

Comparison of Impact of Cultural Intelligence Between Cultural Orientations and Conflict Management Styles: A Case of Multi Countries

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Abstract

In today's globalised work environment, organisations frequently encounter cultural diversity, which can foster innovation but also lead to conflict. This study examines the influence of Cultural Values and Orientation (CVO) on Conflict Management Styles (CMSs)—specifically, avoidance, forcing, and problem-solving—while investigating the moderating role of Cultural Intelligence (CQ). Drawing on Hofstede's cultural dimensions (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and long-term orientation) and four CQ components (meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural), the study examines how individuals' cultural traits influence their preferences for conflict resolution in multicultural workplaces. Data were collected from 1,012 organizational employees across Pakistan, Germany, and the USA using validated Likert-scale instruments. The results from structural equation modelling (using AMOS-26) confirm that cultural values significantly predict conflict management behaviour, and that CQ moderates these relationships. For example, individuals with high power distance tend to be inclined toward avoidance and force, while those with high collectivism and long-term orientation prefer problem-solving. Significantly, high CQ levels enhance cooperative resolution tendencies and mitigate aggressive responses. These findings underscore the importance of fostering CQ in multicultural teams to improve conflict resolution and organizational harmony. This research contributes to both theory and practice by integrating culture-specific values with individual capabilities in managing workplace conflict effectively.

Keywords: Cultural Values, Conflict Management Styles, Cultural Intelligence, Hofstede Dimensions, Workplace Conflict, Multicultural Teams, Structural Equation Modelling.

Introduction

One of the notable consequences of globalization in the organizational context is the emergence of multicultural work environments (Taptiani et al., 2024). Scientific and technological advancements have facilitated increased mobility and instantaneous communication, allowing individuals from diverse backgrounds to work together seamlessly across borders (Alemayehu Tegegn, 2024). However, this diversity also adds complexity to workplace dynamics, as individuals bring varying cultural norms and values that can influence interactions and shape the organizational culture. The growing heterogeneity in the workforce, particularly in terms of

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cultural backgrounds, has a significant impact on the internal functioning of organizations (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011). Navigating such culturally diverse settings poses operational challenges (Lin et al., 2012). Although cultural diversity contributes positively to innovation and organizational longevity, it can also become a source of interpersonal conflict (Ayoko & Härtel, 2006).

Cultural values and orientations represent the collective mental programming that distinguishes members of one group from another. Hofstede (2015) conceptualized cultural values along key dimensions, including individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and masculinity versus femininity. These dimensions help explain how individuals perceive authority, relationships, and problem-solving in organizational contexts. In light of these dimensions, employees are often trained to manage conflicts using various conflict management styles (CMSs) (Kaushal & Kwantes, 2006). These include: avoiding—distancing oneself from conflict; forcing—asserting one's position over others; and problem-solving—collaboratively addressing the root causes of disagreement. Effective use of CMSs can foster organizational success and the adoption of innovative practices, thereby enhancing competitiveness (Bradford et al., 2004; Allen & Schweiger, 1997).

In today's globalized world, extending organizational sustainability has become increasingly challenging (Alkharafi & Alsabah, 2025), with creativity emerging as a crucial survival factor. Culturally diverse teams can enhance innovation but also increase the risk of conflict (Hempel & Sue-Chan, 2010; Gregory & Gregory, 2014). Individuals with high levels of cultural intelligence (CQ), particularly in terms of cognitive and behavioural competencies, are better equipped to navigate such cross-cultural complexities (Euwema et al., 2003). When managed effectively, cultural differences can be transformed into opportunities for growth.

This study examines the moderating role of cultural intelligence (CQ)—encompassing meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions—in the relationship between cultural value orientations (CVOs) and conflict management styles (CMSs). Despite growing interest in cross-cultural dynamics, limited empirical research has examined how CQ influences the interaction between specific cultural dimensions and conflict resolution strategies in multicultural work settings.

