

Differences of Interpersonal Conflict Management Styles between Korean and Canadian Bankers: A Comparative Study

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I. Introduction

With the globalization of business activities, a greater need seems to exist now than ever before for studies of organizational behavior in different cultures. This is especially true for empirical studies of managerial practice in Korea. A review of this literature found this need even more pronounced for conflict management (Kiggundu, Jorgensen, & Hafsi, 1983). Conflict has emerged as a major subfield of organizational behavior, as both scholars and practitioners realized its inevitability in organizational life. The emphasis in the field has gradually shifted from harms or uses of conflict toward its management, including the different styles of handling conflict.

There has been a blossoming interest concerning the study of intimate conflict

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in personal relationship development(see Cahn, 1992). In recent years, the role of culture in intimate conflict has been virtually ignored. Human beings, however, are first and foremost cultural beings before they are beings in interpersonal relationships. Individuals first learn the implicit scripts of interpersonal relationship development within the webs of their culture. More specifically, people learn the values, norms, and rules of appropriate or inappropriate conflict conduct, and effective or ineffective conflict behavior within the primary socialization process of their culture. For example, the recent study of Ting-Toomey provides us with new insights to enhance our own options in approaching and managing conflict differently. Understanding intimate conflict across cultures contains both theoretical and practical implications for interpersonal conflict researchers. Nevertheless, no specific predictive pathways are specified in the framework because actual empirical studies in either cross-cultural or intercultural intimate conflict are still at the infancy stage(Ting-Toomey, 1994). Therefore, as Adler(1983) suggests, two or three-culture studies should be treated as pilot studies in order to contribute the development of a greater cumulative body of knowledge in later years. As a method for overcoming shortcomings stated above, this study examines how Canadian and Korean bankers use their styles in managing their interpersonal conflict. Thus, I am not primarily concerned with individual behavioral flexibility but with general behavioral tendencies that can be derived from the national context.

II. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

1. Previous Studies on Styles of Interpersonal Conflict Management

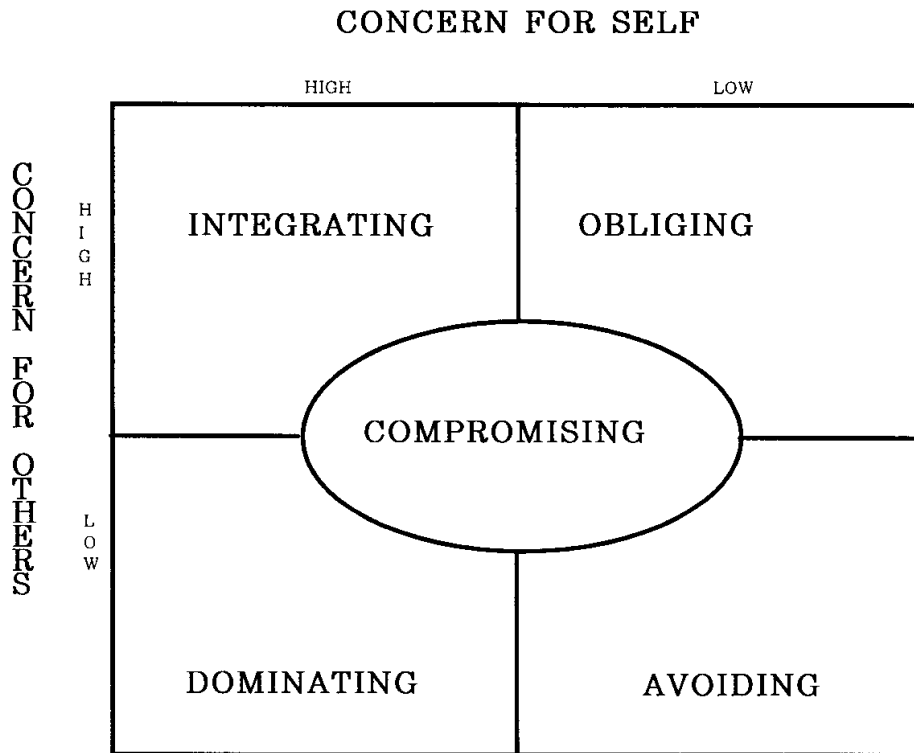
This study uses a micro approach in the sense that discussions in the study indicate how individuals handle their interpersonal conflict in their organizations. The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict-- ①integrating, ②dominating, ③obliging, ④avoiding, and ⑤compromising-- have become very

