

**KOFI ANNAN INTERNATIONAL PEACEKEEPING TRAINING CENTRE, IN
COLLABORATION WITH GHANA INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT AND PUBLIC
ADMINISTRATION**

**CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN THE GLOBAL
WORKPLACE: THE CASE OF MULTICULTURAL TEAMS IN GHANA'S
TELECOMMUNICATIONS INDUSTRY**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my original work and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgment has been made in the text.

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DEDICATION

I thank God for giving me the strength and resilience for overcome personal weaknesses, third party challenges and unforeseen difficulties.

To my big family, my love and profound appreciation to the honest, timely and priceless words of encouragement. Without you there would have been no point in engaging in this academic exercise. Thank you for believing in me, even when I didn't believe in myself.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how multicultural teams deal with communication across cultures; and how during that process, they perceive and resolve conflicts. In any multicultural environment, there are two types of conflicts, i.e. task related conflicts normally associated with resource distribution, procedures, facts, etc. and relationship/emotional conflicts associated with feelings, preferences, values etc. The strategies adopted by individuals to handle conflict situations are also highly influenced by their cultural orientation.

The study is underpinned by a literature review of cross-cultural research, organizational research methods and theories on culture, communication, conflict resolution and multicultural team dynamics. A survey of 39 respondents was conducted on individuals with various cultural backgrounds to determine their cultural orientation; and how their cultural differences contribute to the creation of conflicts and the choice of conflict resolution strategies.

The outcome of the study informs the recommendations that in order to avoid conflicts that plague multicultural teams, organizations can put into place a 3 tier framework that: assesses the intercultural communication competence of all employees in order to identify those with ethnocentrism tendencies; train all team members to help suppress natural ethnocentric reactions; and improve communications and interactions at the workplace by putting into practice what is learned at training.

Key words: Cross-cultural communications, conflict, conflict resolution, multicultural teams, Global workplace

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MNO	Mobile Network Operators
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness
GT	Ghana Telecom
MTN	Mobile Telephone Network
VAS	Value Added Service
NCA	National Telecommunication Authority
CDMA	Code Division Multiple Access
GSMA	Global System for Mobile Communication Association
JHS	Junior High School
BECE	Basic Education Certificate of Education
SHS	Senior High School
WASSCE	West African Secondary School Certificate of Education
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
DMIS	Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance
PD	Power Distance
IC	Individualism/Collectivism
MF	Masculine/Feminine
CR	Conflict Resolution
CRS	Conflict Resolution Style

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Globalization has turned the world into one big seamless village. Borders are increasingly losing their significance and becoming mere symbols of geographical constructs with no significant influence on the movement of people and ideas. This phenomenon has engendered political, cultural and economic interconnectivity amongst individuals, businesses and nations at levels never seen before. Technological advances and trade associated with globalization have succeeded in eroding distance as an inhibitor to effective human relations at the international, corporate and personal levels. Thus, it is possible to share a virtual classroom with strangers; remotely work on a project with team members in different cities or even on different continents without ever going through an airport terminal; share special moments with family and friends in real time through the magic of high speed internet connectivity; convert ones money into digital currency; or marry a childhood sweetheart in a virtual wedding ceremony. In effect, doing business and consummating relationships with people from different places and from diverse cultural backgrounds in a technology driven world has become the norm rather than the exception (Jacobs, 2003).

One sphere of human activity that has been most impacted by this phenomena is international business. The need to find new markets for western goods and services and the ever increasing need for developing countries to attract direct foreign investments has provided the impetus for multinational companies to forage more and more into emerging and developing markets, especially, in Africa. This movement, with its attendant mobility of human, material and financial capital has created the need for professionals from different parts of the world to work together, thus creating a fluid global work environment or what is normally referred to as, “the global workplace” (Ngai, 2005).

The global workplace has become important. It is dynamic and changing the global labor market in unprecedented ways, especially, in developed western markets. This is buoyed, in part, by the fact that executives in western countries such as the United States of America and Western Europe are facing a rapidly aging workforce and high labor costs. However, the real thrust of this

phenomenon is the inherent advantages associated with doing business outside western markets. The ease of repatriating labor, the affordability of communication and travel, the low costs of doing business in developing countries and the stiffer competition and superior competence available when labor is sourced globally, has further entrenched the attractiveness of the global workplace (McKinsey Quarterly, 2006).

Apart from the foregoing, the fact that the potential for global consumer growth is also located in developing countries is an added incentive. It is projected that by the year 2015, the number of consumers in Asia's middle class alone will exceed the market opportunity provided by those in Europe and North America combined (Haney, 2011). When the prospects of the contribution of African consumption are included at a time when seven of the world's ten fastest-growing economies are African (International Monetary Fund, 2013), the importance of the flow of expatriate labor and business to developing economies, especially, into Africa becomes clearer. Thus, in a globalized world, the concept of the global workplace and consequently, the existence of business with culturally diverse workforces have become the norm rather than the exception. The global workplace, by its very nature, engenders the creation of working groups or teams that are made up of people from different cultural background. These are referred to as "multicultural teams". Multicultural teams are not just a product of convenience or economic calculations of profit and loss; they have become an invaluable business tool to the extent that they offer a number of advantages to international firms including, deep knowledge of different product markets and an understanding of the cultural sensitivity of consumers in host markets (Brett, Behfar, & Kern, 2006).

However, despite the potential benefits that can be derived, multicultural teams can create challenges that are as unique as they are difficult to resolve. Citing the challenges faced by a team of American and Indian software programmers working together on a project Brett, Behfar, & Kern (2006:89) observed that:

"Multicultural teams usually generate exasperating management dilemmas. Cultural differences can create substantial obstacles to effective teamwork—but these may be subtle and difficult to recognize until significant damage has already been done. The

challenge in managing multicultural teams effectively is to recognize underlying cultural causes of conflict and to intervene in ways that both get the team back on track and empower its members to deal with future challenges themselves”.

What is identified here is the fact that culture is a credible source of conflict in a multicultural environment and thus, effective “cross cultural communications” or communicating across cultures in an increasingly interconnected business world has become one of the central pillars on which success in international business is dependent.

Ting-Toomey (1999) posits that intercultural communication takes place when individuals influenced by different cultural communities (the makeup of multicultural teams) negotiate shared meanings in interaction. Even within a single culture, communication tends to have many complex effects; it can be simple and yet fraught with blunders. It is thought that in general:

“We send from 100 to 300 messages a day. These include the message we intend to send; the message we actually send; the message as the hearer interprets it; the response of the hearer based on what he or she heard; and our reactions to the exchange of words, meaning and the interpretation” (Walker, 2002, p. 1)

When communication takes place between two or more cultures, these effects get even more complicated, primarily because they are symbolized in one context and transferred into another (Najafbagy, 2007). Thus, competent cross cultural communication based on understanding and appreciation of the cultures of members of a multicultural team would resolve many disputes. Many challenges associated with individual and group cooperation at the workplace and the resolution of conflicts arising from such interactions seem to be, in part, related to cultural differences and communication problems, thus intensifying the need for competent cross-cultural communication in order to avoid conflicts in the workplace.

There are several dimensions of cultural variability that are traditionally used to differentiate one culture from another (Neuliep, 2011). Neuliep identifies five key dimensions of variability that affect how people communicate. These are: individualism– collectivism, high–low context, value orientations, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. One of the key dimensions in

cross cultural communication is individualism and collectivism. According to Gudykunst & Kim (1997), individualism and collectivism is a major dimension of cultural variability that is often used to explain cultural differences in communication across cultures. Neuliep further states that a culture's orientation toward individualism or collectivism ultimately comes with important "behavioral consequences" for members of that culture. He explains that in collective societies, social behavior is guided by the group with membership of the group accompanied by prescribed duties and obligations. However, among individualists, the opposite is true where social behavior is guided by personal attitudes, motivations, and other internal processes. If the dimension of individualism and collectivism informs the differences in communication across cultures, then 'context' is where meaning can be found in communication across cultures. Neuliep (2011), posits that communication among humans is dependent on the context in which it occurs. He explains this by stating that in addition to the verbal and non verbal codes that make up communication, there are other salient features of the communicative context which includes what he refers to as cultural, physical, sociorelational, and perceptual environments.

High context cultures typically have meaning embedded in nonverbal cues and the meaning of verbal communication is incumbent on the one receiving the communication and not the communicator. For example, in Ghana, there is an Akan proverb loosely translated to mean "a wise man is spoken to in parables and not in plain words" that exemplifies this. Meaning is influenced by a myriad of circumstances such as: The status of the interactants; and the relationship between them (e.g., chief /subject, superior/subordinate, teacher/student, husband/wife). Each of these dynamics is a wealth of information to the interactants about how to communicate and contributes to the meaning of what is being said. To this end, Neuliep (2011) states that:

"Because interactants in a high-context culture know and understand each other and their appropriate role, words are not necessary to convey meaning. One acts according to one's role... "Although there are exceptions, many high-context cultures have collectivistic tendencies, including China, Japan, North and South Korea, Vietnam and many Arab and African cultures" (p. 63).

In low-context cultures, verbal communication is the primary source of communication and meaning as epitomized by the popular American adage “Mean what you say and say what you mean!” Although persons in low-context cultures recognize the nonverbal environment, they tend to focus more on the verbal context and generally rely on the spoken word to communicate meaning and information to be shared by others (Neuliep, 2011). The dimensions of value orientations, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance are grounded in the effects of culture within the work environment. This cannot be said to have been discussed without reference to the work of Geert Hofstede, whose groundbreaking work in the 1980’s provided a framework for developing hypotheses in cross-cultural organization research. This large research project, involved 116,000 questionnaires, about the work-related value patterns of matched samples of industrial employees in 50 countries and 3 multi-country regions (Arab speaking countries, East Africa, and West Africa) (Hofstede, 1983). Hofstede offers four dimensions from which scholars like Neuliep have drawn from, namely: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity. According to Hofstede, the four dimensions relate to very fundamental societal problems to which different societies have found different solutions. He posits that the four dimensions are used to explain: (1) different ways of structuring organizations; (2) different motivations of people within organizations; and (3) different issues people and organizations face within society. On the basis of combined scores, the countries studied can be grouped by cultural clusters (Hofstede, 1983).

The Hofstede dimension has been a useful point of reference for cross cultural and organizational studies since its publication. What makes his work useful for this purpose is that, each country has been positioned relative to other countries through a score on each dimension. Since its initial inception, the dimensions and country scores have been validated severally through other studies by other scholars who sought to replicate it, using the same or similar questions with other cross-national populations (Hofstede, 2011). These cultural dimensions provide a useful backdrop on which the proposed study on multi-cultural teams in Ghana can be undertaken.

In Ghana, like any other developing economy, there are growing number of multinational companies and international joint ventures operating in the country. As rightly observed by Salk

& Branen (2000), these multinational businesses often use multicultural teams comprising managers from the parent companies. This is certainly the case with multinational companies in Ghana, where managers from parent companies work with Ghanaian managers and workers. According to Bivens & Lowell (1996), cross-cultural studies on multinational companies often finger differences in cultural backgrounds in multicultural teams as the source of numerous difficulties, including conflict, misunderstanding, and poor performance. However, Boyacigiller & Adler (1991) observe that successful multinational companies and organizations with multinational management teams, including ABB, Shell, Unilever, and ICL-Fujitsu (now merged); suggest that cultural diversity does not necessarily lead to poor performance. Cultural diversity might even confer an advantage by giving managers a broader range of perspectives for managing complex cultural systems. The field of cross-cultural management research and international business approaches has evolved in response to challenges on how to measure culture. Researchers have been primarily concerned with questions such as: How to explain differences in work behavior and attitudes across employees from different cultural backgrounds, how big cultural effects on management are (Fischer, 2009). From Hofstede's (Hofstede, 1980) finding to the measurement of cultural values and practices by the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), contemporary cross cultural management research has seen a beehive of activity spurred on by the increasing need for engaging in profitable international business devoid of cultural challenges. However much of the research has been focused in Western countries, African culture is at best lumped together into geographical generalization as evident in both the Hofstede study and the GLOBE project.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The earliest evidence of intercultural communication as a field is traceable to as far back as the 1920s; its study only burgeoned in the 1950's with scholars such as Hall (1976). According to (Gudykunst, 1985) Hall introduced terms such as "intercultural tensions" and "intercultural problems" in 1950. Hall's work was not only conceptual; he actively applied intercultural communication training to foreign service officers and introduced the concept to international business. Training people in intercultural business has since become one of the major activities of intercultural communication specialists. However (Chan & Goto, 2003), observe that

“whereas a number of theoretical and empirical papers on workplace diversity have been published, most of the literature has centered on diversity in North American contexts. This is probably due to legacies of immigration by people of varied racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds to the US and Canada”. This is much the case, especially, from an African perspective where apart from some work done by Choi (2008) and Hale & Fields (2007), there is very little that can be referenced in the African context. This trend is obvious in Ghana, especially, in the telecommunications industry of which MNO’s are a subset. Ever since Ghana led the way in the liberalization of this industry in 1996 through the privatization of Ghana Telecom, a lot of the discourse and studies conducted have focused on measuring impact on the economy; industry regulation and compliance; and more recently the prospects of harnessing the potential of mobile telephony as a banking tool. The discussion of the possible impact of cross cultural communication on operations, when one of the six MNO’s is being taken over by a new parent company is virtually nonexistent. Even in such cases the substances of the discourse is basically anecdotal or based on limited information.

The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of how culture shapes individual behavior and intergroup interaction in a multinational team setting in Ghana, especially, relating to conflicts, perceptions of conflicts and conflict resolution strategies and process. The study examines how effective cross cultural communication or the lack of it contributes to conflicts and conflict resolution in multicultural teams in the telecommunications industry in Ghana. The study will focus on multicultural teams in Mobile Network Operators (MNO’s) in Ghana because they are replete with multicultural teams thus providing a treasure trove for samples and scenarios for the study. This prospect is further enhanced by the fact that four of the six MNO’s currently operating in Ghana, apart from being foreign owned, have changed ownership at least twice from one culturally distinct parent company to another. This provides the opportunity to determine how local staff experience working with distinctively different cultural principals. Cross-cultural studies in a multicultural work environment in multinational companies based in Ghana, has implications for diversity in the Ghanaian and African context. In particular, conclusions regarding perception of conflict and conflict resolution procedures are noteworthy.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objectives

The general objectives of this study is to examine how effective cross-cultural communication or the lack of it contributes to conflicts and conflict resolution in multicultural teams in mobile network operators in Ghana

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To examine how cultural differences in attitudes and behavior, contribute to the creation of conflict situations in the workplace.
2. To identify how individual cultural attitudes and behaviors translate into differences in conflict resolution styles and strategies.
3. To make recommendations on how to identify, manage and resolve culture based conflicts in multicultural teams in Mobile Network Operators in Ghana.

1.4 Research Question

1. What are the cultural differences in attitudes and behavior that contribute to the creation of conflict in the workplace?
2. Do individual cultural attitudes and behaviors translate into differences in conflict resolution styles and strategies?
3. What can Mobile Network Operators in Ghana do to identify, manage and resolve culture based conflicts in the workplace?

1.5 Justification for and Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it seeks to study cultural diversity in a multicultural environment in a non-Western context. It has implications for the understanding and appreciation of diversity in the Ghanaian context, especially, with reference to perceptions of conflict and conflict resolution strategies employed in the environment under study. Multinational companies in Ghana who are increasingly relying on multicultural teams will have a specific reference point for understand the dynamics of these teams and how to build them to enhance productivity rather

than implode under the weight of cultural misunderstanding and insensitivity. Beyond multinational companies, the study will be useful to Non-Governmental Organizations' (NGO's) and other such institutions that rely on labor from different cultures. This is because there are significant cultural dimensions to the successful selection and execution of projects in different parts of the country. An understanding of these cultural dimensions will guide NGO's in creating projects and interventions that are acceptable both at the practical and cultural levels. From a training perspective, it will provide information for the design and implementation of training modules that will help provide the skills required for government officials, diplomatic staff and private business persons to work more effectively in the global workplace.

From a scholarly perspective, it will provide the impetus for future and more focused research in other aspects of culture and cross-cultural communications in Ghana in particular and Africa in general. From a policy perspective this study will help in the development of policy frameworks that take into due cognizance of the impact of culture and intercultural competence on labor issues, such as a mandate to include cross-cultural communication in the training curriculum of institutions

1.6 Hypotheses

For the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses will be tested:

1. Differences in cultural backgrounds lead to differences in attitudes and behavior of employees.
2. Differences in perception of conflicts and conflict strategies are as a result of cultural variables and not individual differences.
3. Competent cross-cultural communication based on understanding and appreciation of the cultures of members of a multicultural team will resolve most disputes.

