17	0.98	0.40	1	0.00			42	1.98	1.77	0.27
Employment status																
Not employed	21	2.14	1.24	0.27	13	2.08	1.26	0.35	2	1.50	0.71	0.50	6	2.50	1.38	0.56
Employed in the private sector	185	2.21	1.61	0.12	46	2.39	1.60	0.24	80	2.41	1.73	0.19	59	1.80	1.39	0.18
Employed in the public sector	49	1.73	1.68	0.24	10	1.30	1.70	0.54	12	1.83	2.17	0.63	27	1.85	1.46	0.28
Self-employed	58	2.22	1.60	0.21	28	2.50	1.48	0.28	4	3.75	1.71	0.85	26	1.69	1.54	0.30
Other	26	2.19	1.96	0.38	9	1.78	1.48	0.49	16	2.50	2.22	0.56	1	1.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	2.27	1.70	0.12	73	2.36	1.50	0.18	82	2.38	1.88	0.21	47	1.94	1.66	0.24
No	137	1.95	1.50	0.13	33	1.94	1.62	0.28	32	2.44	1.79	0.32	72	1.74	1.26	0.15

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Direct Adaptation)																
	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	1.52	1.47	0.32	8	2.00	1.69	0.60	2	2.50	2.12	1.50	11	1.00	1.10	0.33
1-5 years	171	2.15	1.59	0.12	23	2.43	1.67	0.35	83	2.28	1.81	0.20	65	1.89	1.19	0.15
6-10 years	62	1.98	1.64	0.21	26	1.92	1.20	0.23	10	2.10	2.33	0.74	26	2.00	1.79	0.35
11-15 years	26	2.08	1.65	0.32	17	1.94	1.56	0.38	3	4.33	1.15	0.67	6	1.33	1.21	0.49
16-20 years	28	2.29	1.56	0.29	19	2.37	1.64	0.38	6	2.50	1.38	0.56	3	1.33	1.53	0.88
21-25 years	17	2.82	1.88	0.46	9	2.56	1.67	0.56	4	5.00	0.82	0.41	4	1.25	0.96	0.48
26-30 years	14	2.57	1.95	0.52	4	3.25	2.06	1.03	6	1.67	1.03	0.42	4	3.25	2.75	1.38
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	2.29	1.58	0.15	48	2.27	1.44	0.21	37	2.57	1.82	0.30	22	1.86	1.42	0.30
On a weekly basis	54	2.20	1.61	0.22	23	2.48	1.50	0.31	17	2.41	2.00	0.49	14	1.50	1.02	0.27
On a monthly basis	76	1.99	1.82	0.21	10	2.40	2.22	0.70	20	2.10	1.97	0.44	46	1.85	1.69	0.25
On a yearly basis	23	1.96	1.46	0.30	7	2.00	1.41	0.53	7	2.14	2.04	0.77	9	1.78	1.09	0.36
Almost never	79	2.09	1.57	0.18	18	1.78	1.56	0.37	33	2.42	1.77	0.31	28	1.89	1.29	0.24
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	1.95	1.47	0.32	3	3.00	2.65	1.53	1	0.00			17	1.88	1.17	0.28
Industry	56	2.27	1.80	0.24	3	3.00	2.65	1.53	36	2.36	1.91	0.32	17	1.94	1.43	0.35
Energy	21	1.86	1.28	0.28	2	2.00	0.00	0.00	7	2.57	1.72	0.65	12	1.42	0.90	0.26
Trade and Crafts	20	2.10	1.33	0.30	4	2.00	1.15	0.58	4	1.75	0.50	0.25	12	2.25	1.60	0.46
Tourism	9	2.33	1.66	0.55	7	2.14	1.46	0.55					2	3.00	2.83	2.00
Telecommunications	16	1.19	1.33	0.33	2	0.00	0.00	0.00	9	1.56	1.42	0.47	5	1.00	1.22	0.55
Research and Education	74	2.24	1.86	0.22	29	2.48	1.55	0.29	14	3.00	2.66	0.71	31	1.68	1.56	0.28
Finance and Insurance	51	2.10	1.57	0.22	12	2.17	2.08	0.60	20	2.35	1.50	0.33	19	1.79	1.27	0.29
Other	71	2.30	1.53	0.18	44	2.11	1.32	0.20	23	2.61	1.75	0.37	4	2.50	2.52	1.26
Virtual Team experien																
Yes	284	2.17	1.64	0.10	75	2.23	1.54	0.18	102	2.46	1.84	0.18	107	1.85	1.45	0.14
No	55	1.98	1.58	0.21	31	2.23	1.59	0.28	12	1.83	1.90	0.55	12	1.50	1.17	0.34
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	1.67	0.58	0.33	1	1.00							2	2.00	0.00	0.00
Not so Good Day	35	2.71	2.01	0.34	11	2.27	1.01	0.30	15	3.40	2.53	0.65	9	2.11	1.76	0.59
Good Day	222	2.17	1.66	0.11	81	2.21	1.62	0.18	84	2.30	1.76	0.19	57	1.93	1.57	0.21
Awesome Day	79	1.81	1.28	0.14	13	2.38	1.56	0.43	15	1.93	1.16	0.30	51	1.63	1.22	0.17

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Indirect Adaptation)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	4.23	2.00	0.19												
France	114	3.96	1.93	0.18												
USA	119	4.45	1.59	0.15												
Gender																
Male	195	4.16	1.81	0.13	34	4.03	1.68	0.29	74	3.92	2.05	0.24	87	4.41	1.63	0.17
Female	142	4.27	1.86	0.16	70	4.27	2.08	0.25	40	4.03	1.70	0.27	32	4.56	1.52	0.27
Other	2	6.00	4.24	3.00	2	6.00	4.24	3.00								
Age																
18-24	107	4.34	1.82	0.18	16	4.06	1.98	0.50	60	4.17	1.89	0.24	31	4.81	1.56	0.28
25-34	139	4.33	1.73	0.15	44	4.52	1.90	0.29	34	3.94	1.86	0.32	61	4.41	1.51	0.19
35-44	61	4.08	1.99	0.25	34	4.24	2.08	0.36	12	3.33	2.27	0.66	15	4.33	1.45	0.37
45-54	23	3.52	2.31	0.48	10	3.10	2.23	0.71	4	2.75	2.63	1.31	9	4.33	2.29	0.76
55-64	7	4.14	0.90	0.34	2	4.50	0.71	0.50	3	4.33	1.15	0.67	2	3.50	0.71	0.50
65+	2	2.00	1.41	1.00					1	3.00			1	1.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	4.50	0.71	0.50									2	4.50	0.71	0.50
Secondary school	20	4.25	1.12	0.25	2	5.00	1.41	1.00	2	2.50	0.71	0.50	16	4.38	0.96	0.24
High school degree's or equivalent	36	4.94	1.80	0.30	3	4.33	2.08	1.20	3	5.67	0.58	0.33	30	4.93	1.87	0.34
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	4.19	1.79	0.18	43	3.88	1.87	0.28	12	4.75	2.26	0.65	43	4.35	1.53	0.23
Master's or equivalent	155	4.18	1.89	0.15	46	4.63	2.04	0.30	86	3.87	1.88	0.20	23	4.43	1.44	0.30
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	3.50	2.10	0.40	12	3.75	2.30	0.66	11	3.55	1.97	0.59	5	2.80	2.17	0.97
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	4.40	1.80	0.24	14	4.71	2.02	0.54	14	3.71	1.86	0.50	29	4.59	1.64	0.30
Working Full time	169	4.27	1.85	0.14	68	4.29	2.11	0.26	33	4.03	1.86	0.32	68	4.37	1.56	0.19
Part-time student & work	113	4.05	1.84	0.24	24	3.89	1.41	0.41	67	4.00	2.03	0.36	22	4.42	1.87	0.68
English Level																
Beginner	8	4.25	1.75	0.62	2	3.00	1.41	1.00	1	2.00			5	5.20	1.30	0.58
Intermediate	58	4.43	1.98	0.26	35	4.63	2.06	0.35	18	4.11	2.00	0.47	5	4.20	1.30	0.58
Advanced	126	4.17	1.90	0.17	41	4.39	2.07	0.32	61	3.95	1.96	0.25	24	4.33	1.34	0.27
Advanced	98	4.09	1.70	0.17	22	3.77	1.82	0.39	33	3.88	1.87	0.32	43	4.42	1.47	0.22
Native speaker	49	4.33	1.90	0.27	6	2.83	0.98	0.40	1	6.00			42	4.50	1.92	0.30
Employment status																
Not employed	21	4.43	1.94	0.42	13	4.85	2.19	0.61	2	4.50	0.71	0.50	6	3.50	1.38	0.56
Employed in the private sector	185	4.15	1.85	0.14	46	4.17	2.11	0.31	80	3.91	1.97	0.22	59	4.44	1.38	0.18
Employed in the public sector	49	4.47	1.73	0.25	10	5.30	2.06	0.65	12	4.33	1.78	0.51	27	4.22	1.55	0.30
Self-employed	58	4.09	1.97	0.26	28	3.57	1.60	0.30	4	2.25	1.71	0.85	26	4.92	2.04	0.40
Other	26	4.35	1.77	0.35	9	4.44	1.74	0.58	16	4.25	1.88	0.47	1	5.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	4.11	1.91	0.13	73	4.03	1.90	0.22	82	3.96	1.97	0.22	47	4.49	1.79	0.26
No	137	4.37	1.75	0.15	33	4.67	2.16	0.38	32	3.94	1.85	0.33	72	4.43	1.46	0.17

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	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	5.14	1.96	0.43	8	4.75	2.38	0.84	2	3.50	2.12	1.50	11	5.73	1.49	0.45
1-5 years	171	4.18	1.77	0.14	23	4.00	1.93	0.40	83	4.11	1.93	0.21	65	4.32	1.48	0.18
6-10 years	62	4.44	1.63	0.21	26	4.69	1.87	0.37	10	4.30	1.34	0.42	26	4.23	1.48	0.29
11-15 years	26	4.31	2.05	0.40	17	4.53	2.03	0.49	3	1.67	1.15	0.67	6	5.00	1.55	0.63
16-20 years	28	4.14	2.07	0.39	19	3.95	2.04	0.47	6	4.17	2.32	0.95	3	5.33	2.08	1.20
21-25 years	17	3.29	2.05	0.50	9	3.67	2.00	0.67	4	1.00	0.82	0.41	4	4.75	0.96	0.48
26-30 years	14	3.43	1.95	0.52	4	2.75	2.06	1.03	6	4.33	1.03	0.42	4	2.75	2.75	1.38
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	4.14	1.91	0.18	48	4.27	2.07	0.30	37	3.92	1.91	0.31	22	4.23	1.54	0.33
On a weekly basis	54	4.17	1.91	0.26	23	3.87	1.98	0.41	17	4.06	2.16	0.52	14	4.79	1.37	0.37
On a monthly basis	76	4.38	1.75	0.20	10	3.80	1.81	0.57	20	4.30	1.72	0.38	46	4.54	1.76	0.26
On a yearly basis	23	4.39	1.85	0.39	7	4.29	1.80	0.68	7	4.14	2.34	0.88	9	4.67	1.66	0.55
Almost never	79	4.14	1.84	0.21	18	4.78	2.05	0.48	33	3.70	1.93	0.34	28	4.25	1.48	0.28
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	4.24	1.70	0.37	3	3.00	2.65	1.53	1	6.00			17	4.35	1.50	0.36
Industry	56	4.09	1.98	0.26	3	3.00	2.65	1.53	36	4.14	2.11	0.35	17	4.18	1.59	0.39
Energy	21	4.24	1.41	0.31	2	4.00	0.00	0.00	7	3.43	1.72	0.65	12	4.75	1.14	0.33
Trade and Crafts	20	4.10	1.62	0.36	4	4.50	1.91	0.96	4	4.75	1.50	0.75	12	3.75	1.60	0.46
Tourism	9	3.67	1.66	0.55	7	3.86	1.46	0.55					2	3.00	2.83	2.00
Telecommunications	16	5.19	1.60	0.40	2	6.00	0.00	0.00	9	4.89	1.83	0.61	5	5.40	1.52	0.68
Research and Education	74	4.32	1.93	0.22	29	4.07	2.22	0.41	14	3.57	1.74	0.47	31	4.90	1.58	0.28
Finance and Insurance	51	4.25	1.83	0.26	12	4.50	2.20	0.63	20	3.95	1.90	0.43	19	4.42	1.54	0.35
Other	71	4.04	1.95	0.23	44	4.39	1.91	0.29	23	3.48	1.88	0.39	4	3.50	2.52	1.26
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	4.21	1.85	0.11	75	4.31	2.04	0.24	102	3.91	1.91	0.19	107	4.43	1.62	0.16
No	55	4.24	1.83	0.25	31	4.03	1.91	0.34	12	4.33	2.06	0.59	12	4.67	1.37	0.40
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	5.00	1.73	1.00	1	7.00							2	4.00	0.00	0.00
Not so Good Day	35	3.63	1.93	0.33	11	3.73	1.01	0.30	15	3.40	2.53	0.65	9	3.89	1.76	0.59
Good Day	222	4.21	1.90	0.13	81	4.36	2.13	0.24	84	3.99	1.87	0.20	57	4.32	1.58	0.21
Awesome Day	79	4.47	1.61	0.18	13	3.62	1.56	0.43	15	4.33	1.54	0.40	51	4.73	1.59	0.22