popular. This is evident from the number of recent doctoral dissertations (e.g., Keenan, 1984; Levy, 1989; Neff, 1986; Persico, 1986; van Epps, 1990) and other empirical studies (e.g., Lee, 1990; Pikington, Richardson, & Utley, 1988; Psenicka & Rahim, 1989; Rahim & Buntzman, 1988; Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; van de Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990) that have utilized the conceptualization and operationalization of the five styles.

The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict in organizations was first suggested by Mary P. Follett (1926/1940). She found three principal ways of dealing with conflict, such as domination, compromise, and integration, and two other ways of handling conflict in organizations, such as avoidance and suppression. Blake and Mouton (1964) first presented a conceptualization for classifying the modes (styles) for handling interpersonal conflicts into five types: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. They described the five modes of handling conflict on the basis of the attitudes of the manager: concerns for production and for people. This was reinterpreted by Thomas (1992), who considered the intentions of a party (cooperativeness—attempting to satisfy the other party's concern; and assertiveness—attempting to satisfy one's own concerns) in classifying the modes of handling conflict into five types.

Using a conceptualization similar to the above theorists, the styles of handling conflict were differentiated on two basic dimensions: concern for self and for others (Rahim, 1983a, c; Rahim, 1992; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979). The first dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own concern. The second dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which an organizational member attempts to satisfy the concern of others. It should be pointed out that these dimensions portray the motivational orientations of a given individual during conflict. A study by van de Vliert and Kabanoff (1990; see also Ruble & Thomas, 1976) provided support for these dimensions. Combination of the two dimensions results in five specific styles of handling interpersonal conflict, as shown in (Figure : II-1).

(Figure : II-1) A Two-Dimensional Model Styles of Handling Interpersonal Conflict



This study used the model of Rahim & Bonoma(1979) which had integrated the results of previous researchers to have consistency in continuous study. Their model has been considered as that of high reliability and validity.

It has been vividly used by cross-cultural studies. Some of examples are studies of Leung, Bond, Carment, Krishnan, and Liebrand(1998), Ting-Toomey(1994), and Kozan(1990).

Leung, Bond, Carment, Krishnan, and Liebrand(1998) examined interpersonal conflict styles by studying college students from Canada and The Netherlands. A total of 240 Canadian and 115 Dutch college students participated in the study. The results of the study showed that Dutch subjects preferred mediation, bargaining, and ignoring more, and threatening, accusing, and complying less, than did Canadian subjects. The effect for accusing was marginally significant.

No difference was found in falsely promising and arbitrating. The cultural differences in complying and ignoring seem contradictory to their prediction. That is, Canadian subjects preferred harmony-enhancing procedures less, and confrontational procedures more, than did Dutch subjects. Results by Hofstede(1980, 1983) supported their study.

Ting-Toomey(1994) has explored styles of managing conflict among several countries: America, Japan, Korea, China, and Taiwan. She argued ,based on the her studies, that whereas U.S. respondents have been found to use more dominating, competing conflict strategies than Japanese and Korean respondents, Chinese and Taiwanese respondents have been found to use more compromising, obliging, and avoiding conflict strategies than their U.S. counterparts in managing task-oriented, social conflict. However, she suggested that the generalizability of this line of research awaits to be further tested in different cross-cultural intimate conflict relationship settings and in different gender variability settings.

