



CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES AND THE GENDER

By

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Biography

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Simultaneously to his study in Mechanical Engineering, in 2003, he attended German language's courses and awarded the "Zertifikat Deutsche" (ZD) of Goethe Institute; Certificate in German language. Later in 2004, he attends English language's courses and awarded both the Certificate Proficiency in English (CPE) of Cambridge University and Examination for the Certificate of the Proficiency in English (ECPE) of Michigan University.

At the later years of his bachelor studies, in 2005, he completed his vocational training in Hellenic Telecommunications Organization (OTE S.A.) in the Department of Structural, Electrical, and Engineering Projects of Attica, and later on work as assistant manager in a small business. In 2006, he graduated from Technological Education Institution of Piraeus and applied to the City University-T.E.I. Piraeus Postgraduate Program; MSc in Project Management.

Since 2006, Spyros is a graduate student of City University-T.E.I Piraeus and currently completing his Master's studies.

Abstract

Purpose – Perhaps never before the issue of conflict management has been more important, given the globalization, high competitive business environment, and the diversification of the workforce. This study was designed to investigate assumptions that might exist between gender and conflict management. Specifically, the intent of the study is to compare the use of conflict management styles of males and females in 7 Greek private organizations in order to determine if gender-based and stereotypes differences exists.

Design/methodology/approach – The standardized self-report questionnaire instrument by Johnson and Johnson (2006) was utilized to assess the conflict management styles of 103 participants (50 males, 53 females) randomly selected from 7 private organizations located in Attica, Greece. Both Independent t-Test and K-Means Cluster Analysis-Chi-Square were utilized to investigate the relationship between gender and the use of conflict management styles.

Findings – Results of this study indicate that, women, compared with their male counterparts are more likely to utilize the compromising conflict management style. As compromising is generally considered as constructive and collaborating, the study suggests that women may possess more constructive and collaborative attitude in conflict than their male counterparts.

Originality/value – The results of this paper provide support, though limited, to the theory that an individual's gender may be related to the development of conflict management styles, however do not support the traditional view that men and women tend to complement gender role expectations, whereas men are goal-oriented and women relationship-oriented.

Keywords – conflict management styles, gender

Thesis Type – Data Analysis

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 *Nature of the Study*

“The project manager has been described as a conflict manager” (Kerzner, 2006, p.290). Conflict arises under deadlines, increased working hours, layoffs, and the demand for productivity (O’Rourke, 2003). Successful conflict management optimizes productivity and enhances working relationships (PMBOK, 2004). Moreover, “conflict is an inevitable result of group problem solving” (Verzuh, 2005, p.263). It is, also, a key variable between an effective and ineffective team (Pinto & Trailer, 1998). Therefore, given the aforementioned Kerzner’s definition, project managers have to deal with these issues.

Project managers, in order to deal with these issues effectively, should improve their conflict management skill by having a better understanding of conflict. This skill have been acknowledged as important for project managers from contemporaries and classic studies, such as Muzio et al. (2007), Brill et al. (2006) web-based Delphi study, and Thomas and Schmidt (1976), who have found that middle managers spend 26% of their time (maximum among all managers) dealing with conflict.

One way towards improving conflict management skill is to understand one’s preferred style, because according to Bartol et al. (2001) it is generally accepted that individuals have a preferred conflict style, despite the fact that the individual will turn to another in case this style is failed. “Knowing one’s predisposition toward conflict contributes the first step and provide an opportunity to manage conflict creatively” (Bartol et al., 2001, p. 40).

Most of the studies in classic and contemporary literature argue that there are five conflict management styles; forcing, compromise, confronting, withdrawing, and smoothing. This research attempts to study a variable in conflict management styles; the gender (among others such as age, education, working experience, organizational role etc.).

1.2 Need Assessment

Beneficiaries of this study include anyone in a management or supervision position, project managers and individuals. Integration of such knowledge into organizational programs would advance the quality of working relationships and, moreover, would create an environment equally accessible to both men and women (Brewer et al., 2002).

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to study the gender effect in the use of conflict management styles.

1.4 Relation to the Program of Study

The author during the Project Management graduate experience encountered the concept of conflict management in several courses such as “Introduction to Project Management”, “Project Communication Management”, “Managing Project with Peoples and Teams”, “Leadership Principles for Project Management”, and “Project Management Integration”. As it has been already mentioned, “Successful conflict management optimizes productivity and enhances working relationships...If conflict escalates, the project manager should help facilitate a satisfactory resolution” (PMBOK, 2004, p. 217). Hence, the author decided to investigate how men and women respond in conflicts based on a) the theory of conflict management styles

(Kerzner, 2006) and b) a recent perspective of “conflict patterns”- based on the conflict management styles (Munduate et al. 1999).

2.0 Problem Statement

2.1 *Research Problem Definition*

The problem is that we do not know how men and women respond in conflicts.

2.2 *Research Questions*

Research problem can be addressed by answering the following two questions:

RQ1. Are women and men responding different in conflict?

RQ2. Are gender stereotypes affecting their responses?

The study of women and men differences in conflict will provide further insights in finding a resolution and, hence may reduce the time and cost for conflict resolution. Moreover, it may provide help in planning of teams compositions to enhance its effectiveness.

2.3 *Hypotheses Development*

Based on the preliminary literature review of relevant studies the author will investigate six specific hypotheses. These hypotheses utilized for answering the RQ1 and RQ2.

H1. Women will be more withdrawing than men.

H2. Women will be less forcing than men.

H3. Women will be more smoothing than men.

H4. Women will be more compromising than men.

H5. Women will be no more confronting than men.

H6. There will be difference in the use of conflict patterns between women and men.

A more detailed literature review is presented in Chapter 3.0. The literature for the aforementioned six hypotheses will be reviewed thorough in Section 3.3. The research framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 1.

2.4 *Delimitations*

Delimitations have been developed in order to carefully bound the research effort.

Therefore:

- The study will be limited only to the gender factor.
- The study will be limited only to male and female gender types, not masculine.
- The study will be limited to five conflict management styles.
- The study will not propose that a conflict management is definite better than another.
- The study is making no attempt to definite state a connection between gender and conflict management styles or conflict patterns.

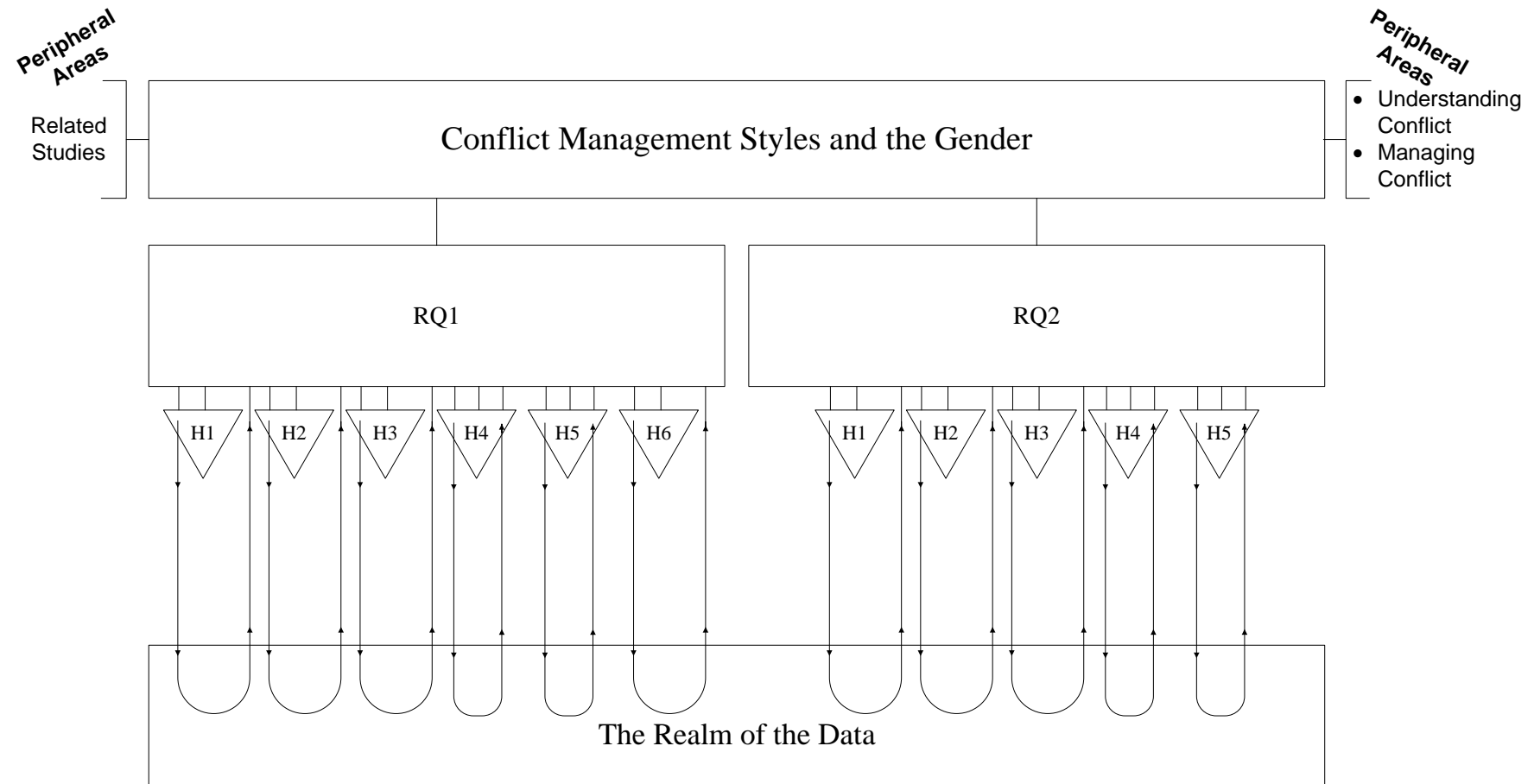


Figure 1. Research framework.