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Emotional Expressive Adaptation)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	2.89	1.95	0.19												
France	114	2.55	1.58	0.15												
USA	119	3.01	1.85	0.17												
Gender																
Male	195	2.76	1.74	0.12	34	2.97	2.05	0.35	74	2.49	1.58	0.18	87	2.92	1.73	0.19
Female	142	2.86	1.82	0.15	70	2.79	1.78	0.21	40	2.68	1.59	0.25	32	3.25	2.16	0.38
Other	2	5.00	5.66	4.00	2	5.00	5.66	4.00								
Age																
18-24	107	2.99	1.69	0.16	16	3.06	2.14	0.54	60	2.87	1.60	0.21	31	3.19	1.62	0.29
25-34	139	3.06	1.99	0.17	44	3.45	2.07	0.31	34	2.38	1.65	0.28	61	3.15	2.03	0.26
35-44	61	2.49	1.31	0.17	34	2.44	1.37	0.24	12	2.17	1.11	0.32	15	2.87	1.30	0.34
45-54	23	1.91	1.93	0.40	10	1.80	2.30	0.73	4	1.50	1.29	0.65	9	2.22	1.86	0.62
55-64	7	2.00	1.29	0.49	2	2.00	0.00	0.00	3	2.00	1.00	0.58	2	2.00	2.83	2.00
65+	2	0.00	0.00	0.00					1	0.00			1	0.00		
Total	339	2.82	1.80	0.10	106	2.89	1.95	0.19	114	2.55	1.58	0.15	119	3.01	1.85	0.17
Educational Background																
No degree	2	4.00	1.41	1.00									2	4.00	1.41	1.00
Secondary school	20	3.40	1.93	0.43	2	5.50	0.71	0.50	2	2.00	0.00	0.00	16	3.31	1.96	0.49
High school degree's or equivalent	36	2.86	1.57	0.26	3	4.33	2.08	1.20	3	1.00	1.00	0.58	30	2.90	1.42	0.26
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	3.12	1.99	0.20	43	2.84	2.09	0.32	12	3.25	1.42	0.41	43	3.37	2.01	0.31
Master's or equivalent	155	2.70	1.76	0.14	46	2.96	1.91	0.28	86	2.59	1.65	0.18	23	2.57	1.85	0.39
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	1.86	1.15	0.22	12	2.00	1.04	0.30	11	2.00	1.00	0.30	5	1.20	1.64	0.73
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	2.89	1.61	0.21	14	3.57	1.95	0.52	14	2.71	1.49	0.40	29	2.66	1.45	0.27
Working Full time	169	2.79	1.85	0.14	68	2.74	1.91	0.23	33	2.18	1.29	0.22	68	3.15	1.96	0.24
Part-time student & work	113	2.84	1.78	0.24	24	3.09	1.79	0.52	67	2.76	1.70	0.30	22	2.82	2.13	0.75
English Level																
Beginner	8	2.5	1.31	0.46	2	3.00	2.83	2.00	1	1.00			5	2.60	0.55	0.24
Intermediate	58	3.14	2.16	0.28	35	3.40	2.32	0.39	18	2.67	1.75	0.41	5	3.00	2.55	1.14
Advanced	126	2.79	1.72	0.15	41	3.00	1.92	0.30	61	2.70	1.61	0.21	24	2.67	1.69	0.34
Advanced	98	2.82	1.80	0.18	22	2.05	1.17	0.25	33	2.24	1.46	0.25	43	3.65	1.97	0.30
Native speaker	49	2.55	1.61	0.23	6	2.17	0.75	0.31	1	3.00			42	2.60	1.71	0.26
Employment status																
Not employed	21	3.38	2.13	0.47	13	3.69	2.36	0.65	2	4.50	0.71	0.50	6	2.33	1.63	0.67
Employed in the private sector	185	2.90	1.84	0.14	46	2.85	1.80	0.27	80	2.50	1.65	0.18	59	3.47	1.99	0.26
Employed in the public sector	49	2.51	1.62	0.23	10	2.80	1.81	0.57	12	2.25	0.87	0.25	27	2.52	1.83	0.35
Self-employed	58	2.62	1.77	0.23	28	2.79	2.06	0.39	4	1.25	1.50	0.75	26	2.65	1.38	0.27
Other	26	2.81	1.60	0.31	9	2.33	1.94	0.65	16	3.13	1.41	0.35	1	2.00		
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	2.68	1.74	0.12	73	2.59	1.71	0.20	82	2.45	1.66	0.18	47	3.21	1.86	0.27
No	137	3.02	1.88	0.16	33	3.55	2.29	0.40	32	2.81	1.35	0.24	72	2.88	1.85	0.22

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Emotional Expressive Adaptation)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Working experience																
Never worked	21	3.43	2.16	0.47	8	4.50	3.07	1.09	2	3.00	1.41	1.00	11	2.73	1.01	0.30
1-5 years	171	2.89	1.79	0.14	23	3.09	2.00	0.42	83	2.66	1.63	0.18	65	3.12	1.89	0.23
6-10 years	62	3.27	1.76	0.22	26	3.27	1.76	0.34	10	2.60	1.71	0.54	26	3.54	1.77	0.35
11-15 years	26	2.42	1.47	0.29	17	2.47	1.07	0.26	3	1.67	2.08	1.20	6	2.67	2.25	0.92
16-20 years	28	2.36	1.64	0.31	19	2.37	1.89	0.43	6	2.67	0.82	0.33	3	1.67	1.15	0.67
21-25 years	17	2.00	1.80	0.44	9	2.33	2.18	0.73	4	1.50	1.29	0.65	4	1.75	1.50	0.75
26-30 years	14	1.57	1.50	0.40	4	1.50	1.00	0.50	6	1.83	1.17	0.48	4	1.25	2.50	1.25
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	2.65	1.72	0.17	48	2.79	1.92	0.28	37	2.43	1.56	0.26	22	2.73	1.52	0.32
On a weekly basis	54	2.91	1.73	0.24	23	2.52	1.75	0.37	17	2.94	1.56	0.38	14	3.50	1.83	0.49
On a monthly basis	76	2.55	1.59	0.18	10	2.50	1.84	0.58	20	2.40	1.23	0.28	46	2.63	1.70	0.25
On a yearly basis	23	2.52	1.97	0.41	7	2.43	2.07	0.78	7	2.29	1.25	0.47	9	2.78	2.49	0.83
Almost never	79	3.32	2.03	0.23	18	4.00	2.06	0.49	33	2.64	1.88	0.33	28	3.68	2.00	0.38
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	3.43	2.29	0.50	3	3.33	4.16	2.40	1	4.00			17	3.41	2.09	0.51
Industry	56	3.04	1.90	0.25	3	1.67	1.53	0.88	36	2.67	1.55	0.26	17	4.06	2.25	0.55
Energy	21	2.90	1.73	0.38	2	3.50	2.12	1.50	7	2.29	1.38	0.52	12	3.17	1.90	0.55
Trade and Crafts	20	2.75	1.52	0.34	4	2.75	0.96	0.48	4	3.50	1.91	0.96	12	2.50	1.57	0.45
Tourism	9	1.78	1.39	0.46	7	2.00	1.53	0.58					2	1.00	0.00	0.00
Telecommunications	16	3.69	1.82	0.45	2	6.50	0.71	0.50	9	3.44	1.42	0.47	5	3.00	1.87	0.84
Research and Education	74	2.46	1.48	0.17	29	2.59	1.70	0.32	14	2.00	0.88	0.23	31	2.55	1.48	0.27
Finance and Insurance	51	2.88	1.91	0.27	12	3.08	2.47	0.71	20	2.45	1.73	0.39	19	3.21	1.72	0.39
Other	71	2.72	1.85	0.22	44	3.05	1.85	0.28	23	2.30	1.82	0.38	4	1.50	1.29	0.65
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	2.74	1.77	0.11	75	2.88	1.95	0.23	102	2.48	1.54	0.15	107	2.90	1.83	0.18
No	55	3.20	1.93	0.26	31	2.90	1.97	0.35	12	3.17	1.85	0.53	12	4.00	1.81	0.52
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	3.67	3.06	1.76	1	7.00							2	2.00	1.41	1.00
Not so Good Day	35	2.49	1.74	0.29	11	2.18	1.54	0.46	15	2.33	1.68	0.43	9	3.11	2.09	0.70
Good Day	222	2.82	1.84	0.12	81	2.96	2.02	0.22	84	2.60	1.55	0.17	57	2.96	1.96	0.26
Awesome Day	79	2.91	1.70	0.19	13	2.69	1.49	0.41	15	2.53	1.77	0.46	51	3.08	1.73	0.24

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Emotional Restraint Adaptation)

	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Cultural Types																
Thailand	106	3.47	1.67	0.16												
France	114	3.62	1.84	0.17												
USA	119	3.14	1.93	0.18												
Gender																
Male	195	3.44	1.88	0.13	34	3.50	1.80	0.31	74	3.76	1.91	0.22	87	3.15	1.85	0.20
Female	142	3.35	1.77	0.15	70	3.44	1.63	0.19	40	3.38	1.67	0.26	32	3.13	2.17	0.38
Other	2	4.00	1.41	1.00	2	4.00	1.41	1.00								
Age																
18-24	107	3.16	1.61	0.16	16	3.31	1.45	0.36	60	3.23	1.77	0.23	31	2.94	1.36	0.25
25-34	139	3.23	2.02	0.17	44	3.05	1.76	0.27	34	3.97	2.08	0.36	61	2.95	2.09	0.27
35-44	61	3.67	1.59	0.20	34	3.62	1.48	0.25	12	4.00	1.41	0.41	15	3.53	2.00	0.52
45-54	23	4.52	1.75	0.37	10	5.00	1.56	0.49	4	4.50	1.29	0.65	9	4.00	2.12	0.71
55-64	7	4.00	1.29	0.49	2	4.00	0.00	0.00	3	4.00	1.00	0.58	2	4.00	2.83	2.00
65+	2	6.00	0.00	0.00					1	6.00			1	6.00		
Educational Background																
No degree	2	2.00	1.41	1.00									2	2.00	1.41	1.00
Secondary school	20	3.00	2.27	0.51	2	0.50	0.71	0.50	2	6.00	2.83	2.00	16	2.94	1.98	0.50
High school degree's or equivalent	36	3.25	1.76	0.29	3	1.67	2.08	1.20	3	5.00	1.00	0.58	30	3.23	1.68	0.31
Undergraduate degree's or equivalent	98	3.18	1.82	0.18	43	3.58	1.43	0.22	12	3.25	2.30	0.66	43	2.77	1.96	0.30
Master's or equivalent	155	3.50	1.82	0.15	46	3.43	1.78	0.26	86	3.52	1.82	0.20	23	3.52	1.97	0.41
Doctorate's or equivalent	28	4.29	1.36	0.26	12	4.17	1.34	0.39	11	4.00	1.00	0.30	5	5.20	1.92	0.86
Student and working professional status																
Full time student	57	3.39	1.70	0.22	14	2.86	1.17	0.31	14	3.86	2.28	0.61	29	3.41	1.57	0.29
Part-time student	54	2.76	1.81	0.25	10	1.90	1.73	0.55	27	3.00	1.84	0.35	17	2.88	1.76	0.43
Working Full time	169	3.48	1.82	0.14	68	3.71	1.64	0.20	33	3.88	1.39	0.24	68	3.06	2.09	0.25
Part-time student & work	113	3.29	1.84	0.24	24	2.99	1.61	0.47	67	3.38	1.90	0.33	22	3.24	2.03	0.73
English Level																
Beginner	8	3.5	1.31	0.46	2	3.00	2.83	2.00	1	5.00			5	3.40	0.55	0.24
Intermediate	58	3.31	1.99	0.26	35	3.29	2.01	0.34	18	3.44	1.92	0.45	5	3.00	2.55	1.14
Advanced	126	3.41	1.77	0.16	41	3.34	1.64	0.26	61	3.46	1.86	0.24	24	3.42	1.82	0.37
Advanced	98	3.39	1.90	0.19	22	3.95	1.17	0.25	33	4.00	1.79	0.31	43	2.63	2.05	0.31
Native speaker	49	3.53	1.73	0.25	6	3.83	0.75	0.31	1	3.00			42	3.50	1.85	0.29
Employment status																
Not employed	21	3.10	1.70	0.37	13	2.92	1.44	0.40	2	1.50	0.71	0.50	6	4.00	2.10	0.86
Employed in the private sector	185	3.35	1.93	0.14	46	3.59	1.71	0.25	80	3.65	1.86	0.21	59	2.76	2.09	0.27
Employed in the public sector	49	3.53	1.68	0.24	10	3.20	1.81	0.57	12	3.75	0.87	0.25	27	3.56	1.93	0.37
Self-employed	58	3.48	1.55	0.20	28	3.43	1.67	0.31	4	4.75	1.50	0.75	26	3.35	1.38	0.27
Other	26	3.65	2.02	0.40	9	4.11	1.69	0.56	16	3.38	2.25	0.56	1	4.00		

