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Task and relationship conflict in subordinates and supervisors relations: interaction effects of justice perceptions and emotion management

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TASK AND RELATIONSHIP CONFLICT IN SUBORDINATES AND SUPERVISORS RELATIONS: INTERACTION EFFECTS OF JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND EMOTION MANAGEMENT

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
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through the
Rucks Department of Management

by
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Writing acknowledgements at the beginning of a dissertation is as necessary and almost inevitable as having french fries with a double cheeseburger, and the fact that nobody expects a theoretical or empirical explanation is the most satisfying aspect of it. When I first came across the topic of task and relationship conflict, there was the voice of one crying in the marsh, "Take the topic." I have been "dissertating" diligently since then, wearing a couple of Aggieland navy T-shirts and 99-times washed black shorts about my loins, and eating turkey sandwiches and muesli. I recommend these to anyone with an interest in being like me.

I would like to thank everyone who helped me out during the time. First and foremost, I want to say thank you to my parents who have given unconditional love to their son. I don't know if I can love as much as they have loved if I have children. I also thank my brother for his support. My deepest appreciation is expressed to Dr. Don Kluemper who showed unlimited patience and persistent attention throughout my lengthy dissertation preparation. He proved to his student what a great mentor is about. This dissertation owes its research idea to Dr. Tim Chandler who provided tremendous insights into the topic. To Dr. Hettie Richardson, I truly appreciate her excellent theoretical and methodological guidance. I also thank Dr. Kevin Mossholder for his outstanding comments about the manuscript.

I feel superlatively grateful to all men and women who willingly took their priceless time to participate in my surveys. I cannot name each of them here, but without those 431 individuals, this dissertation simply wouldn't exist. I also would like to thank Dr. Joe, Laura, and other tutors in LSU Writing Center. They read this manuscript more than anyone in our solar system, other

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates the antecedents and outcomes of task and relationship conflict in subordinates and supervisors relations. Based on abusive supervision studies and the justice framework, I proposed that the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict is mediated by procedural justice, and that the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict is mediated by interactional justice. Based on emotional intelligence theory, I also proposed that these mediation processes are moderated by an individual's emotion management ability (EMA). Finally, I anticipated that relationship conflict elicits more detrimental effect on employees' organizational citizenship and workplace deviance behaviors. A total of 310 employees and their supervisors in a large hospital participated in this study. The results demonstrated that procedural justice fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict. Interactional justice fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict. An employee's EMA moderates these relationships, such that individuals with higher EMA are more sensitive to repaying the favors that they have received. Lastly, relationship conflict is more damaging to organizational functioning than task conflict, such that the impact of relationship conflict on organizational citizenship and workplace deviance behaviors is significantly stronger. Implications and future directions are discussed.

I. INTRODUCTION

"Whenever you're in conflict with someone, there is one factor that can make the difference between damaging your relationship and deepening it. That factor is attitude."

William James (1842-1910)

"Anybody can become angry, that is easy; but to be angry with the right person, and to the right degree, and at the right time, and for the right purpose, and in the right way, that is not within everybody's power, that is not easy."

Aristotle (384-322 BC)

1.1 Research Objectives

This study aims to investigate the antecedents and consequences of task and relationship conflict in subordinate-supervisor relations. Using justice theory and the emotional intelligence framework, I posit that subordinates, under abusive supervisory treatment, will engage in more conflict with their supervisors as a manifestation of their perceived injustice. In addition, a subordinate's ability to manage emotions will mitigate this process by enabling a smarter and less obtrusive expression of one's feeling of unfairness in the relationship with the supervisor. Specifically, I investigate whether subordinates manifest their perceptions of procedural injustice through task conflict and their perceptions of interactional injustice through relationship conflict. I also test whether subordinates better at managing emotions are more able to behave in ways considered acceptable when experiencing unfairness. Finally, I explore whether the two forms of conflict unequally contribute to subordinates' discretionary behaviors such as citizenship and deviance behaviors.

1.2 Overview of Conflict Research

The issue of conflict between subordinates and supervisors in the workplace has been studied extensively, to the extent that it is deemed to be one of the most popular topics in OB research. In his earliest review of the subject, Louis Pondy (1967) mentioned that the conflict literature was already large and growing. About 30 years later, in their seminal review, Wall and Callister (1995) remarked that the literature became mountainous and so extensive that a simple listing of the references (of course single-spaced) required tens of pages. While the adjective describing the literature progresses from "large" to "mountainous," however, subordinate-supervisor conflict in today's workplace remains a critical issue, warranting continuous academic attention. For instance, a recent study by Varhama and Björkqvist (2004) reported that of 1,961 municipal employees, 27 percent experienced difficult or extreme workplace conflict, 16 percent felt they had been bullied by other employees, and 37 percent watched others get involved with some sort of interpersonal conflict at work. Likewise, using the U.S. General Social Survey and O*NET database, Dierdorff and Ellington (2008) found that of 1,367 working adults from 126 industries, approximately 15 percent experienced interpersonal conflict at least once a month in the workplace.

Tepper (2000) noted that one source of workplace conflict lies in the relationship between subordinates and supervisors. Tepper and colleagues reported that approximately 15 percent of employees experience interpersonal problems due to the abusive management style of their supervisors (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008). Interpersonal conflict is present in all levels of management, from bottom managerial groups to top management teams (Hmieleski & Ensley , 2007).

A noteworthy trend in the extant literature during the past 15 years is the inception of an intragroup conceptualization (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Korsgaard, Jeong, Mahony, & Pitariu,

2008). Stemming from Karen Jehn's publication on *International Journal of Conflict Management* in 1994, this research stream has produced a large number of intriguing theoretical propositions and empirical results (Amason, 1996; Amason & Sapienza, 1997; De Church & Marks, 2001; De Dreu, 2006; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Yang & Mossholder, 2004).

The key characteristic of this research stream is that conflict is separated into two types: task and relationship conflict. According to Jehn's (1995) definition, task conflict refers to conflict on ideas, opinions, and interpretations about facts among the group members. Relationship conflict refers to emotional frictions, personality clashes, and attitude problems lying among the group members. Examples of task conflict are conflict about departmental resource distribution, a preferred way to apply procedures, a judgment about situations, or an interpretation about facts. On the other hand, examples of relationship conflict surface in rude attitudes, cynical comments, intentional ignoring, and backstabbing among group members (Jehn, 1994, 1995). Roughly speaking, task conflict refers to work problems, and relationship conflict refers to people problems.

The most telling point of Jehn's conflict framework is that task conflict is good and relationship conflict is bad for organizational effectiveness (Jehn, 1995; Jehn & Mannix, 2001). She suggested that task conflict can be beneficial to organizational effectiveness because a process of debates and controversies among group members enriches the quality of decision-making in the group, whereas relationship conflict only hinders it. She also implied that relationship conflict is more harmful to the psychological well-being of the group members than task conflict because it entails a strong affective backlash, such as emotional tension and hostility (Jehn, 1995).

Unfortunately, this seemingly simple prediction yielded very mixed results throughout subsequent research. Some studies found a positive correlation between task conflict and group performance (Jehn, 1994), others found a negative correlation (Amason, 1996; Amason & Mooney, 1999), and still others discovered no correlation at all (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Kurtzberg, 2000) or discovered even an inverted U-shaped relationship (De Dreu, 2006). In their meta-analytic study, De Dreu and Weingart (2003) summarized that both forms of conflict are negatively correlated with important group outcomes, such as various types of team performance and overall member satisfaction. They further noted that relationship conflict is consistently more detrimental to group satisfaction than task conflict as Jehn's model hypothesized, but the suggested beneficial effect of task conflict on group effectiveness is not empirically supported. In fact, the weak support for the differing effect of task and relationship conflict on various outcomes is not exceedingly surprising since many empirical studies reported sizable correlations (average $r = .54$) between the two constructs (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003), suggesting that the two conflict types empirically overlap in the real world settings.

1.3 Research Questions

The first research question of the present study is about the unique antecedents of task and relationship conflict. As mentioned earlier, the two forms of conflict empirically show considerable overlap although they are theoretically defined as distinct constructs. In response to this issue, researchers suggested that task and relationship conflict have reciprocal triggering effects by which the two forms of conflict cause each other over time, and hence they are shown to be correlated with each other when measured cross-sectionally (Jehn, 1995; Korsgaard et al., 2008; Simons & Peterson, 2000). For example, in her qualitative portion of the study, Jehn (1995) described how task conflict triggers relationship conflict. Raising voice, gestures used to

emphasize one's position, or abusive language exchanged during a debate (which is task conflict by itself) can easily trigger relationship conflict (Jehn, 1995). In a similar light, Amason and Sapienza (1997) noted that task conflict can escalate into relationship conflict when a task conflict issue interferes with individuals' interests, and one party perceives the other to be taking advantage of the situation with a hidden motive. Simons and Peterson (2000) found that task conflict accompanies relationship conflict especially when individuals distrust each other. They also noted that relationship conflict can cause task conflict when a person voices dissenting opinions to give a hard time to or express frustration and anger with a specific person.

Although the reciprocal triggering claim between task and relationship conflict does provide an explanation for the correlation between the two conflict forms, I argue that the reciprocal explanation also has a few important limitations. First, the reciprocal nature of the claim requires a very sophisticated longitudinal experimental design to test. The feedback mechanism from task to relationship conflict and from relationship to task conflict is inevitably so complicated that regular field studies may not be able to verify the causal linkage behind the process. Given that it is both experimentally difficult (if not impossible) and ethically unjustifiable to elicit a high level of reciprocal conflict that people experience in the real world (Barki & Hartwick, 2004; Korsgaard et al., 2008), such a testability issue is a major shortcoming of the claim.

More importantly, I suggest that the claim has a fundamental conceptual problem that the subjective perception of conflict is mingled with objective behaviors that provoke conflict recognition. For instance, the loud voice, big gestures, and abusive words that Jehn (1995) mentioned are all manifested expressions or behaviors, not subjective perception of conflict. These behaviors can be perceived as relationship conflict only when a person who is subjected to these behaviors takes them personally. A person may not perceive relationship conflict if he or

she would consider such behaviors have no hidden motives, harmful intentions, or personal attacks (e.g., football and hockey coaches often yell, curse, and bang fists, but few players say they have conflict with coaches). Likewise, opposition to ideas, disagreements over opinions, and differing interpretations of facts are also manifested episodes and events that can provoke task conflict perceptions, but not conflict itself. These manifested episodes can be perceived as task conflict when a person recognizes a clash of ideas. When the person recognizes a hidden motive or vicious intention behind the event, he or she perceives relationship conflict rather than task conflict although the event looks to be a task-related one. In certain cases, the person may not even recognize any task conflict at all if he or she perceives the event to be trivial or soluble by factual check-ups (e.g., two HR managers can disagree which occupational code is correct for internship students, but they may not perceive they are in task conflict).

Therefore, I argue that it is not task and relationship conflict themselves that cause each other. Rather, it will be a more precise description to say that provocative behaviors of one party result in the perception of task and relationship conflict by another party. Given this premise, I argue that the reciprocal triggering approach mistakenly equates conflict provoking behaviors with the perception of conflict itself, which is caused by but not equal to those provocative episodes. Therefore, I propose that more practical research about task and relationship conflict would result from questioning the unique set of antecedents for each type of conflict. Particularly, in this study, I ask what induces a person to express or behave in a way that is perceived as task or relationship conflict by another person. To address this question, I incorporate abusive supervision and borrow the paradigm of emotional intelligence and the agent-system perspective of justice theory. As summarized in the next chapter, I hypothesize that subordinates who experience procedural injustice will restrict their manifestation of unfairness into task-related issues, and their supervisors will primarily perceive task conflict. Conversely, subordinates who

experience interactional injustice will be more likely to express their feeling of unfairness in a personal manner, and their supervisors will perceive more relationship conflict.

Moreover, I hypothesize that a subordinate's emotion management ability mitigates this process. Subordinates with higher ability to manage emotions will be better at determining the level and mode of such expressions, and supervisors will report less conflict with the subordinates. I also propose that this productive effect becomes more significant as subordinates experience higher emotional demand caused by abusive supervision and injustice.

While my first research question is about the antecedent-side of task and relationship conflict, the second research question I want to investigate is about the consequences of task and relationship conflict. As mentioned earlier, Jehn's model posits a differing effect of task and relationship conflict on performance. Unfortunately, relevant literature has been very limited for selecting criterion variables to test this hypothesis. According to Katz and Kahn (1978), there are two distinctive forms of job performance in organizations: (1) meeting the performance standards prescribed by the organizational role and (2) performing actions beyond the prescribed requirement. The first form is often called task performance, and the second form is called contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994), prosocial organizational behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), or most commonly organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988).

Though there are some conceptual differences, the behaviors included in the latter category typically involve employees' discretionary and cooperative behaviors that help the organization and other employees as a form of job performance (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

Recently, a negative version of contextual performance was also introduced (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). These behaviors are also discretionary but harmful to the organization and its

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members, and include antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998), workplace violence (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), and most commonly workplace deviance behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Given that task performance and discretionary performance contribute unique and incremental value for job performance (Conway, 1999; Johnson, 2001; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000), it is an important limitation that most conflict studies have emphasized the task performance side and overlooked discretionary types of performance. For example, Amason (1996) only employed the quality of team decision as a performance criterion and used affective commitment and affective acceptance as an attitudinal outcome. Similarly, De Church and Marks (2001) used the grades of a team-project and group satisfaction as a dependent variable for performance and attitude. De Dreu (2006) adopted two task performance variables (i.e., team innovation and information exchange), and no attitudinal one. Jehn (1994) used grades for a project report as group performance and member satisfaction as an attitudinal outcome. She also used overall task performance measures (e.g., supervisors' appraisal of task performance and departmental records) and some attitudes (e.g., satisfaction, liking, and intent to turnover) (Jehn, 1995). Finally, Massey and Dawes (2007) used a perception of relationship effectiveness as a performance variable.

In summation, prior studies have been disproportionately focused on task performance with some attitudinal outcomes in testing the differing effect of task and relationship conflict. I assert that such skewed selection of outcomes seriously hampers researchers' ability to draw a more comprehensive view of the impact of conflict on organizational outcomes. Therefore, I employ two widely used constructs that represent positive and negative types of discretionary behaviors (organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance behavior) to test the differing effects of task and relationship conflict.

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The third research issue I want to discuss regards the level of analysis in the current conflict studies. Scholars have suggested reconsidering Jehn's methodology of measuring conflict. For example, researchers pointed out that the assessment of conflict is typically obtained by aggregating individuals' appraisals of task and relationship conflict they have experienced. However, there are a few questionable assumptions for the notion of intragroup conflict and its aggregation methodology. First, it assumes that all members of a group share some sort of common perception regarding the level of task and relationship conflict in the group. Such shared perception is usually tested by providing interrater agreement indices such as ICC or R^{WG} (Korsgaard et al., 2008). It is very likely, however, that two members of a group could have very different views about whether the group is in conflict or not (e.g., a tyrannical leader sees little conflict in her team where all other members suffer to work with her). Even though they come to experience a similar level of conflict, it is still unclear whether their conflict experiences have the same source and result (Korsgaard et al., 2008; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Moreover, such aggregation also assumes that every member of the group contributes evenly to the group-level perception of conflict. It is questionable, however, whether the conflict experienced by a key member of the group and that of a peripheral member would contribute equally to the overall group-level conflict and to group functioning (Korsgaard et al., 2008; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003).

I suggest that such compositional conceptualization does not allow the possibility that a person in the group has differing conflict relationships with different members of the group. A person's conflict with a supervisor can be qualitatively different from his or her conflict with a coworker in its meaning and result. It is very likely that a party who has little conflict with anyone else could experience high conflict with a specific person. This phenomenon has been widely recognized in the LMX literature as supervisors' discriminatory relationships with in-group and out-group members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). I argue that this lack of specificity has

maskd the true effect of task and relationship conflict on organizational outcomes, and hence limited researchers' ability to identify the more detrimental effect of relationship conflict. I suggest that the experience of task and relationship conflict lies primarily in person-to-person relationships (e.g., conflict with a supervisor, coworker, or subordinate), and studies with higher specificity will yield clearer results. As Korsgaard and colleagues (2008) noted, "teams do not think and feel, individuals do" (p. 1229). Thus, I set the focus of the current study on the relationships between subordinates and supervisors, and perform subsequent hypotheses development and data analysis at this level.

1.4 Theoretical and Practical Contributions

This study tries to overcome previous research in three theoretical ways. First, it attempts to find unique predictors for task and relationship conflict that previous research has not yet identified. Mooney and colleagues (2007) summarize three categories of antecedents that have received a major interest in the domain: task, group, and organizational climate attributes. For example, in search of task attributes, goal uncertainty and task interdependence (Mooney, Holahan, & Sapienza, 2007) and task routineness (Pelled et al., 1999) have been examined to identify the unique predictors of task and relationship conflict. For group attributes, size (Amason & Sapienza, 1997) and group diversity and longevity (Pelled et al., 1999) have been tested. As for organization climate antecedents, norms of mutuality and openness to disagreement (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Jehn, 1995) and value consensus (Jehn, 1994) have been studied.