1.7 Definition of Key Concepts

The key concepts that underpin this study are defined in the context of their application in an organizational setting that hosts multicultural teams. They are as follows

Culture

Culture is defined as “... the collective programming (thinking, feeling and acting) of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, 4)

Cross-cultural Communication

Cross-cultural communication is defined as “...*the ability to successfully form, foster, and improve relationships with members of a culture different from one's own. It is based on knowledge of many factors, such as the other culture's values, perceptions, manners, social structure, and decision-making practices, and an understanding of how members of the group communicate--verbally, non-verbally...*” (Jones, 2014)

Multicultural Teams

Multicultural team can be defined as “*a collection of individuals with different cultural backgrounds, who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves and are seen by others as an intact social entity embedded in one or more larger social systems, and who manage their relationships across organizational boundaries and beyond.*” (Halverson 2008, 5)

Conflict

“Conflict on teams is defined here to mean a struggle, or state of disharmony or antagonism, or hostile behaviors, resulting from contradictory interests, needs, or beliefs, or mutually exclusive desires.” (Halverson & Tirmizi, 2008)

Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution is defined as “*the process of resolving a dispute or a conflict by meeting at least some of each side's needs and addressing their interests.*” (Harvard Law School, 2014)

1.7 Organization of the Study

The overall structure of the study is presented in five chapters. Chapter one focuses on the background of the study, the problem statement, and objectives of the study, research questions, justification and significance of the study, hypotheses, definition of key concepts and organization of the study.

Chapter two consists of the literature review, which focuses on: the nature of cultural differences and how they contribute to conflicts, identifying differences in culture and differences in cross-cultural communications, differences in conflict resolution styles and sources of cross-cultural conflict. It also includes a theoretical framework.

Chapter three consists of the methodology of the study which details the population of the study, sample size determination, data sources, primary data collection instruments and data collection instruments and data processing. It also includes the limitations of the study, research design.

Chapter four consists of the data presentation and analysis while chapter five focuses on the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

2.0 Literature Review

Societies across the globe are becoming more diverse and the cultural make-up of populations more cosmopolitan. In this regard, managers and workers in increasingly multicultural societies and work environments, now more than ever, need to be sensitive to the nuances of meaning that characterizes cross-cultural communication. This is especially so as cross-cultural communication impacts the perception of conflicts and the kinds of conflict resolution strategies or styles adopted by different groups in dealing with conflict. To this end, the many theoretical constructs normally used in domestic research are being applied in international cross-cultural research arenas. The field itself is relatively new, dynamic and continuously evolving. Bird & Fang (2009:140), for instance, perceive culture as, *'having a life of its own full of paradox and change in a dialectical movement'*.

In a study to understand how telecommunication companies operating in developing countries such as Ghana; undertake technological learning and capacity building; and to explain why they demonstrate varying abilities, Marcelle (2005) concludes that intra-firm and endogenous factors, such as cultural change, leadership and organizational integration influence, and explain variation in ability of telecom firms to build capabilities. In other words, culture affects the way teams are built, trained and primed to work effectively in a multi-cultural team environment. Marcelle (2005) posits that these have implications for a MNO's working in developing market's strategy as well as for policy and regulatory interventions. The study also concluded that it is internal competencies, such as the ability to manage strategic change and develop coherent systems that enable developing country MNO's to be effective in a different culture. The constant mobility of ideas, coupled with its multi-disciplinary nature makes cross-cultural work very engaging. This is even more so when the current study of cross-cultural communication is situated within conflict and conflict resolution contexts (Busch, 2012; Chan & Goto, 2003; du Plessis, 2012). These fields are brought together in an interesting way as culture plays a central role in the perception and resolution of conflicts.

2.1 About Ghana

Ghana is one of the sub-Saharan African countries that gained political independence from the British in 1957. Ghana was named after the ancient kingdom of Ghana which was situated some 800 km (500 miles) to the north of present-day Accra, which flourished up to the eleventh century AD. Ghana lies on Latitude 5 degrees, 36 minutes north and Longitude 0 degrees, 10 minutes east. To the west of Ghana lies Côte d'Ivoire, to the east Togo, to the north Burkina Faso and to the south is the Gulf of Guinea. The Greenwich Meridian passes through Tema near Accra making Ghana geographically the closest to the center of the world, that is, the rotational point of intersection between the equator and longitude zero degree (0 degree) which is located in the Atlantic Ocean at about 614km from Accra (KPMG, 2012).

Ghana's climate is mainly tropical, with two main seasons; the wet and the dry seasons. Northern Ghana experiences its rainy season from March to November while the south, including the capital Accra, experiences the season from April to mid-November. Ghana has tropical vegetation of dense tropical rain forest with a vegetal cover of evergreen tropical rain forest and semi deciduous forests at the northern and southern fringes. Towards the north is savannah grassland and towards the coast is the coastal savannah. There are few mountains and several hills rising to a height of 900 meters and above. Mount Afadzato is the highest mountain and lies 1,500 meters above sea level (KPMG, 2012).

Ghana has a population of about 24.65 million people and is one of the most populous countries in West Africa, second only to Nigeria. Since achieving political independence in 1957, its population has nearly tripled in size, from about 6 million at independence to 24.65 million in 2010, and is expected to increase to 27 million by 2020. The past rapid growth of Ghana's population is an out-come of high fertility, which until recently remained fairly constant, and declining mortality (KPMG, 2012).

Ghana is home to more than 100 different ethnic groups. The official language is English. However, most Ghanaians also speak at least one local language. The ethnic groups in Ghana are the Akan (the Fante, Akyem, Ashanti, Kwahu, Akuapem, Nzema, Bono, Akwamu, Ahanta and

others), 49.3 %; Mole-Dagbani, 15.2%; Ewe, 11.7 %; Ga-Dangme, (Ga and Dangme), 7.3%; Guan, 4%; Gurma, 3.6%; Gurunsi, 2.6%; Mande Busanga, 1%; other tribes, 1.4%; other (Hausa, Zabarema, Fulani), 1.8%. The religious distribution is as follows: Christian 68.8% (Pentecostal/Charismatic 24.1%, Protestant 18.6%, Catholic 15.1%, other 11%), Muslim 15.9%, traditional 8.5%, and other 0.7%, none 6.1% (KPMG, 2012). Ghana has approximately 18,530 primary schools, 8,850 junior secondary schools, 900 senior secondary schools, 28 training colleges, 20 technical institutions, four diploma-awarding institutions, six public universities and over forty private universities. Most Ghanaians have relatively easy access to primary and secondary education. Ghana's spending on education has varied between 28 and 40 percent of its annual budget in the past decade. All teaching is done in English, Ghana's official language. Ghana has a six-year primary education system beginning at the age of six. Under the educational reforms implemented in 1987, after the six year primary education, the students pass on to a three-year junior secondary system, all making up the basic education and this is followed by a three year senior high school system. At the end of the third year of Junior High School (JHS), there is a Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). Those continuing must complete the three year Senior High School (SHS) program and take the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) to enter university (KPMG, 2012).

2.2 The History of Mobile Network Operators in Ghana

Access to modern technology is at the center of the drive of developing markets towards growth. This access to technology is their engine of growth in the new global market place (Sankaran et al., 2011). Countries such as Ghana that previously had limited or no access to modern telecommunications have shorten their learning curve by leapfrogging generations of technology and utilized some of the best mobile telephony technology to improve both communication and life. Lange (2011) observes Ghana's pioneering role in African telecommunications after launching the first cellular mobile network in sub-Saharan Africa in 1992. Ghana was among the first countries in Africa to be connected to the Internet and to introduce ADSL broadband services. It also led the way in market liberalization and deregulation when it privatized Ghana Telecom (GT) as early as 1996. Lang further notes that since then, Ghana has become one of the

continent's most vibrant mobile markets with 6 competing MNO's, including MTN, Vodafone, Tigo; Airtel; Expresso; and Glo (Table 1).

Table 1. Mobile Phone Service Providers (past and present) Registered Names

Mobile Operators	Landline Operators
1.MTN Ghana Limited (formally Spacefon & Areeba)	
2. TiGO (formally Mobiltel & Buzz)	
3. Vodafone Limited (formerly Onetouch)	1. Vodafone GT Limited (formerly Onetouch (GT)
4. Airtel (formerly Westel &Zain Limited)	2. Airtel (formerly Westel &Zain Communications Limited)
5. Expresso (Formerly Kasapa Telecom)	
6. Glo Mobile (recently became operational)	

SOURCE: (NCA, 2013)

The phenomenal growth in mobile telephony in Ghana can be attributed to 3 main factors (Sankaran, et al., 2011). These are:

1. The advent of nonwestern operators, especially' in India, Africa and the Middle East. These companies have rivaled or exceeded the industry's western incumbents in size and in business strategy. Sankaran et al. (2011:5) posit that the mobile telephone companies founded in these markets, *'have developed new innovative business models that have restructured the traditional mobile industry enabling them to make profit serving low spending customers. Airtel (India), MTN (South Africa) and Zain (Kuwait) are pioneers in this new business model that serves a high volume of low spending customers'*
2. The second factor identified by Sankaran et al (2011:5) is the reduction in costs of equipment driven by the emergence of low cost equipment manufacturers such as Huawei and ZTE from China. These manufactures entered the global market most prevalently within the last seven years. They note that *these companies have disrupted the incumbent western equipment makers, resulting in the drastic reduction of the equipment costs to mobile operators'*
3. The third factor is the development of Value Added Services (VAS) beyond voice and text services. VAS's has enabled mobile devices to become a necessity rather than an accessory item. They observe that *'in the developed world, mobile gaming, music players, content downloads etc. are the most commonly used VAS activities, however, in the emerging*

markets of Asia and Africa, mobile devices provide enormous economic and developmental benefits in the form of money transfer” (Sankaran, et al 2011 : 5).

2.3 The MNO’s Landscape in Ghana

The mobile phone industry in Ghana is a highly competitive and innovative industry. The Ministry of Communication was created in 2002 in response to global development in the telecommunications industry. Its major function is to develop policies and initiatives aimed at promoting telecom growth and economic development. Mobile phone providers, while their entrance into the Ghanaian economy was not too long ago as compared to other industries, have made a significant impact on the Ghanaian economy by adding to jobs both in the urban and rural areas. As of 1992, when the first mobile telephone service provider, Millicom Ghana Limited launched its service under the brand name Mobitel, Ghana Telecom Company was the only communication service provider with service restricted solely to the provision of fixed line services. However, years of growth in the telecom industry in Ghana has produced six multinational companies who define the competitive landscape of Ghana’s mobile telecom industry. According to the National Communications Authority’s (NCA) monthly mobile voice and data market share analysis for July, 2013, total country wide mobile voice subscribership increased by 0.9% bringing the total subscription figure to 27,244,579. For the same period, the NCA reported that total data subscription fell by 1.3% irrespective of a penetration rate of 40%, bringing subscription to 10,244,322 as at July ending (NCA, 2013).

Ghana is quite favorable to foreign companies. This is evidenced by the ownership of the major MNO’s with all 6 operators being foreign based companies. Most importantly for this study, all 6 operators are from 6 different cultures on 3 different continents. 4 of these companies MTN, Tigo Airtel and Expresso have changed principals from different cultural background at least once. The nature of the 6 MNO’s defining Ghana’s mobile telephony landscape impact the industry as discussed below.

Mobile Telephone Network (MTN)

MTN is a South African based company with a market leading share in voice and data subscriptions. It has consistently maintained its position as the market leader and currently leads

with a subscriber base of 12,792,148 as at July 2013, representing 46.95% of the total voice market share. MTN also leads the pack in data subscription with a subscriber base of 5,968,583 as at July 2013 which represents 57.70 % share of the total mobile data market share (NCA, 2013). MTN operates in 21 countries in Africa and the Mideast. Its vision is to be the telecommunication leader in emerging markets. In Ghana, its challenge is to maintain market share among aggressive competitors.

Tigo

Millicom Ghana Limited operates under the brand name Tigo. It holds 13.78% of the total voice market share with a subscription base of 3,754,624. Tigo checks in with an identical 13.69% market share for mobile data representing 1,415,710 subscriptions (NCA, 2013). The company uses a focus on targeting the more youthful population within the Ghanaian market.

Vodafone

Vodafone is the world's second largest mobile telecom operator. They entered the Ghana market with the acquisition of the "OneTouch" mobile network previously owned and run by the state owned/run Ghana Telecom. Vodafone has consistently grown its market share in the market in mobile voice from 14% in March 2011 to 21.26% in July 2013 with a subscriber base also of 5,792,061. Vodafone has also steadily improved its mobile data service subscribership to 1,086,912 which represent 10.51 % of the market share (NCA, 2013).

Airtel

Airtel, an Indian based telecom operator, is the sixth largest operator in the world. It entered the Ghanaian market by acquiring Zain Communications Inc. in 2010. Airtel's mobile voice subscriber base is currently 3,117,543 representing 11.44% of the total market share in Ghana. Their mobile data subscription stands at 1,532,112 subscribers, representing a 14.81% market share (NCA, 2013).

Glo Mobile

Glo Mobile is a Nigerian based operator and the newest of all the operators working in Ghana. It claims to have entered the Ghanaian market with a 4G network capability (Wireless Federation News, 2010). GLO's mobile voice subscribership stands at 1,633,379 which represent 6% of the

total market share. Glo's mobile data subscription is 293,740 which represents 2.84 % of the total market share (NCA, 2013).

Expresso Telecom

Expresso is a Dubai telecom operator who acquired the assets of Kasapa Ghana. Expresso's subscriber base is 154,824 which represent about 1% of the total markets share. They are the only operator in Ghana that runs the CDMA network, while the other telecom companies provide GSM network. Expresso's market share for mobile data subscription is 0.46% with 47,265 subscribers (NCA, 2013).

2.4 Cultural Differences and How They Contribute to the Creation of Conflict

2.4.1 Identifying the Differences in Culture

Differentiating one culture from another revolves around the concept of cultural dimensions and variability or the classification of culture. One of the earlier works on classifying culture argued that culture should be classified in general terms. Hofstede (2011) traces the etymology of cultural dimensions from the work of an American anthropologist first published in 1952. In this narrative, the anthropologist Kluckhohn (1962:317), argued that culture needs to be categorized universally:

"In principle ... there is a generalized framework that underlies the more apparent and striking facts of cultural relativity. All cultures constitute so many somewhat distinct answers to essentially the same questions posed by human biology and by the generalities of the human situation.

Hall (1976), on the other hand, characterized cultures based on the nature of communication within the culture. Hall distinguishes between the modes of communication using the concept of context, where high-context refers to a mode of communication when the information being communicated is implicit and low-context when nearly everything is explicit. Other scholars such as Parsons & Shils (1951) have used characterizations that suggest that all human action is determined by five *pattern variables*, choices between pairs of alternatives which were applicable to interactions at the individual (personality) level, at the social system (group or organization) level, and at the cultural (normative) level. The five pattern variable identified by

Parsons and Shils were:

1. *Affectivity* (need gratification) versus *affective neutrality* (restraint of impulses);
2. *Self-orientation* versus *collectivity-orientation*;
3. *Universalism* (applying general standards) versus *particularism* (taking particular relationships into account);
4. *Ascription* (judging others by who they are) versus *achievement* (judging them by what they do);
5. *Specificity* (limiting relations to others to specific spheres) versus *diffuseness* (no prior limitations to nature of relations) (p. 77).

Others have provided different perspectives on the variability of culture (Douglas, 1973; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961 & Inkeles & Levinson, 1969) that have shaped the evolution of how culture is conceptualized. Contemporary research into organizational culture and management practices, takes cognizance of the several dimensions of cultural variability that have been explored. Out of these dimensions that are traditionally used to differentiate between cultures, five key ones are identified by scholars (Neuliep, 2011; Walker, 2002) as those that affect how people communicate. These are: individualism– collectivism; high–low context; value orientations; power distance; and uncertainty avoidance. The essence of these dimensions is how they impact and influence behavior and shape expectations of how others must conduct themselves, be it in an individualistic or collective society or low or high context culture. Walker encapsulates this when he posits that:

“Culture provides the overall framework wherein humans learn to organize their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors in relation to their environment. Although people are born into a culture, it is not innate. Culture is learned. Culture teaches one how to think, conditions one how to feel, and instructs one how to act, especially how to interact with others—in other words, how to communicate” (Walker, 2002, p.46).

According to Keesing (1974), culture gives people an implicit theory on appropriate behavior and how to interpret the behavior of others. Different cultures teach and espouse different implicit theories which are learned through social interaction. Socialization in turn is the medium through which people in a given culture learn the dominant values of their particular culture and their self-identities. Hofstede’s (1980, 1983, 1984, 1991, 1997, 2001) work, which serves as the

reference point for cultural dimensions, located value dimensions across which cultures vary. His initial work identified 4 dimensions, which he labeled: individualism, masculinity, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. Jandt,(2006) observes that:

“ Hofstede’s individualism-collectivism dimension describes cultures from loosely structured to tightly integrated. The masculinity femininity dimension describes how a culture’s dominant values are assertive or nurturing. Power distance refers to the distribution of influence within a culture. And uncertainty avoidance reflects a culture’s tolerance of ambiguity and acceptance of risk” (Jandt, 2006, p. 159).