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Descriptive Adaptation on the use of ICS by demographic information (Emotional Restraint Adaptation)																
	All respondents (N=339)				Thai respondents (N=106)				French respondents (N=114)				American respondents (N=119)			
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Experience in living abroad																
Yes	202	3.48	1.81	0.13	73	3.58	1.55	0.18	82	3.72	1.89	0.21	47	2.91	1.94	0.28
No	137	3.30	1.85	0.16	33	3.24	1.90	0.33	32	3.38	1.70	0.30	72	3.29	1.92	0.23
Working experience																
Never worked	21	3.05	1.36	0.30	8	2.75	1.83	0.65	2	3.00	1.41	1.00	11	3.27	1.01	0.30
1-5 years	171	3.29	1.81	0.14	23	3.26	1.32	0.28	83	3.48	1.85	0.20	65	3.06	1.89	0.24
6-10 years	62	3.02	2.04	0.26	26	3.12	1.90	0.37	10	4.00	2.45	0.77	26	2.54	1.92	0.38
11-15 years	26	3.73	1.71	0.34	17	3.53	1.07	0.26	3	5.00	2.65	1.53	6	3.67	2.66	1.09
16-20 years	28	3.79	1.26	0.24	19	3.84	1.38	0.32	6	3.33	0.82	0.33	3	4.33	1.15	0.67
21-25 years	17	4.47	2.24	0.54	9	4.33	2.78	0.93	4	4.50	1.29	0.65	4	4.75	2.06	1.03
26-30 years	14	4.43	1.50	0.40	4	4.50	1.00	0.50	6	4.17	1.17	0.48	4	4.75	2.50	1.25
Interaction with international colleagues																
On a daily basis	107	3.63	1.67	0.16	48	3.58	1.46	0.21	37	3.84	1.92	0.32	22	3.36	1.68	0.36
On a weekly basis	54	3.28	1.90	0.26	23	3.74	1.81	0.38	17	3.18	1.78	0.43	14	2.64	2.10	0.56
On a monthly basis	76	3.68	1.75	0.20	10	4.10	1.91	0.60	20	3.90	1.71	0.38	46	3.50	1.75	0.26
On a yearly basis	23	3.48	1.97	0.41	7	3.57	2.07	0.78	7	3.71	1.25	0.47	9	3.22	2.49	0.83
Almost never	79	2.91	1.94	0.22	18	2.44	1.46	0.35	33	3.42	1.97	0.34	28	2.61	2.08	0.39
Work Sector																
Agriculture or Food industry	21	3.05	2.46	0.54	3	4.00	2.00	1.15	1	2.00			17	2.94	2.61	0.63
Industry	56	3.21	2.05	0.27	3	4.33	1.53	0.88	36	3.61	1.96	0.33	17	2.18	2.01	0.49
Energy	21	3.19	1.89	0.41	2	2.50	2.12	1.50	7	3.71	1.38	0.52	12	3.00	2.17	0.63
Trade and Crafts	20	3.25	1.52	0.34	4	3.25	0.96	0.48	4	2.50	1.91	0.96	12	3.50	1.57	0.45
Tourism	9	4.22	1.39	0.46	7	4.00	1.53	0.58					2	5.00	0.00	0.00
Telecommunications	16	2.44	1.63	0.41	2	0.50	0.71	0.50	9	2.56	1.42	0.47	5	3.00	1.87	0.84
Research and Education	74	3.76	1.50	0.17	29	3.76	1.43	0.27	14	4.29	1.38	0.37	31	3.52	1.59	0.29
Finance and Insurance	51	3.43	1.73	0.24	12	3.75	1.48	0.43	20	3.75	2.00	0.45	19	2.89	1.52	0.35
Other	71	3.51	1.90	0.23	44	3.23	1.84	0.28	23	3.78	1.93	0.40	4	5.00	1.83	0.91
Virtual Team experience																
Yes	284	3.48	1.84	0.11	75	3.52	1.66	0.19	102	3.72	1.82	0.18	107	3.23	1.97	0.19
No	55	3.02	1.69	0.23	31	3.35	1.72	0.31	12	2.83	1.85	0.53	12	2.33	1.30	0.38
Mood																
Horrible Day	3	3.00	2.00	1.15	1	1.00							2	4.00	1.41	1.00
Not so Good Day	35	3.91	2.21	0.37	11	4.00	1.79	0.54	15	4.20	2.27	0.59	9	3.33	2.69	0.90
Good Day	222	3.42	1.81	0.12	81	3.43	1.64	0.18	84	3.55	1.77	0.19	57	3.21	2.11	0.28
Awesome Day	79	3.16	1.64	0.18	13	3.46	1.76	0.49	15	3.47	1.77	0.46	51	3.00	1.59	0.22

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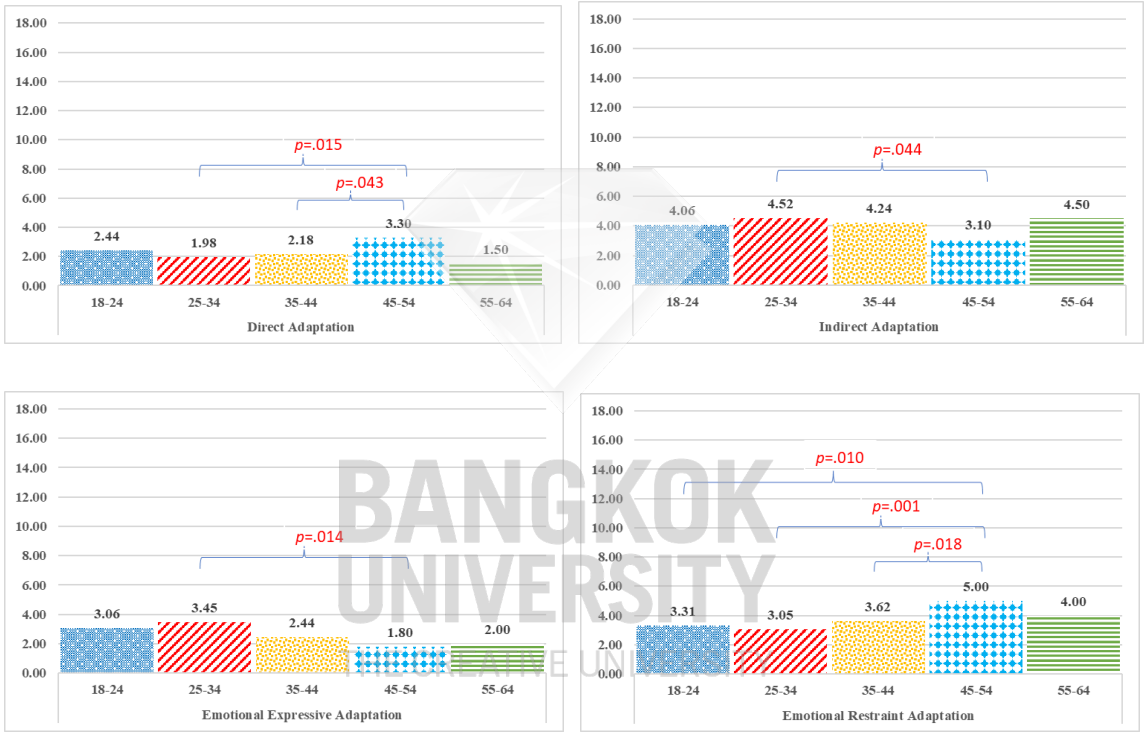
Appendix 11: The significant results on the difference between ICS adaptation and demographic information for three cultural types.

Type I (Thailand)

ICS adaptation by Age (Thailand, N=106)



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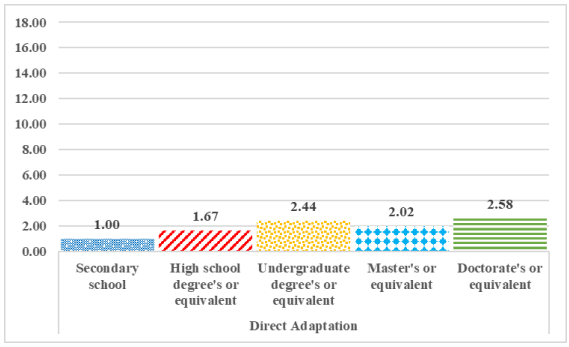
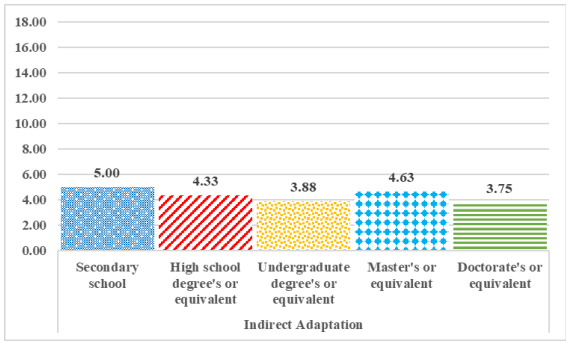
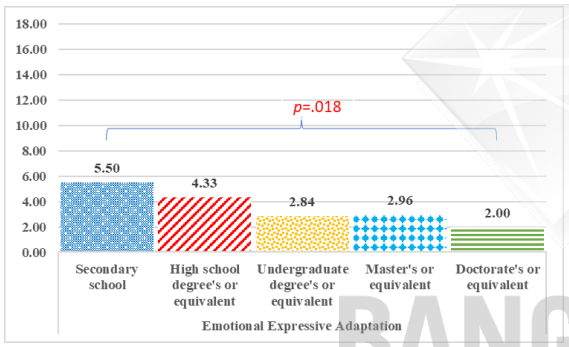
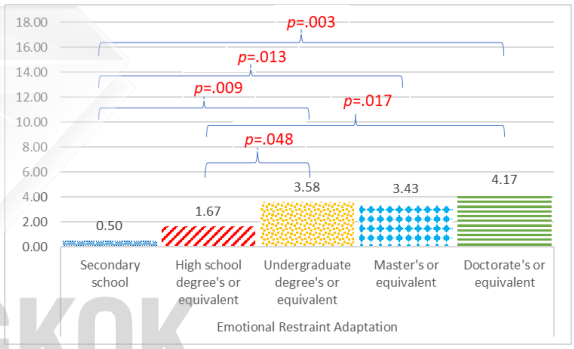
ICS adaptation by Educational Background (Thailand, N=106)