Kozan(1990) aimed at understanding conflict-handling behavior between Western managers and their counterparts in Turkey and Jordan. His data in Turkey and Jordan were collected from 259 and 150 managers respectively in their private and public organizations. His result shows that in both countries, managers seem to prefer some styles over others in general. Both Turkish and Jordanian managers report using integrating the most often. On the other hand, they prefer obliging the least and in this differ significantly from the U.S. managers. The major difference between Turkey and Jordan is obtained in the use of the dominating style. In their relatively lower preferences for dominating, Jordanian managers resemble U.S. managers more than they do Turkish managers.

Tinsley(1998) developed 3 models for resolving conflict from previous literature: resolving conflict by (a) deferring to status power, (b) applying regulations, and (c) integrating interests. Preference for a model is argued to be influenced by culture. The conflict models of Japanese, German, and

American business managers are predicted from their group rankings on 3 dimensions of cultural variation: (a)hierarchical differentiation, (b)explicit contracting, and (c)polychronicity. Japanese, German, and American managers tended toward different models when resolving workplace conflict. All who participated were 157 from Germany, 116 from Japan, and 123 from the United States. MANOVA results suggested that German and Japanese colleagues were less likely to use interests model than another American colleague is. Germans are just as likely to select regulations as interests, and Japanese are more likely to select status than interests.

2. Hypotheses on Managerial Styles

When a potential conflict among members in organizations is revealed, styles of managing it can be a variety of forms. This can equally be applied in a cross-cultural studies of different nations. That is, styles of managing interpersonal conflict has been influenced by a variety of culture of nations. Many of researchers including Ting-Toomey(1994) have explored how conflict management styles differ among nations. However, comparative study between Canada and Korea on managing interpersonal conflict seems rare. Owing to such a limitation, I had some difficulties in making hypotheses. Therefore, I used indirect approaches (for instance, comparison with America) notwithstanding professor Nam's¹⁾ argument that America differs from Canada as much as Korea is different from Japan. Although cultural variations may exist in both countries, more cultural similarities may exist in cultural background between Canada and Korea.

1) Integrating: High Concern for Self and Others

This style involves collaboration between the parties for problem solving. This requires trust and openness so that the parties can exchange information and analyze their differences to reach a solution acceptable to them. "The first rul

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e...for obtaining integration is to put your cards on the table, face the real issue, uncover the conflict, and bring the whole thing into the open"(Follet, 1940, p. 38). Implementation of "Follet's rule" is possible if the parties trust each other. Prein(1976)suggested that this style has two distinctive elements: confrontation and problem solving. Confrontation involves open and direct communication, which should make way for problem solving. As a result, it may lead creative solutions to problems.

It is suggested by several researchers that there exists differences of styles on managing interpersonal conflict across countries. Work of Rognes(1994) shows that many of the conflicts that are handled through institutions in Norway are handled through interpersonal confrontation in the United States. According to Hall(1976), low-context(LC) communication patterns have been typically found to be predominant in individualistic cultures, and high-context(HC) communication patterns have been found to be predominant in collectivistic cultures. Accordingly, Korea that tends to be more collectivism-oriented belongs to HC communication patterns. On the contrary, Canada that tends to be stronger individualism-oriented belongs to LC communication patterns. In general, low-context communication refers to communication patterns of linear logic interaction approach, direct verbal interaction mode, disciplined to relaxed nonverbal emotional expressions, and sender-oriented persuasive value. High-context communication refers to communication patterns of spiral logic interaction approach, indirect verbal negotiation mode, understated nonverbal nuances. In addition, Ting-Toomey's research shows that more direct style tend to be used in individualistic values than collectivistic values.

With respect to differences in integrative behavior between Canada and Korea, the following hypothesis is formed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a general tendency for Canadian bankers to use integrative behavior more frequently than Korean bankers.