Adapted from *Practical research: Planning and design* (8th ed.) (p. 288), by Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E., 2005, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

3.0 Literature Review

3.1 *Understanding Conflict*

There are several definitions for conflicts in the literature. Robbins (1998) found the following definition "...a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about." Flannes and Levin's define conflict as "a dispute, disagreement, or contention between two or more entities (e.g., people, teams, various stakeholders) (2001, p. 228). Smith and Imbrie (2004, p. 48) support that "conflict is a situation in which an action of one person prevents, obstructs, or interferes with the actions of another person". De Dreu and Weingart (2003, p. 741) argue that "the process resulting from the tension between team members because of real or perceived differences."

Brown (2007) adopts six contents for conflict. These contents are:

1. Intrapersonal - the internal, mental struggle to select from among alternatives.
2. Interpersonal - differences between individuals.
3. Intragroup - differences between members of a group pursuing a similar corporate goal.
4. Intergroup - differences between groups with competing goals.
5. Intraorganizational - generalized differences in goals or perceptions of various factions within an organization.
6. Interorganizational - differences between organizations (companies or governments) competing for a similar goal or to advance competing ideologies.

According to O'Rourke (2003), three views of conflict had occurred; the Traditional, the Human Relations, and Interactionist View. The Traditional View assumed that conflict was bad. Often was used synonymously to words as violence and destruction. It was assumed that was a result of poor communication, mistrust, failure of management. Therefore, good managers avoid conflict and in the ideal workplace there were not any conflicts. The Human Relations View was popular between 1940 and 1970. This point of view assumed that conflict was something natural in organization and could not be eliminated. It could be also considered as beneficial, too. Organization could only accept it. Finally, the Interactionist View emerged in the social science literature and was popular between 1980 and 1990. This approach encourages conflict on the grounds of change and innovation. Without conflict, "a harmonious, peaceful, tranquil, and cooperative group may become static, apathetic, and unresponsive to a need for change and innovation". Moreover, without a minimum level of conflict, "no organization can change, adapt, and survive the rigors of the marketplace" (p. 255).

Flannes and Levin (2001) describe the experience of conflict by using three levels of conflict experience; cognitive, physiological, and affective. These levels are often sequentially. The cognitive level of conflict arises when a person notice that his or her self-talk issues may cause disagreement or conflict. Soon the person is having "apprehensive thoughts". These thoughts can lead to the next two, more active, levels. As the conversation continue, the experience of conflict moves to the next level; the physiological level. This level of conflict experienced when the individual has certain body symptoms such as increased heart rate, decreased respiration, tightening of muscles, and desire to "flight" or "flee". "Fight" means a verbal confrontation with the other person and "flight" means the tendency to leave the room. As soon as the

conflict experience has reached in this level, it is difficult to for the involved parties to calm. The third level of conflict experience happens quickly and includes emotions such as fear, anxiety, vulnerability, and anger. All these feelings, now, are playing a greater role in individual's thoughts and decisions, while the other party understands the upset of the individual. Table 1 summarizes the experience of conflict.

Table 1. *The Experience of Conflict*

Level of Conflict Experience	Signs and Symptoms of Conflict
Cognitive	Presence of internal self-talk with themes suggestive of impending or current conflict states
Physiological	Awareness of body cues such as increased heart rate, decreased respiration, tightening of muscles, desire to "fight" or "flight"
Affective	Earlier noted cognitive and affective cues are now being interpreted as indicating the presence of affective states where one feels emotions such as "fear," "anger," "anxiety."

Note. From "People Skills for Project Managers" (p.230), by S. W. Flannes and G.Levin, 2001, Vienna, VA: Management Concepts.

According to Axt (2006, p. 10), "conflict passes through a series of phases – beginning, development, and end - with distinct intensity scale" (see Figure 1). Axt (2006) argues that there are seven phases of conflict dynamic. The phases are latent

conflict, conflict emergence, conflict escalation, (hurting) stalemate, de-escalation/negotiation, dispute settlement, post-conflict peace building (see Figure 2).

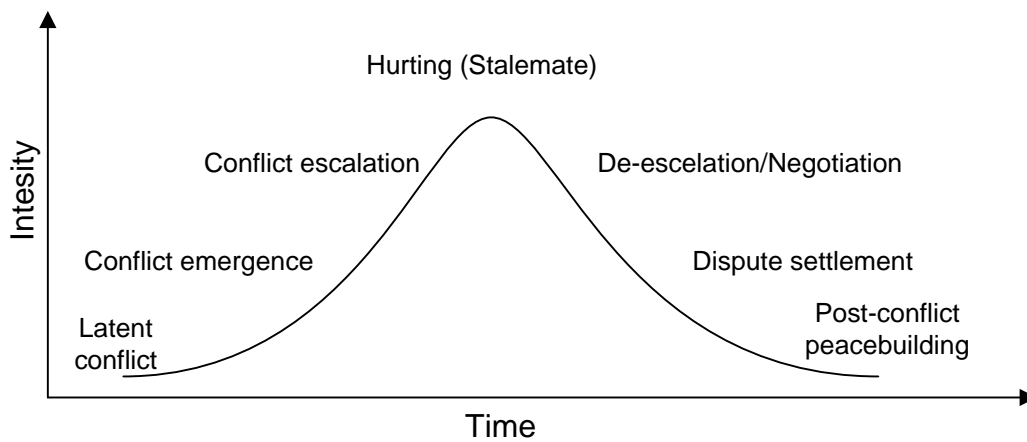


Figure 2. Life cycle on a conflict.

From "Conflict – a literature review" by H. Z. Axt, 2006, p.10.

O'Rourke (2004) argues that there are five regular sources of conflict:

- Limited resources - People within organizations confront one another over resources. Recourses include responsibilities, supervision, office, budget tools and equipment, access etc. If a person feels that another person have advantage on recourses, conflict can arise.
- Values, Goals, and Priorities - The more common values, goals, and priorities individuals have, the more possible is to develop relationships and less likely to experience conflict. Therefore, different values, goals, and priorities can be source of conflicts.
- Poorly Defined Responsibilities - Differences between formal job descriptions and informal expectation on the job.
- Change - In organizational priorities, budgets, lines of authority, layoffs can lead to conflict in an organization.

- Human Drives for Success - Competition among members for very few rewards. The greater the imbalance between member and rewards, the greater the potential of conflict.

The conflict's effects in performance depend on two factors. The first is the intensity of the conflict and the second is the way conflict is managed. As shown in Figure 3 the "U" curve points out that the conflict of medium intensity can be considered as functional. It has beneficial effect on the organization such as creativity, cooperation and productivity. On the contrary, high or low intensity of conflict can be considered as dysfunctional. High intensity is distracting and time-consuming, whereas low intensity encourages competency and loss of creativity, low performance. (Schermehorn, 2001, p.339)

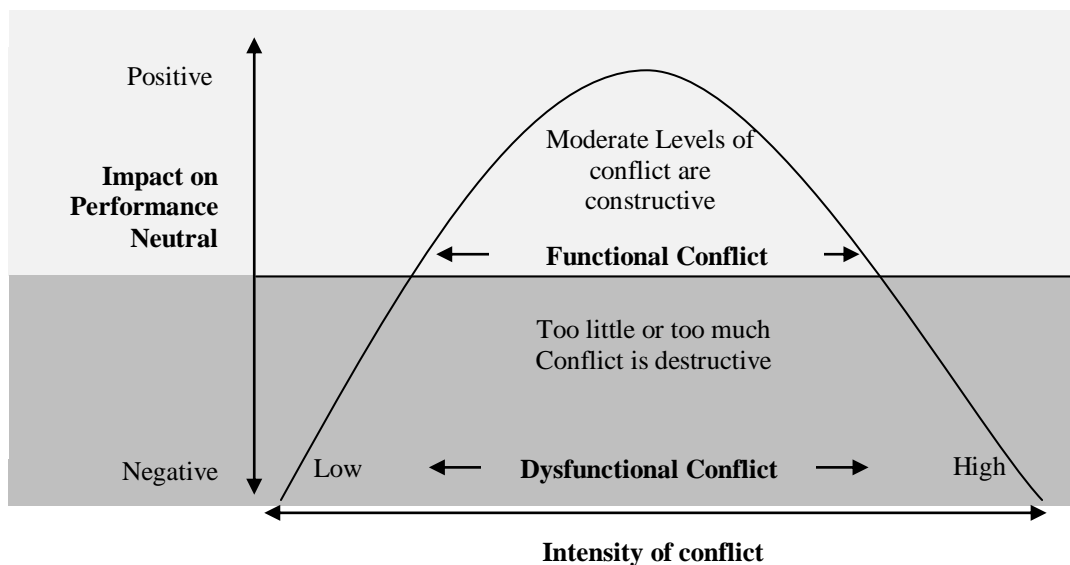


Figure 3. The relationship between conflict and performance

From *Management* (p. 339), by Schermerhorn, J, 2001, New York, John Wiley & Sons Inc.