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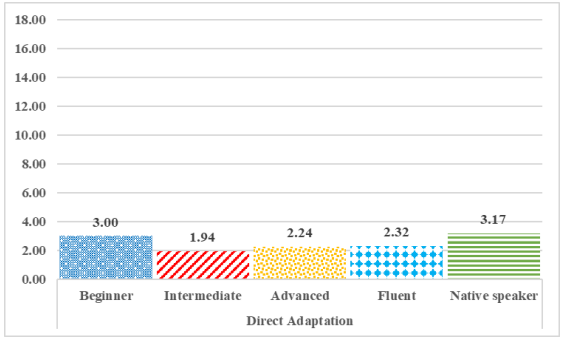
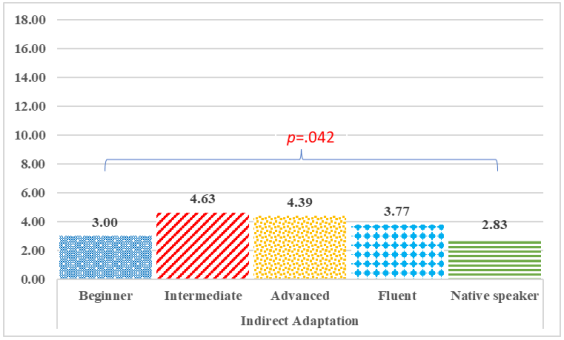
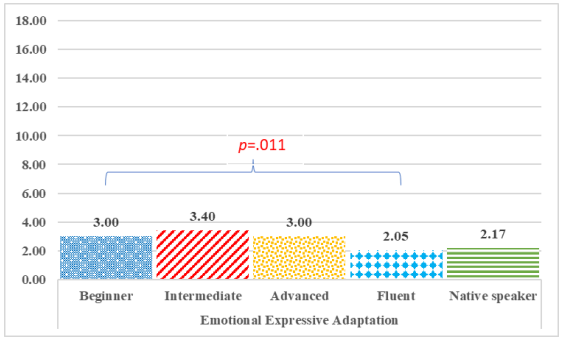
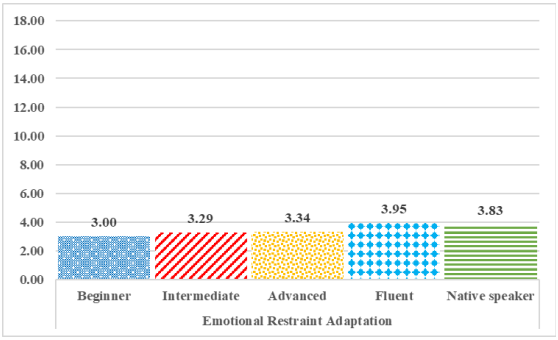
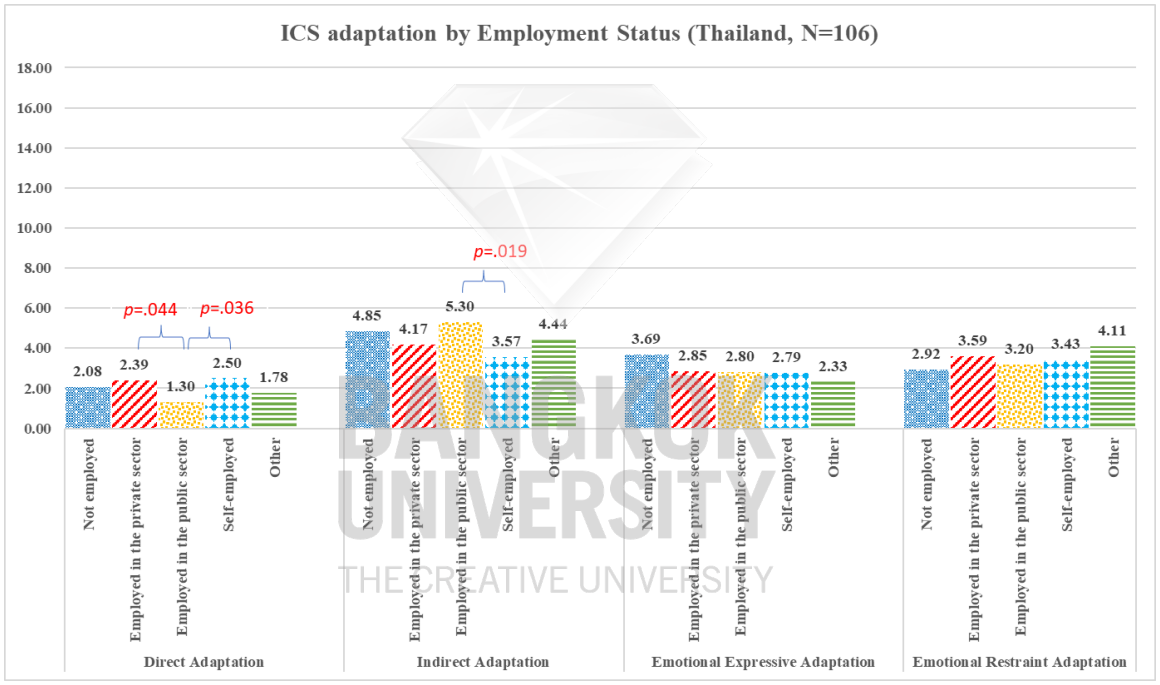
ICS adaptation by English Level (Thailand, N=106)











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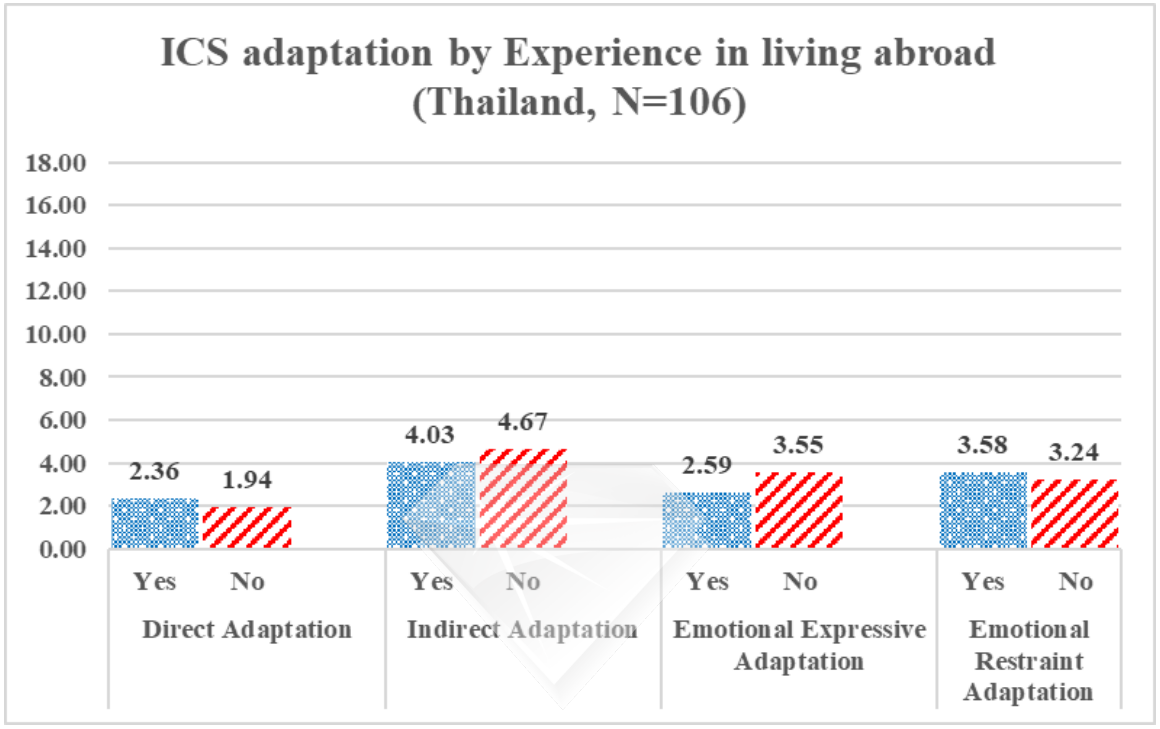

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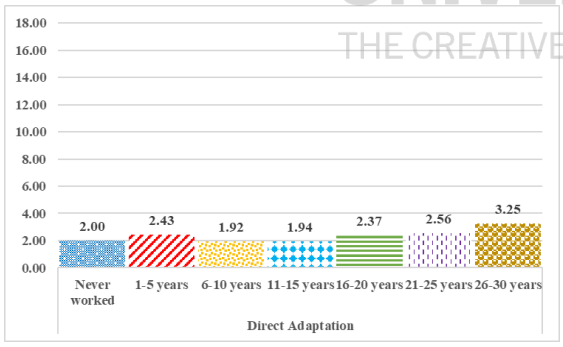
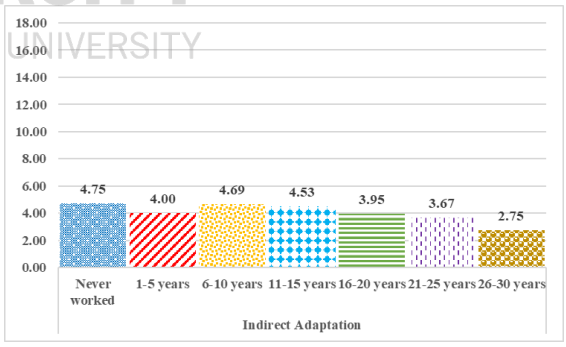
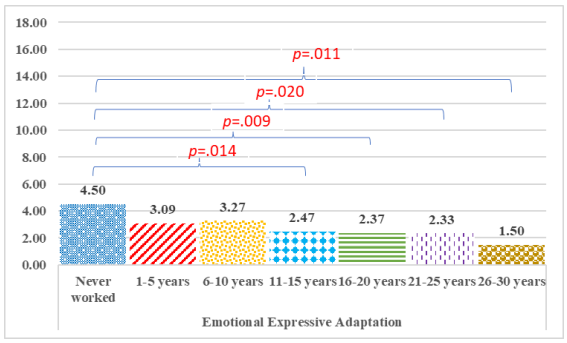
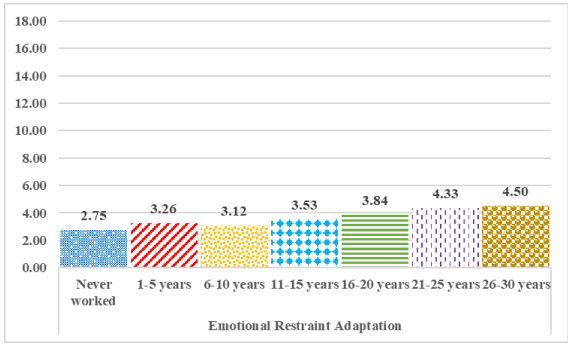
ICS adaptation by Work Experience (Thailand, N=106)

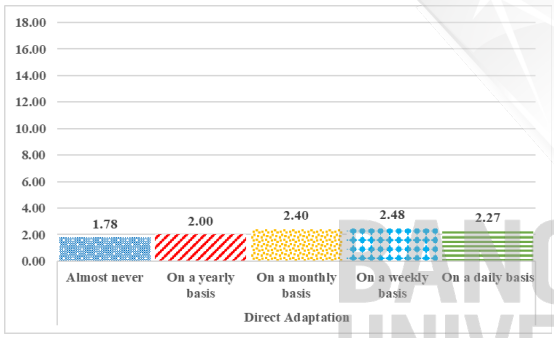


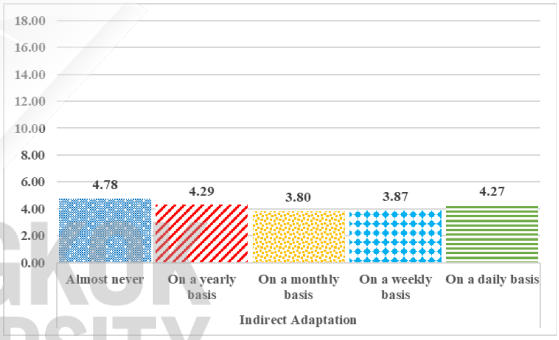


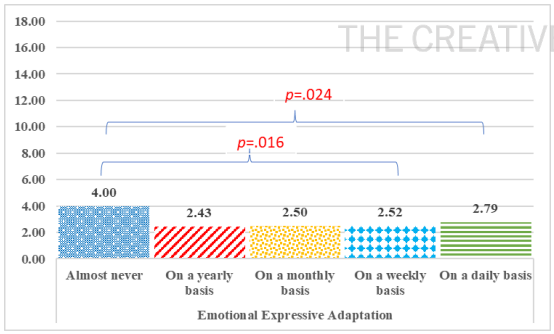


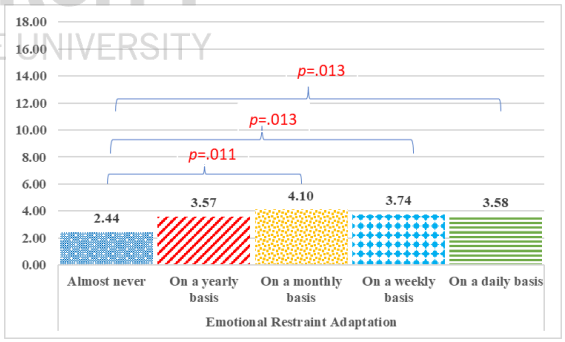


ICS adaptation by interaction with international colleagues (Thailand, N=106)