Over the years scholars including anthropologists, communication researchers, psychologists, and sociologists have isolated several dimensions of cultural variability that can be used to differentiate cultures (Neuliep, 2011). Neuliep, observes that the five dimensions previously discussed give expression to the dimensions of culture variability that directly impact how people communicate. Each of these dimensions also illustrates how management practice and a given corporate culture can be situated within a national culture. Within the context of the five dimensions, Neuliep further contends that, the single most studied dimension of cultural variability for the purposes of comparing and contrasting cultures and even microcultures is individualism–collectivism.

2.4.2 Measuring Cultural Differences

Meikano (2009) notes that, as a rule of thumb, a variable or concept can be understood either by the use of a single measuring technique or composite-measure techniques. When the use of a single-measure technique is employed, it involves the application of one indicator to measure and understand a concept. On the other hand, several indicators are used in a composite-measure technique in order to develop a framework. This allows differences to be properly understood (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). He also observes that Hofstede’s (2005) approach to break down culture into its components or dimensions is one of the most cited sources in cross-cultural management. Other concepts have been provided by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) and also those concepts developed within the framework of the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, & Javidan, 1999). Meikano concludes that, *‘Hofstede adopted a composite-measure technique in measuring cultural differences among different societies’*

(p.13). This is the base from which Hofstede generated the ranking of countries and regions. To understand the cultural ranking and what it means in terms of the exhibition of, or failure to exhibit a specific dimension, Jandt (2006) observes that it is important to think of exceptions of where individuals from a culture, who do not act as might be implied by the designation of the ranking. Thus the ranking represents an overall average of the exhibition of a dimension and is by no means a mold in which everybody from that country must necessarily fit. Four of the variable dimensions applicable to this study are discussed below.

Individualism and Collectivism

Individualism and Collectivism refers to the strength of the ties people have to others within a community. High level of individualism means loose connection with people, little sharing or responsibility with a tendency to use the “I” form more frequently. In a highly individualistic workplace, employees feel empowered to make their own decisions. On the other hand, a high level of collectivism refers to strong group cohesion. Harmony is “key” with a tendency to use the “WE” form more frequently. In a highly collectivist workplace, employees tend to refer decisions back to their managers. According to Jandt (2006:160) it refers to ‘*how people define themselves and their relationships with others*’.

Masculinity and Femininity

Masculinity and Femininity are the varied roles that women and men play from culture to culture. Masculinity refers to an indication of the esteem in which the traditional masculine work role model of achievement, control and power is held. In a high masculinity workplace, there is a high level of male dominance and less gender equality. Whereas in a low masculinity workplace, there is greater equality between males and females and an appreciation of feminine values such as compromise.

Power Distance

Power Distance refers to the degree of inequality that exists—and is accepted—especially by the less powerful members of a group, organization, institution or society. A high power distance society accepts an unequal distribution of power and people understand “their place” in the system; concern is more for hierarchy and a reluctance or fear to speak up. In a high power

distance workplace, employees perceive managers as less approachable, communication flows downward and respect upward. In a low power distance workplace, power is shared and well dispersed and people view themselves as equals. In a low power distance workplace, employees perceive managers as peers and are more willing to share ideas. Jandt (2006:173) notes that in *‘high power distance cultures, children are expected to be obedient toward parents versus being treated more or less as equals. In high power distance cultures, people are expected to display respect for those of higher statuses’*

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty Avoidance refers to the culture’s tolerance for ambiguity, unstructured situations and unplanned events. People with high levels of uncertainty avoidance orientation work well within a structured environment, under strict laws, rules and guidelines while in high uncertainty avoidance, employees perform at their best with clear directives and follow standards and procedures. People with low uncertainty avoidance can tolerate uncertainty and welcome freedom of opinions, try to have as few rules as possible. In a low uncertainty avoidance workplace, employees tend to “go with the flow,” are more flexible and do not require instructions and rules to perform well.

2.4.3 Ghanaian Culture

Ghana like many other African countries, do not have documented national and business cultures. Hofstede’s study dealt with West Africa as a region, thus suggesting that it represents the overarching cultural attributes for countries within this region. Even though there are some peculiar similarities and aspirations that unite Sub-African countries as evident by the spirit behind the formation of ECOWAS, the reality is that different countries of West Africa have their own peculiar characteristics that make them different from the situation of the whole cluster of countries. Thus Ghanaian culture can be differentiated from the amalgamation of cultures represented in Hofstede’s dimensions during the study. Based on the data presented in the various studies, (Hofstede, 1983; Hall, 1976; House et al, 2004), it is expected that Ghanaian culture is collectivist as opposed to individualistic, high in terms of power distance and masculinity as well as being an uncertainty avoiding culture. Yawson (2011:8-9) also observes that based on Hofstede’s work, Ghana, is a very strong collectivist society, where people from

birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty; has a high power distance index as there is limited opportunity for Ghanaian citizens at the bottom of the social ladder to rise; high femininity, which means that Ghanaians are not very assertive; and less tolerant of opinions different from what they are used to by virtue of a high uncertainty avoidance leaning.

2.4.4 The Impact of Cultural Differences on Organizations

The increasing presence and importance of multicultural teams in international business has been of interest to social scientists and anthropologists for a long time now and has spawned numerous scholarly studies into how organizations can harness the inherent advantages associated with having a multicultural work force while avoiding the challenges associated with it (Hofstede, 1980; Boyacigiller & Adler, 1991; Gudykunst, 1985). This has been the case because, organizations have found that disagreements or conflicts that exist in multicultural teams, either as a result of perception or actual experience by team members, can exacerbate existing culturally based conflict, especially those of a destructive nature. This can lead to frustration and dismay if they are not properly identified, understood in their cultural context and managed constructively in a timely manner (du Plessis, 2012). According to Gerhart (2008), there are widely accepted differences across different countries in criteria that are important for the management of people. He posits that these would include such dynamics as labor laws as pertaining to such functions as employment, termination, annual leaves and institutional arrangements such as strength of labor unions, accepted human resource practices and cultural differences. Other scholars such as (Brewster, 1999; Dowling et al, 2008; Hofstede, 1980) have also made the same observation.

Gerhart (2008), observes that of all the contextual differences identified above, national culture has received the greatest deal of attention and is by far viewed as one of the most important constraints on management practices in multinational organizations. Adler (2002), Boyacigiller & Adler (1991) and Hofstede (1983, 1993, 2001) have all delved into the significance of national culture on management practice in different countries. Much of the work as cited by Gerhart

(2008) has relied heavily on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) development of national culture (mean) scores for countries. He notes that, these include quantitative studies on the role national cultures play in management. These studies focus on understanding the degrees to which national culture influences both individual outcomes, such as, work preferences, attitudes, behaviors and organization outcomes such as, organization culture and organization effectiveness. The most recent and second most significant study on country differences in organization culture was conducted by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research team (House et al.,2004; Javidan, et al., 2004). Using data from 208 organizations in 27 countries, the GLOBE study provides an alternative data set that can be used in cross-cultural study. Gerhart (2008) observes that in spite of the observable differences in the outcome of the two studies, vis-à-vis the overall effect of national cultures on management practice, its impact on cross cultural and management research as illustrated by the study conducted by McSweeney (2002) and the questions these discrepancies raise, national culture constructs continue to be widely used. Gerhart suggests that this is an indication of the general acceptance of Hofstede (1983) claim that management is 'culturally dependent' and that effective organizations have 'adapt[ed] foreign management ideas to local cultures' (Hofstede, 1983: 88). However, despite this general acceptance, he highlights the key assumptions underlying the study of national culture differences in management research that 'must be met in order for research using national culture (mean) scores to provide relevant and interpretable findings' (Gerhart, 2008, p. 4) as shown in Table 2. Gerhart cautions that in spite of this general acceptance of the importance of Hofstede's work, *'the available empirical evidence seems to indicate that, despite providing the basis for much work in the field, the assumptions associated with the work shown in Table 2 either lack support or, in some cases, appear to be wrong'* (Gerhart, 2008, p. 4).

Table 2. Challengeable Assumptions Underlying the Study of National Culture Differences in Management Research.

1. Between-country differences are substantially larger than within-country differences in culture at the individual level of analysis.
2. Country differences in culture are larger than culture differences resulting from other factors such as organization.
3. Country effects = National culture effects.
4. A misfit between national culture and management practice will reduce effectiveness. For example, using a pay for individual performance plan in a country having a highly collectivist culture will not work well.
5. Managerial discretion is substantially limited by national culture. The adoption of innovative employment systems and change in their nature over time to adapt to changing competitive conditions is not possible if they conflict with national culture averages.
6. Even if it is true that management practices are ‘culture-bound’ on average, for national culture to constrain management practice significantly for each particular organization within a nation, it must be assumed that companies attract, select and retain employees in a random fashion (Bloom and Milkovich, 1999)

SOURCE: (Gerhart 2008. 16)

2.4.5 Cultural Differences and Cross-Cultural Communications

What constitutes cross-cultural or intercultural communications is dependent on a number of variables. What is clear however is that it depends, in part, on what the working definition of culture is, especially, against the backdrop that the definition of culture is contestable. Some scholars define it narrowly, limiting it to only communication among individuals from different *nationalities* (Ting-Toomey, 1999). Others, such as Gudykunst, 2003; Martin & Nakayama, 2007, take a much broader view by defining it to encompass inter-ethnic, inter-religious, and even inter-regional communication, as well as communication among individuals of different sexual orientations. Gudykunst & Kim (2003) posit that in a certain sense, all interactions can be placed along some kind of an intercultural continuum. According to a publication by an agency of the World Bank (CommGAP, 2013), interactions between individuals can sway between

various points on the continuum that has interpersonal and intercultural values on both ends. It observes that:

“To the degree that interactants are drawing more on personal or idiosyncratic values, personality traits, and experiences, the interaction can be characterized as more interpersonal than intercultural. When individuals from different cultural backgrounds become more intimate, their interactions typically move along the continuum from more intercultural to more interpersonal, though intercultural elements may always play a role. For casual or business communication, sensitivity to intercultural factors is key to success (CommGAP, 2013, p. 1).

What makes a person a competent communicator across cultures is the ability to, as it were, convey a sense of communication appropriateness and effectiveness in diverse cultural contexts (Wiseman, 2003). This competence does not only allude to having a working knowledge of the host language but must also include an understanding of language pragmatics like, how to be polite whiles making requests and avoid giving out too much information (Gass & Neu, 1996). Anderson, Hecht, Hoobler, & Smallwood (2003) also observe that it is important for a competent communicator to be sensitive to nonverbal communication patterns in other cultures. In addition to this, they also note that it is very important to avoid insults and gaffes by being wary of gestures that may mean very different things in a host culture as opposed to one’s home culture. Competence in intercultural communication means, having an understanding of how to use (or avoid) touch, proximity in physical space, and sounds to convey intended meanings.

The fundamental basis of intercultural communication competence is the capacity to avoid ethnocentrism (CommGAP, 2013). Triandis (1994) characterizes ethnocentrism as the inclination to view one’s own group as natural and correct, and all others as aberrant. Thus, an individual who is highly ethnocentric has difficulties in adapting to diverse people, and cannot competently communicate in an intercultural manner. Some scholars such as Devine (1989) have suggested that some level of ethnocentrism is inevitable and even functionally desirable for the purposes of preserving distinct cultural groups. However what makes the difference between competence and non-competence is that, competent communicators have learnt to suppress their

natural ethnocentric reactions thus creating the space required to better understand others on their own terms. The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) (Bennett & Bennett, 2004) is designed to help move individuals along the continuum, from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. The model posits six stages:

1. Denial—the individual refuses to acknowledge cultural differences.
2. Defense—the individual begins to see cultural differences and is threatened by them.
3. Minimization—while individuals at this stage do acknowledge cultural differences, they see human universals as more salient than cultural distinctions.
4. Acceptance—the individual begins to accept significant cultural differences first in behaviors, and then in values.
5. Adaptation—the individual becomes more adept at intercultural communication by shifting perspectives to the other's cultural world view.
6. Integration—individuals at this stage begin to transcend their own native cultures. They define their identities and evaluate their actions in terms of multiple cultural perspectives (Bennett & Bennett, 2004).

2.5 Cultural Differences and Differences in Conflict Resolution Styles and Strategies

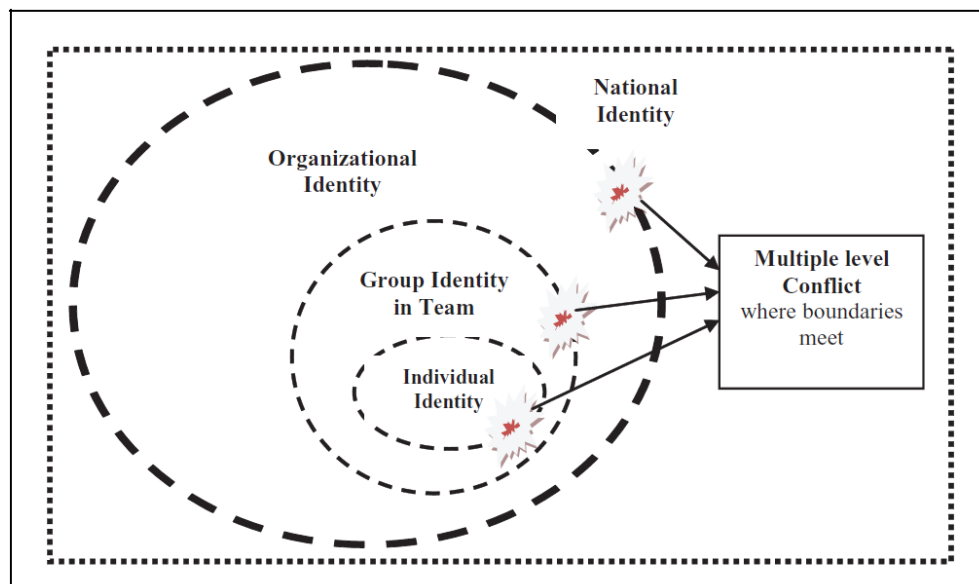
Conflict is an incompatibility or competition among individuals over incompatible ideas, goals, scarce resources, or the sources of power needed to acquire them (Avruch, 1999). This competition that characterizes group or individual incompatibility is shaped by perceptions of goals, resources, and power. Culture is central to the formation of perception and as Avruch (1999) notes, it can be thought of as a socially inherited, shared and learned way of living that individuals possess through their membership in social groups. Cross-cultural conflicts or conflicts that occur across cultures are thus also occurring across cognitive and perceptual boundaries. This complexity makes such conflicts particularly susceptible to problems of intercultural miscommunication and misunderstanding.

2.5.1 Sources of Cross-cultural Conflict

Understanding cross-cultural differences in conflict management styles is essential to the globalized business economy and the proliferation of international agreements. According to

Avruch, (1999) cross-cultural conflict can be defined as the kind of conflict that occurs between individuals or social groups that are separated by cultural boundaries. However what is more poignant is his observation is that individuals belonging to the same society may be members of many different groups, organized in different ways by different criteria. These groups are all potential repository of culture, and thus any society is likely to be made up of various “subcultures,” who are in turn made up of members of overlapping and multiple groups who are themselves “multicultural”. Thus cross-cultural conflicts may occur simultaneously at many levels and not just at the higher levels of nationality alone but also between members of the same national culture as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Individualism–Collectivism



Source: (du Plessis, 2012. 55)

Waters (1992) also posits that cross-cultural conflicts occur when communication crosses cultural lines it often results in either constructive or destructive consequences. Implying then that conflict can build relationships or be constructive if it is managed sensibly. Managing cross-cultural conflict, especially in multicultural teams, therefore, requires a deeper understanding of the multiple dimensions of both culture as well as the notion of cultural identity (Grab, 1996). Within organizational settings, there are two measurable types of conflicts. These are defined by Drue & Weingart (2003) as *task conflict* (resource distribution, procedures, facts, etc.) and

relationship or emotional conflicts (e.g., feelings, preferences, values, style). According to Cheung & Chuah (1999), there are thirteen sources of conflict in projects featuring multicultural teams nine of which are relevant to the scope of this study. As illustrated in table 3 the right-side column notes cultural dimensions which may have negative influences on team conflict.