Literature Review and Hypothesis

Power distance plays a crucial role in addressing issues related to social and organizational inequality. Hofstede (2011) defines it as "the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally." In low-power-distance cultures, individuals expect egalitarian treatment and believe in the ethical use of authority. Conversely, in high power-distance societies, hierarchical structures are deeply ingrained, and power is accepted as a norm, irrespective of fairness or ethics (Hofstede, 2011). According to Van Oudenhoven et al. (1998), power distance is positively associated with problem-solving.

In contrast, Kim (2007) identifies a positive correlation with both avoidance and forcing styles. This suggests that individuals with a high power distance orientation may prefer conflict management strategies (CMS) that are less cooperative and more hierarchical. Furthermore, Purohit and Simmers (2006) argue that those in positions of authority are more likely to adopt competitive approaches. Based on this literature, it is proposed that:

H1a: Individuals with high power distance are positively associated with avoidance.

H1b: Individuals with high power distance are positively associated with forcing behaviour.

H1c: Individuals with high power distance are negatively associated with problem-solving.

Uncertainty avoidance also significantly influences CMS preferences. Purohit and Simmers (2006) found positive links between uncertainty avoidance and both avoiding and forcing strategies. In contrast, Van Oudenhoven et al. (1998) noted a negative association between uncertainty avoidance and problem-solving. However, Gunkel et al. (2016) observed positive relationships with both avoidance and problem-solving, revealing inconsistencies that are likely due to the homogeneous cultural samples. Individuals with high uncertainty avoidance may choose avoidance when disengaged or problem-solving when more invested in resolving the conflict. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are presented:

H2a: High uncertainty avoidance is positively related to avoidance behaviour.

H2b: Individuals with high uncertainty tolerance are negatively related to forcing.

H2c: High uncertainty avoidance is positively associated with problem-solving.

The cultural dimension of collectivism versus individualism highlights differing social orientations—collectivists prioritize group cohesion, while individualists value personal autonomy (Hofstede, 2011). These orientations influence conflict resolution preferences. Collectivist individuals often avoid or resolve conflict through cooperation to preserve harmony, whereas individualists may lean toward assertiveness and forcing strategies (Holt & DeVore, 2005). Gunkel et al. (2016) found that collectivism correlates positively with problem-solving and negatively with forcing. Based on these findings:

H3a: Collectivism is positively associated with avoidance behaviour.

H3b: Collectivism is negatively associated with the avoidance of forcing

H3c: Collectivism is positively associated with problem solving.

The masculinity dimension reflects societal attitudes toward gender roles and assertiveness. In masculine cultures, men are viewed as dominant and achievement-oriented, while women are seen as nurturing (O'Donnell et al., 2024; Merdassa, 2024). Masculine societies often emphasize work over relationships and prefer competitive strategies. In contrast, feminine cultures value equality and collaboration, favouring problem-solving approaches (Hofstede, 2001; Van Oudenhoven et al., 1998). Brewer et al. (2002) assert that men in masculine societies tend toward forceful conflict styles, whereas those in less masculine settings tend to adopt avoidance or problem-solving styles. Hence:

H4a: Masculinity is negatively related to avoidance.

H4b: Masculinity is positively related to forcing.

H4c: Masculinity is negatively related to problem-solving.

Long-term orientation refers to the extent to which individuals focus on future outcomes and enduring values (Hofstede, 2001). Long-term-oriented individuals are more likely to engage in problem-solving, build sustained relationships, and minimize misunderstandings (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Gunkel et al. (2016) found a positive relationship between long-term orientation and problem-solving. In contrast, short-term-oriented individuals prioritize immediate gains and may favour more aggressive strategies, such as forcing. Based on this understanding:

H5a: Long-term orientation is negatively associated with avoidance.

H5b: Long-term orientation is negatively associated with forcing.

H5c: Long-term orientation is positively associated with problem-solving.