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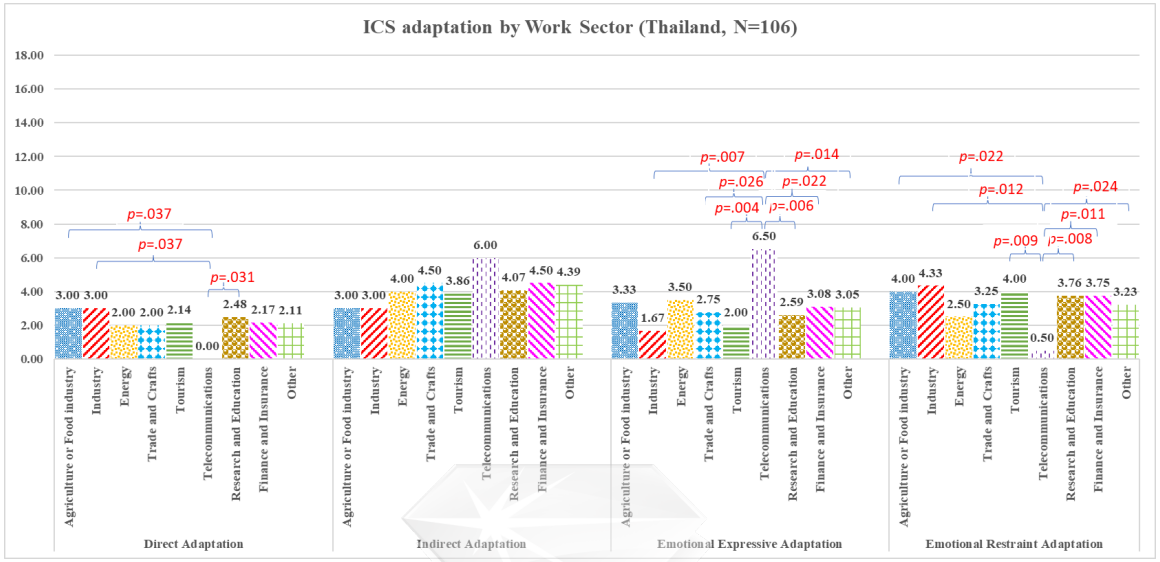

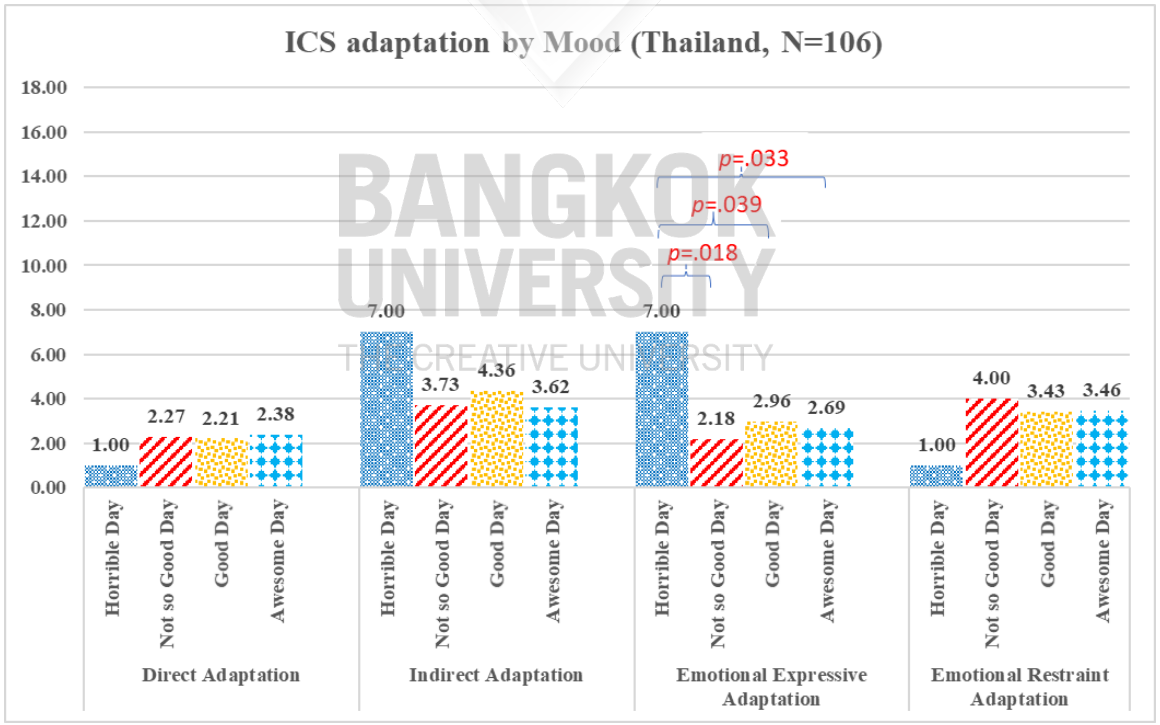

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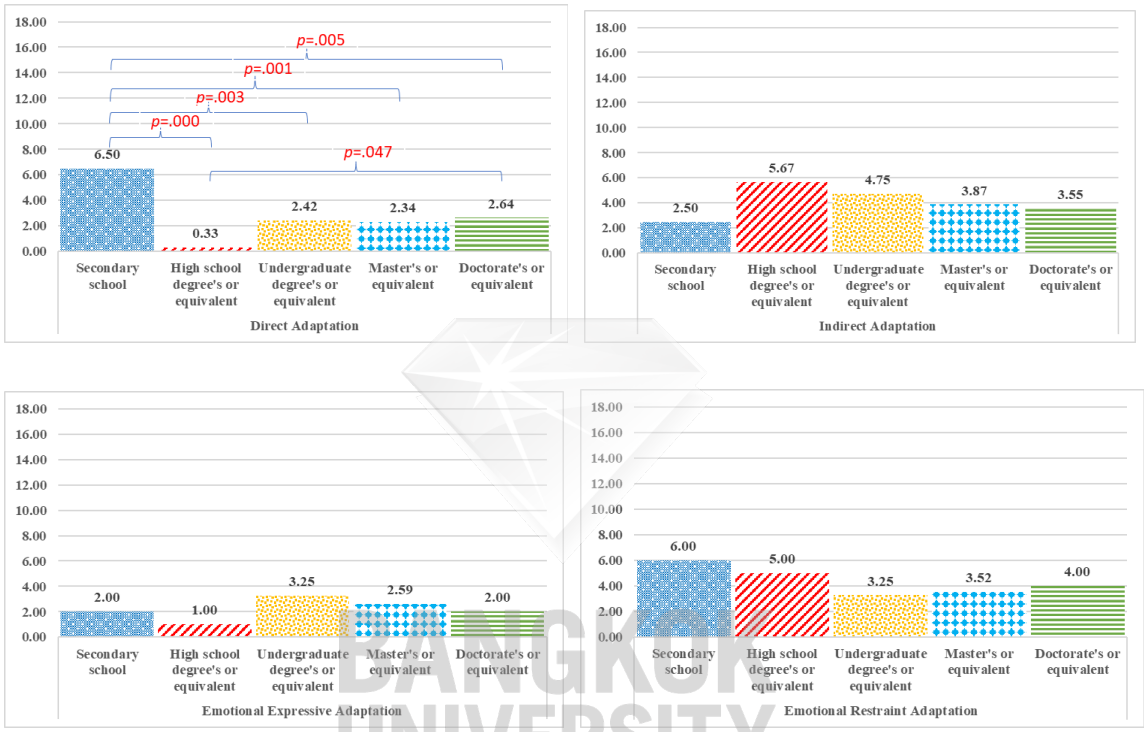
Type II (France)

ICS adaptation by Educational Background (France, N=114)



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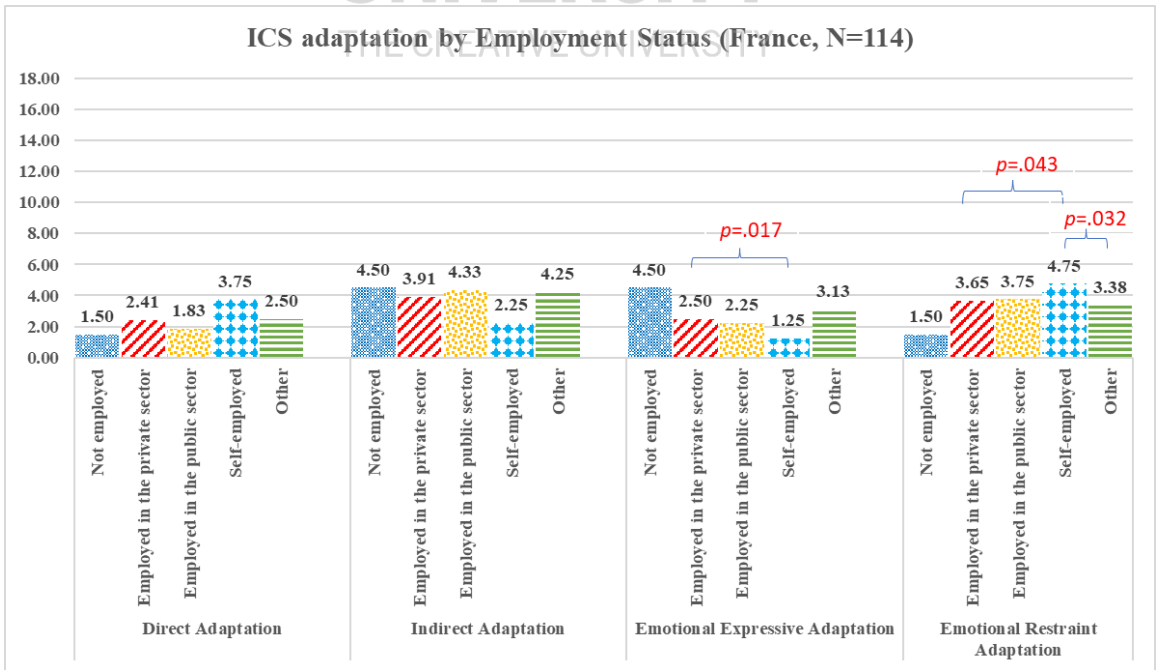
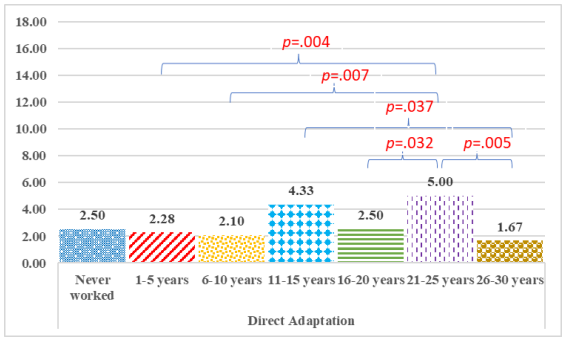
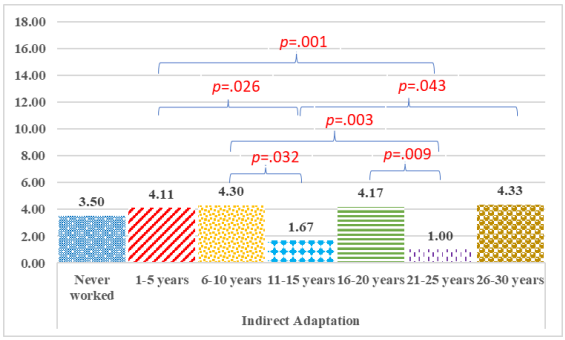
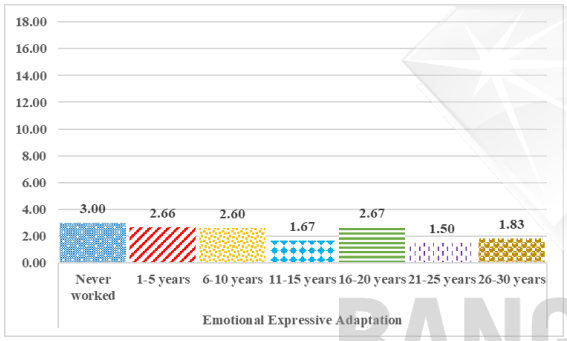
ICS adaptation by Employment Status (France, N=114)