2) Dominating: High Concern for Self and Low Concern for Others

This style has been identified with win-lose orientation or with competing behavior to win one's position. A dominating or competing person goes all out to win his or her objective and, as a result, often ignores the needs and expectations of the other party. Dominating may mean standing up for one's rights and/or defending a position that the party believes to be correct. Sometimes a dominating person wants to win at any cost. A dominating supervisor is likely to use his or her position power to impose his or her will on subordinates and command their obedience.

Kumagai & Straus(1983) and Lee & Rogan(1991) found that individualistic cultures rated controlling style(e.g., directness, forcing) as more likely to be used than did collectivistic cultures in their studies. According to Hofstede's work, Canada belongs to individualistic cultures whereas Korea belongs to collectivistic cultures. Ting-Toomey found that U.S. respondents have been found to use more dominating, competing conflict strategies than Japanese and Korean respondents. Based on these findings, I put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Canadian bankers have a general tendency to use a dominating style more frequently than Korean bankers.

3) Obliging: Low Concern for Self and High Concern for Others

This style is associated with attempting to play down the differences and emphasizing similarities to satisfy the concern of the other party. It may take the form of self-sacrifice, selfless generosity, charity, or his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party. Such an individual is like a "conflict absorber," that is, a "person whose reaction to a perceived hostile act on the part of another has low hostility or even positive friendliness"(Boulding, 1962,p. 171) Obliging implies a willingness to sacrifice one's own gains in order to reach settlement in a conflict situation. If the other party initiates

joint problem solving through integrative behavior, or signals a willingness to compromise, there is no need for focal persons to sacrifice their own interests by obliging. Obliging, therefore, is most typically a reaction to tough demands made by the other party. Ting-Toomey found that whereas direct, controlling, and dominating styles were used in individualistic values, indirect, obliging styles were used in collectivistic values. According to Hofstede's work, high individualistic value tendencies have been found in the United States, Canada, and the Netherlands, to name only a few. High collectivistic value tendencies have been uncovered in Indonesia, China, and Korea, to name only a few. With respect to differences in obliging behavior between Canadian and Korean bankers, the arguments suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Korean bankers will oblige frequently than Canadian bankers in interpersonal conflict situation.

4) Avoiding: Low Concern for Self and Others

This style has been associated with ignoring, withdrawal, sidestepping, or "see no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil" situations. It may take the form of postponing an issue until a better time, or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own needs as well as the needs of the other party. This style is often characterized by an unconcerned attitude toward the issues or parties involved in conflict. Such a person may refuse to acknowledge in public that there is a conflict that should be dealt with. Avoiding is the degree to which the individual withdraws from the conflict episode. Active avoidance behavior involves efforts to cognitively reduce the importance of the potential conflict to trivial matters, to sidestep the conflict, or to postpone the conflict indefinitely. Avoiding style seems to be more frequently used in Korea than Canada. This can partly be understood by examining the scores on the cultural dimensions. Low degree of masculinity(39) in Korea implies that assertive behavior is not highly accepted, thus individuals

are less likely to confront each other. Furthermore, the lower the degree of power distance and individualism indicates that individual should not separate themselves from others and should not pursue their own interests openly when they differ from those of other people. Of course, this index does not indicate that avoiding style appears rare in Canada, but indicates that the style appears less frequently than Korea. I therefore put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Korean bankers have a general tendency to avoid conflicts more often than Canadian bankers.

5) Compromising: Intermediate in Concern for Self and Others

This style involves give-and-take or sharing, whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision. It may mean splitting the difference, exchanging concession, or seeking a quick middle-ground position. A compromising party gives up more than a dominating party but less than an obliging party. Likewise, such a party addresses an issue more directly than an avoiding party, but does not explore it in an much depth as an integrating party. Ting-Toomey(1994) indicates that whereas individualists tend to be more self-face oriented in managing conflict, collectivists tend to be more other-face oriented in negotiating conflict. Furthermore, Chinese and Taiwanese respondents have been found to use more compromising than their U.S. counterparts in managing task-oriented, social conflict. The hypothesis on compromising is as follows:

Hypothesis 5: Compromising is used less frequently in Canadian bankers than in Korean bankers.