Table 3. Sources of Conflict

Sources of Conflict	Cultural Dimensions Which May Influence Level of Conflict
<i>Managerial and administrative procedures:</i> Reporting relationships, responsibilities, project scope, plan of execution	Power Distance (Hofstede & House) Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede & House)
<i>Goal or priority definition:</i> Project goals, priorities and missions are not clearly defined	Masculinity vs. Femininity (Hofstede) Individualism vs. Collectivism (Hofstede)
<i>Resource allocation:</i> Competition for limited resources	Individualism vs. Collectivism (Hofstede)
<i>Personality and interpersonal relations:</i> Ego-centred, personality differences or those caused by prejudice or stereotyping.	Individualism vs. Collectivism (Hofstedes)
<i>Costs:</i> lack of cost control authority, or dispute over allocation of funds	Power Distance (Hofstede & House)
<i>Technical opinion:</i> Disagreement over technical issues and performance specification	Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede & House)
<i>Politics:</i> Problems of territorial power or hidden agendas	Power Distance (Hofstede & House)
<i>Leadership:</i> Poor input or direction from senior manager	Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede & House)
<i>Ambiguous roles/structure:</i> Overlapping assignments or roles particularly in matrix organizations	Power Distance (Hofstede and House)

SOURCE: Adapted from (Cheung and Chuah 1999)

2.5.2 Culture and Conflict Resolution Styles

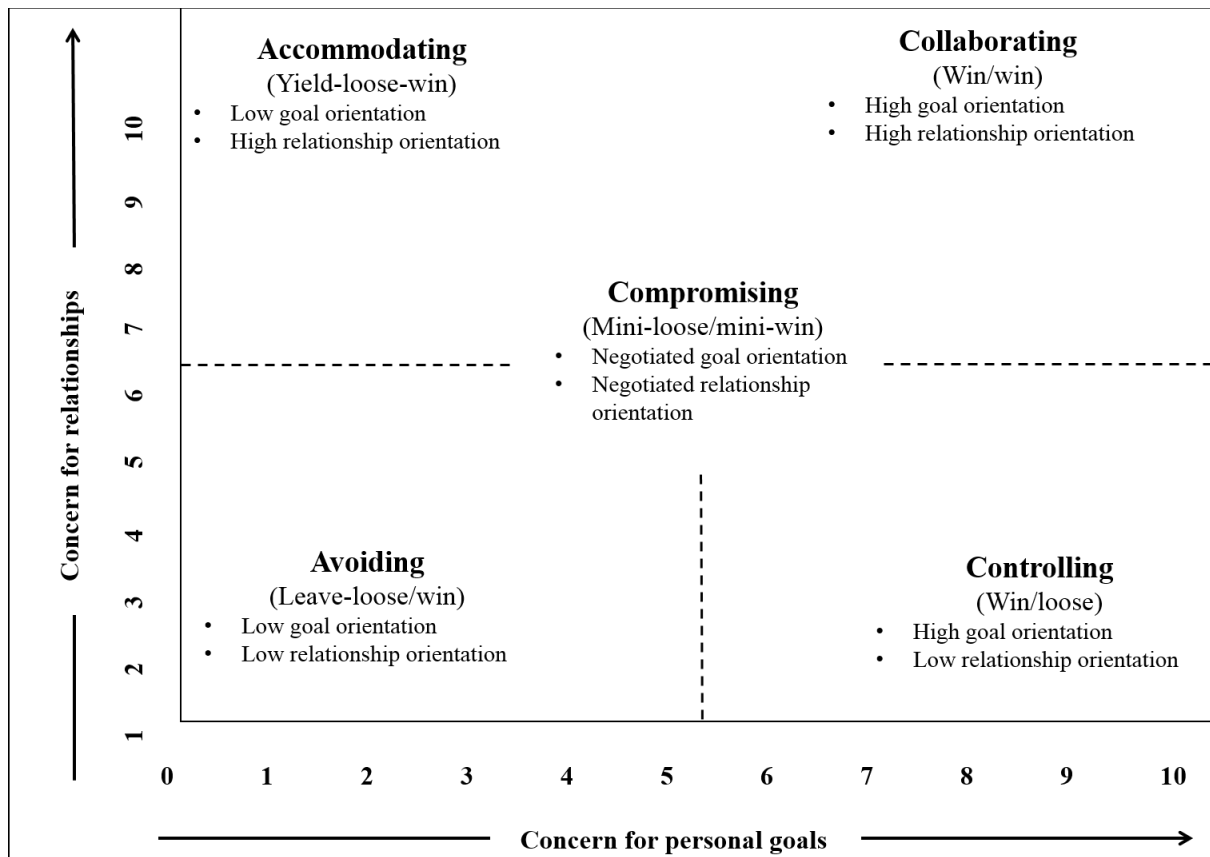
The definition of conflict is as varied as the scholars who have defined it. Simons, (1972) defines conflict as a state of a social relationship with incompatible interests between two or more party's whiles Schneer & Chanin (1987) defined it as a natural phenomenon involving individual perceptions among people with different values, ideas, or behaviors. Based on the pioneering work of Blakei & Mouton (1964), which studied the various strategies that individuals and groups used to manage conflict, conflict resolution is defined as “the process used by parties in conflict to reach a settlement” (Sweeney & Carruthers, 1996, p. 328). Researchers have generally established that different types of conflict exist alongside a variety of conflict management strategies (Gibson & McDaniel, 2010). Gibson & McDaniel (2010) further observe that *‘cross-cultural research on conflict has extended theories pertaining to sources of conflict and intergroup relations, as well as the differential effectiveness of specific conflict management strategies’ (p.466)*. Conflict can emerge from varied sources across different cultures, particularly in multicultural team settings (Gibson & McDaniel, 2010). In a study that sampled MBA students from 38 different countries, Zellmer-Bruhn, Maloney, Bhappu & Salvador (2008) found that some types of diversity were positively related to conflict in teams and that this kind of conflict was negatively related to subsequent estimation of perceived work style similarity (or the degree to which group members view themselves as having differences from each other). Citing the work of Gelfand et al. (2001), Gibson & McDaniel (2010) observe that culture-specific perceptions of sources of conflict existed across samples of U.S. and Japanese individuals that were sampled:

“Whereas Americans perceived conflicts as stemming more from the desire to win and individual rights, Japanese perceived the same conflict more as a result of compromise and duty violations. These findings suggest that identical conflict episodes can be perceived differently across cultures” (Gibson & McDaniel, 2010; p.455).

Blakei & Mouton's (1964) work and the other studies it spawned has led to a general acknowledgement by scholars (Cai & Fink, 2002; Nicotera, 1994) that there are five intergrated styles of conflict resolution. These are: Controlling, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, and

accommodating (Thomas, 1976; Hall, 1969). Each of the five styles have distinctive features based on a focus of self or other (see figure 2).

Figure 2. Conflict Management Style Model



Source, Adapted from (Thomas, 1976; Hall, 1969)

The competing style is based on a high concern for oneself and a low concern for the other party. The collaborating style utilizes a problem solving strategy that involves both a high concern for oneself as well as the other participant(s) in the conflict. The compromising style is middle ground to all five styles with moderate concerns for both oneself and others. The accommodating style is grounded on a low concern for oneself and a high concern for others. The avoiding style is used when there is a low concern for both oneself and the other.

2.5.2.1 Cultural Differences and Conflict Resolution Styles

The concept of individualism and collectivism does not only provide a means by which broad differences between cultures are distinguishable, it also provides a basis for the discussion on conflict styles. In other words how people from different cultures approach conflicts (Hofstede, 1980). It also helps in illustrating how conflict resolution may vary across cultures (Ting-Toomey et al, 1988). For example, many studies have found that Easterners are less confrontational, less assertive, and more cooperative than Westerners (Ting-Toomey 1988 pp. 213-235). Thus conflict resolution strategies are also culturally dependent with the decision to resolve a conflict or actually acknowledge its existence deeply embedded in cultural dimensions. Citing recent research works, Gibson & McDaniel (2010) note that when dealing with conflict, there seems to be no universal strategy that is adopted, thus conflict resolution strategies may be culturally dependent. Attempts to remedy conflict with a one size fits all strategy may not only be culturally inappropriate and yield unfavorable results, it may actually increase the propensity toward future conflict. Tinsley & Pillutla (1998) in a study found that culture determines the kind of information that is eliminated or used in adopting a particular model of conflict resolution.

In most cases, when comparing communication styles between countries, the United States, Canada, Germany, Australia, and England are considered individualistic (Hofstede, 1980, 1983; Trubisky et al , 1991). Individualistic cultures are typically also low context and are characterized as more concerned with the self than others. They are generally hypothesized to prefer the conflict styles of problem-solving, compromising and forcing, which involves strong verbal communication (Hofstede, 1983). On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures such as Ghana, Japan, Korea and Mexico, group interests supersede aspirations (Hofstede, 1980, 1983), and as such conflict communication will reflect elements of relationship preservation, such as smoothing and compromising. Withdrawing from a conflict may also be used tactically to “save face,” rather than embarrass others (Ting-Toomey, 1988).

2.5.2.2 Organizational Dynamics

Considering the nature and scope of Blake and Mouton's (1964) work and its origins in analyzing organizational conflict, it is not surprising that it spawned a litany of studies exploring

conflict resolution style differences within the organizational hierarchy (superiors, peers, and subordinates) (Holta & DeVore, 2005). According to Holta & James DeVore (2005), on a theoretical level and given power differences, superiors are generally prefer problem-solving, compromising and forcing styles whiles peers are more prone to adopting less aggressive styles with superiors than with each other, but more so with subordinates. Subordinates on the other hand are more likely to tend toward the least aggressive style of withdrawing and smoothing.

2.6 Theoretical Frame Work

The theoretical framework sets out the theories that underpins and guides the entire study. It is a practical tool that helps in the development of the research process whiles explaining the concepts and definitions that are relevant to the scope of the study. Figure 3 brings together the interrelated concepts of cultural studies, cross-cultural communications and conflict resolution. It provides a clear path of the study which is centered on culture and interrogates its relationship with communication and conflict resolution. It also guides the enquiry through segmentation of the thematic areas from which the questionnaire will be structured.

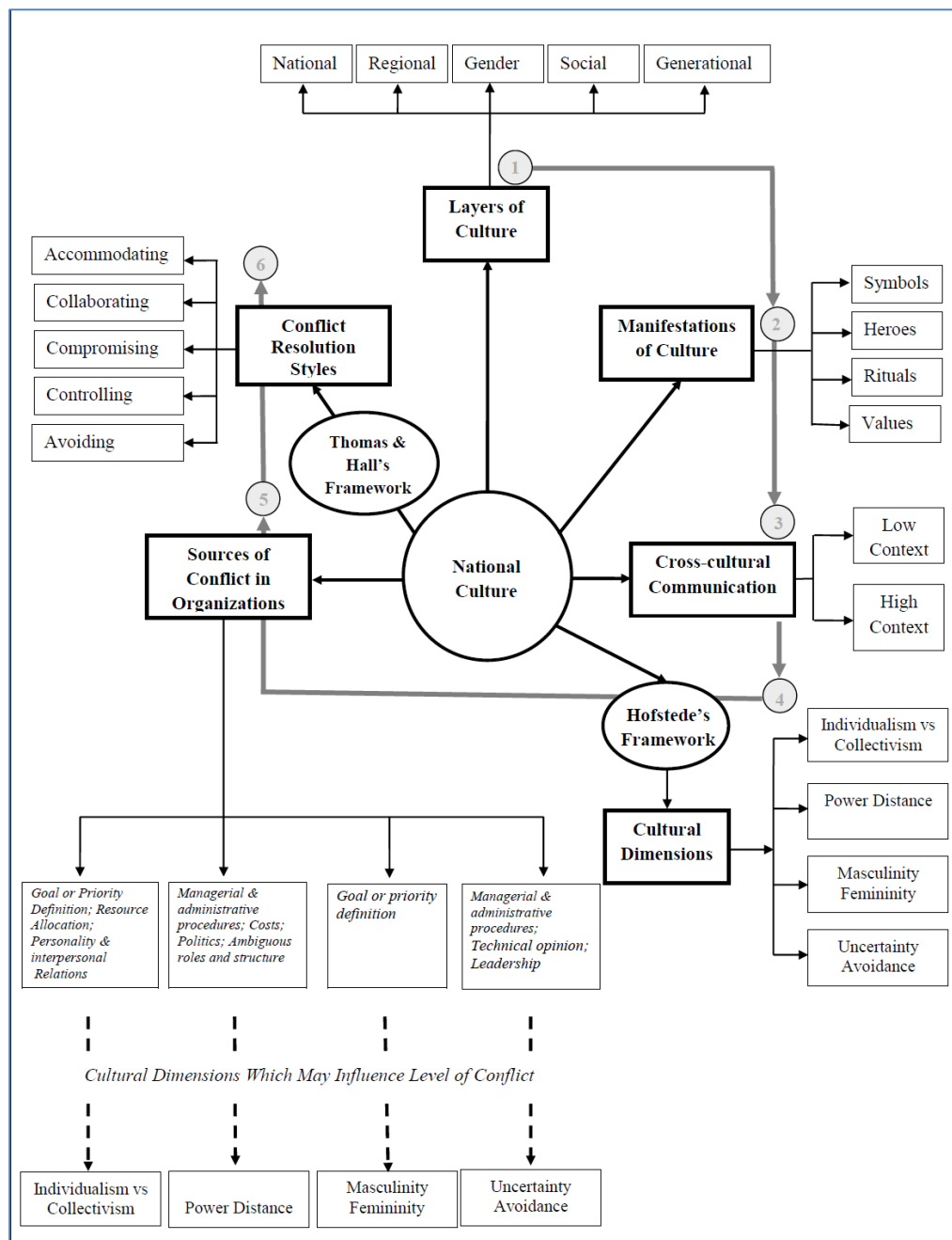
The first task of the study is to determine cultural orientation through the layers of culture which refers to the various elements that constitutes a person's cultural orientation. Hofstede & Hofstede's (2005) layers of culture observes that since most people belong to a number of different groups and categories of people at the same time, people necessarily carry several layers of mental programming within themselves, corresponding to different levels of culture. For example: a national level according to one's country (or countries for people who migrated during their lifetime); a regional and/or ethnic and/or religious and/or linguistic affiliation level, as most nations are composed of culturally different regions and/ or ethnic and/or religious and/or language groups; a gender level, according to whether a person was born as a girl or as a boy; a generation level, which separates grandparents from parents from children; a social class level, associated with educational opportunities and with a person's occupation or profession. Lynn (2014), also identifies seven core layers of culture that influence an individual's mind set, five (national, regional, gender, social and generational) of which he posits are likely to be found within most project teams in any industry.

The study then evaluates how cultural orientation is manifested. Manifestation is usually underpinned by the way a person conducts him or herself, the adoption of value systems and the performances of rights and rituals. Hofstede & Hofstede (2005), theory of the culture onion is an illustration of how cultural practices are manifested through symbols, heroes, rituals and values. The next task is one of the central themes of the study, determines the context (Hall 1976) of communication within any given culture given its layers and manifestation. The cultural context in which human communication is situated, is perhaps the single most defining influence when humans interact (Neuliep, 2011). Culture is the overall repository where the framework with which humans learn to organize their thoughts, emotions, and behaviours in relation to their environment (Walker, 2002). Thus the theory posited is that, communication among humans is dependent on the context in which it occurs. Thus in addition to the verbal and nonverbal codes that are exchanged between people who are interacting, other salient features of a communicative context as indicated in section 2.4.2 are essential. Hofstede & Hofstede (2005) observes that depending on the nature of the contextual features present during communication, interactants choose to focus more on the verbal codes than on the nonverbal elements. While others may actively monitor the nonverbal elements of the context. Hall (1976) describes the former as low context and the latter as high context. The study utilizes this theory as a one of the two key determinants of cultural difference and cross cultural communication.

The first three phases (layers of culture, its manifestation and cultural context) of the theoretical framework will determine the respondents cultural orientation and context of communication while the next two phases (cultural dimensions and conflict resolution styles) evaluates how people relate with each other on project teams and how they choose to resolve conflicts. The outcome of this is compared with Hofstede's framework on cultural dimensions as detailed in section 2.2.4, Cheung and Chuah's sources of organizational conflict as represented in Table 3, and Thomas and Halls framework on conflict resolution styles in Figure 4. As a consequence, the study deals with its objectives by establishing respondents culture in task one, two and three. Task four examines how cultural differences in attitudes and behavior, contribute to the creation of conflict (task and relationship related) situations in the workplace see section 2.5.1. Task five as detailed in figure 4 explains how individual cultural attitudes and behaviors translate into

differences in conflict resolution styles and strategies. Step six evaluates how cultural dimensions influences the choice of conflict resolution style thus providing a framework for making recommendations on how to identify, manage and resolve culture based conflicts in multicultural teams in Mobile Network Operators in Ghana.

Figure 3. Theoretical Framework



Source: (Ocloo, 2014, 45)

CHAPTER 3

3.0 Methodology

The study will tackle the proposed research questions with a combination of the in-depth contextualized and natural insights of qualitative research and the efficient and compelling predictive power of quantitative research. The approach to the study will be guided by two main research approaches that are frequently discussed in cross-cultural research literature: etic and emic (House et al., 2004). Lung-Tan, (2012) notes that measuring culture has always presented a fundamental challenge for scholars in the field of international business because of the concerns associated with the two main approaches, as well as contexts relating to culture vis-à-vis national culture, and dimensional culture.