Unfortunately, these studies were unsuccessful in finding a unique set of determinants of the two conflict forms. These attributes have shown little distinction in predicting both types of conflict (Mooney et al., 2007). Given that a key proposition of task and relationship conflict is

that the latter is more detrimental to organizational functioning, a systematic search for the unique antecedents of the two forms of conflict is worth performing. Using the agent-system perspective of justice theory (Bies & Moag, 1986), this study attempts to identify unique antecedents of the two conflict forms.

The second contribution of the current study is it juxtaposes the emotional intelligence and justice framework by proposing an interaction effect in predicting task and relationship conflict. There is an unusual lack of attention to individuals' emotional ability in justice research even though many scholars have emphasized that the feeling of being treated unfairly often entails intense emotions (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Bies, 1987; Folger and Cropanzano, 2001). Given that emotions play a pivotal role in the experience of injustice (Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006), it is a reasonable step forward to ask whether an individual's emotional ability makes any difference in one's responses to injustice. Conceivably, a person's ability to manage emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) may be relevant to the justice framework. In this manuscript, I try to contribute to the extant research by testing interaction effects of justice and emotion management ability on task and relationship conflict.

The third contribution of the current study is an attempt to fill the gap between the empirical nonfindings and the hypothesized stronger destructive effect of relationship conflict over task conflict on employee performance. This study examines a new set of consequences of task and relationship conflict by including contextual performance and deviance behavior variables which have received only scant attention in conflict research. As mentioned earlier, the proposition of a greater detrimental effect of relationship conflict than task conflict receives mixed support. I argue that a clearer association should appear by expanding current narrow selection of task performance into discretionary types of variables.

The current study also has practical implications. First, it suggests that managers can reduce task and relationship conflict separately by increasing employees' justice perceptions. Managers and leaders who want to refrain from destructive relationship conflict may use organizational interventions that enhance the interactional justice perceptions of employees. To manage the level of task conflict, organizations may focus on settling procedural fairness which has little effect on relationship conflict.

This manuscript also posits that maintaining employees with higher emotional ability may be beneficial to the organization because they create less conflict in a given situation and are more resilient in emotionally draining conditions. This study proposes that an employee with low emotional intelligence is more likely to express a feeling of injustice in a damaging way to the organization. An organization can hardly be successful when its employees spontaneously engage in conflict, stop helping each other, begin shirking their duties, and bully others in the workplace. I propose that employees with higher emotional ability should be better organizational members since they are more likely to manage their emotions even if they experience negative feelings in the workplace.

Lastly, this manuscript posits that it would be relationship conflict that turns employees into bad organizational members. Employees may become uncooperative and counterproductive, especially when they experience interpersonal clashes in the workplace. Managers, therefore, may want to focus their efforts on identifying the sources and causes of such interpersonal problems. This study hypothesizes that managers could become one of those sources by treating their subordinates in an abusive manner. By adopting managerial styles sensitive to the emotionality of their staff, organizations can increase employee citizenship performance and decrease employee deviance.

1.5 Overview of Following Chapters

In the present chapter, I summarized the objective of the current study and explained the research questions that sparked my research interest. The remainder of the manuscript unfolds as follows. In Chapter 2, I review the extant literature and develop a series of hypotheses. In Chapter 3, I introduce the measures, study samples, and analytical methodology used in this study. In Chapter 4, I report the results of each hypothesis testing and other relevant research findings. In Chapter 5, I discuss the theoretical and practical meaning of the findings in this study and mention implications and limitations. In Chapter 6, I conclude the manuscript by recapturing the key features that I find in this study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This study aims to investigate the determinants and outcomes of task and relationship conflict in subordinate-supervisor relations. As depicted in Figure 1, I suggest abusive supervisory treatment and subsequent perception of injustice will lead a subordinate to engage in task and relationship conflict with a supervisor. Based on the agent-system perspective of the justice framework, I hypothesize that task conflict is primarily triggered by procedural injustice, and relationship conflict is primarily caused by interactional injustice. I also postulate that relationship conflict is more damaging to organizational effectiveness by lowering a subordinate's organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and by increasing a subordinate's workplace deviance behavior (WDB). Moreover, I propose that a subordinate's ability to manage emotions (EMA) will lessen the manifestation of conflict through interaction with abusive supervision and justice perception. In this chapter, I review the extant literature and make a series of predictions.

2.1 Task and Relationship Conflict

The impact and importance of the issue of interpersonal conflict in organizations have been widely studied during the past half of the century (Cosier & Rose, 1977; Deutsch, 1969; Evan, 1965; Fink, 1968; Gladstein, 1984). Two types of conflict, task and relationship conflict, have emerged throughout relevant research (Amason, 1996; Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Jehn, 1994; Simons & Peterson, 2000).
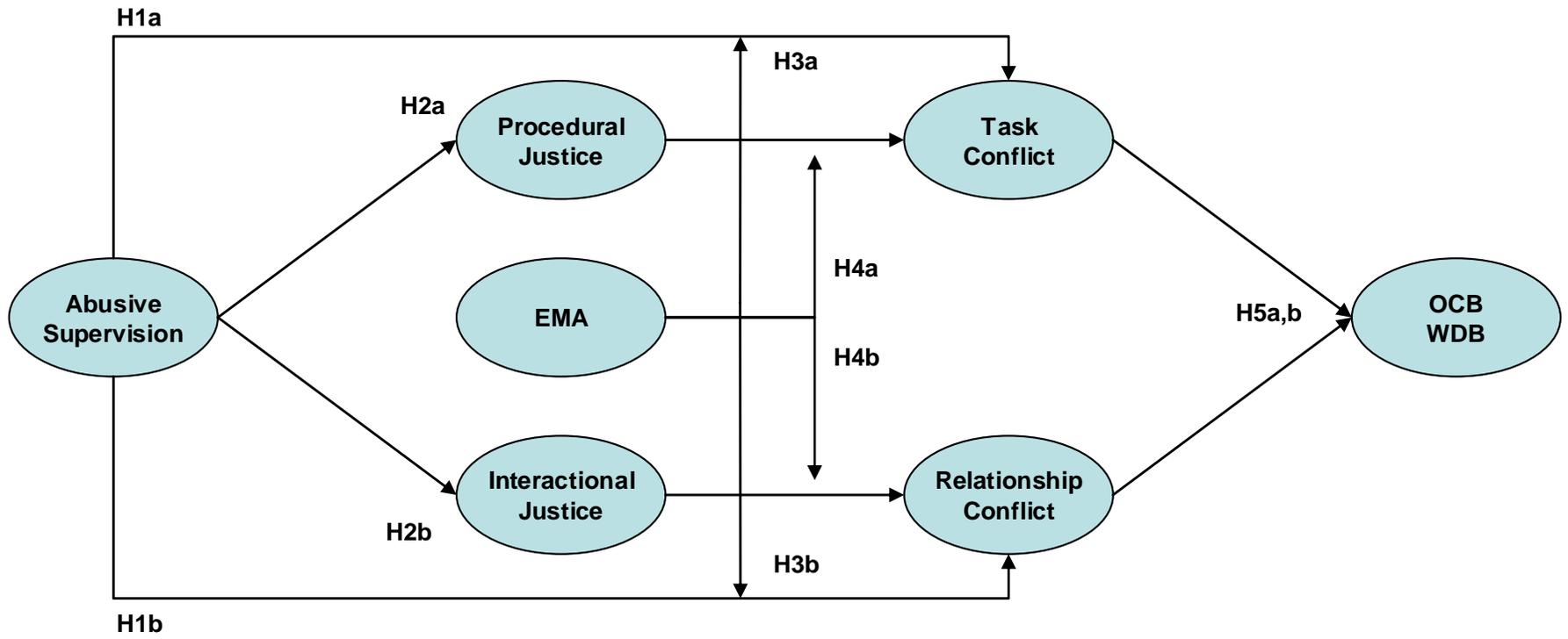
Figure 1. The Study Model

Task conflict, also known as cognitive conflict (Amason, 1996; Barki & Hartwick, 2004), refers to "disagreements among group members about the content of the tasks being performed, including differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions" (Jehn, 1995, p. 258). Task conflict exists when individuals differ in their views regarding work-related issues, such as a goal to pursue, the ways to achieve it, and distribution of the outcome (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1997; Jehn et al., 1999). Task conflict occurs when individuals disagree during decision-making processes in which they try to reflect differing opinions that they believe to be correct (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). For example, an individual engages in task conflict when his or her ideas of a correct budgeting procedure is different from a coworker's, or when he or she disagrees about the allocation of assigned tasks by the supervisor (Jehn, 1997).

While task conflict refers to the perception of disagreements on work-related issues, relationship conflict is involved with the emotional friction between individuals. Relationship conflict, often called affective or emotional conflict (Amason, 1996; Barki & Hartwick, 2004), refers to "interpersonal incompatibilities among group members, which typically include tension, animosity, and annoyance among members within a group" (Jehn, 1995, p. 258). Different from task conflict, relationship conflict is characterized by its negative emotionality (Jehn, 1997). Relationship conflict is evidenced when individuals hate and distrust each other (Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995) and is accompanied by strong negative emotions such as anger, suspicion, irritation, frustration, and resentfulness to each other (Simons & Peterson, 2000). In task conflict situations, individuals perceive that their thoughts and ideas contradict each other without having any personal acrimony or animosity (e.g., I don't like your ideas but I have no personal feelings about you). In relationship conflict situations, however, individuals feel that there is personal incompatibility with the contradicting party (Barki & Hartwick, 2004). As Jehn (1997) observed, employees often describe relationship conflict as an attitude problem or personality clash (e.g.,

"Her attitude just stinks," "Can't stand her attitude and her voice," or "Only an idiot would say that," p. 542).

2.2 Abusive Supervision as a Determinant of Conflict

Abusive supervision is defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000, p. 178). Abusive supervision is a set of intentional behaviors perpetrated by a supervisor toward his or her subordinates in a perceivably hostile way in the process of doing a job (Tepper, 2007). Abusive supervisors are reported to use insulting names, scream and yell, and intimidate subordinates (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Abusive supervisors are also reported to use various types of aggressive behaviors such as rudeness and angry tantrums, the use of authority for personal gain, and belittling and hostility toward subordinates (Ashforth, 1994; Bies & Tripp, 1998; Numan & Baron, 1997). An abusive supervisor mistreats his or her subordinates by humiliating and ridiculing them and by using power arbitrarily (Ashforth, 1997; Keashly, 1998; Tepper, 2007).

It has been widely recognized that abusive supervision has an overarching negative effect on various individual and organizational outcomes. Employees under an abusive supervisor are more likely to suffer from psychological distress manifested as emotional exhaustion and dysfunctional thoughts (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), to feel more helplessness, frustration, and alienation (Ashforth, 1997), and to experience more dissatisfaction in their lives and jobs (Tepper, 2000).

Abusive supervision also causes relationship deterioration between managers and subordinates (Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007). Subordinates are more likely to avoid contact with and to respond only superficially to abusive supervisors, which allows them to

maintain psychological and physical distance from their threatening supervisor (Hess, 2000). Although the distancing behavior can postpone or relieve the short-term emotional tension that would have occurred otherwise (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998), it interferes with the essential communication and coordination between supervisors and subordinates (Tepper, Duffy, Heanle, & Lambert, 2006), degrading the relationship between them in the long run.

Moreover, subordinates with an abusive manager are less likely to trust, accept, and welcome the manager's directions, and more likely to seek retaliatory behaviors toward the manager (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Duffy et al., 2002). Abused subordinates tend to be more critical and suspicious about supervisors' motives (e.g., questioning a hidden intention or requesting extra information), and to engage in more uncooperative behaviors (e.g., disobeying supervision, openly challenging the ideas, or implicitly ridiculing the manager) (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Such reactive behaviors are widely reported and called negative reciprocation or retaliation in fairness research (Bies & Tripp, 1996; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Based on these findings, I suggest that abusive supervision leads to task conflict. Distrust and skepticism resulting from abusive supervision will lead subordinates to be more critical and unaccepting about the directions and opinions of the supervisor (Hilton & Slugoski, 1986; Simons & Peterson, 2000). When subordinates do not fully trust the motives and intentions of a supervisor, they are more likely to challenge the supervisor's ideas, attempt to acquire additional information to douse their suspicion, and fail to comply with the supervisor's directives. Consequently, supervisors will perceive disagreement with the subordinate regarding their ideas, values, and opinions, which refers to task conflict. Hence, I suggest the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1a: Abusive supervision is positively associated with task conflict.

Likewise, individuals who feel offended, bruised, and humiliated will express their anger and hostility to the instigator by emotionally responding to the person (Jehn, 1997; Simons & Peterson, 2000). In her study of a transportation company units, Jehn (1997) observed a number of such episodes among supervisors, coworkers, and subordinates (e.g., yelling, slamming doors and drawers, banging fists, or talking in an angry tone). Repeating such events will lead the subordinate to reciprocate the abusing supervisor with a similar negative tone. Supervisors who experience a negative emotional backlash from a subordinate perceive a profound personality incompatibility with the subordinate, resulting in relationship conflict. Hence, I suggest the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1b: Abusive supervision is positively associated with relationship conflict.

2.3 Agent-System Perspective of Justice Theory

A number of researchers studying abusive supervision use the justice framework to explain the link between abusive supervision and various outcomes (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2007). Based on these research findings, I propose that the effect of abusive supervision on the two forms of conflict is mediated by subordinates' justice perceptions.

Justice theory suggests that individuals respond to the unfair treatment from an organization or its agent by engaging in reciprocating behaviors directed at the instigator. According to justice theory, individuals recognize three types of justice in their fairness perceptions (Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1990): (1) distributive (fairness about outcome allocations); (2) procedural (fairness about the process concerning the allocation decision); (3) interactional (fairness about interpersonal treatment related to the decisions). For the sake of brevity, I choose procedural and interactional justice to develop my study model.

Procedural justice involves the fairness perception about the decision making process (Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Leventhal (1980) suggested that individuals perceive procedural injustice when they recognize violation of justice norms in six areas (i.e., consistency, freedom from biases, accuracy, correctability, ethicality, and representativeness). For example, individuals perceive a violation of procedural justice when the organizational rules and procedures are inconsistent or biased across people or time and are not accommodative of appeals and concerns of people who are influenced by the procedure or the decision (Colquitt et al., 2001; Leventhal, 1980).

While procedural justice is about the fairness of decision-making processes, interactional justice refers to whether individuals receive fair and appropriate interpersonal treatment during the implementation of procedures and whether they are provided with adequate explanations about the decision-making processes (Bies & Moag, 1986; Shapiro, Buttner, & Barry, 1994). Greenberg (1990) summarized that the key notion of interactional justice is that individuals perceive fairness when they are treated with respect, dignity, sensitivity, and propriety by the agents of an organization such as direct supervisors and general managers.

Justice researchers have investigated whether each justice dimension has different relationships with outcome variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB, and intention to turnover (Colquitt et al., 2001). Among those attempts, the agent-system perspective suggested by Bies and Moag (1986) has a particular interest with the current study. Following the social exchange theory (SET: Blau, 1964), the agent-system perspective distinguishes two types of social exchanges that an individual experiences in organizations: exchanges with an immediate supervisor and exchanges with the overall organization (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). The SET framework proposes that such exchanges are governed by the norms of reciprocity by which individuals feel obligated to pay back the favors

they get or to get even for the mistreatment they receive (Colquitt et al., 2001). For example, employees would repay the favors that their supervisor or organization give by working extra hours or helping out with tasks outside of their duties. Similarly, employees could repay the mistreatment they received by delaying tasks or keeping necessary information from the supervisor.

According to Bies and Moag (1986), the basic idea of agent-system perspective is that the source of such favors and mistreatment causing procedural injustice is mainly organizations (system), and the source of such treatment leading to interactional injustice is generally supervisors or bosses (agents). Given that employees attribute their justice perceptions to the correct sources (i.e., procedural justice to the organization and interactional justice to the supervisor), it has been proposed that agent-referenced justice perception is a stronger predictor of agent-referenced outcomes, and system-referenced justice is a stronger predictor of system-referenced outcomes. For instance, an employee who fails to get a promotion will target the organization itself for retaliation if he or she blames the organization's poor appraisal process. Conversely, if the employee blames the mean supervisor who treated him or her badly, the target for retaliation will be the supervisor rather than the organization.

Supporting the framework, Masterson and colleagues (2000) found that supervisor-referenced outcomes (e.g., supervisor targeted citizenship behaviors, supervisor's rating of performance, and leader-member exchange) are more closely related to interactional justice, whereas organization-referenced outcomes (e.g., organization targeted citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support) are more closely associated with procedural justice. Also in two independent meta-analyses (Colquitt et al., 2001; Fassina, Jones, & Uggerslev, 2008), interactional justice demonstrated stronger predictive power for

employees' behaviors targeting supervisors, and procedural justice showed a stronger effect on organization related outcome variables.