The project life cycle consists of four phases (Meredith & Mantel, 2003); the project formation, project buildup, main program, and project phase out. In the first phase senior management approves preliminary plans for a project and tests their feasibility. At the second phase, take place detail planning, budgeting, scheduling,

allocation of resources. In the third phase, actual work is being done. In the final stage, all the work is performed and delivered. In addition, the project team is dissolved and project's assets are reallocated. Conflict in projects concerns matters such as "schedules, priorities, staff and labor requirements, technical factors, administrative procedures, cost estimates, and personality conflicts" (p. 305). Figure 4 illustrates conflict intensity over the project life cycle according to the study of Thamhain and Wilemon's (1975). Meredith and Mantel (2003) found that, there are three different categories of conflicts in the project life cycle." a) groups working on the project may have different goals and expectations b) there is considerable uncertainty about who has the authority to make decisions. c) there are interpersonal conflicts between people who are parties-at-interest in the project" (p. 305).

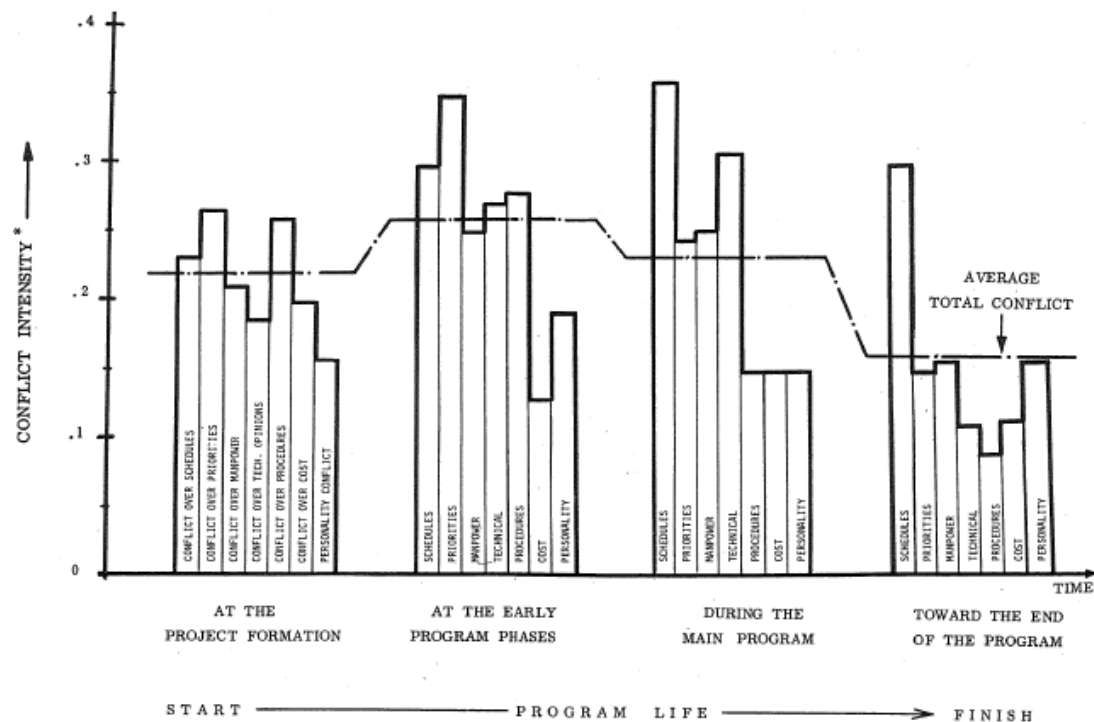


Figure 4. Conflict intensity over the project life cycle.

From "Conflict management in project life cycles" by H. J. Thamhain and D. L. Wilemon, 1975, *Sloan Management Review*, 16(3), p.38.

The first category is about the everyday work on project performed form different units of the organization which have different goals and judgments. There are conflicts which concerns schedules, priorities, cost estimation, and human resources. It can be said that the root of this conflict are project manager's and functional manager's goals. The second category of conflicts is related to the organizational structure. Theoretically, the functional manager allocates the personnel and makes technical decisions, while the project manager manages the schedule and work flow. However, in practice, there are authority problems between functional manager and project manager during a project. Lastly, due the fact the biggest part of the project is people; it is unavoidable that conflict will occur. Table 2, illustrates all conflict types and parties-at-interest. (Meredith and Mantel, 2003)

Table 2. *Project Conflicts by Category and Parties-at-Interest*

Parties-at-Interest	Categories of Conflict		
	Goals	Authority	Interpersonal
Project team	Schedules	Technical	Personality
	Priorities		
Client	Schedules	Technical	
	Priorities		
Functional & senior management	Schedule	Technical	Personality
	Priorities	Administrative	
	Labor Cost		

Note. From *Project Management: A managerial approach* (p.306), by J. R Meredith and S. J. Mantel, 2003, New York: John Wiley & Sons.

As stated by Flannes and Levin (2001), in the project world “there are some general types of possible conflict “avoiders” that will be first observed during the project phase but will also surface during the remaining project phases”. These “avoiders” are: a) The Nice Guy (male or female) b) Previously Abused Team Member (emotional, physical, or sexual abuse) c) Overly Competitive or Aggressive Team Member d) Passive-Insecure Team Member (p. 237) (see Table 3).

Table 3. *Team Members Who May Have Difficulty in Addressing Conflict*

Type of Team Member	Type of Problem with Conflict
<i>The Nice Guy</i> (male or female)	Desired to be liked contributes to avoid and minimize conflict and to delay its resolution.
<i>Previously Abused Team Member</i> (emotional, physical, or sexual abuse)	Will strive to avoid conflict. May become disproportionately upset during conflict situations.
<i>Overly Competitive or Aggressive Team Member</i>	Aggressively adopts win-lose strategy in conflict situations, striving hard to “win” even on insignificant issues.
<i>Passive-Insecure Team Member</i>	Minimal personal confidence contributes to this person’s desire to defer or capitulate to others during a conflict.

Note. From “People Skills for Project Managers” (p.243), by S. W. Flannes and G.Levin, 2001, Vienna, VA: Management Concepts.

Flannes, (2001) also stress the positive aspects of conflict. The constructive approach to conflict can be beneficial to projects. Firstly, it creates an environment of

challenge of the current procedures, processes, and approaches which can lead to better team performance. Secondly, constructive approach leads to production of more creative products. Thirdly, it fosters team motivation, commitment, team relationships and unity. On the other hand, when conflict is not addressed it produce undesirable outcomes. People avoid key issues unaddressed, team member's motivation and initiative are decreased, whereas cynicism is increased. What is more, there is no change, role rigidity is fostered combined with lack of volunteering for information exchange and assisting. Last but not least, performance is suffering. Table 4, summarize the aforementioned.

Table 4. *Conflict's Positive and Negative Aspects in Projects*

Possible Positive Aspects of Conflict
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Productively challenges the existing beliefs or paradigms • Reduces the risk of intellectual compliance within the team (“Groupthinking”) • May become an opportunity to forge more effective team relationships and revitalize team energy and bondedness
Possible Negative Aspects of Conflict
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When not addressed in a productive manner, conflict demotivates team members and increases interpersonal withdrawal • Interpersonal communication decreases and cynicism increases • Initiative and the willingness to risk suffer

Note. From “People skills for project managers” (p.234) by Flannes, S. W., and Levin, G. 2001, Vienna VA: Management Concepts.

3.2 *Managing Conflict*

As it has been already mentioned, conflict can be functional or dysfunctional. O'Rourke (2004) proposes that is important an individual being able to sense conflicts in order to proactively manage it. Sensing conflict can be achieved by visualization, interactive feedback between people, clear definition of expectation, and regular review of performance. Visualization can be achieved by considering the effect of a decision by asking questions such as "Who?" "What?" "When?" "How?" "Why?". Interactive feedback can be implemented by communication and information exchange. The definition of expectations means defining priorities and goal for the days ahead. It is an opportunity for exchanging views for everyday tasks between supervisors and subordinates. Finally, the open communication about how people work together can decrease the possibility a serious conflict to arise. Fair performance reviews increases, also, morale and workplace satisfaction.

Since an individual senses conflict, he/she should make an assessment of the conflict situation. Dr. Susan Sportsman in her study "Build a framework for Conflict Assessment" (2005) adopted Weber's Conflict Map and Wilmot & Hocker Conflict Assessment Guide (2001). Table 5 outlines this framework.