III. Method

1. Sample

Data were collected by means of a questionnaire. The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict were measured by statements adopted from the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-II (Rahim, 1983a). Data were gathered from Canadian bankers (N=162) in Vancouver in Canada and Korean bankers (N=231) in Korea. Subjects also occupied a variety of positions, including clerk, supervisor, assistant manager, manager, deputy general manager, and general manager. Questionnaires were sent to 350 Canadian bankers. Of these, 162 bankers responded to the survey, showing 45 percent return. Data for Korean bankers were collected from four banks in Korea. Questionnaires were sent to 300 Korean bankers but 231 bankers (79 percent return) responded to the questionnaires.

Sample used in empirical research except for incomplete data is shown in <Table III-1> and <Table III-2>.

<Table III-1> Percentage by Gender

gender	Korea	Canada	Total
male	139(67.8%)	45(29.6%)	184(51.5%)
female	66(32.2%)	107(70.4%)	173(48.5%)
total	205(100%)	152(100%)	357(100%)

2. Procedure

The questionnaires were made by Rahim in English. The questionnaires that were used in Korea were translated into Korean to ensure reliability by the author and two bilingual Canadian bankers in Canada. The respondents filled out the questionnaires during work hours or leisure time at their place of work. English questionnaires were distributed to Canadian bankers in Canada, but Korean ones were distributed to Korean bankers.

〈Table III-2〉 Percentage by Age

Age	Korea	Canada	Total
under 25	18(8.8%)	11(7.2%)	29(8.1%)
25-29	57(27.8%)	25(16.4%)	82(23.0%)
30-34	47(22.9%)	26(17.1%)	73(20.4%)
35-39	50(24.4%)	21(13.8%)	71(19.9%)
40-44	26(12.7%)	30(19.7%)	56(15.7%)
over 45	7(3.4%)	39(25.7%)	46(12.9%)
total	205(100%)	152(100%)	357(100%)

3. Measure

1) Integrating

Prein(1976) suggested that this style has two distinctive elements: confrontation and problem solving. Confrontation involves open and direct communication, which should make way for problem solving. As a result, it may lead to creative solution to problems.

I asked respondents to reply to 4 items regarding integrating in questionnaire. The 4 items were comprised of: (1) trying to work with other staffs to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations, (2) exchanging accurate information with other staffs to solve a problem together, (3) trying to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be solved in the best possible way, and (4) trying to work with other staffs for a proper understanding of a problem. The respondents were asked to indicate how well each statement described their behavior in terms of a 5-point Likert scale(Always to Never).

2) Dominating

Domination behavior is the tendency to actively force a preferred solution in a conflict without taking into account the interests of the other party. The focal party takes a tough positional stand on the conflict issue and demands

concessions from the other party. Domination implies a zero-sum conceptualization of conflicts, where the quality of one's own outcome is inversely related to the quality of the outcome for the other party. Thus, domination becomes an unacceptable form of conflict handling.

The respondents were asked to indicate how well each statement described their behavior in terms of a 5-point Likert scale (Always to Never). Dominating style is composed of 4 items. The items included (1) using my influence to get my ideas accepted, (2) using my authority to make a decision in my favor, (3) using my expertise to make a decision in my favor, and (4) using sometimes my power to win a competitive situation.

3) Obliging

Obliging implies a willingness to sacrifice one's gains in order to reach settlement in a conflict situation. If the other party initiates joint problem solving through integrative behavior, or signals a willingness to compromise, there is no need for focal persons to sacrifice their own interests by the other party. Obliging, therefore, is most typically a reaction to tough demands made by the other party. The respondents were asked to indicate how well each statement described their behavior in terms of a 5-point Likert scale (Always to Never). Hence, each banker in Canada and Korea rated his conflict behavior, using 4 statements regarding obliging, one of interpersonal conflict management styles. The statements comprise (1) trying to satisfy the needs of other staffs generally, (2) using accommodate the wishes of other staffs usually, (3) giving in to some of the wishes of other staffs, and (4) trying to satisfy the expectations of other staffs.