2.4 Justice Mediates Abusive Supervision and Conflict

Scholars reported that abusive supervision can cause procedural injustice. When abused subordinates attribute the cause of abusive supervision to the failure of managerial processes that should have stopped or prevented the mistreatment, abusive supervision results in subordinates' perceptions of procedural injustice (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Scholars also found that subordinates under an abusive supervisor are likely to experience lowering of self-image due to the aggressive verbal and nonverbal treatment of the supervisor, and such disrespectful words and deeds of supervisors result in perceptions of interactional injustice (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000). Based on these research findings, I suggest that procedural justice is a primary mediator of abusive supervision and task conflict, and that interactional justice is a primary mediator of abusive supervision and relationship conflict.

As mentioned earlier, justice restoration is achieved more effectively by reciprocating favors and mistreatment to the correct source. Procedural justice refers to an individual's perception about how much he or she controls the process or has opportunities to voice opinions. If an employee perceives that a work-related decision process is based on inaccurate information, is biased and inconsistent, or does not provide opportunity for correction, the employees will be more likely to challenge the process through forms of task conflict. Employees will question the ideas behind the process, attempt to verify provided information, debate more about the impartiality of the procedure, and dispute more about the manner in which tasks are dealt . In other words, employees experiencing procedural injustice will engage in more conflict regarding task issues. It will be less likely that employees show animosity and annoyance toward a

supervisor unless interpersonal issues are present in conjunction with the procedural issues. Hence, I suggest the following hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 2a: Procedural justice mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict.

On the other hand, workers experiencing interactional injustice will choose their mistreating supervisors as the targeted outlet of their negative emotions. I propose such negative emotions targeting a supervisor will be expressed as personality incompatibility or attitude problems with the supervisor, which can be perceived as relationship conflict by the supervisor. Because of the target-specific nature of these behaviors, supervisors are more likely to perceive hidden motives and vengeful intentions behind the behaviors even though they appear to be task issues. It will be less likely that supervisors perceive animosity and hostility from the subordinates when the issues include little interpersonal clashes. Hence, I propose the following hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 2b: Interactional justice mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict.

2.5 Emotional Intelligence and Emotion Management Ability (EMA)

Emotions in the workplace have received increasing academic attention in organization research (Ashforth, 1993; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003; Judge et al., 2006; Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004; Schaie, 2001). Along with more traditional approaches, such as positive and negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1984) and emotional contagion (Dimberg, 1982), scholars have developed a new stream of dedicated theories and thoughts about emotion and its processes such as affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), trait meta-moods (Salovey, Stroud, Woolery, & Epel, 2002), emotional labor (Grandey, 2003), and emotional regulation (Gross, 1998).

Among those research streams, a topic of particular interest related to the current study is emotion management ability (EMA) which is a branch of emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence refers to a set of abilities that enable individuals to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The first systematic inception of the concept can be traced back to an unpublished doctoral dissertation by Wayne L. Payne (1985) on EI development in the context of fear, pain, and desire. Its formal academic début, however, would be in Salovey and Mayer's (1990) article published on *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*. While the academic community was slow to express interest in the construct, Daniel Goleman quickly snatched Mayer and Salovey's idea and published a worldly renowned bestseller, *Emotional Intelligence Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, in 1995. As the grandiose title of his book hinted, Goleman (1995) claimed that EI is "the concept" accounting for the remaining 75 percent of human performance that is not covered by general mental ability (Matthews, Emo, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2006). Even though there is no empirical foundation of such pretentious claims, Goleman's assertion quickly won large public attention and spread to commercial business consulting programs such as Goleman's (2000) ECI and Bar-On's (1997) EQ-I (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). A recent Google search of the term "emotional intelligence consulting" produces approximately 389,000 results, reaffirming the popularity of the concept in the public domain.

Although the consultative adoption of the concept did appeal to the general public and willingly-paying clientele groups, its lack of scientific rigor and empirical foundation invited serious criticism from the academic society. Many proprietary programs and questionnaires based on those mixed models of EI encompass a wide variety of "emotional-intelligence-like" constructs such as self-awareness, self-efficacy, positive emotional experiences, emotional resiliency, various coping strategies, and Big Five personality traits, all of which depart

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considerably from the original definition of EI proposed by Mayer and Salovey (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Matthews et al., 2006).

Meanwhile, researchers indicted EI for many aspects, such as the lack of scrutiny in definitions (Landy, 2005), poor discriminant and incremental validity from and over established personality traits (Conte, 2005; Landy, 2005), unrealistic implications claiming everyone can become intelligent somehow (Locke, 2005), and susceptibility to socially desirable responding (Choi, Kluemper, & Sauley, 2008; Kluemper, 2008).

This manuscript aims neither to provide a comprehensive list of criticisms about those mixed models of EI (for a review, see Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002) nor to engage upon the full defense of the scientific and psychometric advantages of the original EI against its variant forms (for a review, see Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). Rather, I want to point out that the academic stigmatization and scholarly skepticism about the concept of EI have made researchers overly hesitant in using the construct. When reviewing the EI literature thoroughly, however, researchers notice that the confusion and misleading assertions of the construct mostly result from mixing the original EI and some self-proclaimed EI models, which go beyond Mayer and Salovey's basic proposition (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). Therefore, it is very important to draw a solid line between the commercially endorsed variant forms of EI and its original, which demonstrates sound psychometric properties required in serious scientific research.

There are three distinguishing characteristics of the genuine ability EI model proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and its variant forms. First, the Mayer and Salovey model of EI theorizes the construct as a set of abilities, not personality traits or behavioral tendencies. Second, due to its nature as an ability, it favors maximum-performance measures rather than self-report

scales. Third, it suffers little with the validity issues, which the mixed models of EI are often accused of. I elaborate on each aspect below.

According to the ability-based EI model suggested by Mayer and colleagues, EI is strictly defined as "an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships and to use them as a basis in reasoning and problem solving" (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001, p. 234). They view emotions as 'felt signals' accompanied by changes in relationships with other entities such as people and objects (Mayer et al., 2001). For instance, a person feels hate when encountering a rude person and feels happy when having delicious food. Emotional intelligence is the ability to accurately recognize those affective signals and to correctly respond to those situations.

Specifically, Mayer and colleagues suggested four hierarchically ordered branches (dimensions) of emotional abilities. From the bottom, they are: (1) perceiving emotions, (2) use of emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understanding emotions, and (4) managing emotions to enhance social relations (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003). The grounding dimension, perceiving emotion, refers to an ability to accurately recognize emotions in oneself, emotional expressions of others, and emotional information surfacing in objects, art, music, stories, and other types of stimulation. The second dimension, using emotion to facilitate thought involves an ability to generate and use emotions to enhance cognitive processes such as problem solving. The understanding emotion dimension refers to an ability to appreciate the complex meanings of emotions and their progress throughout time. The highest order branch, the managing emotion dimension refers to an ability to control and regulate emotion in self and others in a way that promotes overall social relations (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002; Mayer et al., 2001).

Second, ability-based EI prefers maximum-performance measures. Although there exists many self-report formats of EI based on Mayer and Salovey's model (e.g., Brackett et al., 2006;

Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), where people evaluate their own perception of their emotional

capabilities (e.g., I am good at recognizing others emotions from their facial expressions),

maximum-performance type measures are preferred in assessing the Mayer and Salovey model

of EI (Cote & Miners, 2006; Day & Carroll, 2008; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; MacCann &

Roberts, 2008; Mayer et al., 2001; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Maximum-performance

measures are usually comprised of tasks or questions where respondents to select the most

appropriate answers. For example, the DANVA (diagnostic analysis of nonverbal accuracy),

which is often used to assess the perceiving emotion dimension, portrays pictures of various

human faces and body postures and ask what emotions are demonstrated (e.g., Byron, Terranova,

& Nowicki, 2007; Rubin et al., 2005). Likewise, the STEM (situational test of emotion

management), which is designed to assess the managing emotion dimension, describes

emotionally challenging situations (e.g., moving to a new job where no one is especially kind to

you) and asks for the most appropriate answer from the available options (e.g., quitting the job,

finding some fun outside, or being friendly to others from your side) (MacCann & Roberts,

2008).

Third, in terms of reliability and validity issues, empirical studies using the ability-based

EI model with maximum-performance measures have shown good results (Day & Carroll, 2008).

For example, a large study using MSCEIT with approximately 2,000 individuals in several

English-speaking countries demonstrated good reliability (split-half reliability of .91for expert

scoring and .93 for general consensus scoring) and good convergent and discriminant validity for

the four-branch model (RMSEA = .05, NFI = .99 for expert scoring and .04, .97 for general

consensus scoring) with a moderate level of interdimensional correlations (Mayer et al., 2003;

Mayer, Panter, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2005). Roberts and colleagues (2006) also report

an adequate correlation between MSCEIT and general mental ability, providing evidence for its

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discriminant validity. Similarly, researchers provide supporting results for its construct validity and reliability of a specific dimension of EI (e.g., managing emotion measured by STEM and understanding dimension measured by STEU) (MacCann & Roberts, 2008). Their results indicated that the proposed independence of managing and understanding dimensions from the Big Five personality traits (the highest absolute $r = .24$), showed reasonable correlation with alexithymia and vocabulary dimension of mental ability in a hypothesized direction and degree, and demonstrate an incremental validity for academic achievement and life satisfaction over the general mental ability. Reaffirming these results, a recent study by Kluemper, DeGroot, & Choi (unpublished manuscript) found ability-based EI measured with the MSCEIT showed solid discriminant validity from various personality traits and criterion validity on employee task performance after controlling for the Big Five personality and general mental ability.

In terms of criterion validity, Daus & Harris (2003) reported a positive association between EI measured by MEIS (the former version of MSCEIT) and leader emergence and transformational leadership rated by the group members. More recently, Jin, Seo, & Shapiro (2008) also found a positive link between EI and transformational leadership of managers, suggesting the benefit of EI should be greater in an emotionally demanding situation. In summation, due to its stringent conceptualization and specific methodology, the studies using the ability-based EI model rarely share the low convergent and discriminant validity problems which the mixed models of EI suffer from, and have consistently shown sound psychometric properties.

Among the four branches of emotional intelligence, this study focuses on the emotion management ability (EMA) dimension. There are at least three justifications for which the managing emotion dimension draws special attention. First, it is the most applied ability among all four dimensions of EI. In their conceptualization, Mayer and colleagues proposed that EMA is the highest order branch under which all other branches build toward (Mayer & Salovey,

1997). EMA involves a person's ability to regulate emotions both internally and in social relations with others (Mayer et al., 2001, 2003). Individuals with high EMA are more capable of portraying proper emotional displays (Rode et al., 2007) without experiencing an excessive amount of emotional exhaustion from which their less endowed counterparts may suffer from (Grandey, 2003; Gross, 1998). High EMA allows people to enact an appropriate emotional manifestation with their intended direction, intensity, and persistence (Lopes, Cote, & Salovey, 2006; Morris & Feldman, 1996).

The second reason for concentrating on the EMA dimension is that a recent research trend calls for a need to develop a more fine-grained hypothesis for each dimension of EI. For instance, Kluemper et al., (unpublished manuscript) proposed that the EMA dimension will have greater potential when dealing with social interactions in organizations (e.g., effectively defusing conflicts, smoothly delivering unfavorable job decisions, or efficiently motivating team members), and found that it does predict job performance variables significantly better than the general EI construct. Likewise, Lopes and colleagues found the EMA dimension is especially useful to anticipate stress coping, quality of social exchanges, and performance under pressure (Lopes, Cote, and Salovey, 2006; Lopes, Salovey, Cote, Beers, 2004).

The last justification for choosing EMA is that it is methodologically burdensome to measure all four dimensions of EI simultaneously. Due to their maximum-performance nature, EI tests require an intensive use of mental resources. To assess all four dimensions, MSCEIT asks more than 140 questions and generally takes about 40 to 60 minutes. Similarly, administering different EI measures together (e.g., DANVA, STEM, STEU, or TEMINT) to cover multiple dimensions requires extremely high attention from the participants in a very controlled setting designed to minimize distractions that may hamper their EI performance. Given that organizations are often hesitant to participate in studies that consume employees' time

and efforts, it will be reasonable to tackle the most relevant constructs in the context of the research. Based on these theoretical and pragmatic reasons, this study focuses on the EMA dimension of EI.

Emotion management ability is proposed to enhance individuals' social functioning. Persons with higher EMA regulate their own and others' emotions better and behave more effectively in emotion related situations than individuals who are less endowed (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; George, 2000). Researchers suggested that individuals who are more capable of managing emotions will have fewer problems interacting with others, be able to redirect negative emotions to more constructive solutions, and consequently be able to maintain high quality social exchange relationships in the organization (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). On the other hand, people who fail to regulate their emotions tend to behave impulsively and demonstrate inappropriate emotions toward others (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, subordinates, or customers), receiving less favorable reactions from others (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Grandey, 2003).

More specifically, EMA has been reported to result in higher team performance in decision-making tasks by increasing members' adaptability to group interactions and by reducing interpersonal conflicts (Jordan & Troth, 2004; Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal, & Sass, 2004). Groups composed of members with higher EMA demonstrate higher goal achievement and more effective group processing in their early team formation stage because people who are more capable of managing emotions focus on team tasks rather than struggle with interpersonal conflicts (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Harttel, & Hooper, 2002). Schutte, Schuettpelz, & Malouff (2000) found that individuals with greater emotional abilities perform better and more consistently when encountering stressful or frustrating problems than their lower counterparts who allow emotions to interfere with their cognitive and social functioning. Consequently, individuals with high EMA better manage the pressure, anxiety, conflict, and other distracters in working with others,

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and thus effectively regulate their interpersonal relations (Jordan, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2006).

Scholars also reported that EMA helps employees make favorable interpersonal encounters in emotionally taxing situations in the workplace. Fox & Spector (2000) found that individuals who are better able to manage their emotions receive favorable evaluation in their job interview by efficiently regulating their outward display of emotions. Similarly, Isen & Baron (1991) proposed that employees' ability to manage moods in the workplace is an important predictor in their promotion. EMA is also shown to be beneficial in encounters with customers. In a simulation of managing angry consumers, Daus (2002) observed that participants with higher EMA reported lower perceived emotional demand in a given situation, received higher evaluations from the third-party raters, and demonstrated higher job satisfaction.

Taken together, these studies suggest that EMA enhances individuals' social functioning. Individuals who are better able to manage emotions will engage in less impulsive behaviors, find more constructive solutions in emotionally challenging situations, display appropriate emotions in dealing with others, and build more productive relationships with others. When communicating their ideas and opinions with others, those individuals will be able to find a good time and situation to discuss the idea, frame it in a manner that others perceive to be more acceptable, avoid a deadlock and provide constructive alternatives, and know when and how to end unnecessary arguments.

Applying these to organizational settings, subordinates with high EMA are able to express appropriate emotions to their supervisors, argue their ideas without negatively impacting the supervisors' emotions, remedy relationships better when damaged, and refrain from impulsively expressing negative emotions, all of which serve to maximize the constructive relationship between a supervisor and subordinate.

2.6 Emotion Management Ability as a Moderator

Based on the above discussion, I propose that an individual's emotion management ability (EMA) interacts with abusive supervision and justice perception in affecting task and relationship conflict. To individuals with higher EMA, being subject to abusive supervision and experiencing the feelings of injustice would not necessarily result in conflict since they possess an ability to manage their own and others emotions. Whereas, to people with lower EMA, abusive supervisory treatment and ensuing negative emotions of injustice perception are more likely to result in conflict due to their lack of emotion management ability.

In a systematic attempt to understand this proposition, Cote and Miners (2006) suggested the compensatory interactional model of emotional ability. They proposed that the beneficial effect of emotional ability becomes more significant when people are unsuccessful in attaining certain performance through other abilities. In other words, productive effect of EMA becomes more pronounced as situations require a higher use of individuals' emotional abilities. For instance, a car dealer who has extraordinary knowledge about cars will be able to attain a high volume of car sales although she does not have a high ability to manage emotions. Conversely, a car dealer without such abundance of knowledge needs superior emotional ability to attain high sales as a complementary mechanism that enables him to compensate his lack of knowledge about cars.

Likewise, subordinates who already enjoy good relationships with their supervisors have less need to manage emotions with the supervisors, and therefore the impact of a person's EMA may be restricted when compared with employees who do not develop such positive relationships with their supervisors. Simply put, a person's EMA matters more in emotionally challenging situations just as IQ matters more for difficult problems.

As shown in Figure 2, I suggest that the positive associations between abusive supervision and the two forms of conflict are stronger (positive) in people with lower EMA. I also posit that the negative relationships between procedural justice and task conflict and between interactional justice and relationship conflict become stronger (negative) as the subordinates' level of EMA decreases.

As mentioned earlier, a manager's use of abusive supervision poses high emotional demand and tension in those subordinates who are subject to such treatment. They tend to experience more emotional exhaustion (Duffy et al., 2002), affective alienation and frustration (Ashforth, 1997), job dissatisfaction (Tepper, 2000), and a low quality relationships in the workplace (Tepper et al., 2007). High EMA is particularly helpful for those who experience high emotional demand caused by abusive supervision. EMA will decrease the level of task and relationship conflict more when the subordinates have higher demand for managing their emotions. A subordinate who has a friendly and accommodating supervisor may have little chance to engage in conflict with the supervisor, and therefore the impact of their EMA on conflict will also have limited room to take effect. Conversely, a subordinate who has an abusing supervisor may have a number of reasons to engage in conflict with the supervisor, and hence the impact of EMA on conflict will have no such range restrictions. Stated differently, people with higher EMA should manage such emotional demands more successfully than their less capable counterparts, so that abusive supervision causes less task and relationship conflict for them. Therefore, I suggest the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3a: The association between abusive supervision and task conflict becomes stronger as EMA decreases.