Table 5. *Framework for Conflict Assessment*

Framework outline		
Assessment Component	Defining variables	Potential assessment questions
Persons (conflict)	Primary, secondary, and interested third parties Participants': General Perception of conflict Gender Socioeconomic background Cultural background Professional socialization	What attitudes toward conflict do participants appears to hold? (Do they view conflict as positive, negative, neutral, or mixed?) How might gender and socioeconomic limitations and expectations influence the conflict? How does discipline-specific professional socialization impact participants' responses? What are the participants' cultural backgrounds?
Events (conflict event/issues)	Triggering event Historical context Interdependence of parties Issues of the conflict Perceived CRIP goals (content, relational, interest, process) Perceived resources Previously attempted solutions	What are the triggering events and historical context of the conflict? What are the issues involved in the conflict? What are the perceived incompatible CRIP goals? What resources appear limited? What does each party think the other's goals are? How similar are they to the perceptions of their own goals? In what ways are interdependent and how are they interfering with one another? What behaviors seem to keep the conflict going? How have geographical boundaries, political structures, relations, jurisdictions, professional, and/or hierarchical standing, communication networks and patterns, and decision-making methods influenced the conflict?
Power (influence of power)	RICE: Resource control Interpersonal links Communication skills Expertise	What attitudes about power do the participants hold? Do the participants underestimate or overestimate the power of themselves and others? In what way do participants control resources or have interpersonal links, communication skills, or needed expertise? In what way do observers agree and disagree with the participants' assessments of their power? What unused sources of power are available for resolution?
Regulation (conflict regulation resources)	Internal limiting factors External limiting factors Previous resolution attempts Neutral third parties	What solutions have been previously suggested? Why have they not been successful? Who has been involved in previous resolutions attempts? When other resources were tried, was there temporary or permanent change? What are internal or external factors limiting the intensity of the conflict? Who are neutral third parties that might help with resolution? Are there solutions that haven't been tried?
Style (influence of conflict management style)	Avoidance Accommodation Competition Compromise Collaboration	What individual conflict management styles did each party use? How did styles change during the course of the conflict? How do participants view each other's style? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each style within the conflict? Do they change styles during the conflict? Unconsciously? Consciously? Can the overall system be characterized as having a predominant style?

Note. From "Build a framework for conflict assessment" by S. Sportsman, 2005, *Nursing Management*, 36, p.32.

Rahim (2002) argue that organizational conflict management, in order to be effective, should take into consideration specific criteria such as organizational learning and effectiveness, needs of stakeholders, and ethics. Moreover, conflict management strategy should minimize affective conflicts at various levels, attain and maintain a moderate amount of substantive conflict, and select and use appropriate conflict management strategies. Rahim defines affective conflict as “inconsistency in interpersonal relationships, which occurs when organizational members become aware that their feelings and emotions regarding some of the issues are incompatible.”, whereas substantive conflict “occurs when two or more organizational members disagree on their task or content issues.” (p. 210).

Sweeney and Carruthers (1996) define conflict resolution as “the process used by parties in conflict to reach a settlement” (p. 328). Blake and Mouton was the first that analyzed conflict resolution (or management) by stating that “individuals have two primary motivations with regard to interpersonal conflict: the desire to obtain one’s own goals (concern for production) versus the desire to retain interpersonal relationships (concerns for people)” (Holt and DeVore, 2005, p. 167). On account of this, they develop the “Managerial Grid”. As a result, five styles for conflict resolution aroused; smoothing (high concern for both people and production), withdrawing (low concern for production and people), compromising (medium concern for production and people), problem solving (high concern for production and people); and forcing (high concern for production versus low concern for people). Again, according to Blake and Mouton (1970), “When these basic styles are understood, one can predict for each how a man operating under that style is likely to handle conflict” (p. 419). Afterwards, many conflict self-report instruments followed based on Blake and Mouton’s dual concerns theory, such as Hall’s Conflict Management Survey (1969), Rahim’s Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventories I

and II (ROCI-I and ROCI-II) (1983), Renwick's Employee Conflict Inventory (ECI) (1975), and Thomas and Kilmann's Management-of-Difference Exercise (MODE) (1974) (Holt & DeVore, 2005). Kozan (1997), reported that while conflict management models have different names, they more or less serve the same purposes. Figure 5 illustrates the aforementioned conflict resolutions styles according the dual theory. This thesis analyzes conflict management style under the headings: **forcing**, **compromise**, **confronting**, **withdrawing**, and **smoothing**, according to Cornely and Tripathy (2004), as shown in Figure 6. However, in the Literature Review are labeled according to each researcher's preference.



Figure 5. Conflict resolution styles and authors derived from dual concerns theory.

From "Culture, gender, organizational role, and styles of conflict resolution: A meta-analysis" by J. L. Holt and C. J. DeVore, 2005, *International Journal of Intercultural Relation*, 29, p. 165.

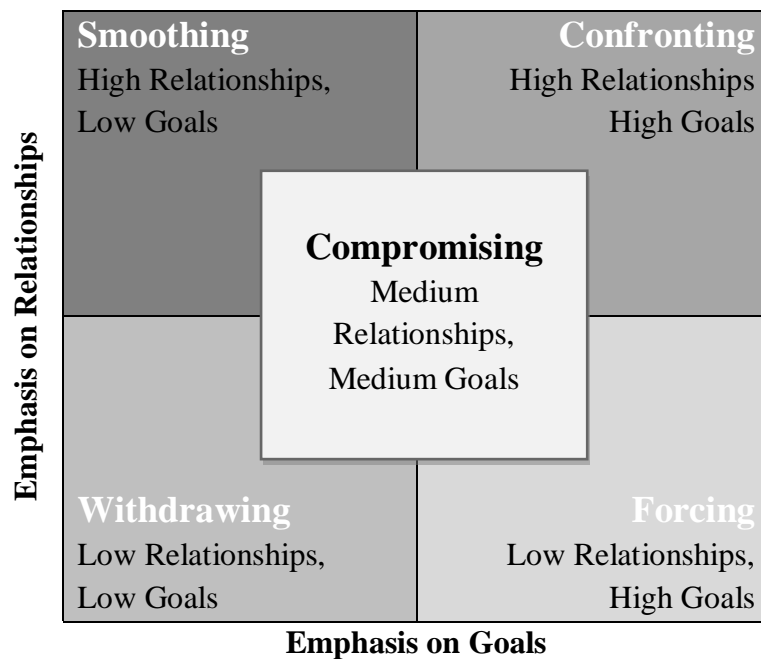


Figure 6. Conflict management styles used in the thesis.

From "What is your Conflict Styles?" by K. Conerly and A. Tripathy, 2004, *The Journal for Quality & Participation*, p. 17.

The literature provides further insights into the five conflict management styles. The styles can be organized according to the integrative and distributive dimensions (see Figure 7). The distributive frame reflects a zero sum, win-lose perception whereas dominating represents one endpoint and obliging represents the other. The integrative frame reflects a win-win perception whereas integrating represents one endpoint and avoiding the other point. Compromising in both frames represents the middle ground (Hartwich & Barki, 1999; Rahim, 2002; Goodwin, 2002; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000). The distributive dimension measures the amount of satisfaction of concerns received by one of the parties at the expense of the other party, while the integrative dimension measures the amount of satisfaction received by both parties (Goodwin, 2002).

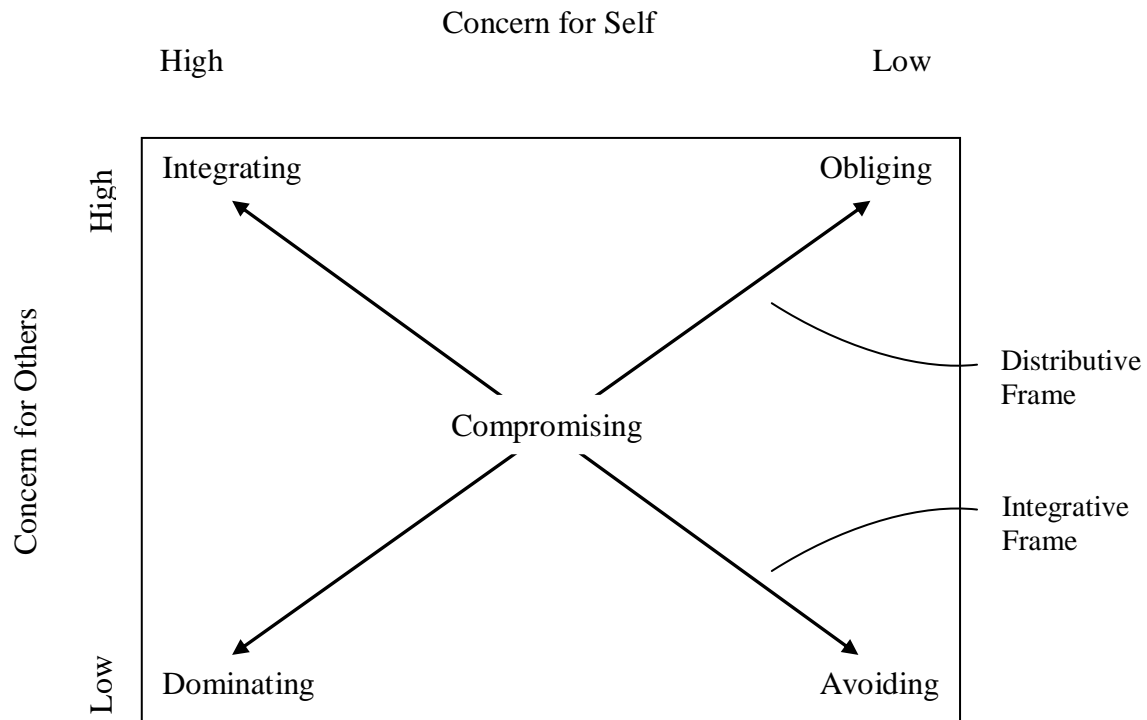


Figure 7. A two-dimensional model of styles of handling interpersonal conflict

From "Auditors conflict management styles; An exploratory study" by J. Goodwin, 1999, *ABACUS*, p.383.