Cultural intelligence (CQ), along with emotional intelligence, plays a moderating role in the relationship between cultural orientations and CMS preferences (Gunkel et al., 2016). Interpersonal competence in one culture does not guarantee success in cross-cultural contexts (Earley & Soon, 2003). CQ enables individuals to assess and respond appropriately in diverse settings. According to Chen et al. (2014), agreeable CMSs positively moderate the relationship

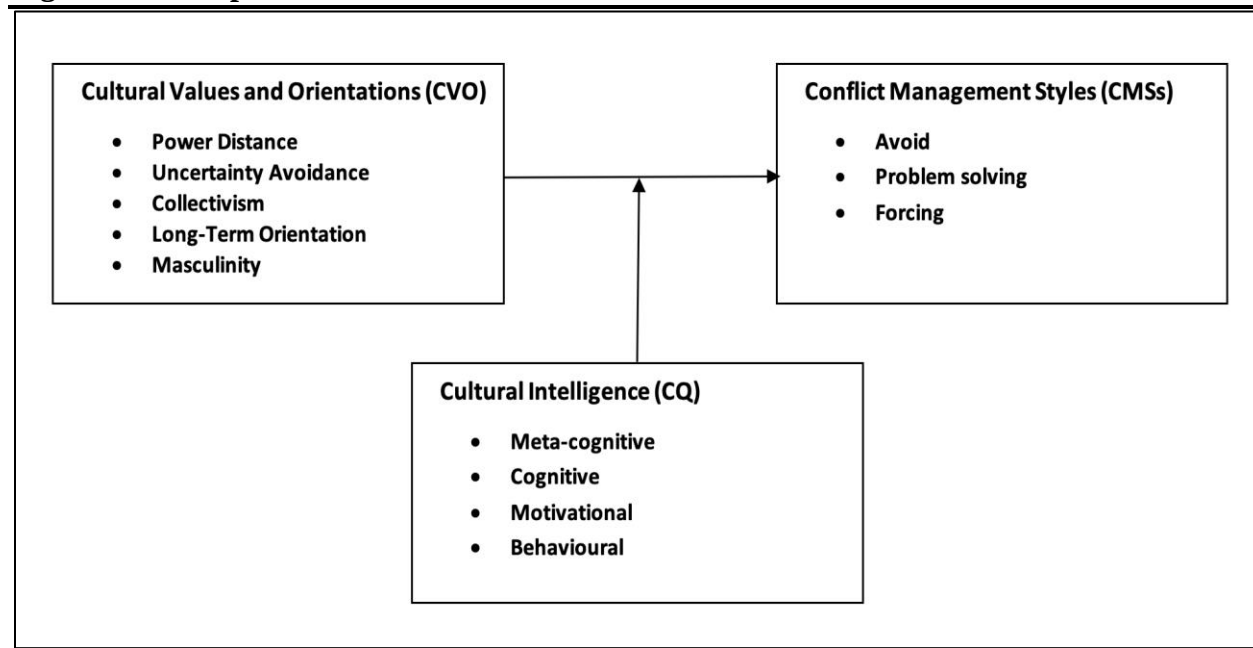
between CQ and multicultural effectiveness, while overly assertive styles may hinder it. CQ and self-monitoring enhance conflict resolution by allowing individuals to select context-appropriate responses. Therefore, culturally intelligent individuals are expected to align their CMS with the demands of the cultural environment. The following hypotheses are proposed:

H6a: CQ negatively moderates the relationship between CVO and avoidance.

H6b: CQ positively moderates the relationship between CVO and forcing.

H6c: CQ positively moderates the relationship between CVO and problem-solving.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Methodology

The data for this study were collected using self-administered questionnaires. A non-probability convenience sampling technique was employed, where participants were selected based on ease of access and availability to obtain the necessary responses. The target population comprised organizational employees from various global regions, specifically Pakistan, Germany, and the United States. Data were gathered from individuals working in organizations across these countries, with a focus on collecting responses related to cultural values and orientation (CVO), cultural intelligence (CQ), and conflict management styles (CMSs).