Hypothesis 3b: The association between abusive supervision and relationship conflict becomes stronger as EMA decreases.

In a similar vein, subordinates will experience greater emotional demand when they perceive higher procedural and interactional injustice. Justice research has widely recognized that feelings of unfairness subsume "hot and burning" emotions (Barclay et al., 2005, p. 629). Folger and Cropanzano (2001) also stipulated that individuals frequently assess justice perception in a rapid and automatic manner, and reactive emotions are an important factor of injustice perceptions. Employees feel anger when managerial actions are unfair and the responsibility is attributable to others (Folger, 1986). Unfairly treated workers feel higher stress, sadness, and anxiety as well as lower tranquility and happiness (Cortina & Magley, 2003). Employees' perceptions of injustice increase their hostility (Judge et al., 2006), outrage and annoyance (Bies, 1987; Watson, 2000), and feelings of shame and guilt for themselves and anger and antagonism toward the organization (Barclay et al., 2005). In their meta-analysis, Barsky and Kaplan (2007) concluded that justice perceptions are correlated with positive and negative affect in the absolute range from .09 to .43 in the hypothesized direction.

Conceivably, subordinates who feel they are treated fairly will have restricted use of EMA because they experience little emotional demand and are therefore less likely to engage in conflict. On the other hand, EMA is important to people with high unfairness perception because, in emotionally taxing situations, people with high EMA are the only ones who can regulate and control their emotions in order to decrease conflict. Subordinates' EMA will decrease the level of task and relationship conflict, and the relationship will be more drastic to the people who perceive higher injustice and who experience stronger emotional demand. In other words, an employee's EMA performs a buffering role when they have to deal with their negative feelings of unfairness perceptions. Employees with a larger buffer (higher EMA) are more capable of managing their emotion, and thus will react more rationally when faced with negative feelings of

injustice rather than engaging in conflict in a fit of temper. In this tenet, I suggest the following

hypotheses.

Hypothesis 4a: The association between procedural justice and task conflict becomes stronger as EMA decreases.

Hypothesis 4b: The association between interactional justice and relationship conflict becomes stronger as EMA decreases.
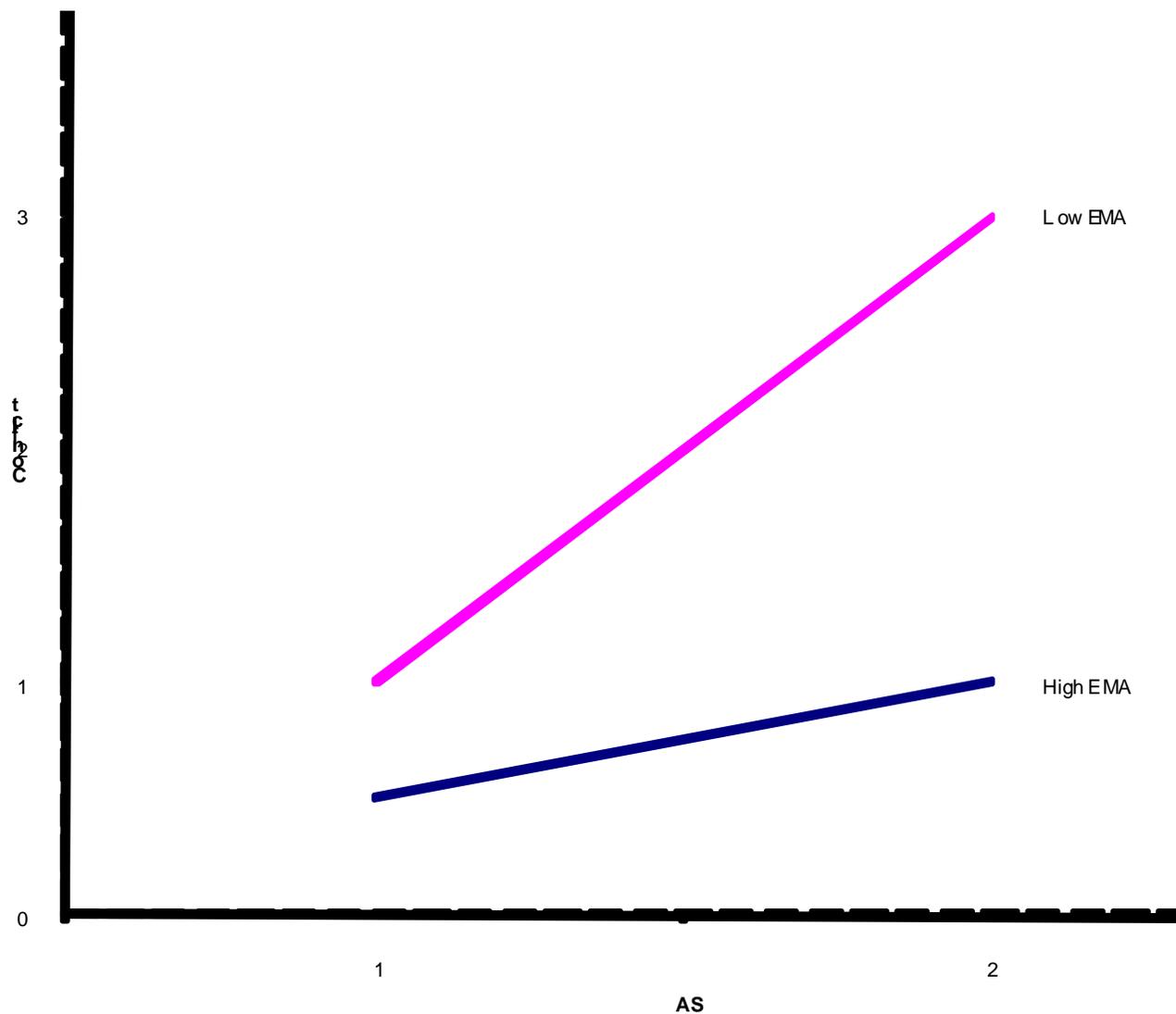
Figure 2. Proposed Patterns of Interactions
Note. AS (abusive supervision), EMA (emotion management ability).
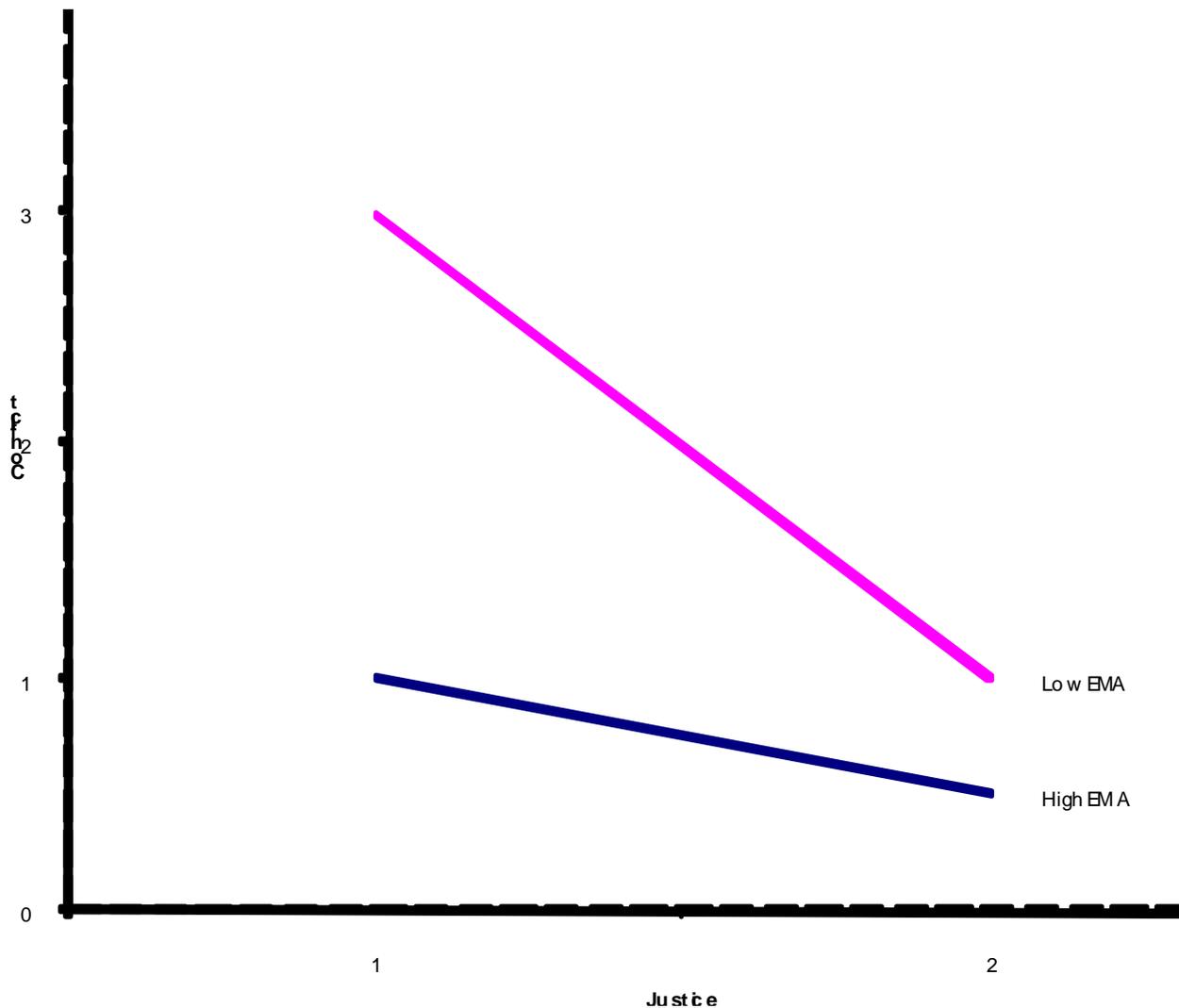
Figure 2 Continued

2.7 Discretionary Behaviors as Consequences of Conflict

In the previous chapter, I questioned what kinds of employee behaviors would be proper criteria to reveal differential effects between relationship and task conflict. I argued that the majority of extant studies have primarily focused on an overly narrow operationalization for studying the outcomes of task and relationship conflict. I propose that the greater detrimental effect of relationship conflict can be more apparent by focusing on a stream of behaviors over which individuals have greater discretion to enact. In organizational research, these discretionary

behaviors encompass both positive (e.g., Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and negative (e.g., Griffin & Lopez, 2005) outlets. Among many constructs in this category, the most widely known to the researchers would be organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) for the positive side and workplace deviance behavior (WDB) for the negative side.

Organizational citizenship behavior refers to "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 91). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) explicates the process of performing OCB by suggesting that employees reciprocate their sense of satisfaction through voluntarily engaging in prosocial behaviors that often lie beyond their prescribed job duties (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Zellars & Tepper, 2003), whereas dissatisfied employees hold back citizenship behavior because its discretionary nature allows them to stop doing these extra-role behaviors without being subjected to organizational sanctioning (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

Studies have consistently shown that employees' OCB decreases when they experience low job satisfaction and subsequent negative emotions such as frustration and anger (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). Given that relationship conflict has shown to be more closely related to satisfaction than task conflict, I suggest that it will also be closely relate to OCB. When employees experience interpersonal clashes and personality conflicts with their supervisors, they should be less cooperative with their supervisors and organization. On the other hand, idea contradictions and differing opinions entail substantially lower levels of dissatisfaction, and thus result in a lesser decrease in OCB. Hence, I suggest the following hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 5a: Task and relationship conflict are negatively associated with OCB, such that the association between relationship conflict and OCB is stronger than the relationship between task conflict and OCB.

Recently, scholars identified a negative version of contextual performance that hinders the organizational effectiveness. These forms of behavior are called organizational "bad behaviors" and are defined as intentional behaviors that are potentially injurious to the organization and to organizational members (Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Among such organizational bad behaviors as antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998), and workplace violence (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002), the most widely used is workplace deviance behavior (WDB).

Workplace deviance is defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Although the original construct included any deviance from organizational norms (whether ethical or unethical), its practical meaning in most research refers to some unfavorable behaviors of employees (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Elangovan & Shapiro, 1998; Griffin & Lopez, 2005). Typically, WDB encompasses both interpersonally unfavorable behaviors (e.g., blaming or cussing others) and organizationally harmful behaviors (e.g., working slow or sabotaging company equipment), both of which hurt organizational functioning (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Two major antecedents (i.e., dissatisfaction and negative emotions) have been identified as major causes of employees' WDB (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Judge et al., 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002). Researchers explicated that WDB is a cathartic way of coping against dissatisfaction by cutting input and breaching the norms of the organization (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Judge et al., 2006). In terms of negative emotions, affective event theory (AET) proposes that an affective reaction such as anger and hostility are direct antecedents of affect-driven reactions, and workplace deviance is a typical example of those reactions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Supporting the AET framework, Lee and Allen (2002) reported a close

association between hostility and employee WDB, and Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) reported

that abused employees engage in more WDB toward the instigator.

Accordingly, it is reasonable to expect that relationship conflict results in WDB. I also

expect that task conflict is a substantially weaker predictor of WDB because it does not share the

negative emotionality of relationship conflict. Therefore, I suggest the last hypothesis of this

study as follows.

> Hypothesis 5b: Task and relationship conflict are positively associated with WDB, such
> that the association between relationship conflict and WDB is stronger than the
> relationship between task conflict and WDB.

III. METHODS

This chapter outlines the methods used for testing the research hypotheses developed in the previous chapter. I describe the characteristics of study participants, research design, data collection procedures, and the organizational context where the study was conducted. This chapter also contains operationalizations of the study constructs as well as the translation protocol and scaling schemes of the measures. I close this chapter by summarizing the data analysis techniques used in this research and by briefly reporting the results of a pilot study.

3.1 Participants and Procedures

The sample for the present study was collected in a large South Korean hospital located near Seoul. Approximately 450 employees (excluding doctors) were invited to participate in the study. Printed blurbs explaining the purpose and confidentiality of the study were distributed twice (approximately two weeks apart). Employees were asked to voluntarily participate in an on-line survey hosted by the university server. A month after the administration of the employee survey, the supervisor of each department was asked to rate the performance of his or her participating subordinates. The supervisors' responses were mailed to a management professor at a Korean university who agreed to assist with this study. A gift worth $1.50 was given to each participant as an incentive after all surveys were completed.

The listwise sample consisted of 310 employees and 15 supervisors from eight nursing, four clinical support, and three administrative departments. The response rate was approximately 72 percent for employees (100% for supervisors). Among the 310 employees, 82 percent were female, and 62 percent were nurses, 22 percent were clinical support staff, and 16 percent were

administrative employees. The mean age of the participating employees was 28 years old (ranging from 20 to 52), and the average time employees have worked with their current supervisor was 3 years (ranging from 1 to 11). The smallest department had 10 employees, and the largest had 42 employees ($M = 24$). Among the 15 supervisors, 67 percent were female, the mean age was 44 years old (ranging from 31 to 53), and the mean duration of supervision in the current department was 3 years (ranging from 2 to 3).

3.2 Measures

Self-rated (i.e., abusive supervision, procedural justice, and interactional justice), maximum-performance (i.e., EMA), and supervisor-rated (i.e., task conflict, relationship conflict, OCBI, OCBO, WDBI, and WDBO) methods were employed to measure the ten major constructs in this study. Abusive supervision, the two forms of justice, and EMA were measured from employees, and the two forms of conflict, OCB, and WDB were assessed by supervisors. All measures, except EMA, were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The EMA measure used a maximum-performance rating scheme as detailed in this section.

Following the translation and back-translation procedure recommended by Hulin (1987) and Collazo (2005), all study items were translated into the Korean language. To verify semantic equivalence between original and translated measures, each item was back-translated by a bilingual business doctoral student unfamiliar with the research and reviewed by my dissertation chair. Jargon, acronyms, double-barreled expressions, ambiguous wordings, and awkward literal word-to-word translation were avoided. The translated version of study measures was written in the plain and simple Korean language and comprehensible to most high school students. The items with unclear or incorrect meanings were revised through discussion with the dissertation

chair. The original and translated measures are available in the appendix. A pilot study using all translated versions was carried out to test psychometric properties, and the results are summarized in section 3.6.

A brief description of each measure is provided below. The internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's alpha coefficient is also reported here to determine whether the measures meet the conventional .70 threshold recommended by Nunnally (1978). Higher Cronbach's alpha indicates that the items in the measure produce a similar answering pattern, suggesting that the items are homogenous and consistent among each other (Streiner, 2003).

Abusive Supervision (AS). A subordinate's perception of the extent to which a supervisor engages in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors was measured using Tepper's (2000) 15-item measure of abusive supervision. Subordinates responded to various statements such as: "My supervisor ridicules me" and "My supervisor gives me the silent treatment." The Cronbach's alpha for the measure with the current sample was .94.