Conflict management styles can also be categorized as constructive and destructive (Brahnam et al., 2005). Constructive conflict styles are characterized by cooperation, respect, protection, and a desire to learn from others (Wilmot & Hocker, 2001). In personal relationships, studies have found that the collaborative style is most satisfying both for men and women regarding themselves and their partners (Greeff & de Bruyne, 2000). Trust and equality of power are needed for the establishment of collaboration (Wilkinson, 1983). Moreover, both men and women perceive compromising, also, as being satisfying (Greeff & de Bruyne, 2000). There are studies that found compromising as cooperative; more correlated with collaborating and accommodating rather than avoiding and competing. (Van de Vliert & Hordijk, 1989; Ruble & Thomas, 1976).

On the other hand, destructive conflict management styles are characterized by escalating manipulation, threat and coercion, avoidance, retaliation, rigidity,

dominance and subordination, and degrading verbal and non verbal communication (Greef and De Bruyne, 2000). Indeed, within relationships avoidance is the one of the least adaptive (Cahn, 1990). What's more, studies have found avoiding as the most disruptive conflict style in personal relationships (Levenson et al., 1993).

Additionally, Greef and de Bruyne (2000), found that both males and females show low satisfaction when males use avoidance, as well as, that the use of competing in relationships shown reduce in satisfaction.

Regarding organizations, according to Thomas and Kilmann (1974) all five conflict management styles have their use; however the assertive modes are more highly valued (Yukl et al., 1993; Savage et al., 1989). Specifically, the most appreciated conflict management style in business is collaborating due to the fact that there is more emphasis on inter-organizational relationships rather than on competitive negotiation (Watson & Hoffman, 1996). Along with, top management associated with the integrating conflict management style (Brewer et al, 2002; Yukl et al., 1993; Savage et al, 1989). In general, the cooperative modes are considered to be more appropriate, efficient, and cost-effective (Mckenzie, 2002). Table 6 illustrates an overview of the five conflict management styles.

Table 6. *Overview of Conflict Management Styles*

Style	Gains	Loses	Appropriate Situation	Outcome
Forcing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chance to win everything • Exciting • Exercise own sense of power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chance to lose everything • Alienates to others • Discourages others working with the individual • Potentially larger scale conflicts in the future 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When quick, decisive action is vital • On important issues where unpopular actions need implementing • On issues vital to organization's welfare when an individual knows is right • Against people who take advantage of non-forcing behavior 	win-lose
Compromise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No one returns home empty handed • May or may not encourage creativity • "Keeps the peace" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Since neither side is totally satisfied, conflicts are likely to recur later • Neither side realizes self-determination fully 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When goals are important, but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes • To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues • As a backup when collaboration or competition is unsuccessful 	no win-no lose
Confronting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both sides win • Creativity in problem solving • Improves quality of solution and commitment • Maintains relationship • New level of understanding of situation • Better chance for long-term solutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time, in the short run • Loss of sense of autonomy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To find an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised • When individuals objective is to learn (professional development) • To merge insights from academics with different perspectives 	win-win
Withdrawing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No energy or time expenditure • Conserve for fights "that are more important" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less stimulation • Less creative problem solving • Little understanding of the needs of others • Incomplete comprehension of work environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When an issue is trivial, or more important issues are pressing • When an individual perceives no chance of satisfying his / her concerns 	lose-lose

Smoothing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Other may view the academic as supportive• Energy free for pursuits• Little muss or fuss no feathers ruffled	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lowered self-assertion and possibly self esteem• Loss of power• Absence of your unique contribution to the situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• When an individual realizes that he/she is wrong• When issues are more important for others to build social credits for later issues	lose-win
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Note. Adapted From "Academics' Conflict Management Styles", by M. O. Cetin and O. Hacifazlioglu, 2004, 5(2), p.158.

Other researchers, also, support the aforementioned; Blake and Mouton, Likert and Likert suggest that confronting is most appropriate for conflict management. Nonetheless, Rahim, Rahim and Bonoma, and Thomas argue that one style may be more applicable than other depending upon the situation, (Rahim, 2002). Rahim suggests that, in general, confronting and to some extent compromising styles are appropriate for dealing with the strategic issues. The remaining styles can be used to deal with tactical or day-to-day problems. (2002).

The unusually correlations between styles have questioned their independency and it has been suggested that the styles are fewer (Weider-Hatfield, 1988). Musser (1982), Volkema and Bergmann (1995) Van de Vliert, Euwema and Huisman (1995), Van de Vliert (1997), Elangovan (1998), and Munduate et al. (1999) support the “conglomerated conflict behavior” refers to “such such an aggression of various degrees of several modes of conflict handling” (Van de Vliert et al, 1995, p. 272). In other words, a combination of several conflict management styles by an individual in case of a conflict situation, named “conflict patterns” (Munduate et al., 1999). This is a different approach from the classic literature approach which compares the styles one by one as if they were independent (Munduate et al., 1999). However, Kilmann and Thomas (1977) and later Rahim and Magner (1995) supported the five styles.

3.3 *Gender in Conflict Management*

Although there is a great amount of literature concerning gender and conflict management style preference, there is a mixed response to the issue (Brewer et al, 2002; Sutschek, 2002; Parghi & Murphy 1999). There are two general trends to bibliography. There are scholars who support that gender impacts conflict management styles, whereas there are scholars who do not support this theory. Concerning the first group, there are confusing results (Holt & DeVore, 2005). It can be said that this group can be divided into two subgroups (see Figure 8).

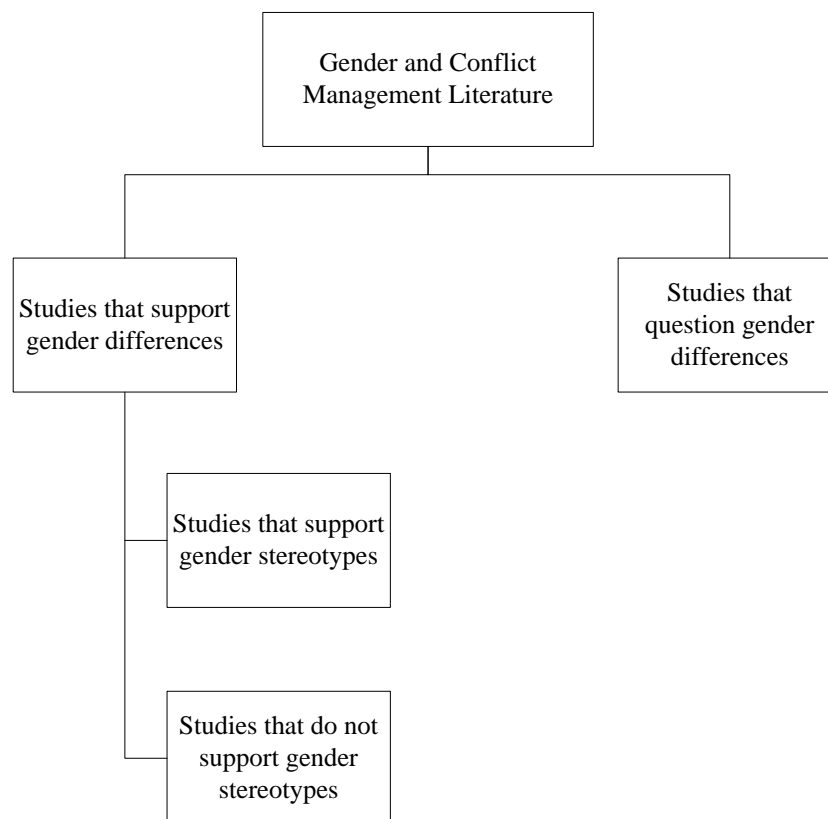


Figure 8. Overview of general trends in bibliography.

The first subgroup supports the phenomenon of “gender-role congruence” (Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993). In other words, men and women tend to endorse conflict behaviors that “complement gender role expectations” (Wachter, 1999, p. 778) wherein styles such as forcing (high in production, low in relationships) or problem-solving (high in production and relationships) are preferred from males according to conflict resolution self-report instruments (Mills & Chusmir, 1988). In contrast, females for whom relationships are more important and aggressive behavior less condoned, is more likely to prefer styles such as smoothing (high in relationships, low in production), withdrawing (low in production and relationships), and compromising (medium in production and relationships) (Ting - Toomey, 1986). Regarding the studies that support the aforementioned, Rubin and Brown’s findings (1975) indicated that females are sensitive to relationship cues while males are goal oriented. Eagly and Johnson’s meta-analysis found evidence for gender stereotypic behavior (1990). Gilligan (1993), support that women are define their self within the context of relationships and leave behind their goals for the benefits of others. Greeff and de Bruyne (2000), after studying 57 couples, suggest that females favor accommodating strategies unlike men who prefer more competing strategies. Rosenthal and Hautaluoma (1988) study 115 college students and support the findings of Greeff and de Bruyne. Brewer’s et al. (2002) research in males and females from upper and lower status organizational positions of three similar organizations, argue that competitive or dominating behavior appears consistent with a masculine gender role, while obliging and avoiding behaviors appear constituent with feminine gender role. However, the study suggested that the integrating and compromising behaviors are both stereotypically masculine and feminine. Lastly, Chan et al. (2006) study 241

Australian junior level accountants. The research found that females tend to avoid conflict, where as males tend to be more dominating.