Research adopting the emic approach; tend to segregate common components of culture and test hypotheses while etic research attempts to identify universal aspects of individual or group behavior. It also seeks to find universal processes that transcend cultural differences in order to produce new theories that can be utilized across cultures (Fukuyama, 1980; Ridley & Mondoza, 1994). Etic researcher thus assumes that all cultures are comparable in terms of generalizable phenomena. The approach adopts broader comparative analyses involving two or more cultures. Etic cross-cultural research seeks to develop an understanding of a construct by comparing it across cultures using predetermined characteristics (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). The main assumption of this approach is that shared frames of references can be found across different cultures. It is also considered as the most practical approach in terms of financial limitations and time pressures because when constructs are thought of as general across cultures, resource expenditures will likely decrease. The study will not have to include a study of the emic aspects of each culture individually.

Contrary to this, emic researcher attempts to identify culture-specific aspects of concepts and behavior, which cannot be comparable across all cultures. Thus emic researcher assume that the best way to understand a culture is as an integrated system. This approach studies behavior from within a single culture and because of this, importance is given to understanding insiders' viewpoints and their cognitive thinking patterns within a defined environment (Weick, 1979).

According to Schaffer & Riordan (2003), this implies that the unique features of a particular culture are incorporated into the theory, hypotheses, measurement, and analyses. However its generalizability across different cultures may be limited. In general, both approaches are useful to international business and as such, studies into international business with cultural dimensions would benefit from combining the etic and emic approaches (Lung-Tan, 2012). After reviewing the two approaches as well as other considerations in cross-cultural and organizational research, Schaffer & Riordan (2003), proposes the best practice of a combined emic-etic or a derived etic approach when making cross-cultural comparisons in organizational research. This requires researchers to first attain emic knowledge of all the cultures in the study (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). However due to the nature of the proposed study and the number of expatriates from different cultures that work in Ghana, financial limitations and time pressures, the etic approach will be adopted. Commonalities across cultures will be determined using national cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1983).

3.1 Study Area

The study will be undertaken in Accra, the capital of Ghana where all the MNO's have their headquarters. This is because the headquarters has the highest concentration of multicultural teams as they house expatriate management teams. Accra has an urban population of 4,010,054 as of 2012 (2010 Census), making it the second largest metropolitan conglomeration in Ghana by population and the eleventh metropolitan area in Africa. By virtue of its location in the Dahomey Gap, the coast runs parallel to the prevailing moist monsoonal winds; Accra features a tropical savanna climate that borders on a semi arid climate. The average annual rainfall is about 730 mm, which falls primarily during two rainy seasons; April to mid-July and in October.

There is very little variation in temperature throughout the year. The mean monthly temperature ranges from 24.7 °C (76.5 °F) in August (the coolest) to 28 °C (82.4 °F) in March (the hottest), with an annual average of 26.8 °C (80.2 °F). It should be noted, however, that the "cooler" months tend to be more humid than the warmer months. As Accra is close to the equator, the daylight hours are practically uniform during the year. Accra's population is a very youthful one, with 56% of the population being under 24 years of age. This predominance of young people is not expected to decline in the foreseeable future. Fifty-one percent (51%) of the population are

females, and the remaining 49% males. This gives a males-to-females ratio of 1:1.04. The greater number of females is a reflection of the nationwide trend, where the estimated ratio of males to females is 1:1.03. Accra has an estimated economically active population of 823,327. It's financial sector incorporates a central bank, nine commercial banks, four development banks, four merchant banks, three discount houses, one home finance mortgage bank, multiple building societies, a stock exchange foreign exchange bureau, finance houses, insurance companies, insurance brokerage firms, savings and loans companies, and numerous real estate developers, with industrial sites and residential developments. The road network in the Accra Metropolitan Area totals 1,117 kilometers (694 mi) in length. Accra will be the focus because it is the heartbeat of economic activity in and thus the hot bed of activities of MNO's in Ghana.

3.2 Research Design

The purpose of a research design is to ensure that the data that is collected is useful and allows the researchers to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible (NYU, 2003). In cross cultural research difficulties associated with procedural equivalence (in terms of survey administration) are more pronounced due to the differences across cultural contexts (Gerhart, 2008). These include differences in language proficiency, differences in perceptions of researcher intrusiveness, and respondents' variable levels of familiarity with filling out surveys. Respondents from different cultures are more likely to carry different internal meanings and frames of references associated with key survey constructs. They may also be subject to different norms concerning scale ranges and acceptable response patterns on survey instruments (Gerhart, 2008). The current study will be conducted within a conceptual framework underpinned by Hofstede's four central elements of national culture. The quantitative method of study was chosen. Administered questionnaires are the preferred data collection instruments for this study. This will be made up of a questionnaire targeted at 40 members of multicultural teams of 4 mobile network operators, to analyze attitudes of team members towards communication, conflicts and conflict resolution in a multicultural team environment.

3.3 Sources of Data

Data collection is important as it ensures that data gathered are well defined and accurate and that subsequent analysis, arguments and conclusions drawn from the findings are valid. The

process of data collection provides both a baseline from which to measure findings. The data sources for this study will include both primary and secondary data sources with primary data obtained from 4 of the MNO's.

3.3.1 Primary Data Sources

The purpose of collecting primary source data is to ensure that the data used is relevant to the study at hand and was more consistent with the research question and research objective. For the purposes of this study, data is acquired via a questionnaire targeted at Ghanaian and Non Ghanaian managers in the selected MNO's. The questionnaire is designed to gather data that tests Hofstede's four central elements of national culture in multicultural teams in Ghana. This specific information will not be possible to acquire if only secondary data were utilized. Research requires the use of several sources of data on the area of study. This is helpful in tackling the research problem while providing a deeper understanding of the study area. Since secondary sources are one or more steps removed from the main events underpinning the study they support the primary data gathered and help in its interpretation and analysis.

3.3.2 Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data was sourced from books, articles, reports and other publications that relate to or discuss information on the subject matter. For this study, the literature used as secondary data was from the work of Geert Hofstede and other scholars who have commented or conducted research on his work. All these secondary sources associated with this study are duly cited in this work under the list of references.

3.4 Study Population

In determining the target population in a behavioral and social science research, the context and problem that will be examined must be taken into consideration (Whittemore & Melkus, 2011). The population itself is the entire group of individuals to whom and about whom the research is interested in gaining knowledge. Because of the diversity in backgrounds and the complex contextual factors that characterize any given study population, the focus of the research questions informed the identification and selection of the study population.

In this study where the objective is to determine the extent to which cross-cultural communication plays a role in the perception of conflicts and conflict resolution, the population includes both Ghanaian and non-Ghanaian managers in the 6 MNO's in Ghana working on teams made up of at least one other person from a different national culture. The selected respondent must have worked on the multicultural team for at least a year. This is to ensure that they have had enough opportunities to experience the dynamics of working on a multicultural team in Ghana. Prior experience working in other multicultural teams will not qualify the respondent because this study seeks to study the phenomena within the context Ghanaian national culture. The delineation and specification of the study population leads to a clear identification of characteristics needed for the selection of participation and the identification of whom the results of the study can be generalized (Whittemore & Melkus, 2011).

3.5 Sampling

Because it is impracticable to collect data from an entire population of interest, sampling is done to collect data from a subset of the target population that is representative of the whole population (Whittemore & Melkus, 2011). The selection of a sample size for this study was based on how the size related to the target population in terms of representation, budget available for the research, data analyses and the level of accuracy envisaged. To determine the appropriate sample, the researcher considered the size of the study population and used a ratio of 10:1 sample-to-completion ratio as a guide. The 10:1 sample-to-completion ratio is typical of research of this nature (Government of Canada, 2013). This is consistent with the recommendations of Gray & Diehl, (1992) who also suggests the use of 10% of large populations (101 to 1,000) and 20% of small populations (1 to 100) as minimums. This implies that contact information for 10 potential respondents is needed to achieve one completed interview.

With an estimated average population of about 65 managers per MNO with 6 MNO's and an estimated total of 390 managers, 40 respondents were selected across the MNO's with 25% of the total sample being non-Ghanaian. The 25% allocation is representative of the average percentage of non-Ghanaian managers found in MNO's in Ghana. This is in line with the best practice of selecting sizes based on the proportions that exist in each identified stratum

(Kitchenham & Pfleeger , 2002). Having identified the criteria for selection stratified random sampling was used to divide the target population into two subgroups – Ghanaian and non-Ghanaian. This is because as expected, there are difference in the in the size of the two strata's and differences in the way they respond to questions, thus each stratum was sampled separately.

3.6 Data Collection

Data for the research was collected through surveys made up of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured so that the data collected satisfied the objectives of the research and minimized the burden placed on respondents. This was achieved by ensuring that only essential and relevant information that tracked back to the research objectives was collected. Questions that track back to the theoretical underpinning of the study - Hofstede's cultural dimensions was collected in order to discover the extent to which they are represented in multicultural teams in Ghana. Because the central cultural dimension in the study was the effect of individualism-collectivism on conflict styles, the descriptive survey method was used to tease out the individualism-collectivism elements. This is consistent with Ghauri (2002), observation that descriptive surveys are useful in obtaining attitudes towards something.

The survey items were also structured to ensure both conceptual equivalence (where survey items elicit the same conceptual frames of references across different cultures), and scaling equivalence (where respondents perceive and interpret rating-scale intervals in the same manner) as proposed by Riordan & Vandenberg (1994). According to Ryan, Chan et al (1999), instruments that do not have such equivalence can lead to wrong conclusions on key issues as well as to misguided recommendations.

Data was collected using a mixed method of in-person visits and email. The latter being a strategy adopted to contact "hard-to-reach" respondents. The mixed method approach was helpful because it made it significantly easier to survey top hard-to-reach respondents who we were unable to meet in-person. This is consistent with the approach recommended by Whittemore & Melkus, (2011). This was useful in this survey because it helped shorten the time it took to complete data collection.

3.7 Data Analysis

As a quantitative study, the data collected was entered into a statistical software program (SPSS) in order to ensure that the data are not fraught with errors. The data was double-entered into two separate databases and compared in order to identify errors in the data entry process. The data analysis identified patterns and relationships between different cultural orientations and how they perceived and resolved conflicts, thus answering the research question. Once the data was analyzed, the results were interpreted and recommendations made.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

The overall validity of the findings of the study may not be universally applicable to the universe of multicultural teams working in Ghana. This is because this study was limited by time and as such some of the processes that allow a more comprehensive study to be conducted were not adopted. These limitations have informed the focus of the study to only MNO's, a subset of the telecommunications industry and thus did not include internet protocol providers, hardware software manufacturers and suppliers. With regards to the impact of time and resources on the central issues of methodology, the study did not conduct focus group discussions or make observations of subjects in the field despite their effectiveness in aiding the study to arrive at a more refined and focused finding on the subject matter. This is the most important limitation in the adoption of the etic approach within the mixed method framework. Thus the use of emic processes was non-existent thus affecting the ability of the study to unearth details of intra-cultural differences within Ghanaian team members. Since the sample size for the study was relatively small, the recommendations made are only suggestive.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

In conducting this study, questionnaires were administered to participants. During the administration process only the respondent and the researcher were present. The process of filling the questionnaire lasted for approximately half an hour each. Everyone who completed a questionnaire did so in their regular working environment.

All involved participants were informed about the subject and purpose of this study and participated voluntarily. All participants were advised on their choice of remaining anonymous

and in the case where participants opted to receive a summary of the results of the study they were encouraged to provide their private emails instead of corporate mail in order to maintain their anonymity to the institution they belong to. Apart from this the research data and the identity of respondents remained confidential throughout the study.

All observations and recommendations made in this study is underpinned by theories derived from existing work reviewed in the literature review section as wells insight from the data collection and analysis process.

CHAPTER 4

4.0 Data Presentation and Analysis

The survey was conducted by questionnaire, which had both quantitative and qualitative elements. The questions that addressed the objectives of the study were adapted from similar study's (Oddou & Derr, 1999, p 7-10) (Wuisman, 2008, p 85-87) (USDA, 2013). Part one of the questionnaire deals with general questions which seek to measure the layers of culture of respondents. Part two was designed to tease out attitudes and behaviours in relation to respondent's cultural context of communication while the third part measures respondent's dimensions of culture. The first three parts cumulatively examine how cultural differences in attitudes and behavior contribute to the creation of task and relationship conflict situations in the workplace. The fourth part of the questionnaire identifies how individual cultural attitudes and behaviors translate into differences in conflict resolution styles and strategies (See Appendix 1). The concepts and theories of culture that were reflected in the questions were Hofstede's (1983) cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories, which covers both cultural orientation and dimensions of culture, Hall's (1976) theory of conflict resolution styles; and Cheung & Chuah's (1999) theory of sources of organizational conflict.

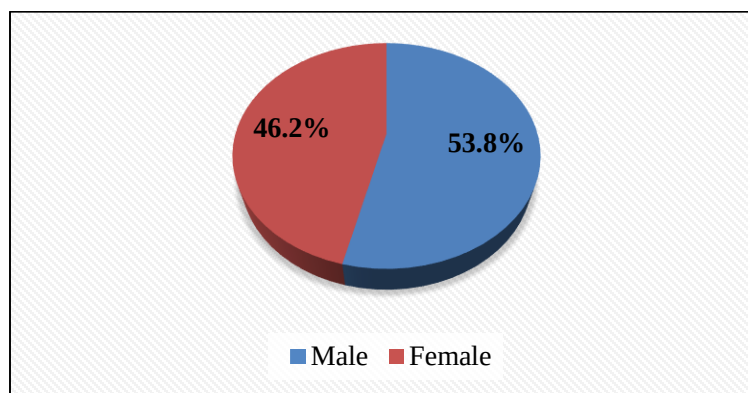
A likert scale, which is a psychometric scale commonly involved in research that employs questionnaires was used for all the questions for which the respondents had to choose only one option. A scale of 1-5 with a range from totally agree to totally disagree and middle ground of neither agree nor disagree was used for part two of the questionnaire while a scale of 1-4 with a range from totally agree to totally disagree without an option of a middle ground available was used for part three and four of the questionnaire. During data analysis, responses from the questionnaire were entered and analyzed with the statistical package for social science program (SPSS). The results of the responses from the various parts were then cross tabulated to reveal how culture plays a role in the perception, prosecution and resolution of a conflict in a multicultural team.

4.1 Description of the respondents

Due to time constraints and a need to minimize inaccurate responses as a result of differences in the frames of reference used in interpretation of, and response to, key questions, the majority of

the questionnaires were administered by the author. A few hard to reach respondents were contacted via electronic mail after a phone conversation. Respondents from 4 of the 6 MNO's (MTN, Vodafon, Airtel and Tigo) were sampled. A total number of 65 potential respondents were approached out of which 35 agreed to complete the questionnaire. 10 questionnaires were sent by mail out of which 4 were returned duly completed. On the whole, a total number of 75 respondents were contacted out of which 39 responded. Out of this, there were 21 males and 18 females.

Figure 4. Gender Distribution of Respondents



31 (79.49%) were Ghanaians and 8 (10.41%) non Ghanaians from Nigeria, Liberia, Cameroun, India and the United States of America.

Figure 5. Distribution of Ghanaian and Non Ghanaian Respondents

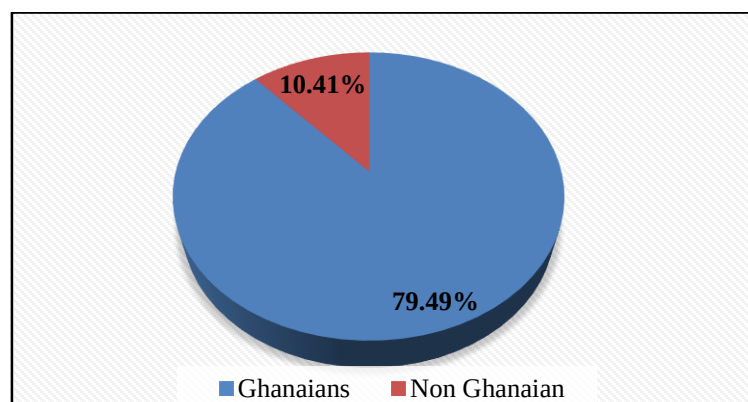
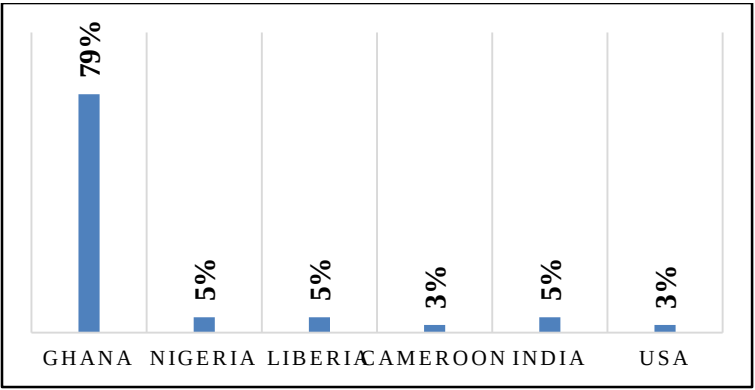
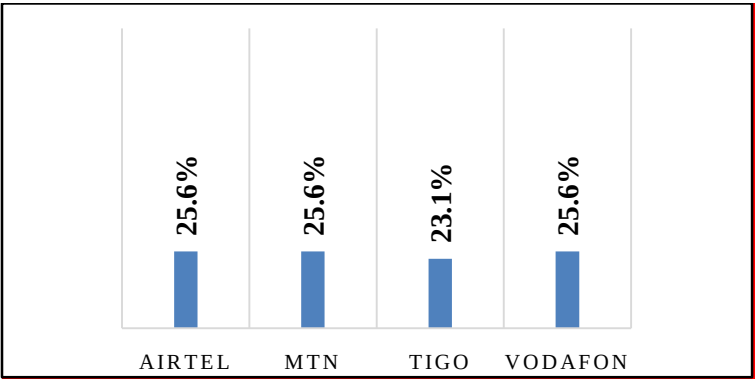


Figure 6. Nationality of Respondents



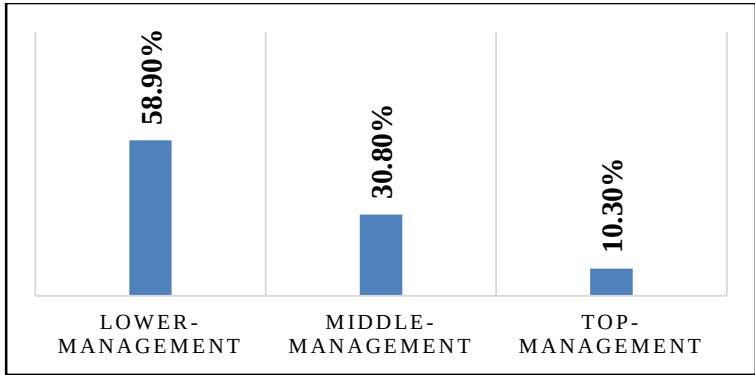
9 (23.1%) respondents work with Tigo and 10 (25.6%) each from MTN, Airtel and Vodafon.