Procedural Justice (PJ). A subordinate's perceived fairness about the process used for work decisions was evaluated using Colquitt's (2001) measure with slight wording changes. Subordinates responded with their agreement to the seven statements such as: "I am able to express my views and feelings during the organizational procedures" and "The organizational procedures are applied consistently." The alpha coefficient for the items was .84.

Interactional Justice (IJ). A subordinate's fairness perception about the interpersonal treatment that he or she receives from the supervisor was measured with Niehoff & Moorman's (1993) scale. Subordinates were asked to report how much they agree with nine statements including: "When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration" and "My supervisor explains very clearly any decision made about my job." The reliability coefficient for the items was .93.

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Task Conflict (TC). Supervisors' perceptions of conflict in ideas and opinions with a subordinate were measured using Jehn's (1995) 4-item measure of task conflict with a slight modification. Supervisors were asked to rate their agreement level on the statements such as: "The subordinate and I disagree about opinions regarding the work being done" and "There are differences of opinion between me and the subordinate." The reliability alpha for these items was .96.

Relationship Conflict (RC). Supervisors' perceptions of relationship conflict were also assessed with Jehn's (1995) measure consisting of four items with slight wording changes. Sample items are: "Personality conflicts are evident between the subordinate and me" and "There is emotional conflict between the subordinate and me." The Cronbach's alpha for this construct was .95.

OCB. Supervisor-rated organizational citizenship behavior was measured using Lee & Allen's (2002) 16-item scale of OCB, which covers both individual-referenced (OCBI) and organization-referenced (OCBO) helping behaviors. Example items are: "The subordinate shares personal property with others to help their work (OCBI)" and "The subordinate demonstrates concern about the image of the organization (OCBO)." The internal consistency score of each dimension was .94 and .95, respectively.

WDB. Supervisors' perceptions of how much a subordinate violates organizational norms were assessed with the 11-item WDB measure (Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). The measure encompasses both interpersonally hurtful (WDBI) and organizationally harmful (WDBO) behaviors. An example of the four items of WDBI is: "The subordinate makes fun of someone at work." An example of seven WDBO items is: "The subordinate comes in late to work without permission." The reliability coefficients of both dimensions were .94.

Emotion Management Ability (EMA). A subordinate's EMA was assessed with the 30-item Situational Test of Emotion Management (STEM) developed by MacCann & Roberts (2008). A sample item reads: "Lee's workmate fails to deliver an important piece of information on time, causing Lee to fall behind schedule also. What action would be the most effective for Lee?" The four behavioral alternatives offered with the question are: "(a) Work harder to compensate (3.2/0)"; "(b) Get angry with the workmate (2.6/0)"; "(c) Explain the urgency of the situation to the workmate (5.2/1.00)"; and "(d) Never rely on that workmate again (2.4/0)." The numbers in the parentheses represent the average expert rating for the option and the proportion of experts who selected the option, respectively. Two different scoring schemes (i.e., rate-the-extent and multiple-choice) are available based on those two sets of numbers, and the multiple-choice method (the latter) was employed in this study. In the multiple-choice scheme, subordinates are directed to select the one most appropriate way from the four behavioral alternatives, and the expert proportion weight associated with the option becomes the score that the respondents gain for the question. For instance, the respondents receive 1 and 0 respectively when they select either (c) or (d). The final score is calculated by aggregating the obtained proportional weights for all 30 items (see Appendix B, for detailed scoring schemes). The result using the multiple-choice scheme yielded low Cronbach's alpha of .52.

Symbolic Patriotism (SP). As a marker variable for the CFA marker technique (see section 3.5), a three-item measure of symbolic patriotism modified from Huddy and Khatib (2007) was chosen in this study. The three items read: "I feel good when I see my country flag is flying," "I feel good when I hear the national anthem," and "I feel proud when I see the national flower blooming." The Cronbach's alpha for this study was .78.

Control Variables. To filter out the potential confounding effects of variables not focal to the current study, a few contextual attributes of task and relationship conflict were controlled

in this study, based on the findings in the previous research: (1) the subordinate-supervisor relationship tenure (Pelled et al., 1999), (2) team turnover ratio (Mooney et al., 2007), (3) team size (Amason & Sapienza, 1997), (4) perceived task routineness, and (5) perceived task interdependence (Jehn, 1995). All variables were measured with a single item. All except size and turnover were added to the SEM model as single-indicator latent constructs with .70 reliability. The size and turnover variables were specified with zero error variance in SEM. The relationship tenure (How long have you worked with this supervisor?), task routineness (How much does your job include being creative?: reverse coded), and task interdependence (Is it hard to accomplish all of your tasks without the supervisor's input?) were measured from the subordinates. The team turnover ratio (What percentage of turnover is there in your team membership during the past three months?) and team size (What is the total number of people that you directly supervise?) were measured from supervisors.

3.3 Analytic Strategy

To test the hypothesized latent causal model with interactional effects, the moderated structural equation model (MSEM) technique was employed (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001). The SEM technique is especially useful when testing priori hypothetical models based on their statistical correspondence to the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005). In SEM terminology, this study had seven exogenous (i.e., abusive supervision, EMA, and five control variables) and eight endogenous variables (i.e., two forms of justice, two forms of conflict, two forms of OCB, and two forms of WDB) as well as three interaction terms (i.e., AS*EMA, PJ*EMA, and IJ*EMA). Using LISREL 8.54 (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 2003) with maximum likelihood estimation for covariance matrices assuming multivariate normal distributions, I adopted Ping's procedure (1996a, 1996b, 2007c) to test the MSEM hypotheses.

According to Ping (1996a, 2008), the procedure takes two steps. First, the lambda loadings and error variances of main effect indicators are estimated in the confirmatory factor analysis model. Next, the lambda loadings and error variances obtained from the first step are used to calculate the lambda loading and error variance of the interaction terms, and these calculated scores are entered into the second step to fit a moderated structural equation model. The procedure is defined as follows:

$$Y = X + M + XM$$

where Y represents the criterion variable, X and M represent predictor variables, and XM represents the latent product term referring to the interaction effect of the latent construct of X and M. Ping (1996a) suggested that the single indicator for the interaction term (xm) can be generated by multiplying the centered and scaled variables of X and M. Ping (1996a, 2007a, 2007b) also noted that the loading and the error variance of the single indicator (xm) of the latent product term XM are found by using the following formulae:

$$\Lambda_{xm} = ([\Lambda_{x1} + \Lambda_{x2} + \Lambda_{x3} \ldots \Lambda_{xi}]/i) \, ([\Lambda_{m1} + \Lambda_{m2} + \Lambda_{m3} \ldots \Lambda_{mj}]/j)$$

$$\theta_{\varepsilon xm} = ([\lambda_{x1} + \lambda_{x2} + \lambda_{x3} \ldots \lambda_{xi}]/i)^2 \, VAR(X) \, ([\theta_{\varepsilon m1} + \theta_{\varepsilon m2} + \theta_{em3} \ldots \theta_{emj}]/j^2) +$$

$$([\lambda_{m1} + \lambda_{m2} + \lambda_{m3} \ldots \lambda_{mj}]/j)^2 \, VAR(M) \, ([\theta_{\varepsilon x1} + \theta_{\varepsilon x2} + \theta_{\varepsilon x3} \ldots \theta_{\varepsilon xi}]/i^2) +$$

$$(\theta_{\varepsilon m1} + \theta_{\varepsilon m2} + \theta_{\varepsilon m3} \ldots \theta_{\varepsilon mj}) \, (\theta_{\varepsilon x1} + \theta_{\varepsilon x2} + \theta_{\varepsilon x3} \ldots \theta_{\varepsilon xi})/i^2 j^2$$

where lambda x, lambda m, and lambda xm represent the loadings of indicators of the latent constructs, and theta epsilon x, theta epsilon m, and theta epsilon xm represent the error variances associated with each indicator. VAR represents the variance of a latent construct.

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Since the information for the right-hand side of the two equations are available from the first step, the values needed for estimating the second step (left-hand side of the equations) can be calculated by plugging the relevant numbers from step 1 into the formulae (Ping, 2007a, 2007b). A benefit of Ping's two-step procedure is that it achieves as good of a correct model convergence as other more complicated MSEM procedures such as Jaccard and Wan (1995) and Kenny and Judd (1984) techniques, but it requires substantially less statistical resources (Ping, 1996b; Ping, 2009). Ping's approach consumes tremendously less degrees of freedom because it utilizes the aggregated single indicator to represent product terms rather than estimating the entire combination of all lambda coefficients and error variances of each indicator.

To test the overall fit of the study model, three SEM fit indices were selected as recommended by Kline (2005): (1) RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) with its 90% confidence interval which is a parsimony-favored and sample-size-adjusted index following the known noncentral chi square distribution (Steiger, 1990); (2) CFI (comparative fit index) which provides the relative incremental improvement of the hypothesized model against the null model where zero covariances are assumed among observed variables in the population (Bentler, 1990); and (3) SRMR (standardized root mean square residual) which provides the mean absolute value for the difference between observed covariances and model-predicted covariances after standardizing the range of scales (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1993; Ogasawara, 2001). In addition, chi square statistics and degrees of freedom are reported . I followed the conventional norms for good fit accepted in the field in testing relatively complex models with a large sample ($N > 250$): RMSEA < .06 with its 90% confidence interval not exceeding .10; CFI > .95; and SRMR < .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). Lastly, a graphical demonstration was provided to facilitate the interpretation of the interaction effect (Aiken & West, 1991).

3.4 Statistical Power of SEM

In this section, I address issues regarding the sample size with statistical power and significance in SEM. Power refers to the probability to reject the false null hypothesis when the effect is in fact true, and statistically it is 1 - Type II error (Cohen, 1992). Larger power means higher ability to detect the effect that truly exists. Significance refers to the probability of rejecting the true null hypothesis, given the effect in truth does not exist, and it is often called Type I error (Fisher, 1926; Sauley & Bedeian, 1989). A smaller significance level indicates a larger confidence interval and less chance for committing false positive (Haller & Krauss, 2002). All other things equal, larger sample size brings higher power and better precision (Streiner, 1990).

In studies with relatively complex SEM models, a large sample ($N > 200$) is traditionally recommended to assure enough power and precision (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Kline, 2005). The benefits of having a large sample in SEM include greater likelihood of a correct model convergence, better estimation of the model parameters, and smaller Type I and Type II errors (Gagne & Hancock, 2006).

There are some conventional rules regarding sample size of SEM. For instance, Bentler and Chou (1987) recommended that the ratio of the number of cases (sample size) per parameter (n/q) should be at least 5 to 1 when maximum likelihood estimation is employed. However, it is problematic that the n/q rule often requires very large sample size even for a moderately complex SEM models. For instance, 825 cases (5 x 165) are required to meet the n/q ratio of 5 to 1 for a confirmatory factor analysis model of 10 latent constructs with 6 indicators per construct, which has 165 parameters to estimate (60 lambda xs, 60 theta deltas, and 45 phis).

Criticizing the practical hardship and little empirical support of the n/q rule, in their Monte Carlo study, Marsh, Hau, Balla, and Grayson (1998) suggested that an alternative to the

n/q ratio could be the p/f ratio (the ratio of the number of indicators per factor), and that larger

p/f ratio brings better fit in a given sample size. A distinguishing implication of the p/f ratio from

the n/q ratio is that the required sample size decreases when the number of indicators per factor

increases, which is actually the opposite of the proposition of the n/q ratio (the required sample

size increases since more parameters have to be estimated as the number of indicators increases).

For example, Marsh and colleagues (1998) showed models with the p/f ratio of 6 to 1 produce

good correct model convergence and accurate parameter estimation (99.6%) even when the

sample size decreases to 50.

Consistent with Marsh and others, Gagne and Hancock (2006) also corroborated that the

model convergence and parameter estimation of SEM models can be improved more by

enhancing the measurement model reliability, which is derived from the ratio of indicators per

construct (p/f ratio) and the quality of indicators (magnitude of the indicators' loadings) rather

than by simply increasing the sample size. For instance, they demonstrated that a model with the

p/f ratio of 6 and moderate lambda coefficients (.40) yields satisfactory model convergence as

well as accurate parameter recovery even in small samples ($N = 100$).

More directly, MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) offer a systematic tool for

power analysis dedicated to SEM. Using RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation:

Steiger, 1990), they ascertained that the power and precision of SEM models increase by

accomplishing more degrees of freedom and larger sample size. They denoted that the minimum

size of sample required to achieve proper power and significance can be often smaller ($N < 200$)

than the customary beliefs in the field when a model has enough degrees of freedom ($df > 60$).

For instance, they demonstrated that only 132 cases are necessary to properly test models with

100 degrees of freedom when the conventional level of power and significance are applied: .80

power (Cohen, 1992) and .05 significance level of RMSEA (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

The sample size of the current study is 310, and it measures ten latent constructs with 96 indicators (excluding single-item control variables). Thus, the n/q ratio is 3.23 (310 / 96), and the p/f ratio is 9.6 (96 / 10). When applying conservative numbers (p/f = 6 and expected lambda coefficients = .40), the current sample size exceeds the required minimum ($N = 100$) suggested by Gagne and Hancock (2006). Furthermore, it satisfies the required number of cases for the conventional level of power and significance for SEM models with large degrees of freedom (*df* > 100) proposed by MacCallum and others (1996), reassuring that this study demonstrates a proper power and precision level to examine the research model.

3.5 Issues of CMV

A multi-source survey method was used to examine the proposed relationships of the study model to reduce common method variance (CMV) – variance attributed to a measurement method and source rather than to the study construct (Spector, 1994; Schwarz, 1999). In addition, the CFA marker technique (Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009) was also employed to detect CMV.

Dealing with CMV issues is important because it is a source of measurement errors that systematically hamper the validity of research by inflating or deflating Type I and Type II errors in statistical testing (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Tourangeau & Rasinski, 1998). Three procedural remedies have been recommended to minimize CMV in organizational research (Podsakoff et al, 2003): (1) obtain predictor and criterion measures from different sources, (2) separate the measurements contextually, proximally, temporally, or psychologically, and (3) improve the wording and formatting of questions and scales.

Because the study model of this research posited complex mediations and moderations among variables, it was hard to completely distinguish predictor variables from criterion

variables. Conceptually, however, four constructs (i.e., abusive supervision, the two forms of justice, and EMA) serves as a predictor role in the model, and the other six constructs (i.e., two forms of conflict, OCB, and WDB) performs a criterion role. Following the recommendation of Podsakoff and others, the four predictor measures were obtained from subordinates, and the six criterion measures were collected from supervisors. This separation may provide contextual, proximal, and psychological distance between employees and supervisors (Podsakoff et al. 2003).

As a post-hoc CMV detection method, the CFA marker technique (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Richardson et al., 2009; Williams & Anderson, 1994; Williams & Brown, 1994) was utilized in this study. Following is a brief description of the procedure.

As shown in Figure 3, the CFA marker technique consists of four SEM models: (1) the CFA model, (2) the baseline, (3) the noncongeneric, and (4) the congeneric model. In the CFA model, all loadings and errors of indicators are specified only to their own latent constructs and freely estimated except one loading for each construct to provide a scale metric – ULI constraint (unit loading identification).

In the baseline model, the same general CFA is repeated except two aspects: (1) the unstandardized loadings and errors of the marker construct are fixed to the values obtained in the CFA model and (2) the structural paths between the marker construct and the substantive constructs are fixed to zero.