Given the cross-national nature of the study, different data collection approaches were adopted. In the United States and Germany, data were gathered through online surveys using Google Forms, and respondents were approached via email. In contrast, in Pakistan, a minimum of 350 printed questionnaires were distributed across various organizations located in cities such as Karachi, Sialkot, Gujranwala, Islamabad, and Gujrat. The final dataset included a minimum of 1,012 completed responses, which formed the basis for hypothesis testing and subsequent analysis.

Measures

To assess the constructs used in the study, validated and widely recognized measurement scales were adopted. Cultural values and orientations were measured using the CVSCALE developed by

Yoo et al. (2011), which consists of 26 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale captures the five dimensions of Hofstede's cultural framework.

Cultural intelligence (CQ) was measured using the 20-item scale proposed by Ang et al. (2007). This instrument also uses a 5-point Likert format and evaluates four dimensions of CQ: meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral.

Conflict management styles were assessed using the Dutch Test for Conflict Handling (De Dreu, 2001), a 20-item instrument measured on a 7-point Likert scale. This tool categorizes conflict styles into three primary constructs: avoiding, forcing, and problem-solving, making it suitable for the present study's objectives.

Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted in three main phases: data screening, measurement model evaluation, and structural model assessment, as recommended by Hair et al. (2010). Initially, data screening was performed to identify any anomalies, missing values, or deviations from key assumptions such as normality. Visual inspections and statistical diagnostics were applied during this stage.

Subsequently, the measurement and structural models were evaluated using statistical software including IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 26) and AMOS-26. These tools facilitated confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) to validate the proposed relationships and test the study's hypotheses systematically.

Results and Discussion

The table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the respondents based on key study variables, including the mean, standard deviation, and correlation matrix. Notably, the standard deviation values for cultural values and orientation, conflict management style, and cultural intelligence are all less than 1. This indicates a normal distribution of these variables within the sample population of the study.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviation and Correlations Matrix

	Mean	SD	CVO	CQ	CMS'S
CVO	4.2449	0.64574	1	-	-
CMS'S	4.3303	0.57478	0.808**	1	-
CQ	5.4464	0.76842	0.382**	0.321**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The correlation values for all variables are positive, indicating a positive association among the three constructs examined. The strength of these relationships is interpreted using Cohen's (2011) criteria, which classify correlation coefficients (r) below 0.30 as weak, between 0.30 and 0.70 as moderate, and above 0.70 as strong. According to the table, the correlation between conflict management styles (CMSs) and cultural values and orientation (CVO) is strong and positive ($r = 0.808$). Cultural intelligence (CQ) shows a moderate positive correlation with both CVO ($r = 0.382$) and CMSs ($r = 0.321$). These findings support the validity of the proposed hypotheses, as the direction and strength of the relationships among all variables are consistent and aligned with expectations.

Reliability Analysis

The reliability analysis assesses the internal consistency of the measurement scales used to test the study's hypotheses. Cronbach's Alpha is employed as the primary metric to evaluate the reliability of each variable individually, as well as the overall scale. According to J. F. Hair et al. (2013), a Cronbach's Alpha value exceeding 0.70 is considered acceptable for reliability. The analysis reveals Cronbach's Alpha values of 0.951 for cultural values and orientation (CVO), 0.898 for conflict management styles (CMSs), and 0.751 for cultural intelligence (CQ). The overall reliability score is 0.917, which surpasses the recommended threshold. These results confirm that the measurement scales used in the study are reliable for testing the proposed hypotheses.

Table 2: Reliability Analysis

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha
CVO	0.951
CMS'S	0.898
CQ	0.751
Over All	0.917

Measurement Model

Establishing the validity of the measurement model is a critical prerequisite before proceeding with hypothesis testing. The measurement model assesses whether the instruments used effectively measure the constructs intended by the researcher. According to Hair et al. (2013), it illustrates the relationship between latent constructs and their observed indicators. Key components of the measurement model include convergent validity, discriminant validity, and internal consistency, all of which are essential for evaluating the model's accuracy. Often referred to as the outer model, it serves to verify both the reliability and validity of the items in relation to their respective constructs.