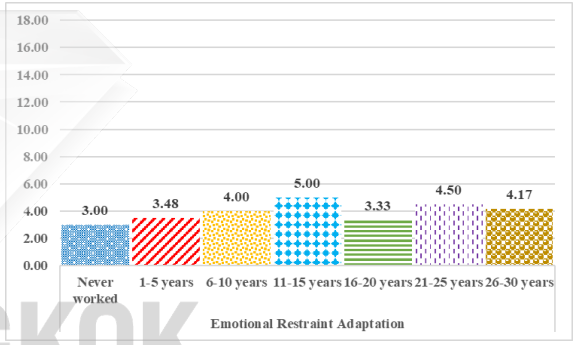


ICS adaptation by Work Experience (France, N=114)









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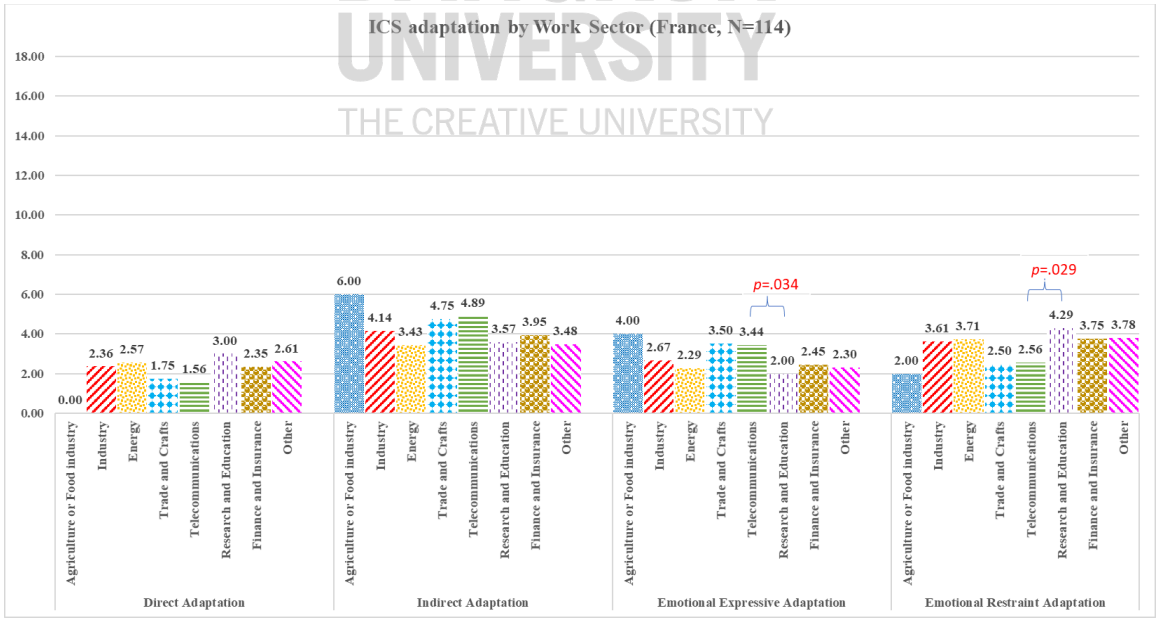

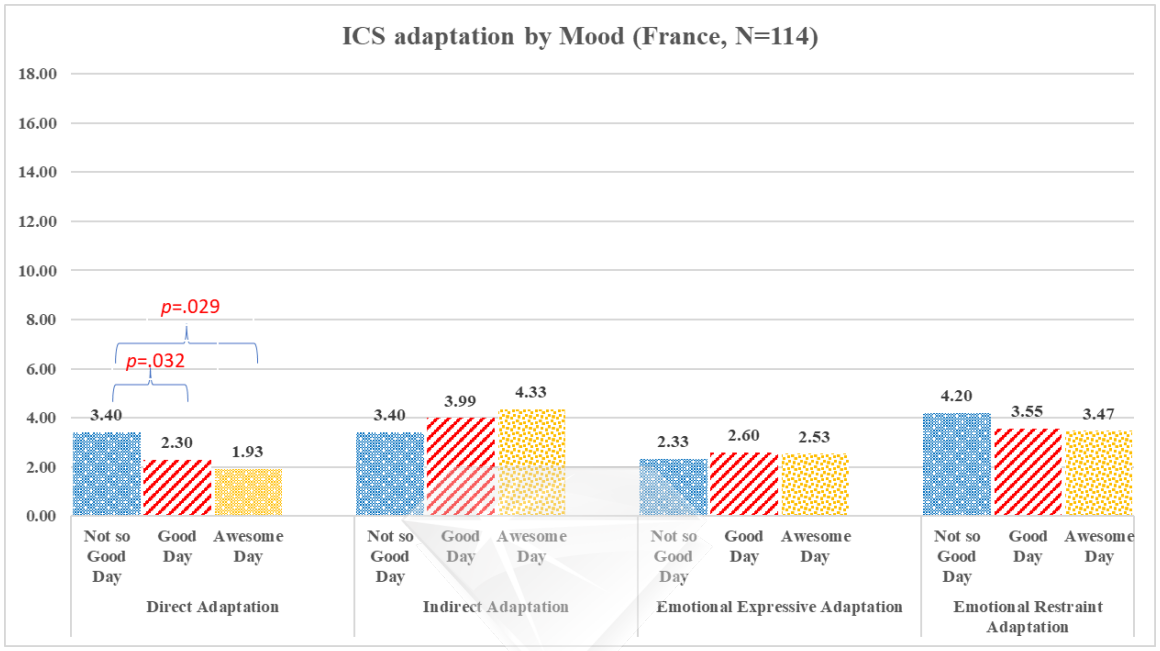

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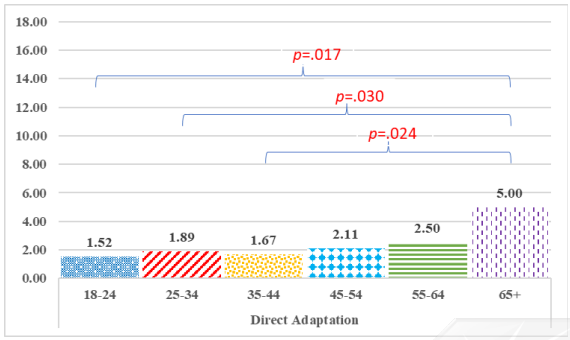
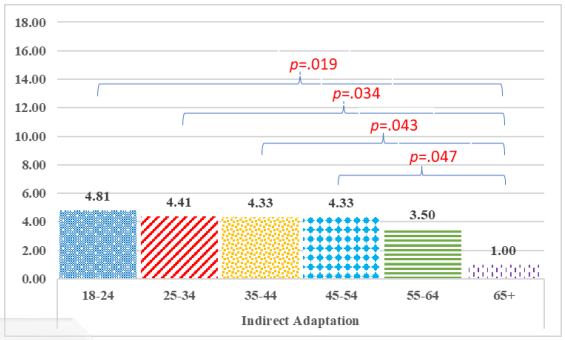
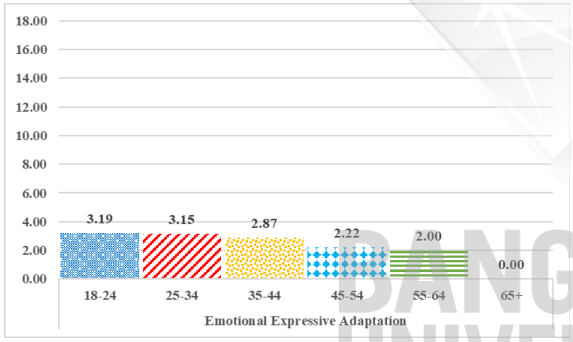
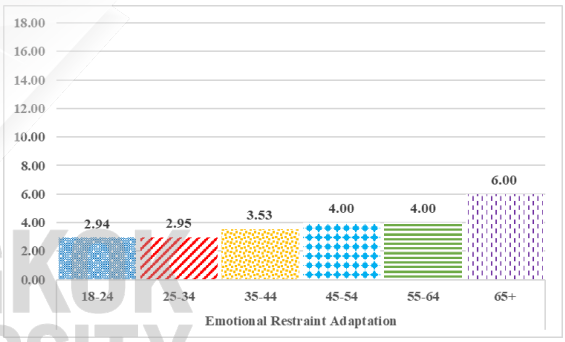
Type III (USA)

ICS adaptation by Age (USA, N=119)









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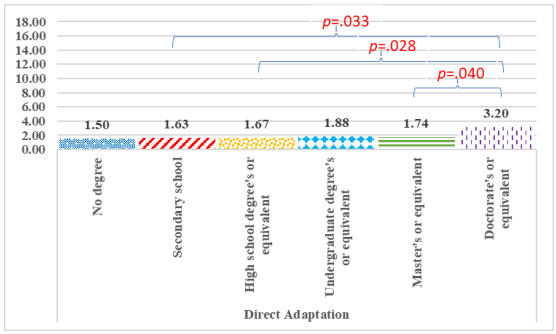
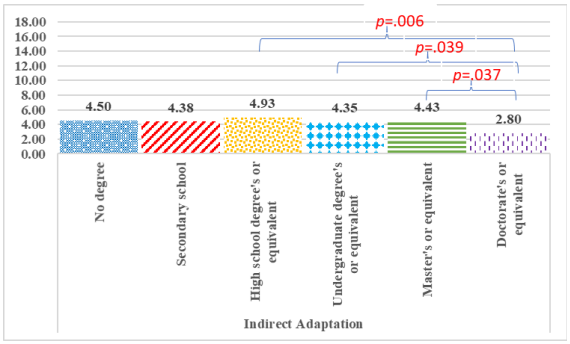
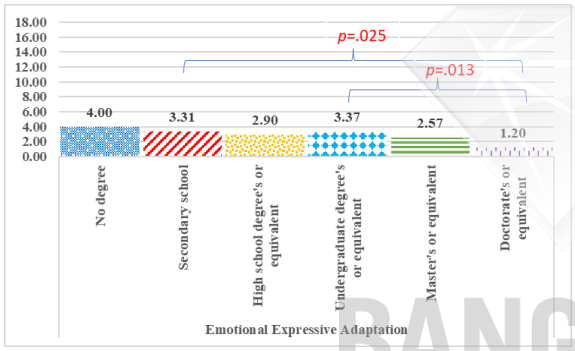
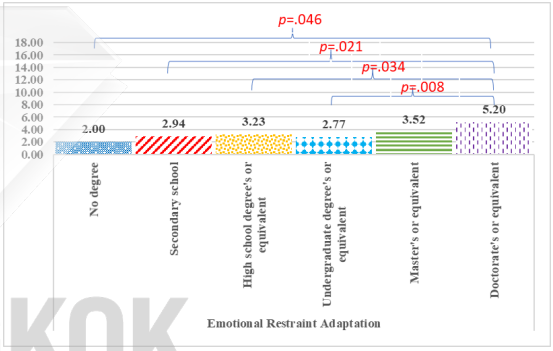
ICS adaptation by Educational Background (USA, N=119)









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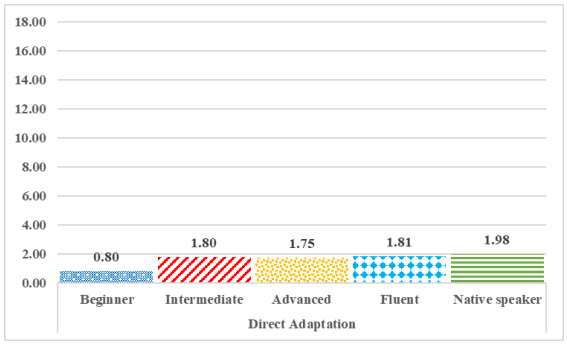
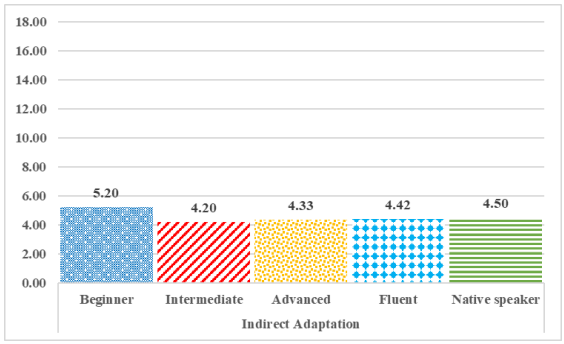
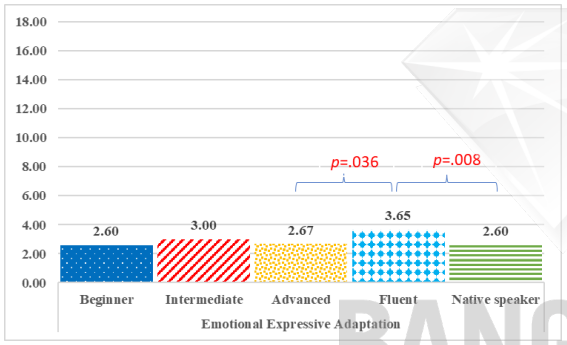
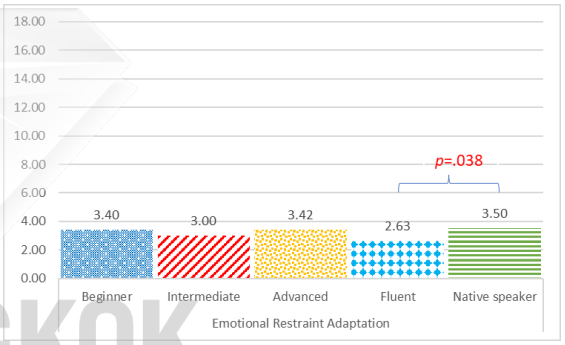
ICS adaptation by English Level (USA, N=119)