The second subgroup's findings are inconsistent with the first sub-group's findings. Bedell and Sistrunk (1973), study 90 students at University of South Florida. They concluded that women are more competitive than men. Ting-Toomey (1986) studied 318 participants and found that males prefer to use more indirect non-confrontational strategies (such as avoidance) to resolve conflicts than the females who tend to use more active, solution-orientated strategies to deal with relational conflicts than the males. Moreover, Duane (1989) research indicate female union female officials "were less inclined to avoid issues than their male peers" (p. 1034). However, males and female did not different in "collaborative" and "compromising" modes. There is evidence that men are more avoiding than women (Haferkamp, 1991; Mackey & O'Brien, 1998). McKenna and Richardson (1995) surveyed 303 Singaporean managers. The research yield that male managers were more compromising than their females counterparts. Contemporary studies, such as from Sutschek (2002) found that women significant differ only in the use of compromising style. Cetin and Hacifazlioglu (2004) study a group of 150 academics who work at public and foundation universities, revealed that male academics use accommodation style more than their females' peers. Lastly, Holt's and DeVore meta-analysis, (2005) found that females may be more likely to use "compromise" style, but there are no differences between males and females in reported use of smoothing and withdrawing.

The second group, as it has already mentioned, question that gender impacts conflict management styles. Schockley-Zalabak's study on 31 male and 38 female managers, representing five organizations, conclude that there are "no differences in

the responses to conflict of male and female managers” (1981, p. 293). Sternberg and Soriano in 1984, study 32 Yale college students, equally divided between sexes finding that “various conflict-resolution (and other) scales were essentially the same across sexes” (p. 125). Korabik et al. assess 196 MBA students’, (among them with actual managerial or supervisory experience) self-reported conflict style and conclude that male and female do not differ. His research concluded that “there were no gender differences on any of the five conflict management styles among experienced managers” (1993, p. 405). However, there were some differences in non-managerial counterparts. In 1996, Watson and Hoffman studied 40 pairs of practicing managers, 40 females and 40 males, in a simulated negotiation in which the parties were not equal in organizational power. The study “found no evidence of any simple gender effect” (p. 80).

It should be mentioned that there are studies that do not consider gender and biological sex as identical and propose that genders are three; masculine, feminine, and androgynous (Portello & Long, 1994; Brewer et al., 2002) whereas androgynous gender type can be defined as individuals who possess high level of characteristics from masculine and feminine gender types. Table 7 summarizes all the aforementioned studies.

Table 7. *Studies' Overview for Conflict Management and Gender*

Studies that support gender differences	
<i>Studies support gender stereotypes</i>	
Rubin & Brown	1975
Rosenthal & Hautaluoma	1988
Eagly & Johnson	1991
Gilligan	1993
Greeff & de Bruyne	2000
Brewer et al	2002
Chan et al.	2006
<i>Studies do not support stereotypes</i>	
Bedell & Sistrunk	1973
Ting-Toomey	1986
Duane	1989
Haferkamp	1991
McKenna & Richardson	1995
Mackey & O'Brien	1998
Sutschek	2002
Cetin & Hacifazlioglu	2004
Holt & DeVore	2005
Studies that question gender differences	
Shockley-Zalabak	1981
Sternberg & Soriano	1984
Korabik et al	1993
Watson & Hoffman	1996

4.0 Methodology

4.1 *Participants*

The final sample consists of 103 employees and managers (50 males and 53 females). Participants were randomly selected. Table 8 presents demographic data that retrieved via the questionnaire.

Participants were drawn from staff members of seven private organizations located in Attica, Greece; two banks, one telecommunication company, one software company, two food companies, and one retail company. It was decided to include more than one organization on the premise that results could be affected by organizational culture. (Slabbert, 2004)

Table 8. *Males and Females by Age, Education, Work Experience, & Employment*

		Males (n=50)		Females (n=53)	
		n	%	n	%
Age group	20-29	23	46	30	56.6
	30-39	19	38	16	30.2
	40-49	5	10	5	9.4
	≥50	3	6	2	3.8
Education	Post-compulsory Secondary Education	9	18	15	28.3
	Bachelor	25	50	30	56.6
	Postgraduate, PhD	16	32	8	15.1
Work Experience	0	1	2	3	5.7
	1-3	17	34	16	30.2
	4-6	9	18	11	20.8
	7-9	6	12	5	9.4
	10-12	4	8	2	3.8
	≥13	13	26	16	30.2
Current Employment	Employee	34	68	45	84.9
	Manager	16	32	8	15.1

4.2 *Research Instrument*

In order to assess conflict management styles, data was collected through the standardized self-report questionnaire instrument by Johnson and Johnson (2006), found also in Smith and Imbrie (2007, p. 54), Conerly and Tripathi paper (2004, p. 19), and moreover in ASQ's (American Society for Quality) Website and in Orange's Website, a world-wide telecommunication company.

The instrument (Appendix A) consists of two pages; Page 1/2 - Purpose of the study, demographic questions including instructions, Page 2/2 - the questionnaire by Johnson and Johnson's (2006) including instructions. The instrument consists of thirty five proverbs. Each of the thirty-five proverbs corresponds to 1 of the 5 conflict management style (Withdrawing, Forcing, Smoothing, Compromising, and Confronting). It was used five-point scale: "Never do this" (1), "Seldom do this" (2), "Sometimes do this" (3), "Frequently do this" (4), "Usually do this" (5). The style with the highest score tends to be used the most frequently.

The questionnaire was translated from the English to the Greek language.

4.3 *Treatment of the Data*

Responses were admissible as data only when participants completed all questions. Firstly, Independent t-Test was utilized to determine if there is statistical significance in the use of conflict management styles between males and females (H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5). Secondly, K-Means Cluster Analysis utilized to identify conflict patterns based on the five conflict management styles. Next, the categorical variables of gender and conflict patterns are cross tabulated; Chi-Square statistics utilized in order to examine whether there is an association between gender and use of conflict patterns (H6).

5.0 Results

5.1 Independent t-Test

The Independent t-Test utilized because two groups of participants, males and females, were assigned to each condition - five conflict management styles (Field, 2005). This statistical procedure determines whether a statistical significant exists between two means (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Table 9 presents the t-Test results. According the means, the rank in both genders is confronting, smoothing, compromising, forcing, and withdrawing.

Table 9. *Males and Females' Mean Scores in Conflict Management Styles*

Variables	Males (n=50)		Females (n=53)		t value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means comparisons
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Withdrawing	2.460	.613	2.588	.666	-1.010	.315	n.s.
Forcing	3.026	.425	3.046	.638	-.189	.850	n.s.
Smoothing	3.689	.460	3.884	.614	-1.836	.069	n.s.
Compromising	3.203	.568	3.453	.470	-2.439	.016	M<F*
Confronting	4.003	.447	4.156	.438	-1.761	.081	n.s.

Notes: M = Males and F = Females

five-point scale: "Never do this" (1) ... "Usually do this" (5)

*p < .05.

n.s. = not significantly different

5.2 *K-Means Cluster Analysis – Crosstab - Chi-Square*

First, conflict patterns (or clusters) identified in the sample. Table 10 shows the patterns, the size of the group within the pattern, and the values corresponding to the centers of the conflict patterns. The first pattern is characterized by high use of the five styles. The group is made up of 18 participants (17.5% of the total). The second pattern is characterized by a frequent use of confronting and smoothing and showing less use to the three remaining styles. The group is made up of 26 participants (25.2% of the total). In the third pattern is observed high use of confronting and smoothing with high means; 4.31 and 4.09 respectively. The pattern includes the most participants; 43 (41.7% of the total). It should be noticed that the rank of the styles within the pattern is the same as in the t-Test's results; confronting, smoothing, compromising, forcing, and withdrawing. The fourth pattern identified in the sample presents a high use of the conflict styles although the relative prevalence of the smoothing and confronting is observed. It is made up of 16 participants (15.5% of the total). It should be highlighted that the third pattern is most frequent use.

In Table 11, patterns are cross tabulated with the gender in order to explore the frequency data (Field, 2005). The third pattern, which is the most popular pattern as it has already mentioned, includes 20 males (19.4% of the total, 46.5% within pattern) and 23 females (22.3% of the total, 53.5% within pattern).

Table 12, illustrates the chi-square statistic results. The chi-square examines whether there is an association between two categorical variables, in this case the use of pattern and the gender (Field, 2005) or, in other words, “to determine how closely observed frequencies or probabilities match the expected frequencies or probabilities” (p. 691). A chi-square can be computed for nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio data” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). As part of the crosstabs procedure, Table 12 shows the

Pearson chi-square and its significance value=.068 which is not significant different because it is greater than .05.