Figure 7. Distribution of Organizations Respondents work in



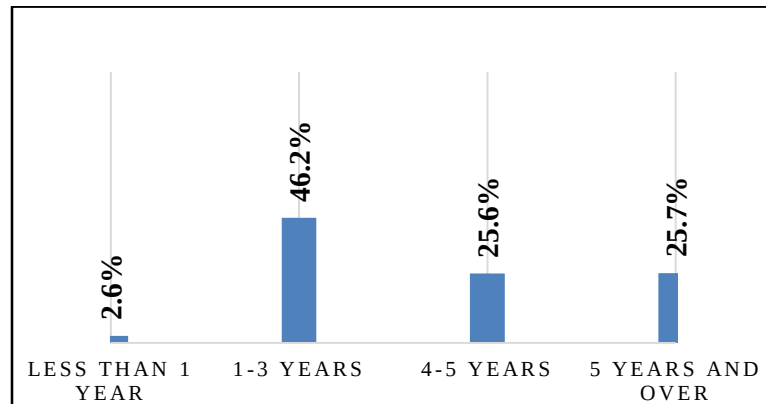
Out of the total number of respondents, 4 (10.30%) of them were in top management positions, 12 (30.80%) in middle management and 23 (58.9%) in lower management.

Figure 8. Job Designations of Respondents



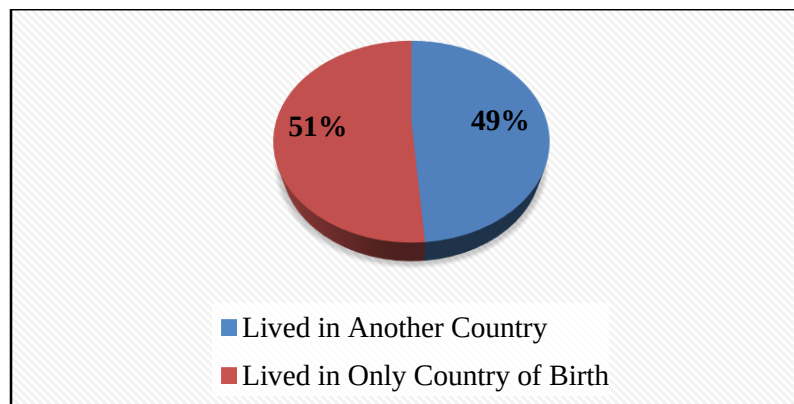
With regards to length of employment with current organization, 1 (2.6%) person had worked for a year, 18 (46.2%) had worked between 1 to 3 years, 10 (25.7%) between 3 to 5 years and 10 (25.7%) had worked over 5 years.

Figure 9. Number of Years Worked in Organization



Out of the 39 respondents 19 (48.72%) of them (including 11 Ghanaians) had lived in another country other than the one they were born in whiles the rest 20 (51.28%) (Ghanaians) had lived only in Ghana.

Figure 10. Cultural Experience of Respondents



In response to the key cultural orientation question, of which 21 of the 39 respondents answered, 12 of those who responded felt closer to the country in which they were born, 4 to the country they had lived longest and 5 closest to the country in which they live now (Ghana).

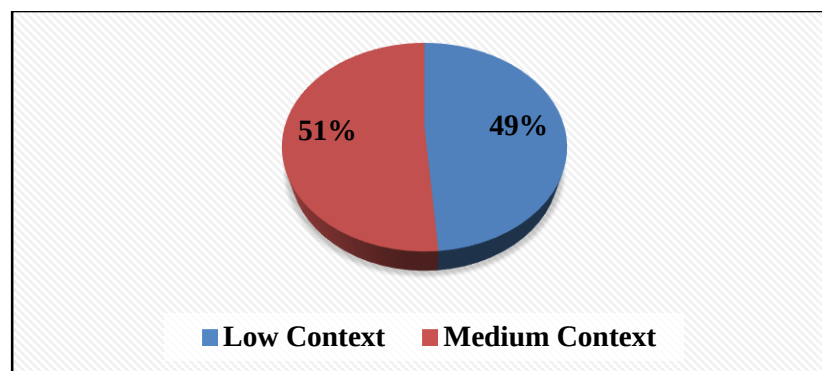
4.2 Data Analysis

‘Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating or otherwise re-combining the evidence, to address the initial propositions of a study.’ (Yin, 1984, p 99) The analysis of this data describes and summarizes the data, identifies relationships between variables, compares variables, identifies the difference between variables and forecasts outcomes. According to Ghauri & Gronhaug, (2005, p 204), quantitative data is numerical and standardized data which is usually analyzed statistically and the results presented in diagram form. Qualitative data on the other hand is not standardized and the data has to be categorized. Instead of diagrams, the analysis is presented using conceptualizations.

4.2.1 Differences in Attitudes and Behaviors (High and Low Context Communication)

The overall cultural orientation was measured through the determination of the respondent’s context of communication. This was measured with the questions in Part 2. As indicated in figure 2, out of the 39 respondents 19 (49%) were low context and 20 (49%) medium context. This mix was irrespective of national culture (Nationality of Respondent). There were no high context individuals.

Figure 11. Distribution of Cultural Orientation by Context



Out of the 19 low context respondents, 17 were Ghanaians, 1 was American and 1 Cameroonian. Out of the 20 medium context respondents, 14 identified themselves as Ghanaians, 2 Indians, 2 Nigerians and 2 Liberians.

Figure 12. Distribution of Low Context Respondents by Nationality

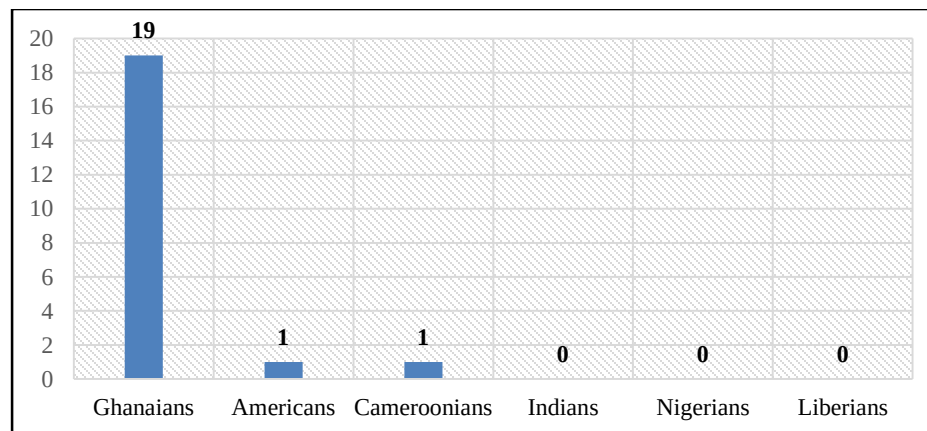
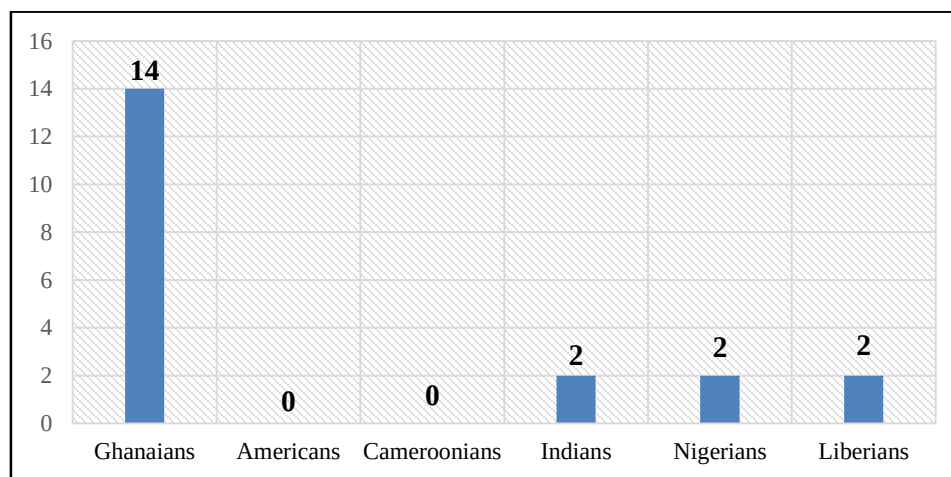


Figure 13. Distribution of Medium Context Respondents by Nationality



Context deals with modes of communication and the ascription of meaning. Differences in these modes of communication can contribute to the creation of conflict situations. In high context cultures, communication is not general across individuals in content but is specific to particular people, places, and times (Hofstede, 1980). Within a high-context exchange, the persons involved will look to the physical, socio-relational, and perceptual environment for information. What is of particular importance is the social relationship between the interactants, especially, their status. Meaning is derived from the culture's collective accumulation of shared experiences and expectations and silence is often used to communicate meaning. On the other hand, low-context cultures, communication relies heavily on words for the creation and interpretation of meaning. On a multicultural team in the workplace, this can have significant impact as according

to Hofstede & Hofstede (2005) low-context communicants typically separate issue of communication from the person with whom they are interacting. However, a significant number of respondents 20 (51%) in this were neither low nor high context. Hofstede & Hofstede, (2005) explains this phenomena when he observes that cultures are not static but dynamic, continuously developing and evolving.

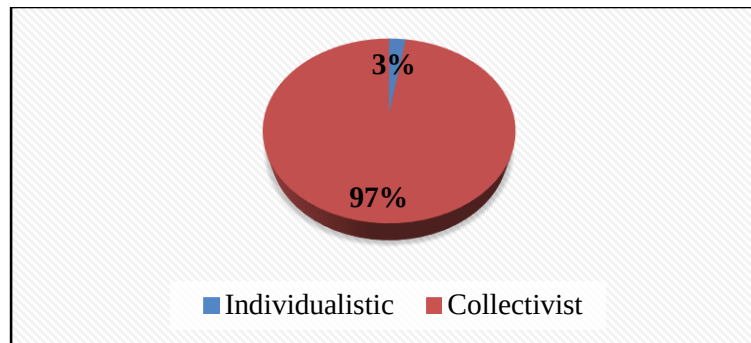
The medium context score of the respondents suggests that they have integrated aspects of both high and low context approaches and can use one or the other as the situation requires. They also posit that this may also indicate that respondents of this nature might not be totally comfortable in either strongly low or high cultural contexts. With this representation of both medium and low context persons in multicultural teams in MNO's in Ghana, there is potential for the creation of cross-cultural communication based conflicts (both task and relationship related). However, this may be of low intensity. For instance, a team member may say to a colleague, "don't take it personally," as he or she raises an issue about the person expecting his or her colleague to understand it in a professional sense. If this colleague is a high-context culture communicant, he/she will see both the subject of communication (the issue) and his role as intrinsic to his person. Thus if the issue is attacked, so has the person, hence the conflict. However with numerous people falling in the mid-point of HC and LC this scenario may not play out often.

4.2.2 Role Culture plays in the Creation of Conflict on Multicultural teams

Individualism and collectivism

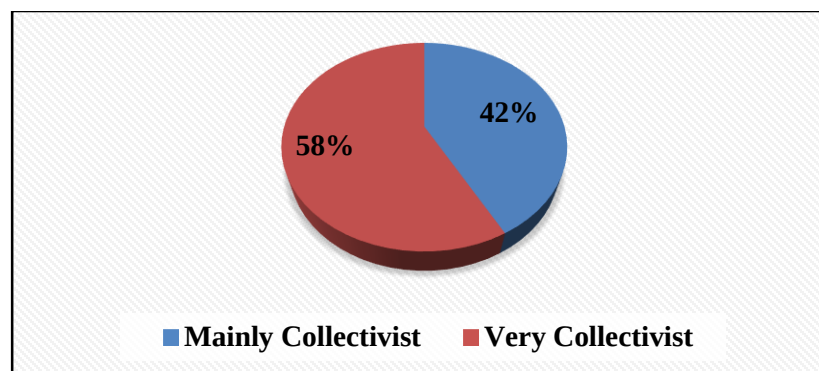
This is the cultural dimension that refers to how people define themselves and their relationships with others. This dimension was measured with questions, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53. Most team members were found to be generally collectivist with different levels of collectivism. As much as 38 (97%) were collective with only 1 (3%) being individualistic.

Figure 14. Representation of Power Distance



Uniquely, the study found that even though the teams were generally collectivist, they fell at different levels of collectivism. Out of the 38 respondents who fell in this category, 22 (58%) were found to be very collectivist while 16 (42%) were mainly or usually collectivist. This means on occasion they may exhibit individualistic tendencies.

Figure 15. Levels of Collectivism among Collectivists



The cumulative orientation of respondents was mainly collectivist with an average of 20.05 on the Individualism and Collectivism scale as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Questionnaire Measuring Individualism and Collectivism Including Response Rates and Average Scores

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
48	Projects are only discussed during relevant meetings. Decisions that have to be taken in between meetings are usually taken on Individual basis.	20.51%	56.41%	15.38%	7.69%
49	I like to discuss all decisions that I have to make with my colleagues and highly value their opinion.	7.69%	10.26%	25.64%	56.41%
50	I love it when I am praised for my individual achievements in front of my colleagues.	17.95%	23.08%	43.59%	15.38%
51	Within project teams the concept of synergy (individuals in a group perform better than an individual alone) is very important.	10.26%	10.26%	0%	79.49%
52	When working in a project team my personal satisfaction is more important than the wellbeing of the team I work with.	71.79%	17.95%	5.13%	5.13%
53	In my organization it is normal that responsibility for the outcome of a project is taken by the whole project team.	2.56%	5.13%	17.95%	74.36%

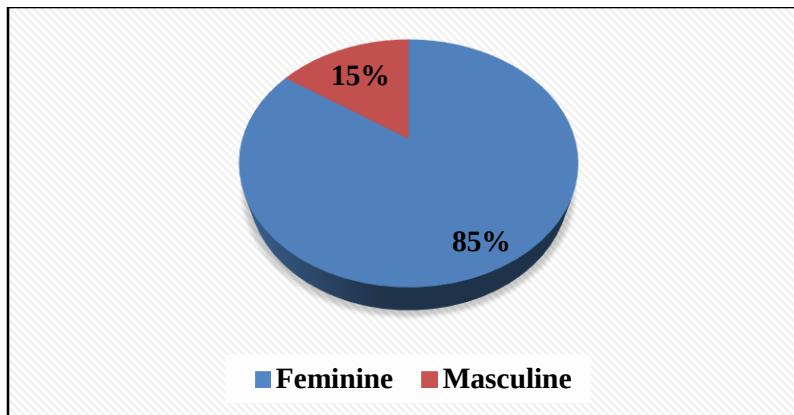
1 = Very individualistic. 2 = Mainly individualistic. 3 = Mainly communitarian. 4 = Very communitarian. **Average score: 20.05** 6 – 10.5 = Very individualistic. 10.5 - 15 = Mainly individualistic. 15-19.5 = Mainly communitarian. 19.5 -24 = Very communitarian.

A high individualistic respondent's interest prevails over the interests of the group while a collectivist subdues his or her interests for the welfare of the group (Hofstede, 1980). One practical difference which impacts a multicultural project team is reflected in who is taken into account when goals are set. Within individualist cultures, goals are set with minimal consideration given to groups other than perhaps the immediate family. In collectivist cultures, other groups are taken into account in a major way when goals are set (Hofstede's 1980). Within the multicultural teams studied, conflicts associated with individualism and collectivism (*goal or priority definition, resource allocation, personality and interpersonal relationships*) as detailed in table 3 (page 31), may not exist.