In the noncongeneric CMV model, all specifications are the same as in the baseline model except that each indicator of all substantive constructs is specified to load on the marker construct, and those loadings are constrained to be equal to one another. In the congeneric model, all specifications are the same as in the noncongeneric model except that the loadings from the marker construct to substantive indicators are freely estimated (Richardson et al., 2009; Williams & Anderson, 1994; Williams & Brown, 1994).
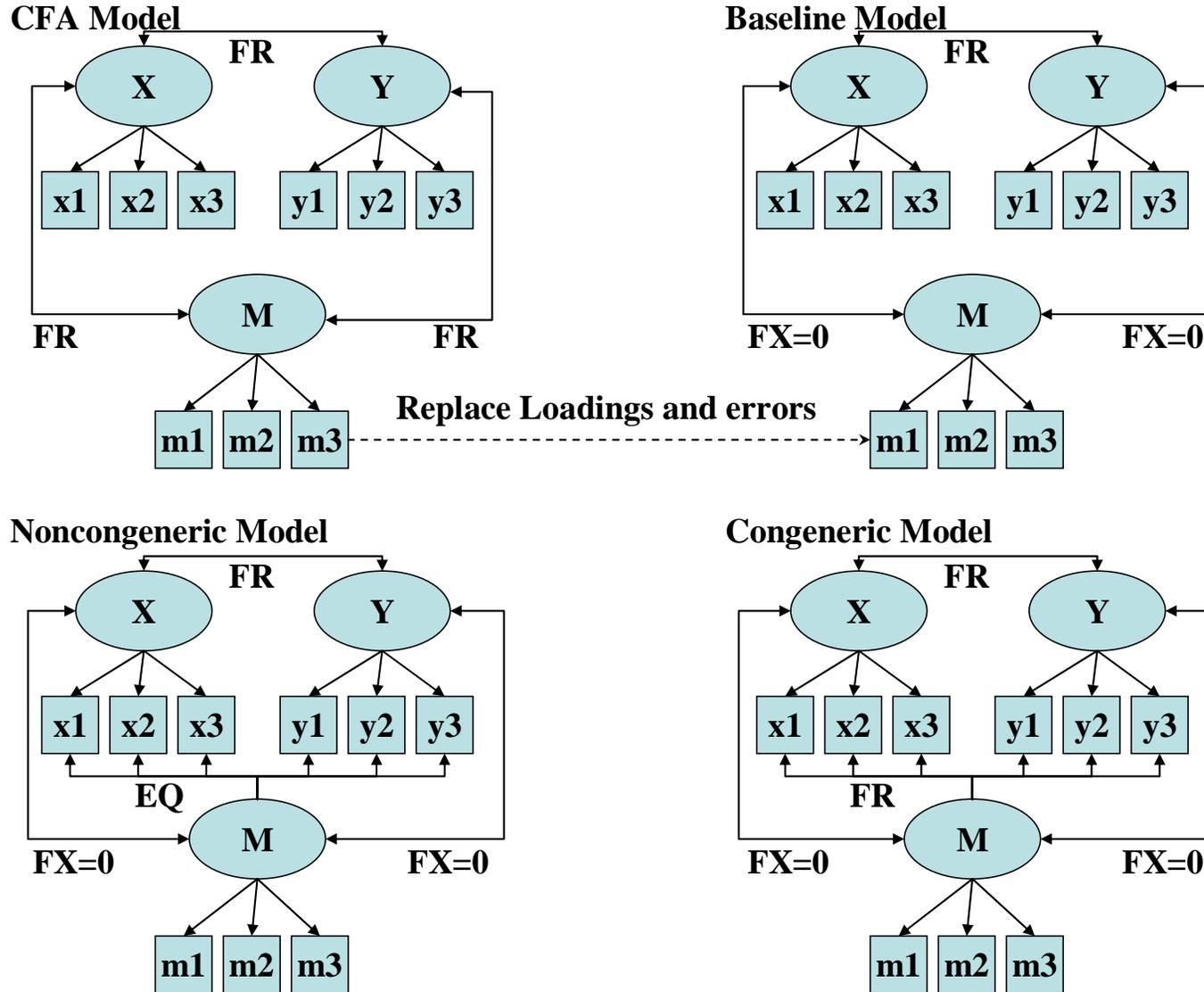
Figure 3. Model Specifications of the CFA Marker Technique
Note. FR (freely estimated), FX (fixed as), EQ (equal to).

The key distinction between noncongeneric and congeneric CMV detection is that the latter allows for different amount of CMV impact on substantive indicators, whereas the former forces the same amount of CMV impact (tau equivalence) on all substantive indicators. The test of CMV is conducted by comparing the chi squares of either noncongeneric or congeneric against the baseline model. If any of the two CMV models fit significantly better than the baseline model (i.e., significant chi square difference), researchers may conclude that the CMV exists. If the chi square difference is not statistically significant, it is good evidence that CMV does not impacted the data (Richardson et al., 2009).

Lindell and Whitney (2001) advised that a marker-variable should be (1) a small set of items not theoretically relevant to the study variables, (2) showing good internal consistency, (3) sharing a similar format with the study variables, and (4) presumably situated at the end of the survey. Following their recommendations, a three-item measure of symbolic patriotism modified from Huddy and Khatib (2007) was chosen in this study.

3.6 Pilot Study

To test the psychometric properties and basic relationships of the translated questionnaire items, an on-line survey using the snowball sampling method was conducted prior to the main study. Invitation e-mails were sent through a Korean student association mailing list of a large university in southern U.S. and via other personal contacts. E-mail recipients were informed about the purpose and anonymity of the survey, and asked to either participate themselves or invite someone else to the survey.

A total of 106 respondents completed the pilot study. Among the 106 respondents, 54 percent were female, an average age was 32 years old, and more than 80 percent were working full- or part-time (education: 48%, administrative: 21%, and service: 12%). Table 1 summarizes

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the descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients of each measure. All measures showed good internal consistency ranging from .75 to .96, and correlations among the variables were in the expected direction, providing confidence in the soundness of the psychometric properties of the translated measures.

No formal hypotheses testing was conducted with this sample, but basic examination of correlations should provide some informative approximation for the study model. For example, abusive supervision and two types of conflict (task and relationship conflict) were significantly correlated ($r = .34$ and $.75$ respectively), supporting H1a and H1b. Abusive supervision and two forms of justice (procedural and interactional justice) were also significantly correlated ($r = .56$ and $.66$ respectively); procedural justice was correlated with task conflict ($r = -.23$); and interactional justice was associated with relationship conflict ($r = -.69$), jointly rendering initial support for the mediation hypotheses. As for the outcomes side, relationship conflict was significantly associated with most outcomes (i.e., OCBI, OCBO, and WDBI) with the correlations ranging from .20 to .32, and task conflict was significantly correlated with no outcomes, lending strong support to the hypotheses of the more detrimental impact of relationship conflict.

In sum, the results of the pilot study provided good evidence for the soundness of study measures and tentative support for the hypothesized research model. Therefore, all study measures were retained and used in the main study.

Table 1
Basic Statistics of the Pilot Study

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. AS	1.92	.72	*.96*									
2. PJ	3.27	.65	-.56**	*.85*								
3. IJ	3.47	.72	-.66**	.64**	*.93*							
4. TC	3.38	.60	.34**	-.23*	-.25*	*.86*						
5. RC	2.48	.82	.75**	-.59**	-.69**	.47**	*.90*					
6. OCBI	3.52	.48	-.16	.13	.31**	-.12	-.21*	*.82*				
7. OCBO	3.63	.54	-.35**	.33**	.45**	-.03	-.32**	.57**	*.83*			
8. WDBI	1.82	.64	.21*	-.21*	-.20*	.10	.20*	-.35**	-.32**	*.79*		
9. WDBO	2.10	.64	.12	.06	.03	.17	.08	-.18	-.31**	.33**	*.77*	
10. EMA	.50	.11	-.34**	.14	.26**	.09	-.27**	.25*	.32**	-.25**	-.22*	*.75*

Note. *N* = 106
Cronbach's alphas were italicized at the diagonal
AS (abusive supervision), PJ (procedural justice), IJ (interactional justice), TC (task conflict), RC (relationship conflict), OCBI (organizational citizenship behavior targeting individuals), OCBO (organizational citizenship behavior targeting the organization), WDBI (workplace deviance behavior targeting individuals), WDBO (workplace deviance targeting the organization), EMA (emotion management ability)
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

IV. RESULTS

This chapter summarizes the results of hypotheses testing and statistical analyses of CMV. Detailed methodology can be found in the methods section and is not repeated here. For brevity's sake, only the full model is presented. Intermediate SEM models can be found in the appendix section.

4.1 Hypotheses Testing

Table 2 summarizes descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alphas, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) of all study variables. All latent constructs demonstrated good composite reliability (from .84 to .96) and AVE (from .44 to .86) except EMA which showed low CR (.61) and AVE (.08). I will elaborate more about this unreliability issue in the limitations section.

Table 3 summarizes the fit statistics of the four structural equation models: (1) the confirmatory factor analysis model (CFA model), (2) the structural model (basic structural model), (3) the structural model with interaction terms (structural interaction model), and (4) the structural model including interactions and control variables (full model). Note that the basic structural model was nested in the CFA model, but neither the structural interaction nor the full model was so.

The CFA model which tested the reliability and validity of the measurement of ten latent constructs indicated a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 8107$, $df = 4419$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .06). The 90 percent confidence interval of RMSEA was between .053 and .056. Those ten constructs were: (1) abusive supervision (AS), (2) procedural justice (PJ), (3) interactional

Table 2
Basic Statistics of the Main Study

	M	SD	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. AS	1.99	.62	.94	.54	.94										
2. PJ	3.08	.59	.84	.44	-.41**	.84									
3. IJ	3.37	.69	.93	.60	-.67**	.59**	.93								
4. TC	2.39	.84	.96	.86	.18**	-.11**	-.26**	.96							
5. RC	1.98	.68	.95	.83	.16**	-.12**	-.29**	.71**	.95						
6. OCBI	3.61	.64	.94	.68	-.23**	.15**	.28**	-.48**	-.57**	.94					
7. OCBO	3.39	.70	.95	.72	-.17**	.14**	.17**	-.38**	-.49**	.67**	.95				
8. WDBI	1.93	.68	.94	.79	.24**	-.19**	-.29**	.46**	.49**	-.51**	-.33**	.94			
9. WDBO	1.81	.59	.95	.73	.26**	-.24**	-.36**	.48**	.65**	-.64**	-.56**	.52**	.94		
10. EMA	.54	.08	.61	.08	-.13**	.02	.02	.00	-.03	.04	.04	-.04	-.10	.52	
11. SP	3.15	.79	.90	.75	-.02	.06	.03	.04	.01	.07	-.03	.00	-.02	.17	.78
Size	27.45	9.56			.14*	-.09	-.14*	.16*	.14*	-.19**	-.25**	.17**	.27**	.03	.14*
Turnover	.21	.11			.08	-.07	-.03	.25**	.18**	-.14*	-.38**	.15**	.19**	.03	.08
Tenure	2.56	1.84			.09	.12*	.03	.03	-.04	.08	.23**	.11*	-.10	.01	.09
Depend	3.92	.79			-.18**	.19**	.32**	-.21**	-.22**	.22**	.13*	-.14*	-.19**	.04	.18**
Routine	2.97	.84			.01	-.14*	-.13*	.03	.15*	-.10	-.09	.05	.13*	-.09	.01

Note. N = 310
Cronbach's alphas were italicized at the diagonal, CR (composite reliability), AVE (average variance extracted)
AS (abusive supervision), PJ (procedural justice), IJ (interactional justice), TC (task conflict), RC (relationship conflict), OCBI (organizational citizenship behavior targeting individuals), OCBO (organizational citizenship behavior targeting the organization), WDBI (workplace deviance behavior targeting individuals), WDBO (workplace deviance targeting the organization), EMA (emotion management ability), SP (symbolic patriotism), Size (department size), Tenure (relationship tenure with the current supervisor), Turnover (departmental turnover ratio), Depend (perceived task interdependence), Routine (perceived task routineness)
* p < .05, ** p < .01.

justice (IJ), (4) task conflict (TC), (5) relationship conflict (RC), (6) organizational citizenship behavior targeting individuals (OCBI), (7) organizational citizenship behavior targeting the organization (OCBO), (8) workplace deviance behavior targeting individuals (WDBI), (9) workplace deviance behavior targeting the organization (WDBO), and (10) emotion management ability (EMA).

The basic structural model was nested in the CFA model and included the same ten latent constructs. The model showed a good fit (χ^2 = 8616, df = 4447, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .11), initially suggesting that the hypothesized relationships among constructs provided good approximation of the data. The 90 percent confidence interval of the RMSEA was from .055 to .059. In the structural interaction model, three single-indicator latent interaction terms were added to the structural model, using Ping's two-step latent interaction approach. Those interaction terms were: (1) AS*EMA, (2) PJ*EMA, and (3) IJ*EMA. The model also showed a good fit to the data (χ^2 = 9313, df = 4729, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .09). The 90 percent interval of RMSEA for the structural interaction model was from .057 to .061. Finally, the five single-indicator control variables of task and relationship conflict were added to the structural interaction model: (1) size of the department, (2) relationship tenure with the current supervisor, (3) departmental turnover ratio, (4) perceived task interdependence, and (5) perceived task routineness. The full model including all latent constructs, interaction terms, and control variables demonstrated a good fit to the data (χ^2 = 10361, df = 5214, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .09). For the full model, the 90 percent confidence interval of the RMSEA was from .058 to .061. All following analyses will be based on the full model. More detailed information about the two intermediate models (i.e., basic structural and structural interaction models) can be found in the appendix.

Table 3

Fit Statistics of SEM Models

	df	X^2	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$
CFA	4419	8107**	.954	.054	.057	
Basic Structural	4447	8616**	.947	.057	.108	508**
Structural Interaction	4729	9313**	.943	.059	.085	
Full	5214	10361**	.937	.059	.086	

Note. $N = 310$

Some fit indices are presented up to three decimal points for more precise comparison

Only the basic structural model is nested in the CFA model

The structural interaction model includes AS*EMA, PJ*EMA, and IJ*EMA

The full model includes AS*EMA, PJ*EMA, IJ*EMA, and 5 control variables of conflict

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Six of ten hypotheses of the current study were fully supported, and two were partially supported. Hypothesis 1a and 1b stated that abusive supervision is positively associated with task and relationship conflict. As shown in Table 2, abusive supervision was significantly and positively correlated with task ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) and relationship conflict ($r = .16$, $p < .01$), fully supporting H1a and H1b (standardized structural paths of the CFA model demonstrated almost identical results: .18 and .17, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 2a and 2b stated that the association between abusive supervision and the two types of conflict are mediated by procedural and interactional justice, respectively. Moreover, hypothesis 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b stated that these relationships are moderated by EMA, such that the effects become stronger when EMA decreases. Following Ping's two-step single-indicator latent interaction approach, three interaction terms were added to the basic structural model to test moderation hypotheses. If these interaction terms are shown to significantly predict task and relationship conflict, the moderation hypotheses are supported. If these interaction terms indicate

insignificance, the moderation hypotheses are rejected. The results indicated that the PJ*EMA and IJ*EMA interactions were significant but the AS*EMA interaction was not.

As shown in Figure 4, procedural justice fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict, and this mediation was moderated by EMA. Similarly, interactional justice fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict, and this process was moderated by EMA. Abusive supervision had neither a main nor interaction effect on task and relationship conflict when the two justice perceptions were entered. It is worth mentioning that the main effect of procedural and interactional justice on the two types of conflict were insignificant when the interaction terms (i.e., PJ*EMA and IJ*EMA) were entered into the structural equation.

Figure 5 provides a graphical illustration of the interactions, using simple regressions (Aiken & West, 1991). The data were cut into two groups by their EMA scores: 1 standard deviation above and below the mean. By comparing the regression slopes of high and low groups, the moderation effect of EMA can be more clearly interpreted. As plotted in Figure 5, the regression lines of the high and low EMA groups intersected, suggesting interactions between justice perceptions and EMA. In both conflict types, people with high EMA demonstrated steeper slopes than people with low EMA, indicating that people with high EMA were more sensitive to injustice perception (the slopes for low EMA are not significantly different from zero). Although interaction effects were found, this finding is opposite of what was originally hypothesized. The moderation hypotheses (H4a and H4b) proposed that the effect of justice is stronger in the low EMA group. In other words, the slope should be steeper in the low EMA group than the high EMA group. According to the current study, however, the slopes of the high EMA group were steeper than the low EMA group. I will revisit this in the discussion section.
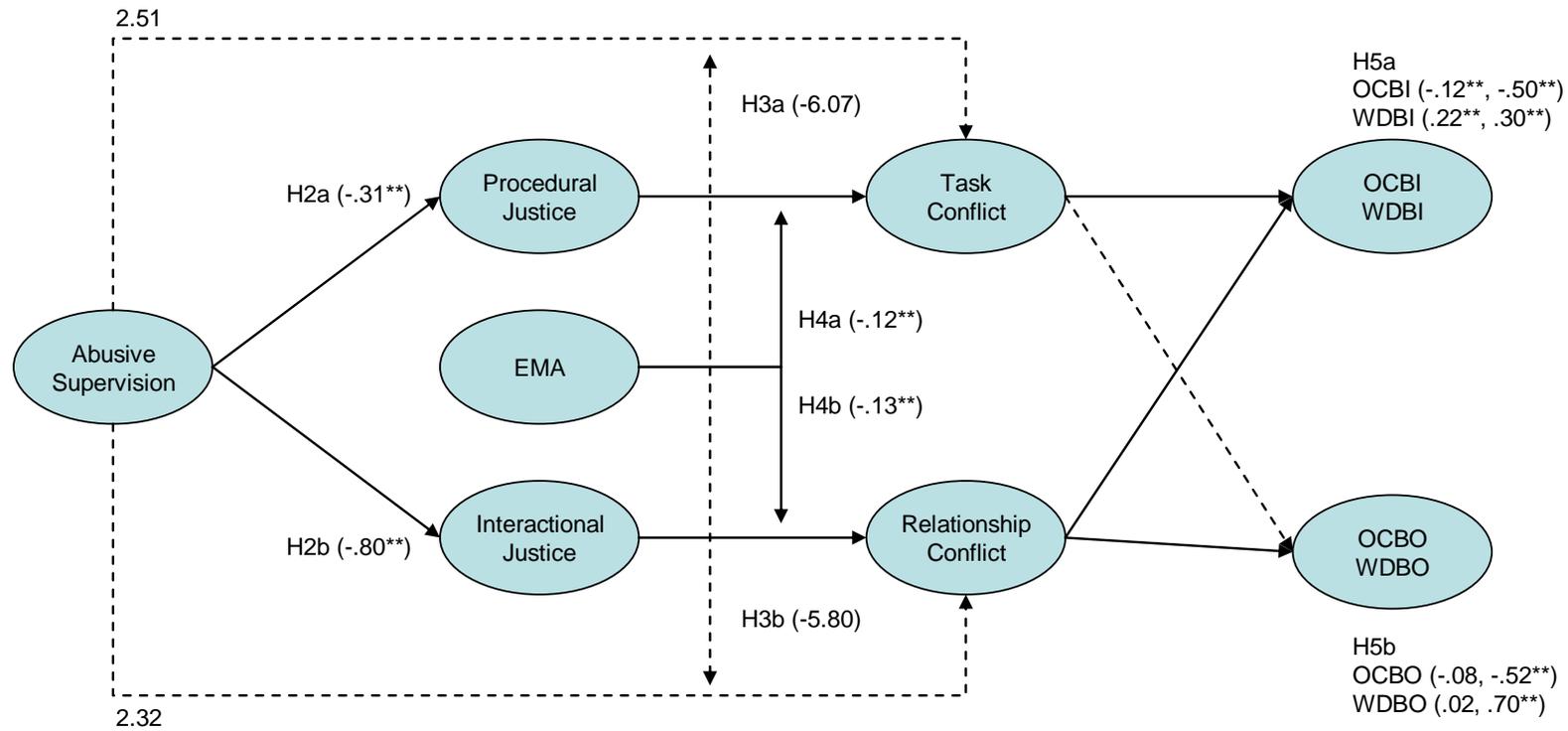
Figure 4. Hypotheses Testing

Note. $N = 310$, EMA (emotional management ability), H1a and 1b are supported with simple correlations and not displayed
Dashed lines refer to nonsignificance, the five control variables are not displayed for the sake of brevity
For OCB and WDB, the first coefficients are for task conflict, and the second coefficients are for relationship conflict
$p < .05$, ** $p < 01$.