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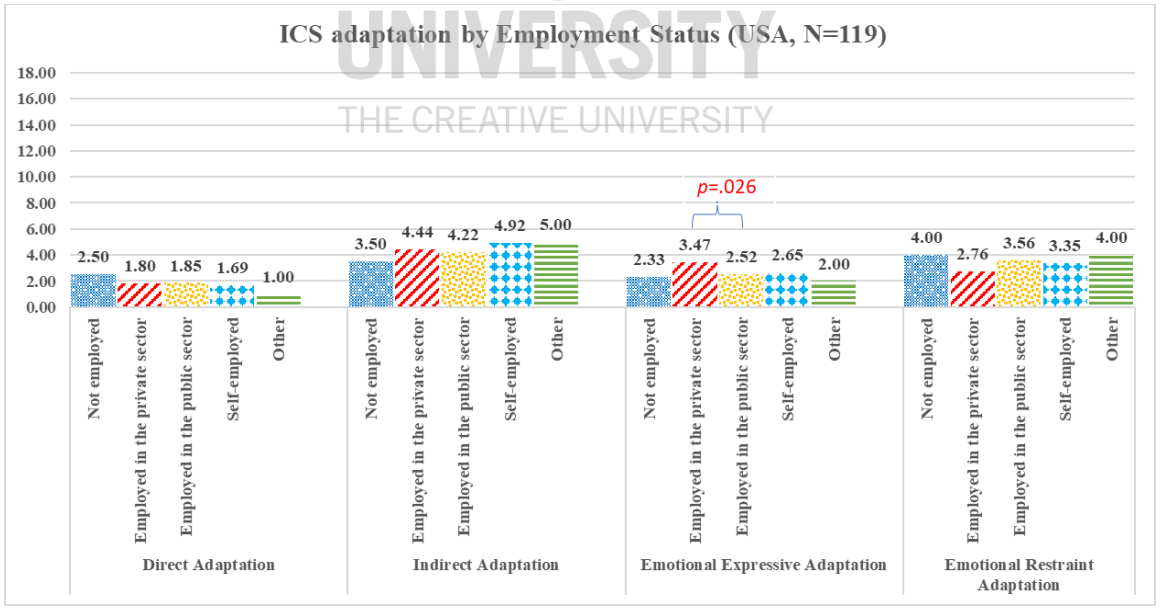
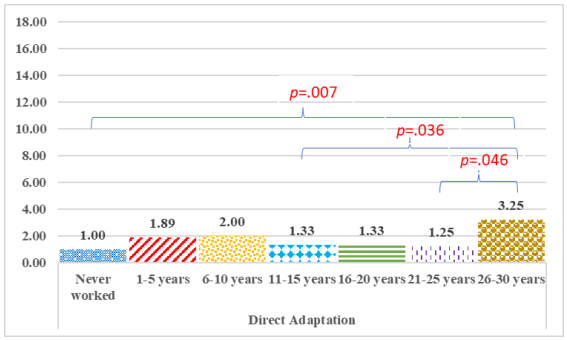
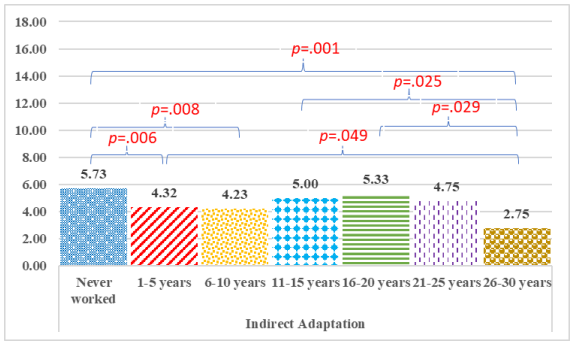
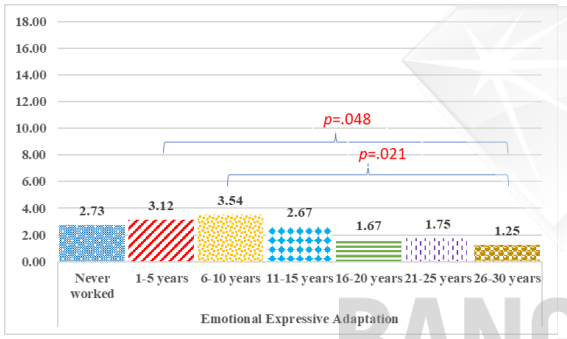
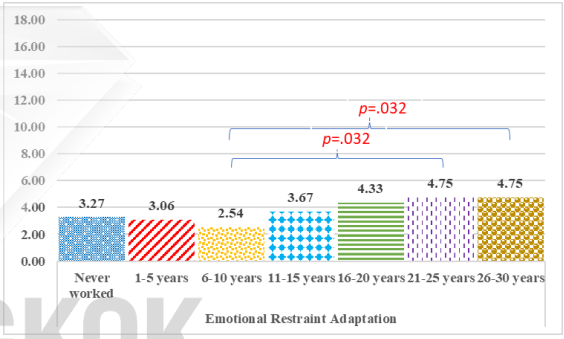


ICS adaptation by Work Experience (USA, N=119)









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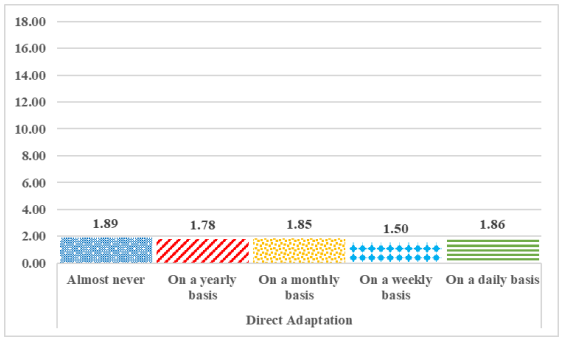
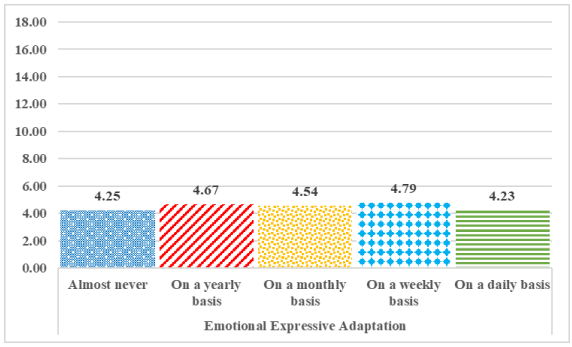
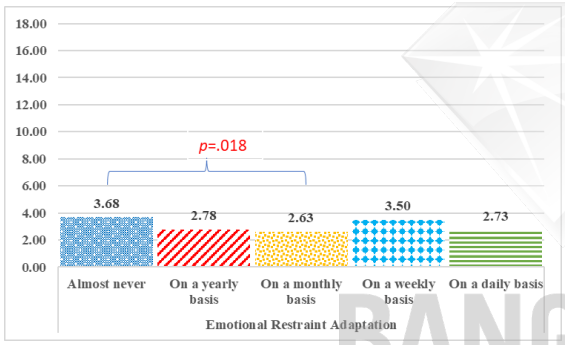
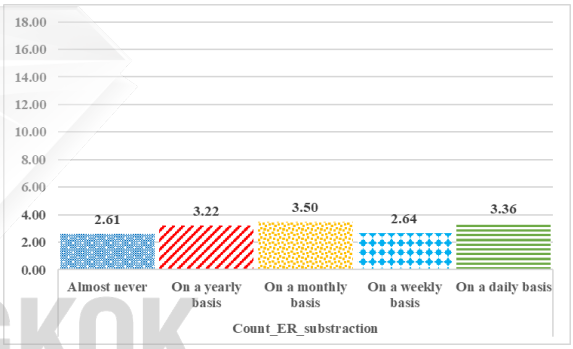
ICS adaptation by interaction with international colleagues (USA, N=119)









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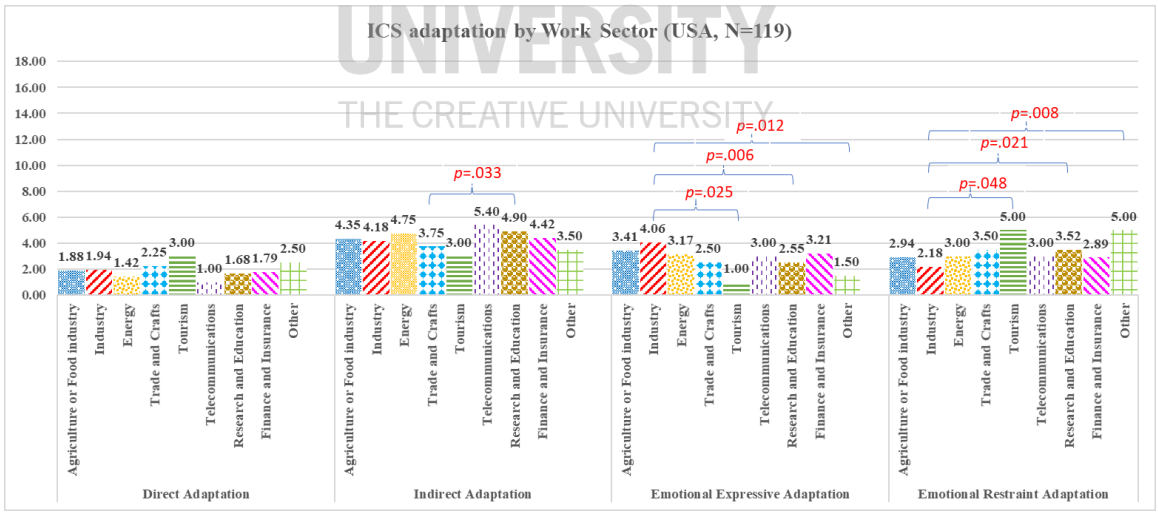

Appendix 12 The summary of ANOVA results of Intercultural Conflict Resolution Behavior used when interacting with different interlocutors

ANOVA_Overall conflict

Thai interacting…..		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct	Between Groups	3.704	2	1.852	1.219	0.297
	Within Groups	478.774	315	1.520		
	Total	482.478	317			
Use of Indirect	Between Groups	3.704	2	1.852	1.219	0.297
	Within Groups	478.774	315	1.520		
	Total	482.478	317			
Use of Expressive	Between Groups	5.761	2	2.881	2.199	0.113
	Within Groups	412.604	315	1.310		
	Total	418.365	317			
Use of Restraint	Between Groups	5.761	2	2.881	2.199	0.113
	Within Groups	412.604	315	1.310		
	Total	418.365	317			
French interacting ….		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct	Between Groups	2.357	2	1.178	0.692	0.501
	Within Groups	576.956	339	1.702		
	Total	579.313	341			
Use of Indirect	Between Groups	2.357	2	1.178	0.692	0.501
	Within Groups	576.956	339	1.702		
	Total	579.313	341			
Use of Expressive	Between Groups	10.971	2	5.485	4.259	**0.015**
	Within Groups	436.623	339	1.288		
	Total	447.594	341			
Use of Restraint	Between Groups	10.971	2	5.485	4.259	**0.015**
	Within Groups	436.623	339	1.288		
	Total	447.594	341			