Femininity and Masculinity

This dimension was measured with questions 36, 37, 38, 39, 40 and 41 this reveals cultures that are either masculine or feminine. Out of all respondents, 33 (85%) exhibited a feminine cultural dimension while 6 (15%) had a masculine dimension.

Figure 16. Representation of Masculine vs Feminine Dimensions



The cumulative orientation of respondents was mainly feminine with an average of 18.34 on the Masculinity Femininity scale as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Questionnaire Measuring Femininity and Masculinity Including Response Rates and Average Scores

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
36	There are no clear difference between male and female employees with regards to their role on the team.	5.14%	2.56%	17.95%	74.36%
37	Everybody who works on a project team is equal, the hierarchical structure that is present only derives for practical reasons like dividing responsibilities and facilitating the decision making process.	7.69%	10.26%	28.20	53.85%
38	Conflicts must be solved by compromise and negotiations.	7.69%	0%	28.21	64.10%
39	Project team managers have to use their intuition and strive for consensus when solving a conflict.	2.63%	10.53%	28.95	57.89%
40	Employees in my organization usually have a low level of assertiveness, ambition and competitiveness when working in a project team.	41.03%	20.51%	25.64	12.82%
41	I would describe the average team member as supportive, nurturing, and deferent.	7.69%	12.82%	48.72	30.77%

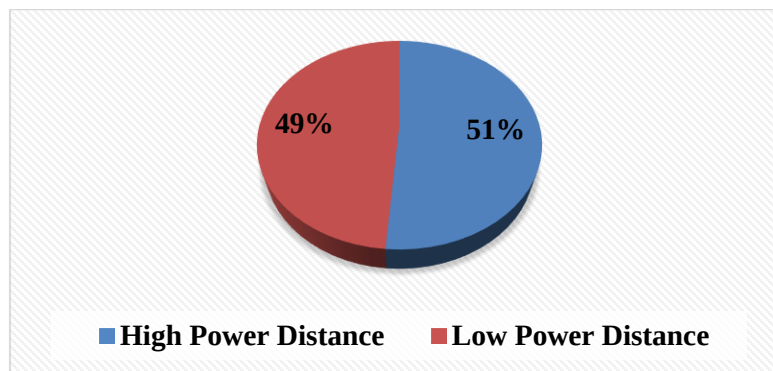
1 = Very high level of Masculinity. 2 = Mainly Masculine. 3 = Mainly Feminine. 4 = Very high level of Femininity. **Average score: 18.34** 6 – 10.5 = Very high level of Masculinity. 10.5 – 15 = Mainly Masculine. 15 – 19.5 = Mainly Feminine. 19.5 - 24 = Very high level of Femininity.

Masculine cultures place high values on masculine traits such as assertiveness, competition, and material success. Feminine cultures on the other hand permit more overlapping social roles for the sexes stressing traits stress such as quality of life, interpersonal relationships. In the workplace, masculine cultural values dictate decisiveness and assertiveness, whiles feminine cultural values dictate the use of intuition and the building of consensus (Hofstede's 1980). Within the multicultural teams studied, conflicts associated with feminine and masculine outlooks (*goal or priority definition*) as detailed in table 3, will exist as a result of the differences in the masculine and feminine orientation represented in figure 16.

Power Distance

The power distance dimension which is how culture deal with inequalities was measured with questions 30, 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35. Out of all respondents, 20 (51%) exhibited high power distance whiles 19 (49%) a power distance orientation.

Figure 17. Representation of **Power** Distance



The cumulative orientation of respondents was mainly feminine with an average of 15.32 on the Masculinity Femininity scale as shown in Table 6. Out of the 20 that had a high power distance level, 19 (67%) had very high levels of power distance and 1(33%) relatively high power distance. 18 had relatively low levels of power distance and 1 very low level of power distance

Table 6. Questionnaire Power Distance Including Response Rates and Average Scores

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
30	When working on a project team I feel that I can freely express myself no matter who the other team members are.	5.13%	12.82%	33.33%	48.72%
31	I feel free to disagree with my superiors and start a discussion about a difference of opinion.	10.26%	15.38%	35.90%	38.46%
32	Team managers do not consider non-managerial employees as equal in communication and decision making.	46.15%	25.64%	25.64%	2.56%
33	I expect my team manager to tell me what to do and exactly how he wants it to be done.	12.82%	17.95%	28.21%	41.02%
34	Privileges according to status are not desirable within my organization.	20.51%	35.90%	25.64%	17.95%
35	I find that inequalities in the distribution of power between managers and non- managerial employees on a project team has a very negative effect upon the performance of individual team members with a lower position.	17.95%	38.46%	30.77	12.82%

1 = Very high level of Power Distance. 2 = Relative high level of Power Distance. 3 = Relative low level of Power Distance. 4 = Very low level of Power Distance **Total Score: 15.32**

6 – 10.5 = Very high level of Power Distance. 10.5 - 15 = Relative high level of Power Distance.

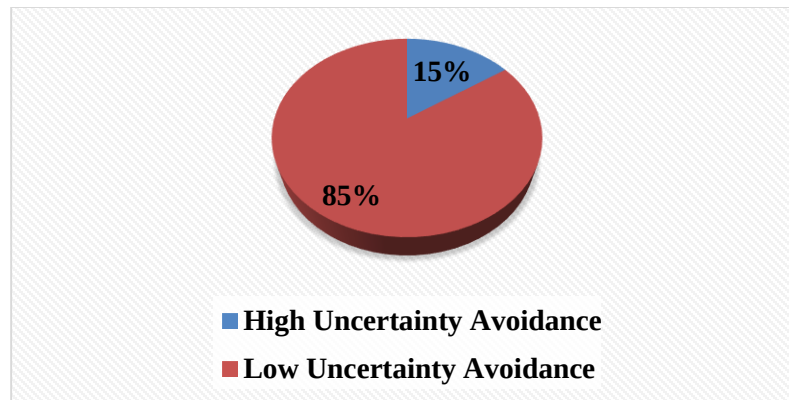
5 – 19.5 = Relative low level of Power Distance. 19.5 – 24 = Very low level of Power Distance

Power distance reveals the “*extent to which less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally*” (Hofstede, 1980 p. 28). In high power distance cultures, team members are expected to display respect for those of higher status in an organization. All team members including superiors and subordinates consider each other existentially unequal, power is centralized, and flows downwards while respect and deference flows upwards. People with low power distance expect to be generally equal, subordinates expect to be consulted, and ideal bosses are democratic (Hofstede’s 1980). With a near equal representation of the proponents of both low and high power distance within the multicultural teams studied, conflicts associated with differences in power distance (*Managerial and administrative procedures, allocation of costs, politics of territorial power and ambiguous roles/structure*) as detailed in table 3, will exist as a result.

Uncertainty Avoidance

The extent to which people in a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations referred to as the uncertainty avoidance dimension was measured with questions 42, 43, 44, 45, 46 and 47). Out of all respondents, 33 (85%) exhibited low levels of uncertainty avoidance while 6 (15%) a high levels of uncertainty avoidance.

Figure 18. Representation of Uncertainty Avoidance



The cumulative orientation of respondents was mainly that of a low level of uncertainty avoidance with an average of 15.32 on the UA scale as shown in Table 7. Out of all the levels UA exhibited, 31(67%) showed relatively low levels of UA, 2 (33%) respondents exhibited very low levels of UA while 6 (33%) respondents exhibited relatively high levels UA. Nobody exhibited very high levels of UA.

Table 7. Questionnaire Uncertainty Avoidance Including Response Rates and Average Scores

		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
42	Team members do not expect any individual team member to do or say something out of the ordinary.	43.59%	28.21%	20.51%	7.69%
43	When working on a project, team actions and decisions are never elaborately discussed.	41.03%	33.33%	15.38%	10.26%
44	When working on a project, the approach to completing the project usually is to select a method that has already proven to be effective.	7.69%	35.90%	33.33%	23.08%
45	I see rules and regulations within my team merely as a basic structure and guideline for employees to act upon.	7.69%	7.69%	43.59%	41.03%
46	The team dynamics on my team makes me feel stimulated and invited to try new things that are original and creative.	10.26%	2.56%	33.33%	53.85%
47	I prefer to work with methods that I know are tried and tested rather than trying new methods.	23.08%	38.46%	33.33%	5.13%

1 = Very low level of uncertainty avoidance. 2 = Relative low level of uncertainty avoidance. 3 = Relative high level of uncertainty avoidance. 4 = Very High level of uncertainty avoidance.

Score: 12.58 6 – 10.5 = Very low level of uncertainty avoidance. 10.5 – 15 = Relative low level of uncertainty avoidance. 15 – 19.5 = Relative high level of uncertainty avoidance. 19.5 - 24 = Very High level of uncertainty avoidance.

In cultures strong in uncertainty avoidance people tend to be active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security seeking, and intolerant; cultures weak in uncertainty avoidance are contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting of personal risks, and relatively tolerant. In high uncertainty culture workplace, there is an inner need to work hard, and there is a need for rules, precision, and punctuality while in a weak one, employees work hard only when needed, there are no more rules than are necessary, and precision and punctuality have to be learned (Hofstede's 1980). With the various levels of UA exhibited by the multicultural teams studied, conflicts associated with differences in the levels (*Managerial and administrative procedures and leadership*) as detailed in table 3, will exist.

4.2.3 Cultural Differences in Conflict Resolution Styles and Strategies

When comparing conflict resolution styles between cultures, communication styles and cultural orientation are essential ingredients. Individualistic cultures are typically also low context and are characterized as more concerned with the self than others. They are generally hypothesized to

prefer the conflict styles of problem-solving, compromising and forcing, which involves strong verbal communication (Hofstede, 1983), *see section 2.5.2.1*. On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures who also tend to be higher context, group interests supersede aspirations (Hofstede, 1980, 1983), and as such conflict styles will reflect elements of relationship preservation, such as smoothing and compromising. Withdrawing from a conflict may also be used tactically to “save face,” rather than embarrass others (Ting-Toomey, 1988) *see section 2.5.2.1*. This is evident in the data gleaned from the study as the predominantly low and medium context respondents of the survey adopted a mix of conflict resolution styles as illustrated in Figures 22 and 23.

The most preferred conflict resolution style of the group as a whole was collaboration with a cumulative group score of 10.69 on a scale of 12. The groups’ least preferred style was avoidance with a score of 7.85.

Figure 19. Ranking of Group Style Preferences

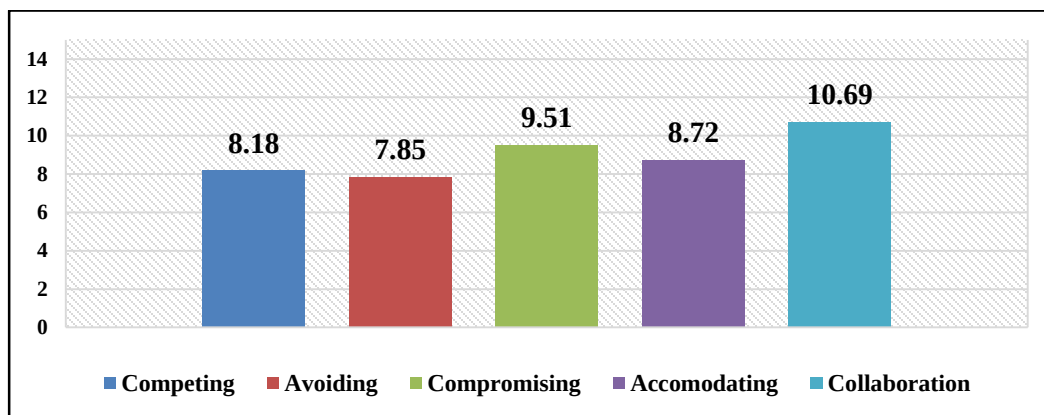


Figure 20 illustrates how both medium and low context orientations show similar trends to the group average. It also shows how low context orientation leads to the adoption of a relatively higher threshold of the group trends.

Figure 20. Differences in Group, Low Context and Medium Context Style Preferences

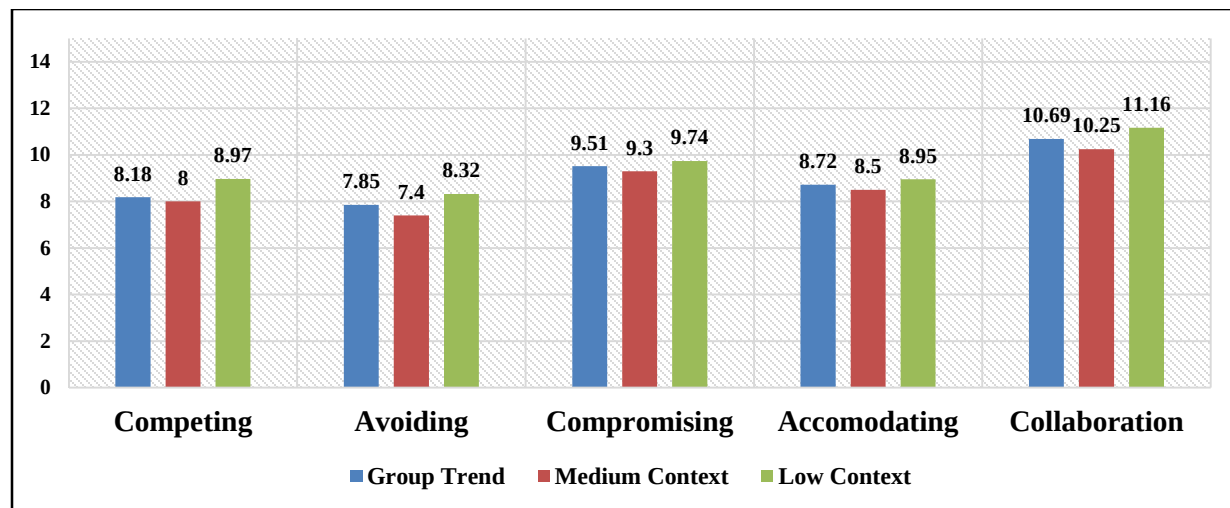


Figure 19 and 20 illustrates general views that seem to suggest only small differences in the ways the 2 represented orientations (MC and LC) deal with conflict. When the data is looked at from the perspective of the number of respondents who preferred specific styles and the number of respondents who least preferred other styles, the following emerges:

Out of the 39 respondents, 28 of the preferred collaboration, 6 preferred competition, 3 avoiding and 3 compromising. The least preferred styles were, avoidance (15) competing (13) accommodation (6) and compromising (5).

Figure 21. Representation of Preferred Conflict Styles

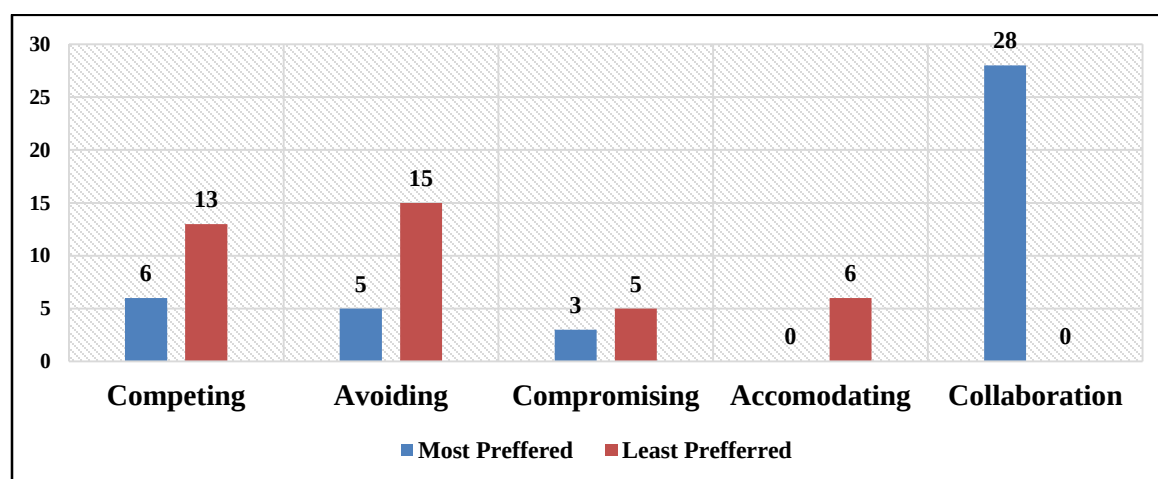


Figure 22 shows that out of the 20 medium context respondents, 11 preferred a collaborative conflict resolution style, 5 preferred the competing style and 2 preferred avoidance of the conflict and the last 2 preferred compromise. Figure 23 indicates that the least preferred CRS for this group were avoidance (10), competing (8) and accommodation (2). The variety in preferred styles is consistent with both the diversity found in this group and their ability to adapt to both extremes of HC and LC.