4) Avoiding

Avoidance shows little assertion or cooperation, for it depends on moving away from the other party, or ignoring or withdrawing from the situation. It is the degree to which the individual withdraws from the conflict episode. Active

avoidance behavior involves efforts to cognitively reduce the importance of the potential conflict to trivial matters, to sidestep the conflict, or to postpone the conflict indefinitely. The tendency to avoid conflict is most typical in informal conflict situations.

The respondents were asked to indicate how well each statement described their behavior in terms of a 5-point Likert scale (Always to Never). Items regarding avoiding style used in this questionnaire were four items such as (1) attempting to avoid being "put on the spot" and trying to keep my conflict with other staffs to myself, (2) usually avoiding open discussion of my differences with other staffs, (3) trying to stay away from disagreement with other staffs, and (4) trying to keep my disagreement with other staffs to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.

5) Compromising

A party can take a compromise stand on a conflictive issue by engaging in a give-and-take process. The person will signal a willingness to partly sacrifice one's own interests if the other party is willing to do likewise. Compromising involves a certain degree of gamesmanship, rhetoric, and strategic opportunistic behaviour as the parties move from their opening offers toward a compromise solution. This questionnaire developed by Rahim (1992) is composed of 4 items: (1) trying to find a middle course to resolve an impasse (2) usually proposing a middle ground for breaking deadlocks (3) negotiating with other staffs so that a compromise can be reached (4) using "give and take" so that a compromise can be made. The respondents were asked to indicate how well each statement described their behavior in terms of a 5-point Likert scale (Always to Never).

IV. Results

I tested for significant differences in managing interpersonal conflict between Canadian and Korean bankers(Hypotheses 1-5) with t-test using Z-score. <Table IV-1> shows the results.

<table IV-1> results by t-test

	country	N	mean	SD	t	df	sig.	mean difference
Integrating	Korea	204	-.3755	.9706	-9.367	350.455	.000	-.8795
	Canada	152	.5040	.7990				
Dominating	Korea	204	.3071	.9041	.7158	302.678	.000	.7303
	Canada	148	-.4233	.9736				
Obliging	Korea	203	-.0409	1.0030	-.956	326.569	.340	-.1025
	Canada	152	.0586	.9962				
Avoiding	Korea	203	-.3468	.8559	-8.077	294.852	.000	-.8131
	Canada	151	.4662	.9925				
Compromising	Korea	203	-.2513	.9772	-5.779	329.464	.000	-.5914
	Canada	150	.3401	.9303				

The statistical level of significance about the difference of two comparison group is .05. I ran t-test as an exploratory analysis for the comparison of the differences in managing interpersonal conflict between Canadian and Korean bankers. <Table IV-1> shows the difference in using styles of interpersonal conflict management in both countries. T-test results showed that all Hypotheses except for one differed significantly at the .05 level of significance. Detailed findings are as follows:

As for integrating, Canadian bankers(mean=.5040) were more likely to use this style than Korean bankers(mean=-.3755) were, confirming Hypothesis 1. In dominating, Korean bankers(mean=.3071) showed higher tendency to use dominating style than Canadian bankers(mean=-.4233), rejecting Hypothesis

2. However, in the case of obliging style, the result($p=.340>.05$) did not support the .05 level of statistical significance. For avoiding, Canadian bankers(mean=.4662) tended to use avoiding style more than Korean bankers (mean=-.3468), rejecting Hypothesis 4. Finally, Canadian bankers(mean=.3401) showed a general tendency to use compromising style more than Korean bankers(mean=-.2513), rejecting Hypothesis 5.

The difference of managing interpersonal conflict between Canadian and Korean bankers may not result from difference of countries but from one of gender or age. Sample of the study did not compose same rate in gender or age because of the difficulties of collecting questionnaire. To overcome such a problem, I added ANCOVA statistical technique. As <Table IV-2> shows, findings did not reveal different result.