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In summation, the mediation hypotheses (H2a and h2b) were fully supported, but the moderation hypotheses of EMA with abusive supervision were rejected (H3a and H3b). The moderation hypotheses of EMA with justice perceptions (H4a and H4b) were partially supported (in the opposite direction).
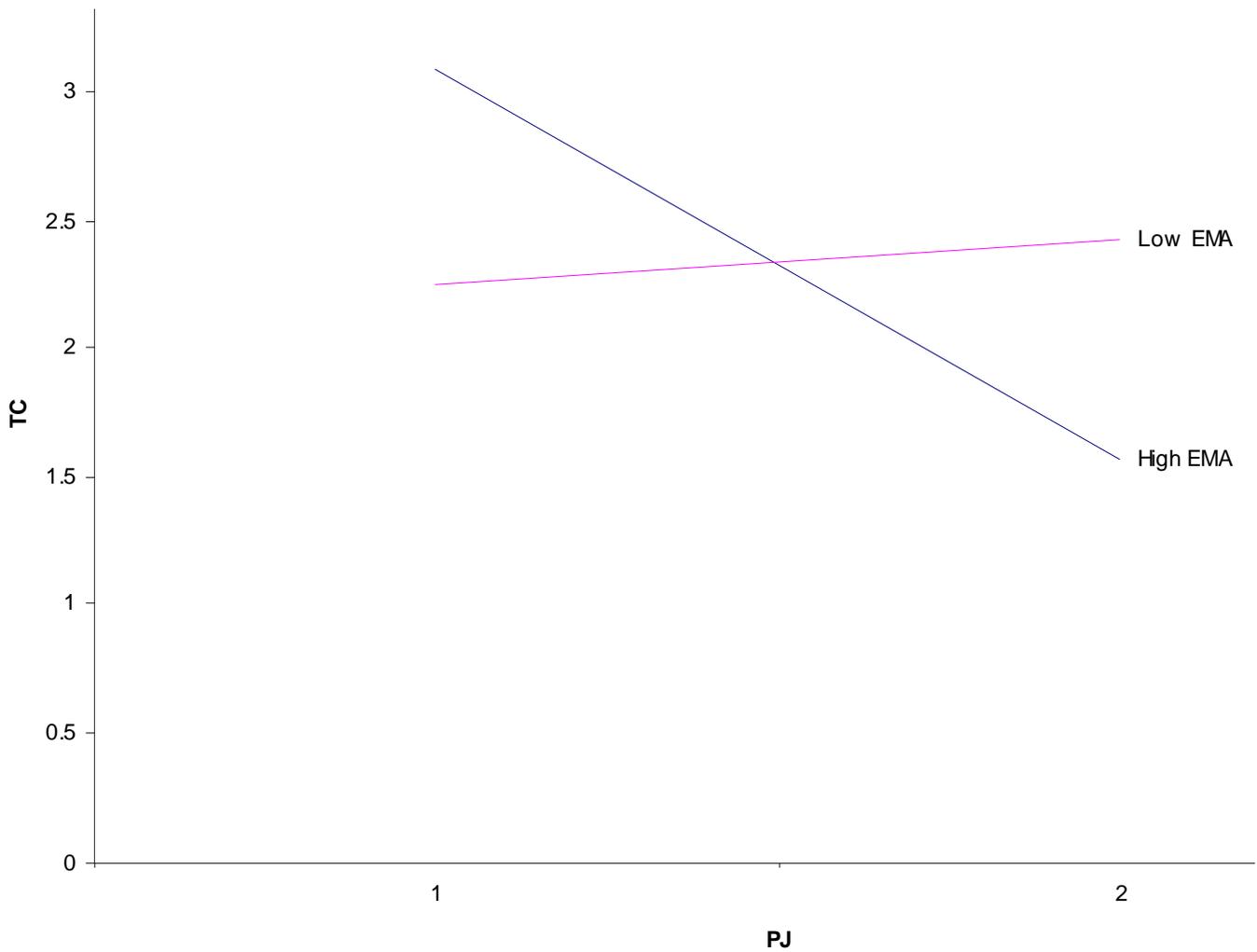
Figure 5. Observed Patterns of Interactions
Note. PJ (procedural justice), IJ (interactional justice), TC (task conflict), and RC (relationship conflict)
High EMA (1 *SD* above the mean), Low EMA (1 *SD* below the mean).
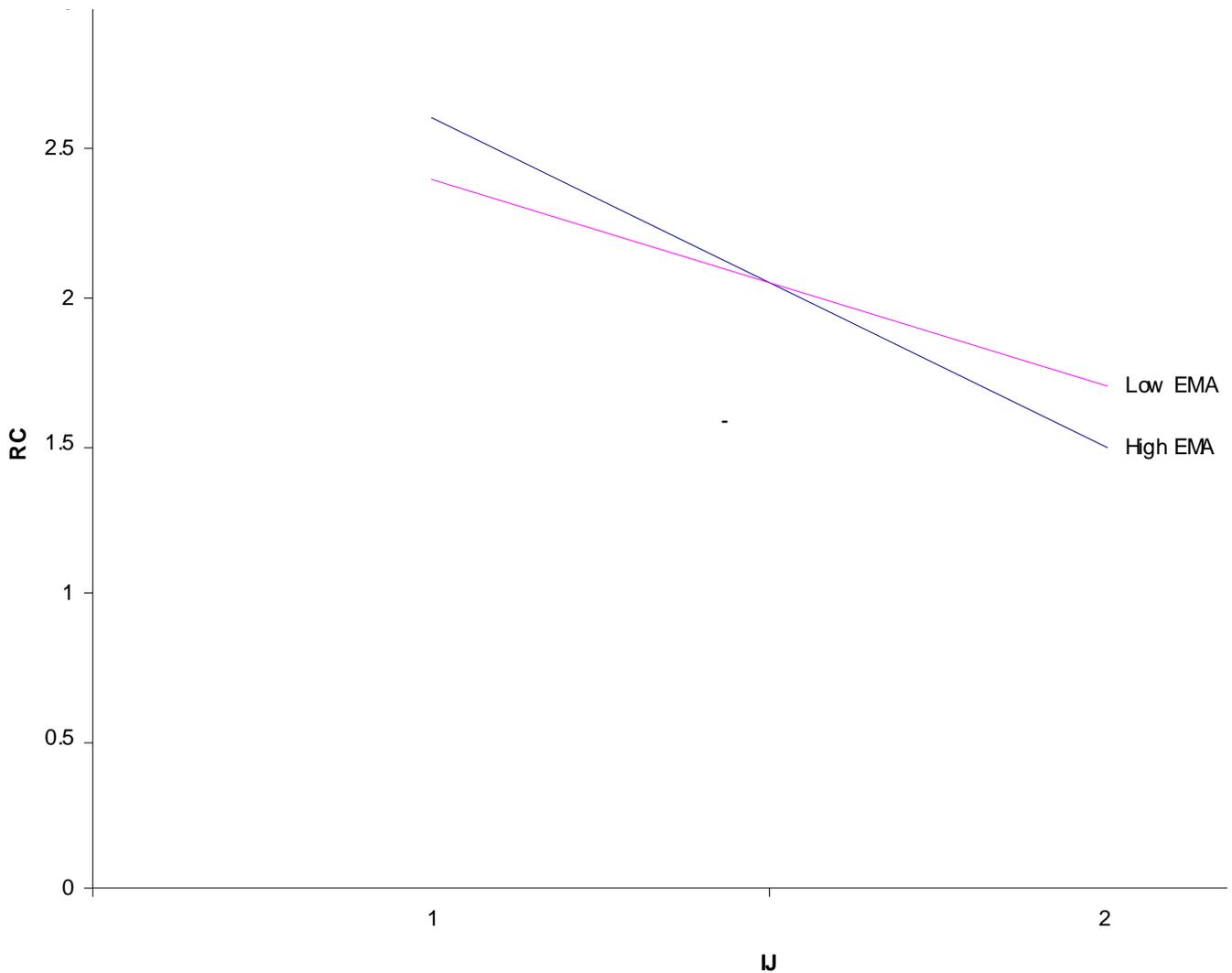
Figure 5 Continued

Finally, hypotheses 5a and 5b stated that task and relationship conflict influence

organizational citizenship and workplace deviance behaviors, such that relationship conflict is

more detrimental to organizational functioning. As shown in Figure 4, both conflict types were

detrimental to organizational functioning by decreasing OCBI and increasing WDBI, and the

influence of relationship conflict was stronger than task conflict. A similar result was found in

OCBO and WDBO in a more dramatic way. Relationship conflict (but not task conflict)

Table 4
Test of Common method Variance

	df	χ^2	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$
Baseline	1950	3677.689**	.936	.059	.061	
Noncongeneric	1949	3673.884**	.937	.059	.061	3.805[NS]
Congeneric	1889	3603.742**	.937	.060	.058	73.947[NS]

Note. $N = 310$
Some fit indices are presented up to three decimal points for more precise comparison
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, NS $p > .05$.

significantly influenced OCBO and WDBO, revealing that relationship conflict is far more

dysfunctional than task conflict. Thus, H5a and H5b received strong support.

4.2 Detection of CMV

To minimize the impact of common method variance (CMV), the current study obtained

predictor variables and outcomes from different sources. Abusive supervision, the two justice

perceptions, and EMA were collected from employees, and the two types of conflict,

organizational citizenship, and workplace deviance behaviors were collected from their

supervisors.

There could be, however, remaining concerns if the CMV inflated (or deflated) the

correlations of variables from the same source. To test the potential effect of common method

variance in the current study, the CFA marker technique was utilized. As mentioned in the

methods section, a three-item measure of symbolic patriotism was included in the employee

survey as a marker variable. Detailed methodology was described in the previous chapter, and it

is not repeated here.

As shown in Table 4, neither CMV detection models (i.e., noncongeneric and congeneric)

were significantly better than the baseline model, providing empirical confidence to the present

study regarding the common method variance issue. The nonsignificant chi square differences suggested that the relationships among the study variables were not significantly affected by CMV. This result adds further strength to the findings of the current study reported in the previous section. Note that the constructs included in the CMV analysis were the four subordinate-measured variables.

V. DISCUSSION

This chapter highlights the theoretical and practical implications of the study findings. Limitations and future research direction are also discussed here. As a recap, the dissertation sought to investigate the antecedents and outcomes of task and relationship conflict. I proposed that abusive supervisory treatment causes both types of conflict, and this process is mediated by subordinates' justice perceptions. Specifically, I expected that procedural justice would mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict, and that interactional justice would mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict. I also hypothesized that the mediation process is moderated by the subordinates' emotion management ability (EMA). Finally, I posited that relationship conflict will result in more detrimental influence on organizational functioning than will task conflict.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

The key implications of the present study are threefold. First, the results of this study suggest that the two types of justice contribute differently to task and relationship conflict. Procedural justice fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict, and interactional justice fully mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict. Subordinates experience feelings of injustice when subject to abusive supervisory treatment, and in turn, these injustice perceptions lead to subordinates engagement in a higher level of conflict with their supervisors. Specifically, subordinates tend to disagree with the supervisor's ideas (i.e., task conflict) when they feel the treatment is about the fairness of the

process and procedure of decision-making. On the other hand, when they feel personal insults or disrespect in relations with their supervisor, these feelings tend to be channeled through emotional clashes with their supervisor (i.e., relationship conflict).

This finding is intriguing because it implies that the major cause of relationship conflict is subordinates' perceptions of personal care and dignity rather than perceptions of the fairness of decision-making processes. In other words, the more destructive form of conflict (i.e., relationship conflict) can be reduced largely by fostering respectful supervisory treatment in organizations. Furthermore, subordinates' fairness perceptions of decision-making processes demonstrate a relatively small contribution to relationship conflict, suggesting that relationship conflict does not significantly decrease by promoting the fairness of organizational processes.

It is worth mentioning that abusive supervision shares 16 percent of variance with procedural justice and 45 percent of variance with interactional justice, suggesting that being abusive does not always mean unfair. For instance, the feeling of injustice would not occur when subordinates perceive their performance deserves negative comments from the supervisor, they become accustomed to the supervisor's unkind words, or they trust that the supervisor should respect and treat them justly in spite of his/her seemingly abusive supervisory style. In these cases, subordinates would cause little conflict with their supervisors, although the supervisors are in fact abusive in their management style. Supervisors sometimes use abusive words and strong gestures that are often categorized as abusive supervision. The finding of this study suggests that such words and deeds might not always cause a backlash from subordinates if supervisors can lessen the negative connotation associated with those behaviors.

The second implication relates to the social enhancement effect of emotion management in the workplace. Results indicate that the emotion management ability (EMA) moderates the relationship between justice perceptions and conflict. Subordinates with a higher EMA tend to be

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more sensitive to injustice perceptions. This finding is opposite of what was proposed. The moderation hypotheses (H3 and H4) proposed that individuals with a higher EMA would be less sensitive to injustice perceptions than their counterparts with lower EMA. The key reasoning behind this proposition stipulated that subordinates should refrain from expressing negative emotions to supervisors, and thereby the subordinates with a higher EMA would be more successful in regulating their feelings of unfairness. However, the findings of the present study suggest that the moderating role of EMA is more complicated than what was originally proposed.

Subordinates with higher EMA experience more task and relationship conflict than subordinates with lower EMA when the situation is considered unfair. When the situation becomes more favorable, the level of task and relationship conflict drops more sharply for subordinates with higher EMA. Conversely, the conflict level of people with a lower EMA is relatively unchanged throughout the situations. Consequently, the subordinates with a higher EMA engage in less conflict than their lower counterparts only when the situation is deemed to be fair.

This finding is provocative because it implies that people with a higher EMA are more responsive and reciprocating in social exchanges. A question would emerge from this finding. Is being reciprocating what you receive a smart thing to do in social situations? Social exchange and negotiation researchers say it is. Blau (1964) posited that social exchanges are governed by a rational process, referred to as reciprocity norms, whereby individuals feel obligated to pay back the favors they receive or to get even for the mistreatment they receive. Pruitt and Kimmel (1977) also proposed that constructive mutual cooperation occurs only when a party learns that opportunistic behavior is hopeless because the other party will not tolerate it, and that one must reciprocate the other party's favors with one's own favors. This is common ground in game theory and prisoner's dilemma (PD) research (Sheldon, 1999). For instance, Van Lange and

Visser (1999) found that a tit-for-tat strategy outperforms both cooperative and noncooperative strategies in the long-term. In iterative multi-party PD game situations, they observed that a tit-for-tat partner (i.e., behaviorally reciprocating noncooperative behavior when the other party engages in noncooperative behavior, and vice versa) yields the highest outcomes and also educes an advantageous side effect of repelling those who tend to seek a noncooperative strategy. Likewise, Yamagishi and his colleagues (Yamagishi, Kanazawa, Mashima, & Terai, 2005) found that the highest outcome is achieved in a series of PD simulations when a party adjusts one's trust level accordingly with the other party's behavior.

The finding of the present study suggests that people with a high EMA follow the rational process of reciprocity norms more closely than their lower counterparts. They are more likely to repay the favors that they have received from the supervisor and organization by engaging in less task and relationship conflict. At the same time, however, they are also the people who tended to repay mistreatment they have experienced by engaging in higher levels of task and relationship conflict.