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American interacting …		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct	Between Groups	4.689	2	2.345	1.715	0.182
	Within Groups	484.050	354	1.367		
	Total	488.739	356			
Use of Indirect	Between Groups	4.689	2	2.345	1.715	0.182
	Within Groups	484.050	354	1.367		
	Total	488.739	356			
Use of Expressive	Between Groups	97.249	2	48.625	33.627	**0.000**
	Within Groups	511.882	354	1.446		
	Total	609.132	356			
Use of Restraint	Between Groups	97.249	2	48.625	33.627	**0.000**
	Within Groups	511.882	354	1.446		
	Total	609.132	356			

ANOVA_Task Conflict

Thai interacting ……		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_TC	Between Groups	0.245	2	0.123	0.183	0.833
	Within Groups	211.179	315	0.670		
	Total	211.425	317			
Use of Indirect_TC	Between Groups	0.245	2	0.123	0.183	0.833
	Within Groups	211.179	315	0.670		
	Total	211.425	317			
Use of Expressive_TC	Between Groups	9.566	2	4.783	7.264	**0.001**
	Within Groups	207.415	315	0.658		
	Total	216.981	317			
Use of Restraint_TC	Between Groups	9.566	2	4.783	7.264	**0.001**
	Within Groups	207.415	315	0.658		
	Total	216.981	317			
French interacting ….		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_TC	Between Groups	2.216	2	1.108	1.454	0.235
	Within Groups	258.404	339	0.762		

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	Total	260.620	341			
Use of Indirect_TC	Between Groups	2.216	2	1.108	1.454	0.235
	Within Groups	258.404	339	0.762		
	Total	260.620	341			
Use of Expressive_TC	Between Groups	10.579	2	5.289	7.617	**0.001**
	Within Groups	235.421	339	0.694		
	Total	246.000	341			
Use of Restraint_TC	Between Groups	10.579	2	5.289	7.617	**0.001**
	Within Groups	235.421	339	0.694		
	Total	246.000	341			

American interacting …		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_TC	Between Groups	1.361	2	0.681	1.122	0.327
	Within Groups	214.824	354	0.607		
	Total	216.185	356			
Use of Indirect_TC	Between Groups	1.361	2	0.681	1.122	0.327
	Within Groups	214.824	354	0.607		
	Total	216.185	356			
Use of Expressive_TC	Between Groups	11.815	2	5.908	8.952	**0.000**
	Within Groups	233.613	354	0.660		
	Total	245.429	356			
Use of Restraint_TC	Between Groups	11.815	2	5.908	8.952	**0.000**
	Within Groups	233.613	354	0.660		
	Total	245.429	356			

ANOVA_Relationship Conflict

Thai interacting ……		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_RC	Between Groups	3.346	2	1.673	2.614	0.075
	Within Groups	201.575	315	0.640		
	Total	204.921	317			
Use of Indirect_RC	Between Groups	3.346	2	1.673	2.614	0.075

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	Within Groups	201.575	315	0.640		
	Total	204.921	317			
Use of Expressive_RC	Between Groups	18.761	2	9.381	17.512	**0.000**
	Within Groups	168.736	315	0.536		
	Total	187.497	317			
Use of Restraint_RC	Between Groups	18.761	2	9.381	17.512	**0.000**
	Within Groups	168.736	315	0.536		
	Total	187.497	317			
French interacting ….		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_RC	Between Groups	3.702	2	1.851	2.629	0.074
	Within Groups	238.640	339	0.704		
	Total	242.342	341			
Use of Indirect_RC	Between Groups	3.702	2	1.851	2.629	0.074
	Within Groups	238.640	339	0.704		
	Total	242.342	341			
Use of Expressive_RC	Between Groups	14.497	2	7.249	12.726	**0.000**
	Within Groups	193.096	339	0.570		
	Total	207.594	341			
Use of Restraint_RC	Between Groups	14.497	2	7.249	12.726	**0.000**
	Within Groups	193.096	339	0.570		
	Total	207.594	341			
American interacting …		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Use of Direct_RC	Between Groups	4.235	2	2.118	4.120	**0.017**
	Within Groups	181.950	354	0.514		
	Total	186.185	356			
Use of Indirect_RC	Between Groups	4.235	2	2.118	4.120	**0.017**
	Within Groups	181.950	354	0.514		
	Total	186.185	356			
Use of Expressive_RC	Between Groups	73.451	2	36.725	56.115	**0.000**
	Within Groups	231.681	354	0.654		
	Total	305.132	356			
Use of Restraint_RC	Between Groups	73.451	2	36.725	56.115	**0.000**
	Within Groups	231.681	354	0.654		
	Total	305.132	356			

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Appendix 13: The planned contrast result of Intercultural Conflict Behavior used among respondents from cultural differences in a conflict, task conflict, and relationship conflict

Contrast Coefficients

Contrast comparison between	Thai interacting with …		
	with Thai (Type I)	with French (Type II)	with American (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Contrast Tests Overall conflict (Thai interacting with …..)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.26	0.169	-1.560	315	0.120
		TH & USA	-0.12	0.169	-0.724	315	0.469
		FR & USA	0.14	0.169	0.836	315	0.404
Use of Indirect	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.26	0.169	1.560	315	0.120
		TH & USA	0.12	0.169	0.724	315	0.469
		FR & USA	-0.14	0.169	-0.836	315	0.404
Use of Expressive	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.09	0.157	0.600	315	0.549
		TH & USA	-0.23	0.157	-1.440	315	0.151
		FR & USA	-0.32	0.157	-2.040	315	**0.042**
Use of Restraint	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.09	0.157	-0.600	315	0.549
		TH & USA	0.23	0.157	1.440	315	0.151
		FR & USA	0.32	0.157	2.040	315	**0.042**

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Contrast Tests Task conflict (Thai interacting with …..)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.02	0.112	-0.168	315	0.867
		TH & USA	0.05	0.112	0.419	315	0.675
		FR & USA	0.07	0.112	0.587	315	0.558
Use of Indirect_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.02	0.112	0.168	315	0.867
		TH & USA	-0.05	0.112	-0.419	315	0.675
		FR & USA	-0.07	0.112	-0.587	315	0.558
Use of Expressive_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.37	0.111	3.301	315	**0.001**
		TH & USA	0.37	0.111	3.301	315	**0.001**
		FR & USA	0.00	0.111	0.000	315	1.000
Use of Restraint_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.37	0.111	-3.301	315	**0.001**
		TH & USA	-0.37	0.111	-3.301	315	**0.001**
		FR & USA	0.00	0.111	0.000	315	1.000

Contrast Tests Relationship Conflict (Thai interacting with …..)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.25	0.110	-2.232	315	**0.026**
		TH & USA	-0.17	0.110	-1.545	315	0.123
		FR & USA	0.08	0.110	0.687	315	0.493
Use of Indirect_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.25	0.110	2.232	315	**0.026**
		TH & USA	0.17	0.110	1.545	315	0.123
		FR & USA	-0.08	0.110	-0.687	315	0.493
Use of Expressive_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.27	0.101	-2.721	315	**0.007**
		TH & USA	-0.59	0.101	-5.912	315	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-0.32	0.101	-3.191	315	**0.002**
Use of Restraint_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.27	0.101	2.721	315	**0.007**
		TH & USA	0.59	0.101	5.912	315	**0.000**
		FR & USA	0.32	0.101	3.191	315	**0.002**

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Contrast Coefficients

Contrast comparison between	French interacting with …		
	with Thai (Type I)	with French (Type II)	with American (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Contrast Tests__Overall conflict (French interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.12	0.173	-0.711	339	0.478
		TH & USA	0.08	0.173	0.457	339	0.648
		FR & USA	0.20	0.173	1.168	339	0.244
Use of Indirect	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.12	0.173	0.711	339	0.478
		TH & USA	-0.08	0.173	-0.457	339	0.648
		FR & USA	-0.20	0.173	-1.168	339	0.244
Use of Expressive	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.40	0.150	2.684	339	**0.008**
		TH & USA	0.05	0.150	0.350	339	0.726
		FR & USA	-0.35	0.150	-2.334	339	**0.020**
Use of Restraint	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.40	0.150	-2.684	339	**0.008**
		TH & USA	-0.05	0.150	-0.350	339	0.726
		FR & USA	0.35	0.150	2.334	339	**0.020**

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Contrast Tests Task conflict (French interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.13	0.116	1.138	339	0.256
		TH & USA	0.19	0.116	1.669	339	0.096
		FR & USA	0.06	0.116	0.531	339	0.596
Use of Indirect_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.13	0.116	-1.138	339	0.256
		TH & USA	-0.19	0.116	-1.669	339	0.096
		FR & USA	-0.06	0.116	-0.531	339	0.596
Use of Expressive_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.29	0.110	2.623	339	**0.009**
		TH & USA	0.42	0.110	3.815	339	**0.000**
		FR & USA	0.13	0.110	1.192	339	0.234
Use of Restraint_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.29	0.110	-2.623	339	**0.009**
		TH & USA	-0.42	0.110	-3.815	339	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-0.13	0.110	-1.192	339	0.234

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Contrast Tests_Relationship Conflict (French interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.25	0.111	-2.289	339	**0.023**
		TH & USA	-0.11	0.111	-1.026	339	0.306
		FR & USA	0.14	0.111	1.263	339	0.207
Use of Indirect_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.25	0.111	2.289	339	**0.023**
		TH & USA	0.11	0.111	1.026	339	0.306
		FR & USA	-0.14	0.111	-1.263	339	0.207
Use of Expressive_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.11	0.100	1.141	339	0.255
		TH & USA	-0.37	0.100	-3.685	339	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-0.48	0.100	-4.826	339	**0.000**
Use of Restraint_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.11	0.100	-1.141	339	0.255
		TH & USA	0.37	0.100	3.685	339	**0.000**
		FR & USA	0.48	0.100	4.826	339	**0.000**

Contrast Coefficients

Contrast comparison between	American interacting with …		
	with Thai (Type I)	with French (Type II)	with American (Type III)
1	x	x	
2	x		x
3		x	x

Contrast Tests Overall conflict (American interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.28	0.152	1.829	354	0.068
		TH & USA	0.18	0.152	1.164	354	0.245
		FR & USA	-0.10	0.152	-0.665	354	0.506
Use of Indirect	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.28	0.152	-1.829	354	0.068
		TH & USA	-0.18	0.152	-1.164	354	0.245
		FR & USA	0.10	0.152	0.665	354	0.506
Use of Expressive	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.82	0.156	-5.229	354	**0.000**
		TH & USA	0.45	0.156	2.857	354	**0.005**
		FR & USA	1.26	0.156	8.086	354	**0.000**
Use of Restraint	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.82	0.156	5.229	354	**0.000**
		TH & USA	-0.45	0.156	-2.857	354	**0.005**
		FR & USA	-1.26	0.156	-8.086	354	**0.000**

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Contrast Tests_Task conflict (American interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.08	0.101	0.749	354	0.454
		TH & USA	-0.08	0.101	-0.749	354	0.454
		FR & USA	-0.15	0.101	-1.498	354	0.135
Use of Indirect_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.08	0.101	-0.749	354	0.454
		TH & USA	0.08	0.101	0.749	354	0.454
		FR & USA	0.15	0.101	1.498	354	0.135
Use of Expressive_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.14	0.105	1.356	354	0.176
		TH & USA	0.44	0.105	4.149	354	**0.000**
		FR & USA	0.29	0.105	2.793	354	**0.006**
Use of Restraint_TC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.14	0.105	-1.356	354	0.176
		TH & USA	-0.44	0.105	-4.149	354	**0.000**
		FR & USA	-0.29	0.105	-2.793	354	**0.006**

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Contrast Tests (American interacting with …)

Contrast			Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Use of Direct_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.20	0.093	2.170	354	**0.031**
		TH & USA	0.25	0.093	2.712	354	**0.007**
		FR & USA	0.05	0.093	0.542	354	0.588
Use of Indirect_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.20	0.093	-2.170	354	**0.031**
		TH & USA	-0.25	0.093	-2.712	354	**0.007**
		FR & USA	-0.05	0.093	-0.542	354	0.588
Use of Expressive_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	-0.96	0.105	-9.134	354	**0.000**
		TH & USA	0.01	0.105	0.080	354	0.936
		FR & USA	0.97	0.105	9.214	354	**0.000**
Use of Restraint_RC	Assume equal variances	TH & FR	0.96	0.105	9.134	354	**0.000**
		TH & USA	-0.01	0.105	-0.080	354	0.936
		FR & USA	-0.97	0.105	-9.214	354	**0.000**

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