Table 10. *Conflict Patterns Centers (n = 103)*

Patterns	n	Conflict Management Styles				
		Withdrawing	Forcing	Smoothing	Compromising	Confronting
1	18	3.16	3.18	3.26	3.36	3.66
2	26	2.05	2.90	3.38	2.73	3.91
3	43	2.24	2.88	4.09	3.53	4.31
4	16	3.36	3.52	4.25	3.74	4.21

Note: five-point scale: "Never do this" (1) ... "Usually do this" (5)

Table 11. *Gender and Conflict Patterns Crosstabulation*

		Pattern Number of Case					Total
		1	2	3	4		
Gender	Male	Count	7	18	20	5	50
		% within Gender	14.0%	36.0%	40.0%	10.0%	100.0%
		% within Pattern	38.9%	69.2%	46.5%	31.2%	48.5%
		Number of Case					
		% of Total	6.8%	17.5%	19.4%	4.9%	48.5%
Female		Count	11	8	23	11	53
		% within Gender	20.8%	15.1%	43.4%	20.8%	100.0%
		% within Pattern	61.1%	30.8%	53.5%	68.8%	51.5%
		Number of Case					
		% of Total	10.7%	7.8%	22.3%	10.7%	51.5%
Total		Count	18	26	43	16	103
		% within Gender	17.5%	25.2%	41.7%	15.5%	100.0%
		% within Pattern	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		Number of Case					
		% of Total	17.5%	25.2%	41.7%	15.5%	100.0%

Table 12. *Chi-Square Statistic of Gender and Conflict Patterns*

	Value	df	Assym. Sig. (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	7.113	3	.068	n.s.

Note: n.s. = not significantly different, $p > .05$.

5.3 Hypotheses Test

H1. Women will be more withdrawing than men

t-Test results indicate that, regarding the conflict management style of withdrawing find no difference exists between the means of females and males (see Table 9). No significant difference detected. The female participants mean score of 2.588 was comparable to the male participants' mean score of 2.460. Hence, regarding the hypothesis one, the data do not support the hypothesis that women will be more withdrawing than men.

H2. Women will be less forcing than men.

Regarding to research H2, no significant difference was found for female and male participants for the forcing conflict management style in the t-Test's results. The female mean score was 3.046, which is not significant different from male mean score of 3.026 (see Table 9). Therefore, concerning hypothesis two, the data do not support that women will be less forcing than men.

H3. Women will be more smoothing than men.

With regard to H3 means scores for both females and males were not significant different in the t-Test's results. The mean score for women was 3.884, with

the mean score of men 3.689 (see Table 9). As a result, with regard to hypothesis the data do not support that women will be more smoothing than men.

H4. Women will be more compromising than men.

Findings resulting from the t-Test statistical analysis of the data indicate that, regarding to H4, a significant difference exists between the means for females and males participants (see Table 9). The mean compromising score for females was 3.453, while the male participants' mean was significant lower at 3.203. Therefore, with regard to hypothesis four, the data support the hypothesis that women will be more compromising than men.

H5. Women will be no more confronting than men.

Regarding to H5, women will be no more confronting than men. The t-Test's results do not reveal any significant difference between the mean scores (see Table 9) of females (mean=4.156) and males (mean=4.003) on this construct. Consequently, the data support the hypothesis five.

H6. There will be difference in the use of conflict patterns between women and men.

With regard to H6 the Pearson chi-square's significant value $p=.068$ indicate that gender and conflict are independent because $p>.05$. Therefore, data do not support hypothesis six, that there will be difference in the use of conflict patterns between women and men.

6.0 Discussion

6.1 *Review of the Findings*

The findings of this study demonstrate the effect of gender as hypothesized only on the conflict management style of compromising. Clearly, taking into account the hypotheses test of H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, and H6, the difference between the women and men participants regarding the attribute of compromising indicates that women are more compromising. All other conflict styles or patterns do not affected by the gender. Therefore, this research support a limited positive response to the first research question (RQ1) of whether men and women responding different in conflict.

Regarding the second research question (RQ2), taking into account the hypotheses test of H1, H2, H3, H4, and H5 women and men in this study show not significant gender specific preferences. According to the literature, which supports “gender role congruence”, men are more forcing and confronting, whereas women are more smoothing, withdrawing, and compromising. As it has been already mentioned, women in this study significant differ from men only in the attribution of compromising.

It should be mentioned that, conflict patterns (H6) do not have taken into account for answering RQ2 by reason of it was not safe to make conclusions regarding specific gender preferences or stereotypes in conflict patterns; there was not found sufficient studies regarding this issue. However, it was included in RQ1 due to the fact that it was safe to examine whether there is an association between gender and use of conflict patterns by applying a standard statistic (chi-square) in other words to examine whether males and females are significant different or not in the use of conflict patterns.

This study is in accordance with the previous studies (Bedell & Sistrunk 1973; Duane, 1989; Haferkamp, 1991; McKenna and Richardson 1995; Mackey & O'Brien 1998; Cetin and Hacifazlioglu 2004; Holt's and DeVore, 2005) which found evidence that support gender differences in conflict but did not find support for gender stereotypes in conflict management styles. Specifically, findings of this study are consistent with Holt and DeVore (2005) meta-analysis and Sutschek (2002) study who they found that females use significantly more only in the compromising conflict management style.

6.2 *Summary and Conclusions*

Conflict is an avoidable component of human functioning. Within organizations, externally conflict can range from small disputes to legal actions or internally from disagreements over resources to strikes. Conflict occurs due to lack of resources, different values, goals, or a change. It can be functional by preventing "group thinking" or dysfunctional causing insufficient communication. Effective conflict management means that there is an understanding of conflict management styles. Managers should understand their own style and those who manage in order to maximize positive aspects of conflicts or even capitalize on it, and reduce negatives.

The research implications of this study is that its results provide support, although limited, in the traditional view that conflict management styles may be based on the gender. However, results cannot support another traditional view that of men and women tend to "complement gender role expectations" (Wachter, 1999, p. 778). In other words, men and women cannot be considered as reacting exactly the same in conflicts, however, results are in contrary to popular notion that women are willing to smooth over conflict or withdraw from it altogether" (Holt's and DeVore, 2005, p. 183).

Concerning the practical implication of the study, as it has been already mentioned in the literature review, different styles are appropriate in different situations. Therefore, in case of a project team that are likely to engage in a compromising orientation, e.g. in the case of an important client but equal important organizational goals, team composition should carefully planned in order both limitations fulfilled. Moreover, the findings of the study can be used in conflict management training programs. In general, findings can be considered in order to achieve organizational effectiveness by reducing cost and time for resolving conflict. However, research's findings may have limited applicability to work setting to stand alone without being integrated with further knowledge from other factors that affecting conflict management styles and research or simulation in work settings in considerably longer duration (Shockley-Zalabak, 1981).

6.3 *Limitations*

The study has, also, some limitations that should be took into account when interpreting the findings. This thesis considered gender and biological sex as identical while some researchers do not; e.g. Portello and Long (1994) and Brewer et al. (2002). Additionally, according to it was used a self-report questionnaire instrument which according to social desirability is important to be considered when self-report instruments are discussed (Holt & DeVore, 2005), due to the invalid assumption "that cognition is [necessary] associated with choice of [conflict] style" (Sorenson et al, 1999, p. 26). Finally, the translation of the conflict management standardized self-report questionnaire instrument by Johnson and Johnson (2006) may affected the results.

6.4 *Future Research*

The results of this study offer interesting opportunities for further research. To begin with, future efforts can study larger populations. Secondly, future works can study conflict management styles after controlling for biological sex and gender; as it has already mentioned some researchers do not consider biological sex and gender as identical and propose that genders are three (masculine, feminine, and androgynous) Next, future efforts can study more variables that affect conflict, such as age, education, working experience, organizational role, and culture. Furthermore, other methods can be used for the identification of conflict management styles such as laboratory experiments (e.g. role play) interviews, scenarios, or even mixed methods; for example identifying an individual's proffered conflict management style by using self-report questionnaire and a interview or questionnaire with his/her supervisor. In addition, future works could study the dynamic nature of conflict management process (Goodwin, 2002). Apart from that, further insights could be provided by pairing male - females in conflict situation and, moreover, pairing styles of individuals in conflict situation (e.g. one individual with preferred style of "forcing" with another who uses "compromising") (Hartwick & Barki, 1999). Moreover, studies should focus on effects of management styles to important working variables, such as job performance (Rahim, 2000). Last but not least, future researches can focus on the understanding of conflict patterns and gender differences.

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Appendices

A – Conflict management standardized self-report questionnaire instrument

B – SPSS 16 Output

*Appendix A – Conflict management standardized self-report questionnaire instrument***Conflict Management Questionnaire**

This questionnaire assesses how you manage conflict. First, submit your personal information and then proceed to the next page to fill out the questionnaire.

Personal Information (Select with “X”)

- A. **Gender:** Male Female
- B. **Age:** 20-29 30-39 40-49 50 or older.
- C. **Education:**
- Post-compulsory Secondary Education (Lyceum, Technical Vocational Educational School, Vocational Training Institutes)
 - Bachelor (Technological Education Institution, University)
 - Postgraduate, PhD
- D. **Work Experience (in years):** 0 1-3 4-6 7-9 10-12 13 or more.
- E. **Current Employment:** None Employee Management

Please proceed to the next page to fill out the questionnaire.