<Table IV-2> Test Result by ANCOVA

		SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Integrating	Covariates	22.035	2	11.017	13.778	.000
		52.879	1	52.879	66.128	.000
	Model	74.914	3	24.971	31.228	.000
Dominating	Covariates	16.747	2	8.373	9.794	.000
		33.791	1	33.791	39.526	.000
	Model	50.538	3	16.846	19.705	.000
Obliging	Covariates	.217	2	.109	.108	.898
		.715	1	.715	.710	.400
	Model	.932	3	.311	.308	.819
Avoiding	Covariates	25.521	2	12.761	15.177	.000
		33.305	1	33.305	39.611	.000
	Model	58.826	3	19.609	23.322	.000
Compromising	Covariates	15.477	2	7.739	8.427	.000
		17.080	1	17.080	18.599	.000
	Model	32.557	3	10.818	11.818	.000

V. Discussion and Limitations

Canadian and Korean bankers tended to use toward different styles when managing interpersonal conflict within the organization. Findings of this study indicate that whereas Canadian bankers tend to use more integrating, avoiding and compromising styles than Korean bankers, Korean bankers tend to use more dominating style than Canadian bankers. These cross-cultural differences may complicate life for expatriate managers who find themselves trying to manage conflict in a foreign cultural system. In particular, it may be the case that results of a study differ from previous results. Lee and Rogan(1991), for example, predicted that Korean managers would prefer nonconfrontation and solution-oriented conflict styles, while American managers would prefer a controlling style for dealing with organizational conflicts. However, it was unexpected that Americans rated nonconfrontation strategies as more likely to be used than Koreans across all conditions(Ting-Toomey, 1995). Regarding nonconfrontation(e.g., avoiding, accommodating), Chu & Gudykunst(1987), Kagan, Knight, & Martinez-Romero(1982), McGinn, Harburg, & Ginsberg (1973), Trubisky, Ting-Toomey, & Lin(1991) indicated that collectivist cultures rated this style as more likely to be used than did individualistic cultures in four studies. In contrast, Lee & Rogan(1991) reported the opposite pattern. Findings of this study also differed from the results of previous other studies. In other words, Canadian bankers tended to use more integrating, avoiding and compromising than Korean bankers, while Korean bankers tended to do more dominating style than Canadian bankers.

These unexpected results, however, are confined to a particular scope(banking systems) of this study. It is the reason why the findings of this study came from both Canadian and Korean bankers. No comparative study of interpersonal conflict management between Canada and Korea, up to date, exists. Of course, this study confirmed the fact that styles of managing

interpersonal conflict differ by cultural differences. It is not deniable that the differences of culture will have significant impact on styles of managing interpersonal conflict. As previous studies showed, the results of this study revealed different result as previous studies, showing similar patterns sometimes. It's reason stemmed from value systems. Thus, we need cultural approach stressing culture in conflict management(Cho & Park, 1998).

Recently, Tinsley(1998) elaborated the relationship between national culture and conflict resolution models. This research also had five propositions based on several major cross-cultural studies about styles of managing interpersonal conflict in organizations. Findings of this research show that differences of managing interpersonal conflict have been influenced not only by cultural dimensions but also by other dimensions. Therefore, Porat(1970) noted that cultural differences between both countries only partially could account for the differences of conflict management. He tested that American and British managers would manifest cross-cultural behavior difference in managing conflict. In his research, respondents replied that difference from their behavior emerged from cultural, social, and economical context. Rognes(1994) also supported his argument. He suggested that institutional and cultural factors are important determinants of how conflicts are managed. It may be thought that institutional factors also will give higher prediction and theoretical supporting regarding cultural differences. It may be admitted that one or two factors cannot perfectly account for the findings emerged from national context of different culture in managing interpersonal conflict. Notwithstanding such a constraint, unexpected results of this research, I believe, will be explained to some degree by institutional factor. We can find cause of results from environmental change, in particular, the IMF shock. Banking systems at which this study aims is not exception. In Korea, 5 banks and 9 banks respectively were closed and merged, with 2 banks sold to foreign companies. As a result, 30,000 employees were fired from their banks(Daily Economic Newspaper, 1999). Such environmental challenges, it may be said, have had an sudden

impact on styles of managing interpersonal conflict. The knowledge can be ascertained by interviewing with some of Korean bankers in Korea.