Internal Consistency

The outer model is assessed through its internal consistency, presented in table 3 which is primarily evaluated using composite reliability. Consistent with prior research, a composite reliability value exceeding 0.70 is considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2013). As presented in the table, all composite reliability values surpass this threshold, indicating a high level of internal consistency and confirming the reliability of the measurement model.

Table 3: Internal Consistency

Latent variables	Composite Reliability
CVO	0.783
CQ	0.821
CMS's	0.752

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity confirms that each measurement item is strongly associated with its underlying construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It ensures that the items used to measure a construct are indeed accurately reflecting that construct. Several methods can be employed to establish convergent validity; in this study, it is evaluated using the Average Variance Extracted

(AVE). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), an AVE value of 0.50 or higher is considered acceptable. As shown in Table 7, the AVE values for all variables meet or exceed this threshold, thereby confirming the presence of convergent validity in the measurement model.

Table 4: Convergent Validity Results

Latent variables	AVE
CVO	0.533
CQ	0.583
CMS's	0.571

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity demonstrates the extent to which each construct is uniquely associated with its own measurement items, as opposed to those of other constructs (Hempel & Sue-Chan, 2010). This is assessed through two key criteria: first, the items should exhibit higher loadings on their respective constructs than on any other constructs. Second, discriminant validity is confirmed when the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct exceeds its correlations with other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Based on these criteria, the table clearly supports the establishment of discriminant validity, aligning with the specified standards.

Table 5: Discriminant Validity of the Study

Latent variables	CVO	CQ	CMS'S
CVO	0.738	-	-
CQ	0.149***	0.772	-
CMS's	0.198***	0.173***	0.761

Model Fit Indices

Model fit indices play a crucial role in evaluating the adequacy of a structural model. Several indices are commonly used to assess model fit, including CMIN/DF, RMSEA, CFI, and TLI, which evaluate the overall fitness of the model, while GFI, AGFI, and NFI reflect the degree to which the model represents the observed data. The table presents both the threshold values and the corresponding calculated indices, all of which align with the recommended standards supported by established literature.

Specifically, the CMIN/DF value should be less than or equal to 5; the observed value of 2.93 meets this criterion. Additionally, acceptable values for GFI, AGFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI range from 0.90 to 1.00. The recorded values—0.98 (GFI), 0.94 (AGFI), 0.93 (CFI), 0.95 (NFI), and 0.92 (TLI)—all fall within this range. For RMSEA, values between 0 and 0.08 are considered acceptable, and the obtained value of 0.0132 indicates an excellent fit. These results collectively confirm that the model demonstrates a strong goodness of fit.

Table 6: Model Fit Indices Result

Sr. #	Indices	Level of Acceptable Fit	Source	Calculated Fit Indices
1	CMIN/DF	$\chi^2/df \leq 5$	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)	2.93
2	Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$0.90 \leq GFI \leq 1$	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)	0.98
3	Adjusted Goodness Fit Index (AGFI)	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	(Hooper et al., 2008)	0.94
4	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$0.90 \leq CFI \leq 1$	(Kline, 2015)	0.93
5	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$0.90 \leq NFI \leq 1$	(Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996)	0.95
6	Ticker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$0.90 \leq TLI \leq 1$	(Kline, 2015)	0.92
7	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$	(Hu & Bentler, 1999)	0.132

Structural Model

After analyzing measurement model and confirmation of factors, now hypothesis will be tested. Table shows that structural model is proved as all the values are according to threshold.