Instructions:

The proverbs listed below can be thought of as some of the different strategies for managing conflict. Read each of the proverbs and using the following scale score how typical each is of your actions when in conflict.

1 – Never do this, **2** – Seldom do this, **3** – Sometimes do this, **4** – Frequently do this, **5** – Usually do this

Proverb		Score
It is easier to refrain than to retreat from a quarrel	1.	
If you cannot make a person think as you do, make him or her do as you think	2.	
Soft words win hard hearts	3.	
You scratch my back, I'll scratch yours	4.	
Come now and let us reason together	5.	
When two quarrel, the person who keeps silent first is the most praiseworthy	6.	
Might overcomes right	7.	
Smooth words make smooth ways	8.	
Better half a loaf than no bread at all	9.	
Truth lies in knowledge, not in majority opinion	10.	
He who fights and runs away lives to fight another day	11.	
He hath conquered well that hath made his enemies flee	12.	
Kill your enemies with kindness	13.	
A fair exchange brings no quarrel	14.	
No person has the final answer but every person has a piece to contribute	15.	
Stay away from people who disagree with you	16.	
Fields are won by those who believe in winning	17.	
Kind words are worth much and cost little	18.	
Tit for tat is fair play	19.	
Only the person who is willing to give up their monopoly on truth can profit from the truths that others hold	20.	
Avoid quarrelsome people as they will only make your life miserable	21.	
A person who will not flee will make others flee	22.	
Soft words ensure harmony	23.	
One gift for another makes good friends	24.	
Bring your conflicts into the open and face them directly; only then will the best solution be discovered	25.	
The best way of handling conflicts is to avoid them	26.	
Put your foot down where you mean to stand	27.	
Gentleness will triumph over anger	28.	
Getting part of what you want is better than not getting anything at all	29.	
Frankness, honesty and trust will move mountains	30.	
There is nothing so important you have to fight for it	31.	
There are two kinds of people in the world, the winners and the losers	32.	
When one hits you with a stone, hit him or her with a piece of cotton	33.	
When both give in halfway, a fair settlement is achieved	34.	
By digging and digging, the truth is discovered	35.	

*Appendix B - SPSS 16.0 Output***Frequencies****Statistics**

Gender			Age	Education	Work experience	Job description
Male	N	Valid	50	50	50	50
		Missing	0	0	0	0
Female	N	Valid	53	53	53	53
		Missing	0	0	0	0

Frequency Table**Age**

Gender			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Valid	20-29	23	46,0	46,0	46,0
		30-39	19	38,0	38,0	84,0
		40-49	5	10,0	10,0	94,0
		50 and over	3	6,0	6,0	100,0
		Total	50	100,0	100,0	
Female	Valid	20-29	30	56,6	56,6	56,6
		30-39	16	30,2	30,2	86,8
		40-49	5	9,4	9,4	96,2
		50 and over	2	3,8	3,8	100,0
		Total	53	100,0	100,0	

Education

Gender			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Valid	High school	9	18,0	18,0	18,0
		Graduate	25	50,0	50,0	68,0
		Post graduate-Phd	16	32,0	32,0	100,0
		Total	50	100,0	100,0	
Female	Valid	Post-compulsory Secondary Education	15	28,3	28,3	28,3
		Graduate	30	56,6	56,6	84,9
		Post graduate-Phd	8	15,1	15,1	100,0
		Total	53	100,0	100,0	

Work experience

Gender			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Valid	0 years	1	2,0	2,0	2,0
		1-3 years	17	34,0	34,0	36,0
		4-6 years	9	18,0	18,0	54,0
		7-9 years	6	12,0	12,0	66,0
		10-12 years	4	8,0	8,0	74,0
		13 years and over	13	26,0	26,0	100,0
		Total	50	100,0	100,0	
Female	Valid	0 years	3	5,7	5,7	5,7
		1-3 years	16	30,2	30,2	35,8
		4-6 years	11	20,8	20,8	56,6
		7-9 years	5	9,4	9,4	66,0
		10-12 years	2	3,8	3,8	69,8
		13 years and over	16	30,2	30,2	100,0
		Total	53	100,0	100,0	

Job description

Gender			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Valid	Employee	34	68,0	68,0	68,0
		Manager	16	32,0	32,0	100,0
		Total	50	100,0	100,0	
Female	Valid	Employee	45	84,9	84,9	84,9
		Manager	8	15,1	15,1	100,0
		Total	53	100,0	100,0	

T-Test**Group Statistics**

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Withdrawing	Male	50	2,4600	,61312	,08671
	Female	53	2,5876	,66634	,09153
Forcing	Male	50	3,0257	,42485	,06008
	Female	53	3,0458	,63812	,08765
Smoothing	Male	50	3,6886	,45970	,06501
	Female	53	3,8841	,61385	,08432
Compromising	Male	50	3,2029	,56784	,08030
	Female	53	3,4528	,47026	,06459
Confronting	Male	50	4,0029	,44665	,06317
	Female	53	4,1563	,43787	,06015

Independent Samples Test

		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
Withdrawing	Equal variances assumed	2,313	,131	-1,010	101	,315	-,12760	,12639	-,37832	,12312
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,012	100,940	,314	-,12760	,12608	-,37771	,12251
Forcing	Equal variances assumed	8,859	,004	-,187	101	,852	-,02011	,10748	-,23332	,19311
	Equal variances not assumed			-,189	91,021	,850	-,02011	,10627	-,23120	,19098
Smoothing	Equal variances assumed	6,035	,016	-1,821	101	,072	-,19553	,10736	-,40849	,01744
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,836	96,144	,069	-,19553	,10647	-,40686	,01581
Compromising	Equal variances assumed	2,896	,092	-2,439	101	,016	-,24997	,10250	-,45330	-,04665
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,426	95,319	,017	-,24997	,10306	-,45456	-,04538
Confronting	Equal variances assumed	,304	,583	-1,761	101	,081	-,15348	,08717	-,32640	,01944
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,760	100,379	,082	-,15348	,08722	-,32651	,01956

Quick Cluster

Initial Cluster Centers

	Cluster			
	1	2	3	4
Withdrawing	3,43	1,86	2,43	3,86
Forcing	3,14	5,00	2,00	4,29
Smoothing	2,71	2,71	4,29	4,57
Compromising	3,00	2,43	4,00	4,14
Confronting	3,00	3,43	4,14	4,71

Iteration History

Iteration	Change in Cluster Centers			
	1	2	3	4
1	1,055	1,255	1,068	,906
2	,069	,546	,093	,304
3	,072	,432	,079	,170
4	,227	,176	,036	,000
5	,096	,093	,035	,000
6	,121	,077	,035	,087
7	,000	,056	,034	,000
8	,000	,000	,000	,000

a. Convergence achieved due to no or small change in cluster centers. The maximum absolute coordinate change for any center is ,000. The current iteration is 8. The minimum distance between initial centers is 2,535.

Final Cluster Centers

	Cluster			
	1	2	3	4
Withdrawing	3,16	2,05	2,24	3,36
Forcing	3,18	2,90	2,88	3,52
Smoothing	3,26	3,38	4,09	4,25
Compromising	3,36	2,73	3,53	3,74
Confronting	3,66	3,91	4,31	4,21

ANOVA

	Cluster		Error		F	Sig.
	Mean Square	df	Mean Square	df		
Withdrawing	9,233	3	,144	99	64,254	,000
Forcing	1,887	3	,246	99	7,666	,000
Smoothing	5,524	3	,145	99	38,082	,000
Compromising	4,600	3	,153	99	30,144	,000
Confronting	2,179	3	,140	99	15,612	,000

The F tests should be used only for descriptive purposes because the clusters have been chosen to maximize the differences among cases in different clusters. The observed significance levels are not corrected for this and thus cannot be interpreted as tests of the hypothesis that the cluster means are equal.

Number of Cases in each Cluster

Cluster	1	18,000
	2	26,000
	3	43,000
	4	16,000
Valid		103,000
Missing		,000

Crosstabs

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Gender * Cluster Number of Case	103	100,0%	0	,0%	103	100,0%

Gender * Cluster Number of Case Crosstabulation

			Cluster Number of Case				Total
			1	2	3	4	
Gender	Male	Count	7	18	20	5	50
		% within Gender	14,0%	36,0%	40,0%	10,0%	100,0%
		% within Cluster Number of Case	38,9%	69,2%	46,5%	31,2%	48,5%
		% of Total	6,8%	17,5%	19,4%	4,9%	48,5%
Female	Female	Count	11	8	23	11	53
		% within Gender	20,8%	15,1%	43,4%	20,8%	100,0%
		% within Cluster Number of Case	61,1%	30,8%	53,5%	68,8%	51,5%
		% of Total	10,7%	7,8%	22,3%	10,7%	51,5%
Total	Total	Count	18	26	43	16	103
		% within Gender	17,5%	25,2%	41,7%	15,5%	100,0%
		% within Cluster Number of Case	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% of Total	17,5%	25,2%	41,7%	15,5%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,113 ^a	3	,068
Likelihood Ratio	7,271	3	,064
Linear-by-Linear Association	,925	1	,336
N of Valid Cases	103		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,77.