Figure 22 also shows that 17 of the 19 respondents who were low context preferred the collaborative style while 1 each preferred the avoidance and compromising styles. Figure 23 indicates that the least preferred styles among this group were competing (5), avoiding (5), compromising (5), and accommodation (5).

The detail of preferences illustrated by Figures 22 and 23 shows that despite the overall similarities that were observed in Figures 19 and 20, there are significant differences in the actual combinations of most and least preferred CRS.

Figure 22. Distribution of Preferred Conflict Resolution Styles by Cultural Orientation

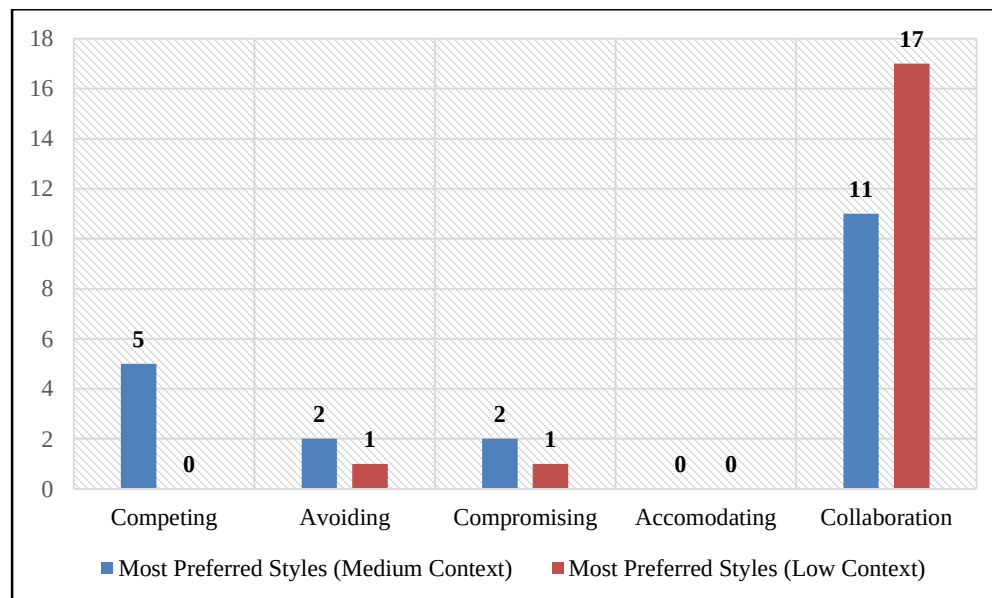
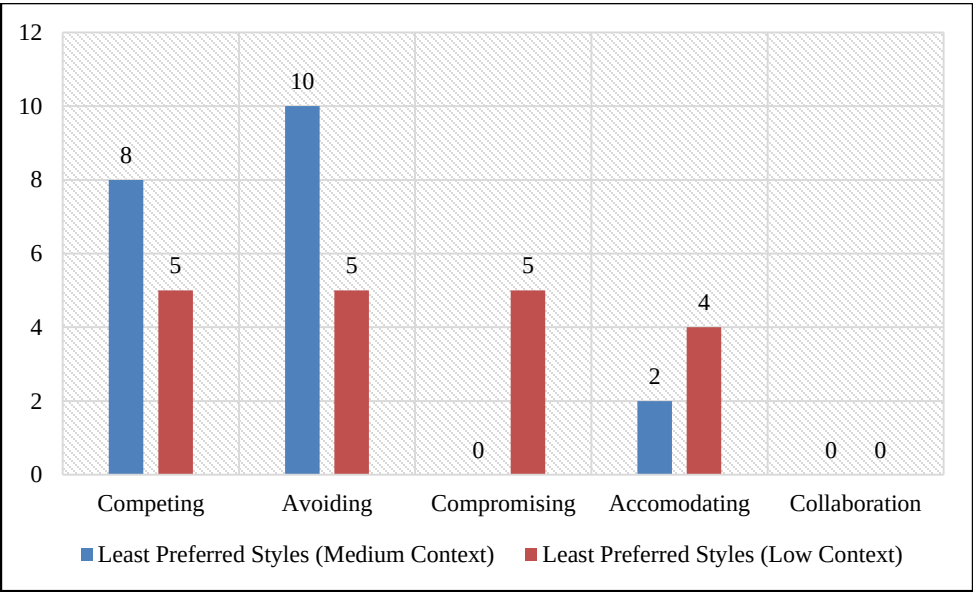


Figure 23. Distribution of Preferred Conflict Resolution Styles by Cultural Orientation



CHAPTER 5

5.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

The purpose of this chapter is to summarise the study while reflecting on the challenges faced, insights gained and recommendations made based on the findings of the study.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The objective of this study was to examine how cultural differences in attitudes and behavior contribute to the creation of conflict situations in the workplace; identify how individual cultural attitudes and behaviors translate into differences in conflict resolution styles and strategies; and make recommendations on how to identify, manage and resolve culture based conflicts in multicultural teams in Mobile Network Operators in Ghana. This was based on Hofstede's framework on cross cultural communication and the dimensions of culture, Hall's framework on conflict resolution styles.

After determining respondents' cultural orientation (cultural context) the context was then compared to respondents' attitudes and behavior to project teams as revealed by the dimensions of culture. This was then juxtaposed against the pre-determined sources of conflicts in organizations (Cheung & Chuah, 1999) to reveal the kinds of conflicts that the differences in cultural orientation cause. Finally, respondents' cultural orientation (cultural context) was compared to their preferred CRS to determine the role the differences played in the selection of CRS. The questionnaire was developed and its data analyzed with frameworks that had their genesis from Hofstede and Hall.

After analysing the data, the study showed that multicultural teams did exist in the MNO's sphere of operation and indeed possessed different cultural orientations even within the same organization and the same national cultural background. The study then revealed that cultural differences in attitudes and behavior can contribute to the creation of various conflict situations in the workplace or on project teams. Concomitantly, the study also revealed that the multicultural teams studied had adapted to working with both extremes of the cultural orientation continuum. With regards to conflict resolution styles, the study did not just measure absolute choices but the mix of strategies adopted for the purpose of managing disputes. With reference to

the foregoing, the study found that despite the fact that both cultural orientations heavily favoured the collaborating style, there were differences in the mix of strategies adopted by both orientations. This was also obvious in the mix of least preferred styles, thus resolving the second objective that differences in cultural attitudes and behaviours does lead to differences in CRS.

With regards to new insight, it is worth noting that the result of the study only loosely conforms to Hofstede's framework the posits that, India, Ghana and the rest of West Africa are typically high context, collectivist, feminine, high on power distance, and high on uncertainty avoidance scale. Most of the respondents who fall within the category discussed are mainly low context and medium context at best, but to a large extent still possess all the attributes of a high context culture. This is an area that will need further study to properly understand. It is also worth noting that some Ghanaians, in assessing their own cultural orientation indicated that they felt closer to a different culture (all western cultures) than their own culture. The same was true for some of the respondents from Nigeria, USA, Liberia and India who felt closer to Ghanaian culture. This adaptation of, or assimilation into, other national cultures may also be a contributing factor to the non-conformity of the results to Hofstede's framework. Again, this will require further study to properly understand. In conducting further studies, one important dimension that will help in bringing better understanding to the subject area is the adoption of a more qualitative approach to help standardize the frames of reference for the key themes and ideas as well as understanding intra-cultural differences. This will help in getting more accurate responses from participants. For example while administering the questionnaire, the author observed that different respondents had different definitions of ideas such as "spare time" Some respondents thought of this idea of spare time to include time spent with spouses and children, while others thought of it as excluding them.

With all things considered, the study was useful exposing the dynamics of intercultural relations and conflict resolution styles in MNO's. It also helped in shedding some light on cultural relations in the workplace, judging from the results, the conversation the subject matter generated, the enthusiasm with which respondents agreed to participate and the number of respondents who requested to get a summary of the findings. However, the sample size and

scope was too small to make any authoritative claims. These factors will thus limit the study's reliability.

5.2 Conclusions

A lot of theories as well as practices have been developed to ensure that people who work in multicultural environments have the competency they need to be effective rather than disruptive. As previously indicated in chapter 2, section 2.4.5 what makes a person a competent communicator across cultures is the ability to, as it were, convey a sense of communication appropriateness and effectiveness in diverse cultural contexts (Wiseman, 2003). This competence does not only allude to having a working knowledge of the host language but must also include an understanding of language pragmatics like how to be polite whiles making requests and avoid giving out too much information (Gass & Neu, 1996). The same is true for cultural practices as pertaining to the building and management of relationships and the understanding of attitudes and behaviours of people of different cultural orientations. Hall's framework on conflict resolution styles also takes into consideration the influence of culture on the choice of style.

In this sense, the objectives of the work conducted for this study was largely satisfied thus providing knowledge that can help multicultural teams build a more cohesive unit through the understanding of cultural differences as well as the acquisition of cross cultural communication competence.

5.3 Recommendations

Disagreements or conflicts that exist in multicultural teams, either as a result of perception or actual experience by team members, can exacerbate existing culturally based conflict, especially, those of a destructive nature. This can lead to frustration and dismay if they are not properly identified, understood in their cultural context and managed constructively in a timely manner (du Plessis, 2012). In order to avoid such time wasting and potentially costly conflicts, organizations can put into place a 3 tier frame work that does the following:

1. **Assesses** - The intercultural communication competence of all employees in order to identify those with ethnocentrism tendencies. Whether the assessment reveals ethnocentrism or not, all employees must be trained.
2. **Train** - Training is what makes the difference between competence and non-competence. The training regime must help all to learn how to suppress their natural ethnocentric reactions thus creating the space required to better understand others on their own terms. This can be achieved by the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) designed by Bennett & Bennett, (2004) that move individuals along the continuum, from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism through 6 stages: denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation and integration.
3. **Communicate** – Through improved communications and interactions at the workplace by putting into practice what is learned at training. This will involve the creation and communication of how the organization has chosen to deal with cross-cultural conflict. It will be useful to set up an office of an ombudsman to deal with all conflict including those with cultural undertones. The ombudsman's office should be an informal outlet for dealing with such matters that emphasizes, self-help/help of colleagues, friends, supervisors, human resource officers, focal points for women and other such interventions.

These measures will foster the kind of internal dynamics that allows a multicultural team to function smoothly.

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Appendix - Cross-cultural Survey

Dear Respondent,

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey. This study is in fulfillment of requirements for a master's degree in Conflict, Peace and Security from the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping Training Center (KAIPTC). My research involves the study of the role culture plays in conflict and conflict resolution processes among multi-cultural team members in an organizational setting.

For academic purposes, my inquests focuses on Organizations that have multicultural teams or who from time to time work on projects that involves working with project team members from different cultures in Ghana and since your company /organization falls within this category and you have had the opportunity to work on multi-cultural teams, your participation will provide valuable insights into how multi-national companies can maximize the impact of multi-cultural teams in an increasingly competitive global market place.

As part of a strict policy of nondisclosure and standard ethical considerations, you can be assured that your responses will not disclosed to any third party under any circumstances. Please indicate at this end of this survey if you wish to receive a summary of the findings of this survey. Once again thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.

Thank You

Worlanyo A. Ocloo

PART I: Background

1. What is your 'job-level' in the organization you work for? Please mark one
Non-management () Lower-Management () Middle-Management () Top-Management ()
2. How many years have you worked in the organization you work for now?
Less than 1 year () 1-3 years () 4-5 years () 5 years and over ()
3. Have you worked on any projects within your organization that involved you being part of a multi-cultural team? Yes () No ()
4. In what country were you born? _____
5. Have you always lived in the country in which you were born? Please mark one
Yes () go on to Q9 No () go on to 6
6. Including your country of birth, in which countries have you lived for one year or longer? _____
7. Including your country of birth in which country have you lived the longest? _____
8. Most people feel closest to the culture of the country in which they were born. Some people feel closer to the country in which they have lived longest or in which they live now. Still other people feel closer to a culture that is associated with a region, a religion, or some other group. Which culture do you feel closest to? Please mark the appropriate category:
() The country in which you were born (1)
() The country in which you have lived the longest (2)
() The country in which you live now
() Other – Please indicate _____
9. Are you female or male? Please mark one: () Male () Female

In the rest of the survey, you will see a series of statements. Please show the extent to which you agree with each *by marking your response*. Here are two examples:

Q#		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
A	The end always justifies the means	(√)	()	()	()	()
B	Children don't lie	()	()	()	(√)	()

This person "Strongly Disagrees" that the end always justifies the means, and "Somewhat Agrees" that children don't lie. ***There are no wrong responses to any of these statements; it is most important that you record your own true ideas for each one.*** For each of these statements, some people agree strongly, others disagree strongly, and still others fall between these two extremes. *All of these perspectives add important value to organizations.*

PART II: ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS

Q#		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
10	I usually make much more short-term plans (i.e., what I'm going to do this weekend) than long-term ones (i.e., what I plan on doing or being in several years).	()	()	()	()	()
11	In my spare time, I am more likely to do something by myself than with others.	()	()	()	()	()
12	I feel more comfortable having a clearly defined place that is mine where I can control whom I interact with.	()	()	()	()	()
13	When someone corrects me, I would rather they just tell me what they don't like and not make suggestions.	()	()	()	()	()
14	When working I prefer to finish one thing before moving on to the next.	()	()	()	()	()
15	A commitment I have made to others is more likely to supersede one I've made to myself.	()	()	()	()	()
16	I feel comfortable talking about subjects like my future, my family, and so on, with most people, even if I have only know them a short while.	()	()	()	()	()
17	I prefer having things completely spelled out from the beginning than to start operating without an overview of the situation.	()	()	()	()	()
18	I dislike it when things don't go according to plans.	()	()	()	()	()
19	I have several really close friends who are friends for life rather than a lot of friends who come and go in my life.	()	()	()	()	()
20	Beyond knowing my first name, I consider my age, my family status, my profession (or my parent's profession) as private matters reserved for only a few close friends.	()	()	()	()	()
21	I would feel more comfortable with a contract that doesn't list every detail of the agreement than one that has some "grey" areas which would require negotiating later on.	()	()	()	()	()
22	Changing plans—even at the last minute—is no problem for me.	()	()	()	()	()
23	A fair amount of my spare time is spent phoning /texting or writing friends I don't see often.	()	()	()	()	()
24	Having a wall or fencing around my house seems too confining to me.	()	()	()	()	()
25	It is usually better to call "a spade a spade" (be direct) than to hide a situation's "true colors" (be indirect).	()	()	()	()	()
26	It bothers me when I am late for appointments.	()	()	()	()	()
27	If I had some significant problems I needed help solving, I have any number of friends I could easily turn to for help.	()	()	()	()	()
28	Those I term my "best friends" know just about everything about me and I would never have a	()	()	()	()	()

	problem telling them things that are very very personal.					
29	If my boss were wrong, I would be more likely to tell her or him than to simply suggest there might be another answer.	()	()	()	()	()

This part of survey adapted from Gary Oddou & C. Brooklyn Derr. 1999. Managing Internationally: A Personal Journey. Fort Worth: The Dryden Press. Part II, Pages 7-10.

PART III: HOW PEOPLE RELATE TO EACH OTHER

Q#		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
30	When working on a team in my organization, I feel that I can freely express myself no matter who the other team members are.	()	()	()	()
31	I feel free to disagree with my superiors and start a discussion about a difference of opinion.	()	()	()	()
32	In my organization, team managers do not consider non-managerial employees as equal in communication and decision making.	()	()	()	()
33	When working on a team, I expect my team manager to tell me what to do and exactly how he or she wants it to be done.	()	()	()	()
34	In my organization, privileges according to status are not desirable.	()	()	()	()
35	In my organization, I find that inequalities in the distribution of power between managers and non-managerial employees on a project team has a very negative effect upon the performance of individual team members with a lower position.	()	()	()	()
36	In my organization, there are no clear difference between male and female employees with regards to their role on project teams.	()	()	()	()
37	Everybody who works on a project team in my organization is basically equal, the hierarchical structure that is present only derives for practical reasons like dividing responsibilities and facilitating the decision making process.	()	()	()	()
38	I believe conflicts must be solved by compromise and negotiations.	()	()	()	()
39	Project team managers have to use their intuition and strive for consensus when solving a conflict.	()	()	()	()
40	Employees in my organization usually have a low level of assertiveness, ambition and competitiveness when working in a project team.	()	()	()	()
41	I would describe the average project team member in my organization as supportive, nurturing, and deferent.	()	()	()	()
42	In my organization, team members do not expect fellow team member to do or say something out of the ordinary	()	()	()	()
43	When working on a project, team actions and decisions are never elaborately discussed.	()	()	()	()
44	When working on a project, the approach to completing the project usually is to select a method that has already proven to be effective.	()	()	()	()
45	I see rules and regulations within my team merely as a basic structure and guideline for employees to act upon.	()	()	()	()
46	The team dynamics on project teams in my organization Makes me feel stimulated and invited to try new things that are original and creative.	()	()	()	()