Hypothesis Testing

The first hypothesis is divided into three sub-hypotheses: H1a, H1b, and H1c, each exploring the relationship between Cultural Values and Orientation (CVO)—specifically, power distance—and conflict management styles. H1a posits that individuals with a high power distance orientation are positively associated with the avoidance style of conflict management. This hypothesis is supported by its statistically significant p-value. H1b suggests a positive relationship between high power distance and the forcing style, while H1c indicates a negative association between high power distance and the problem-solving style. Both H1b and H1c are supported by the corresponding p-values, confirming these relationships.

The second set of hypotheses—H2a, H2b, and H2c—address the influence of uncertainty avoidance on conflict management styles. H2a proposes that individuals with high uncertainty avoidance are positively associated with the avoidance style. H2b asserts a positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance and the forcing style, while H2c suggests a positive association with the problem-solving style. The statistical results validate all three hypotheses, as evidenced by their p-values.

Next, the hypotheses H3a, H3b, and H3c explore the role of collectivism in conflict management. H3a posits a positive relationship between collectivism and the avoidance style, H3b indicates a negative association with the forcing style, and H3c suggests a positive link with the problem-solving style. The empirical findings support all three hypotheses, confirming their validity.

Following this, the fourth set—H4a, H4b, and H4c—examines the influence of masculinity on conflict management styles. H4a proposes a negative correlation between masculinity and the avoidance style, H4b indicates a positive relationship with the forcing style, and H4c suggests a negative association with the problem-solving style. Each of these hypotheses is supported by the statistical evidence, as reflected in the p-values.

Finally, the fifth set—H5a, H5b, and H5c—relates to long-term orientation and its impact on conflict management approaches. H5a posits a negative relationship with the avoidance style, H5b asserts a positive association with the forcing style, and H5c identifies a neutral relationship with the problem-solving style. The p-values for these hypotheses confirm their acceptance, thereby validating the proposed relationships.

Table 7: Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Relationship	β -Value	S.E.	C.R.	P-Value	Results
H1a	CVO(PD)→CMS(AS)	0.218***	0.027	6.332	0.000	Supported
H1b	CVO(PD)→CMS(FS)	0.182***	0.041	4.677	0.000	Supported
H1c	CVO(PD)→CMS(PS)	0.421***	0.033	8.432	0.000	Supported
H2a	CVO(UA)→CMS(AS)	0.149***	0.048	12.332	0.000	Supported
H2b	CVO(UA)→CMS(FS)	0.722***	0.078	12.454	0.000	Supported
H2c	CVO(UA)→CMS(PS)	0.181***	0.035	8.334	0.000	Supported
H3a	CVO(C)→CMS(AS)	0.324***	0.033	4.543	0.000	Supported
H3b	CVO(C)→CMS(FS)	0.821***	0.054	8.476	0.000	Supported
H3c	CVO(C)→CMS(PS)	0.382***	0.059	12.853	0.000	Supported

H4a	CVO(M)→CMS(AS)	0.291***	0.073	12.265	0.000	Supported
H4b	CVO(M)→CMS(FS)	0.429***	0.033	8.375	0.000	Supported
H4c	CVO(M)→CMS(PS)	0.522***	0.072	6.275	0.000	Supported
H5a	CVO(LO)→CMS(AS)	0.421***	0.082	8.435	0.000	Supported
H5b	CVO(LO)→CMS(FS)	0.341***	0.036	12.548	0.000	Supported
H5c	CVO(LO)→CMS(PS)	0.781***	0.084	14.946	0.000	Supported
H6a	CVO_CQ→CMS(AS)	0.378***	0.067	12.448	0.000	Supported
H6b	CVO_CQ→CMS(FS)	0.384***	0.077	13.332	0.000	Supported
H6c	CVO_CQ→CMS(PS)	0.398***	0.083	14.125	0.000	Supported

Note: *** significant at 0.001 level

Discussion

This study examines the impact of Cultural Value Orientations (CVO) and Cultural Intelligence (CQ)—encompassing its metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural dimensions—on individuals' preferences for conflict management styles (CMS), specifically avoidance, forcing, and problem-solving. Avoidance involves disengaging from conflict, forcing prioritises one party's needs, while problem-solving seeks mutually beneficial outcomes.