Whether the present findings is temporary or not is not obvious, because of the study confined to banking systems. Whether findings of the study equally can be applied to other organizations or not is uncertain. Ting-Toomey(1994) emphasized that the generalizability of this line of research awaits to be further tested in different cross-cultural interpersonal conflict relationship settings. Styles of managing interpersonal conflict, it should be recognized, may be transformed by national characteristics, difference of theoretical models, and organizational features etc. Its cause is, in the continuous change of influencing factors that influence styles of managing interpersonal conflict.

The following are suggestions with which this study can provide in academic and business spheres.

I get some suggestions in academic sphere by this study.

First, as indicated by Ting-Toomey, we need a volume of empirical research on difference of individual conflict relationships for the generalizability of cross-cultural study. Recently, there are some cross-cultural research on conflict management such as a comparative study between Canada and the Netherlands, but cross-cultural study on Canada is rare. In this point, this findings between Canadian and Korean bankers on interpersonal conflict management will serve to add new insights in this field.

Second, this study provided a moment to confirm that culture has a significant correlation with interpersonal conflict management styles. It is interesting to note that avoiding and dominating styles in this study showed an inverse result to the other studies. This study which focused on styles of managing interpersonal conflict showed a significant results except for obliging on the whole. In particular, it is surprising findings that show inverse results in dominating and avoiding styles.

Third, this research shows that institutional factor may be key determinant of organization. Therefore, we should not expect same results in studying interpersonal conflict management styles. It is quite obvious that culture is a major determinant of managing interpersonal conflict. This study confirmed such a fact, but culture is not an absolute standard in determining conflict management styles. To gain our desirable results, we should take into consideration institutional factor as well as cultural factor in cross-cultural approach on styles of managing interpersonal conflict. Therefore, it may be said that styles of managing interpersonal conflict are a function of cultural and institutional factors. In summary, I recognized that styles of managing interpersonal conflict were more complicated than expected. I need a more profound study in styles of managing interpersonal conflict between or among different countries.

The following are suggestions in business sphere by the study. First, managers should be aware that there are cross-cultural differences in managing interpersonal conflict between Canada and Korea. That is, it should be recognized that styles of managing interpersonal conflict of persons in organizations--integrating, dominating, obliging, avoiding, and compromising--differ across countries. These differences mean that managers should practice management strategies that fit with the cultural values of their employees. In managing interpersonal conflict, Korean bankers showed very fast shift in dominating, avoiding, and compromising. This suggests that managers should redesign conflict management strategies in Korea.

Second, managers should take notice of a fact that there is difference in the preference of managing interpersonal conflict. Management cost incurred from organizational problems will be reduced if managers properly manage conflict in organizations. In order to get expected results, managers should recognize and manage interpersonal conflict facing in organizations. For the accomplishment of such a goal, managers should be interested in interpersonal conflict

management when they are operating in other countries.

Third, this study will be an important moment to realize that managers should actively confront with fast growing environmental shifts when they manage interpersonal conflict in organizations. Globalization of business strongly requires the knowledge of cultural differences across countries and new environmental change in political, social, economical, and cultural dimensions.

However, this study has limitations. First, this study indicates that styles of managing interpersonal conflict between or among countries are affected not only by cultural factor but also institutional factor. This study has a constraint not to suggest the influence's degree of cultural and institutional factors to this study's result.

Second, this study is characterized as a pilot test. It is approached by styles of interpersonal conflict between Canadian and Korean bankers.

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