Findings indicate that individuals with high power distance are positively associated with avoiding and forcing styles, and negatively with problem-solving. These results align with previous research (Hofstede, 2011; Kim et al., 2007), confirming that power distance influences deference and conflict response strategies. Significant B-values (.218 for forcing, .182 for avoiding) and p-values validate H1a and H1b. Similarly, high power distance correlates negatively with problem-solving ($B = .421$), supporting H1c.

For individuals high in uncertainty avoidance, a significant positive association exists with both avoiding and problem-solving, and a negative association with forcing. These findings support prior research (Gunkel, 2016), with B-values of 0.149 (avoiding), 0.181 (problem-solving), and -0.722 (forcing), confirming hypotheses H2a–H2c. Uncertainty-averse individuals tend to avoid conflict or resolve it cooperatively to reduce future ambiguity.

Those with strong collectivist orientations are positively linked to avoidance and problem-solving, and negatively to forcing, as reflected in significant B-values (.329, .821, and .382, respectively), supporting hypotheses H3a–H3c. This suggests collectivists prioritise harmony and consensus over dominance.

Individuals high in masculinity tend to prefer the forcing style ($B = .429$), while showing negative associations with avoidance and problem-solving ($B = -.291$ and $-.522$, respectively), validating H4a–H4c. This reflects traditional masculine traits such as assertiveness and control in conflict settings.

Regarding long-term orientation, results show positive associations with problem-solving ($B = .781$), and negative associations with avoiding ($B = .421$) and forcing ($B = .321$), confirming H5a–H5c. Long-term-oriented individuals focus on future outcomes, favouring cooperative conflict resolution.

Cultural intelligence (CQ) was found to moderate the relationship between CVO and CMS. Specifically, motivational CQ positively influences the shift from a masculinity-oriented approach to problem-solving, while cognitive CQ reduces the tendency toward forceful responses. These moderating effects suggest that individuals with high CQ are more adaptable and less likely to

engage in aggressive conflict behaviours, mainly when influenced by cultural values such as masculinity or power distance.

Overall, the findings emphasise that both cultural orientations and levels of cultural intelligence significantly shape individuals' approaches to managing conflict, with CQ enhancing flexibility and promoting more constructive strategies in diverse organisational settings.

Conclusion

The findings of this study make a meaningful contribution to the existing literature on conflict resolution by highlighting the critical role of cultural value orientations in shaping individuals' preferences for conflict management styles (CMS). The results confirm that cultural orientation has a significant influence on how individuals approach conflict resolution. More importantly, the study extends this understanding by examining the moderating role of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), revealing that varying levels of CQ affect the strength and direction of the relationship between cultural orientation and conflict resolution strategies.

Cultural intelligence, defined as an individual's ability to function effectively across diverse cultural contexts, plays an increasingly vital role in globalised work environments, particularly within multinational teams. Our findings underscore the importance of CQ not only as a personal competency but also as an organisational asset that can enhance conflict management outcomes in culturally diverse settings.

The practical implications of these findings are considerable. As employees bring diverse cultural perspectives into the workplace, it becomes essential for managers to address potential conflicts proactively before they escalate and impact productivity. Managers must be equipped to facilitate constructive conflict resolution by fostering an inclusive environment that values cultural diversity and respects individual differences. This includes promoting awareness of cultural orientations and providing training in cultural intelligence.

To effectively lead cross-cultural teams, managers must recognise and respect the cultural identities, values, and communication styles of their employees. Ignoring the cultural, ethnic, or identity-based differences among team members can hinder effective conflict resolution and damage team cohesion. Therefore, developing cultural intelligence among both leaders and employees is crucial for mitigating relational conflicts and fostering collaboration in multicultural organisations.

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