The last implication of the present study is that it provides solid evidence that relationship conflict is far more destructive in organizations than task conflict. Compared to task conflict, which primarily refers to disagreement regarding ideas, relationship conflict is proposed to be especially dysfunctional because of its negative interpersonal component. The four outcomes that were tested in the present study (i.e., OCBI, OCBO, WDBI, and WDBO) unanimously support the anticipated stronger damaging effect of relationship conflict on organizational functioning. Particularly, task conflict shows no influence on the two organization-referenced outcomes (OCBO and WDBO) and a substantially smaller effect on the two individual-referenced outcomes (OCBI and WDBI) than relationship conflict. This finding is a worthwhile contribution to the conflict literature because the empirical support about the more detrimental effect of

relationship conflict has been equivocal. The present study clearly reveals that relationship

conflict constitutes a far more damaging threat to organizational functioning than does task

conflict.

5.2 Practical Implications

The finding that abusive supervision might not always entail conflict in some situations

may be surprising news to managers and consultants. In this study, abusive supervision shares 16

percent of variance with procedural justice and 45 percent with interactional justice (see Table 2),

suggesting that there is considerable room for managers to be abusive but fair. In the real world,

it is not uncommon to find hot-tempered sports coaches, violent military leaders, belligerent

factory foremen, and dictatorial college professors who successfully lead their teams, squads,

groups, and students. The finding of this study suggests that abusive supervisory style coupled

with interpersonal unfair treatment does the worst to organizational functioning.

The finding that people with high emotion-management ability are more sensitive to

unfair treatment should be eye-opening for EI practitioners who acknowledge the benefit of a

higher emotional ability. People with a high emotional ability are believed to be better

organizational members because they recognize, use, understand, and regulate their own and

others' emotions more effectively. Based on this premise, a growing number of organizations

have adopted some forms of emotion-related tests in their selection and placement processes

(Day & Carroll, 2008). The result of this study, however, indicates that the situation is not that

straightforward. People with a high EMA do create less conflict than their lower counterparts.

Yet, this is true only when they think that they are treated fairly in the organization. If they

consider themselves to be treated unfairly, people with high EMA are more likely to strike back

by engaging in more conflict. In other words, organizations would experience more conflict by

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hiring personnel higher in EMA if organizational processes and interpersonal treatment are unfair. In this vein, people with high emotion ability are more like double-edged swords rather than silent and loyal members to the organization. Thus, selecting high EMA performers for groups, teams, and organization is particularly beneficial in organizations with fair practices and supervisors.

Lastly, managers are often concerned that any type of conflict within teams and organizations would cause a loss of employee morale and deterioration of organizational performance (Jehn, 1995). Those concerns often have managers suppress any potential for disagreement and argument within the group. This study reconfirms that conflict decreases employee helping behaviors and increases deviant behaviors. There is a caveat, however, that relationship conflict (e.g., personality clashes and attitude problems) is far more damaging to organizational functioning. Task conflict (e.g., disagreement in ideas and opinions) shows little negative impact on employees' behavior to benefit organizations and therefore is substantially less damaging to organizational functioning. Thus, HR practitioners ought to deal with conflict, rather than fearing it.

5.3 Limitations and Future Direction

I want to mention a few methodological strengths of the present study before acknowledging its limitations. First, it utilized a rigorous statistical procedure to test its moderated mediation hypotheses by adopting Ping's MSEM approach. Moreover, the present study met sample size required for power and significance levels for testing relatively complex SEM models. Second, the predictor and outcome variables were measured from different sources (i.e., subordinates and supervisors) at different time points. Third, the CFA marker technique was utilized to detect any potential CMV threat in the variables from the same source. Fourth, all

measures used in this study were pretested in a pilot study to assure their psychometric properties and basic relationships, lending additional confidence to the results of the study. Fifth, the response rate of the present study was higher than 70 percent for subordinates and was 100 percent for supervisors, which largely relaxed concerns about the issue of nonresponse bias. Finally, the cross-cultural nature of this study contributes additional value to the generalizability of conflict literature.

The contribution of the present study, however, must be appreciated within its limitations. First, the low reliability (alpha = .52) of the STEM (for measuring EMA) raises some skepticism about the findings associated with this construct. Such a reliability issue was also present in other studies using the same measure. For instance, MacCann and Roberts (2008) reported an alpha of .68 using a general public sample. Interestingly enough, the measure did not demonstrate a reliability problem in the pilot study (alpha = .75) where a majority of participants were graduate students and their friends. Neither the pilot nor the main study collected education-related information from the participants, and therefore the actual levels of education for both studies are unknown. Nevertheless, a large number of participants in the pilot study were drawn from the e-mail list of the Korean students who studied in a large public university in the southern U.S. (probably graduate students), and it may be reasonable to expect that the pilot study participants on average received a higher level of education than the hospital workers who participated in the main study. Conceivably, the reliability difference between the pilot study and main study may be attributable to diffeences in the level of education. It is likely that respondents with a higher education comprehended the meaning of items better, and hence answered the questions in a more consistent manner. This issue deserves future research utilizing multiple samples from divergent sources with different scoring schemes (e.g., rate-the-extent and consensus scoring).

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The high correlation between task and relationship conflict renders some caution to interpret the unique contribution of each type of conflict to outcomes. Task and relationship conflict were correlated .47 in the pilot study where the constructs were measured by self-reports. The correlation between the two conflict types increased to .71 in the main study where the constructs were measured by other-ratings from supervisors. Perhaps, the correlation inflation occurred because self-reports and other-ratings tap different segments of the phenomenon. Self-reports tend to include motives, needs, and self-reconstruction of the situations. Other-ratings, on the other hand, are primarily based on observable words and behaviors of the person, and hence other-ratings would be less likely to discern the subtle difference between task and relationship conflict. The issue of high correlation between the two constructs is in fact a well-known phenomenon in the field. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) reported an average correlation of .54 between the constructs in their meta-analytic study. The present study demonstrated good convergent and discriminant validity in its measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis (although not reported, the alternative CFA with the two conflict merged into one demonstrated a significantly worse fit than the original model). Furthermore, the differing relationships between the two types of conflict and outcome variables lend additional support that the two conflict types are indeed correlated but different constructs nonetheless. Future studies may be able to overcome this issue by measuring the two constructs from different sources or at different points of time.

Any relationships in the present study do not prove causality even though the predictor and outcome sides of the model were measured at different time points. An extensive commitment is required to verify causal relationships such as laboratory experiments or dedicated longitudinal designs. The present study is a field study. The study model which was tested here is one possibility among many other models that might be equally plausible. For

instance, EMA could moderate the relationship between conflict and outcomes, or there could be a reciprocal relationship between the two types of conflict. Such a respecification of models provides fertile soil for future research.

Finally, the sample of this study was drawn from one organization in the healthcare industry. The generalizability of its findings, therefore, should be verified through repetition using various samples from multiple organizations and divergent industries. For example, service workers (e.g., flight attendants and teachers), high-stress jobs (e.g., military and firefighters), or team-oriented professions (e.g., sports and consulting teams) might provide further insight as a future avenue for research. Ultimately, the findings and nonfindings of the present study remain open for discussion in future studies, and further examination of the phenomenon is always warranted.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation investigated antecedents and outcomes of task and relationship conflict in a field study setting using a structural equation approach. Its purpose was to examine (1) unique predictors of task and relationship conflict using abusive supervision and the justice framework, (2) the moderating role of emotion management ability in predicting the two conflict types, and (3) the more detrimental effect of relationship conflict on various workplace outcomes such as organizational citizenship and workplace deviance behaviors. The results demonstrated that procedural justice fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and task conflict, and interactional justice fully mediated the relationship between abusive supervision and relationship conflict. Moreover, the mediation processes were moderated by individuals' emotion management ability, such that individuals with higher emotion management ability tended to be more sensitive to repaying their feelings of injustice. The more detrimental effect of relationship conflict on workplace outcomes received strong support, such that task conflict showed no negative impact on organization-referenced outcomes and a substantially smaller impact on individual-referenced outcomes. While the findings presented in this study are by no means conclusive, the current study casts new light on the cause and effect of conflict in organizations. I hope that this dissertation contributes to the advancement of the field of conflict research.

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APPENDIX A
SUBORDINATE SURVEY (KOREAN)

Introduction

안녕하십니까? 바쁜 시간 중에서도 이렇게 저희 설문에 참여해 주심에 고개 숙여 감사 드립니다.

이 설문은 의료기관 종사자의 직장 내 스트레스 요인과 업무활동에 관한 연구를 목적으로 작성되었습니다. 저희는 특히 직원의 감성 지능지수가 스트레스와 업무활동에 미치는 영향을 살펴보려 합니다. 감성 지능지수란 일반 지능지수 (IQ)와 대비되는 새로운 연구 분야로서, 개인의 대인관계 및 사회생활과 밀접한 관련이 있을 것으로 주목 받고 있는 주제입니다. 이 설문은 총 5 페이지이며 90%의 참가자가 15분 이내에 끝마칠 수 있도록 설계되었습니다.

본 연구의 핵심은, 상사 (수간호사나 부서장)가 평가한 직원별 대인관계 설문점수와 여러분이 작성하실 스트레스 및 감성지수 설문점수를 개인별로 매칭 시키는데 있습니다. 따라서 상사와 부하 직원을 정확히 매칭 시키기 위해, 여러분의 근무 부서와 성함을 아는 것이 극히 중요합니다.

본 연구는 루이지아나 주립대학 연구윤리 위원회(Institutional Review Board)의 윤리 규정을 철저히 준수하고 있으며, 참가자의 개인 신상 정보를 엄격히 보호합니다. 본 설문을 통해 수집된 모든 정보는 통계 처리를 거쳐 오직 학술적 목적의 연구 데이터로만 사용될 뿐, 참가자의 직장 경영층이나 상사, 동료, 혹은 부하직원을 포함한 그 누구에게도 결코 공개되지 않습니다. 개인 정보 보호와 연구 윤리 규정 준수에 관한 의문점이 있으시면, stresseq@lsu.edu로 메일 주십시오.

설문에 참여해 주심에 다시 한번 진심으로 감사 드립니다.

Demographics

1. 설문에 참여하시겠습니까?
예   아니오

2. 부서명 (상사 설문과 부하 설문을 매칭 시키기 위해 반드시 필요합니다. 개인 신상은 절대 공개되지 않으며 그 어떠한 개인 식별 정보도 직장이나 상사, 동료 등에게 제공되지 않습니다.)

31 병동	검진센터
41 병동	관리부
51 병동	물리치료실
61 병동	심사.기록부
마취과	영상의학과
수술실	원무부
외래	진단 검사의학과
응급실	총무부
중환자실	기타

3. 이름 (상사 설문과 부하 설문을 매칭 시키기 위해 반드시 필요합니다. 개인 신상은 절대 공개되지 않으며 그 어떠한 개인 식별 정보도 직장이나 상사, 동료 등에게 제공되지 않습니다.)

4. E-Mail (원치 않으시면 안 적으셔도 상관 없습니다. 메일은 혹시 이후 설문과 관련한 알림사항이 있을 경우에만 사용하며, 루이지아나 주립대학 연구 윤리 규정에 따라 절대 타인에게 공개되거나 스팸메일 발송 등에 이용되지 않습니다.)

5. 성별
남성   여성

6. 나이 (만 나이를 숫자로 적어 주세요. 예: 21, 48, 59 등)

7. 당신은 이 상사 밑에서 얼마 동안 근무 하셨습니까? [Relationship Tenure]

8. 당신의 일상 업무에 있어, 이 상사의 역할이 중요한 편 입니까? [Task Interdependence]

9. 당신의 일상 업무는 창의성이 필요한 편 입니까? [Task Routineness]

Procedural Justice
다음으로, 근무 중인 부서 내의 전반적 관리 분위기에 대한 당신의 의견을 알아 보고자 합니다.

나에게 영향을 줄 수 있는 부서 내의 결정사항이 있을 경우, _____
1. 의사결정 단계에서 내 의견이나 생각을 표명할 수 있다
2. 의사결정에 내 입장을 반영할 수 있다
3. 의사결정은 일관성 있는 절차에 따라 이루어진다
4. 의사결정은 공정한 절차에 따라 이루어진다
5. 의사결정은 정확한 사실에 근거를 두고 이루어진다
6. 결정사항에 관해 반론을 제기할 수 있다
7. 의사결정 절차는 건전한 윤리와 도덕에 기초하고 있다

Interactional Justice (Korean)
지금부터는 현재 직장 상사에 대한 당신의 생각을 알아 보고자 합니다 간호사 분들의 경우, 현재 일하고 계신 병동이나 부서의 수간호사를 평가 대상으로 삼아 주십시오. 다른 부서 근무자께서는 해당 부서의 부서장을 평가 대상으로 삼아 주십시오. 먼저, 당신의 직장 상사의 관리 스타일에 대해 알아 보고자 합니다.

내 상사는 _____
1. 내게 개인적인 배려를 해 준다
2. 나를 인간적으로 존중해 준다
3. 나의 개인적 문제에 신경을 써 준다
4. 나를 진실되게 대한다
5. 나의 권익을 지켜 주려 노력한다
6. 어떤 결정사항이 있을 경우, 내게 그 의미를 설명해 준다
7. 어떤 결정사항이 있을 경우, 내게 그 배경에 관해 알려 준다
8. 어떤 결정사항이 있을 경우, 내가 알아 들을 수 있도록 설명을 해 준다
9. 어떤 결정사항이 있을 경우, 내게 확실하게 가르쳐 준다

Abusive Supervision
다음은 당신의 직장 상사의 리더십 스타일에 관한 질문입니다

내 상사는 _____
1. 나를 바보취급한다
2. 나보고 생각이 없고 감각이 떨어진다고 말하곤 한다
3. 나를 푸대접한다
4. 남들 다 있는 데서 내게 창피를 준다
5. 내 개인적 문제에까지 간섭하려 한다
6. 나의 옛날 실수나 잘못을 꼬투리 잡는다
7. 열심히 일을 해 줘도 내 노력을 몰라 준다
8. 곤란한 일이 생기면 괜히 내 탓을 한다
9. 약속을 어긴다

10. 나하고는 관계없는 일인데도 나에게 성질을 부린다
11. 나에 관해 남들에게 나쁘게 말하고 다닌다
12. 나에게 무례하게 대한다
13. 내가 다른 동료들과 친목을 도모하는 꼴을 못 본다
14. 나보고 능력부족이라고 지적하곤 한다
15. 나에게 거짓말을 한다

Emotion Management Ability
사례를 잘 읽고, 당신이 판단하기에 가장 상황에 적절하다고 생각되는 행동을 골라 주십시오.

1. 박지훈씨는 함께 일하고 있는 동료가 중요한 자료를 제 시간까지 준비하지 못하는 바람에, 자신의 업무 일정에도 차질을 빚고 말았다. 그렇다면, 박지훈씨가 취할 수 있는 대책으로 다음 중 가장 유용하다고 생각되는 행동은?
a) 스케줄이 늦춰지는 만큼 더 열심히 일해서 일정에 맞추기로 한다
b) 그 동료에게 화를 낸다
c) 자신이 시간이 부족한 상황이라는 점을 그 동료에게 알아듣게 설명한다
d) 그 동료를 다시는 믿지 않기로 한다

2. 최근에 김미영씨는 직장을 그만두고 전업주부가 되었다. 좋은 아내와 어머니가 된 것에 몹시 행복했지만, 문득 옛 직장과 친하게 지내던 동료들이 보고싶어지기도 한다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 김미영씨에게 가장 유용할 것이라고 생각되는 행동은?
a) 그냥 전업주부로서의 삶에 만족하기로 한다
b) 옛 동료들에게 연락해 직장 밖에서 따로 만난다
c) 자기 같은 젊은 어머니들이 주로 모이는 동호회나 동네모임에 나간다
d) 아르바이트 할 새 직장을 구해본다

3. 이수영씨는 함께 일하는 동료들에 비해 뛰어난 업무능력을 가졌다. 그런데 그는 그 사실 때문에 자신에게 남들보다 훨씬 과중한 업무가 배당되곤 한다고 느끼곤 한다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 이수영씨가 취할 수 있는 행동으로 가장 유용한 것은?
a) 상사와 이 문제에 대해 이야기를 나누어 본다
b) 다른 직장을 찾아본다
c) 자신의 탁월한 업무능력을 아주 자랑스럽게 여기기로 마음 먹는다
d) 다른 동료들에게 자신의 생각을 말해본다

4. 몇년 동안이나 사이좋게 사무실을 함께 쓰던 동료가 직장을 옮긴 뒤, 최희정씨는 그녀와 한동안 서로 소식이 뜸해지고 말았다. 그렇다면, 다음중 최희정씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 그 관계는 거기서 끝난 것으로 간주한다
b) 그 동료에게 전화를 걸어 점심이나 커피를 함께 하기로 한다
c) 옆 사무실 사람들과 어울려보고 그중 마음에 드는 사람들과 친구로 사귄다
d) 떠난 동료에게 연락을 해 보는 한편, 새로 사무실을 함께 쓰게 된 동료와도 친하게 지낸다

5. 정년퇴직이 몇년 남지 않은 원창수씨는 최근 자신이 담당하고 있는 부서가 회사에서 곧 없어질 것이라는 소식을 들었다. 회사에서는 그가 원한다면 현재보다 낮은 직급에서 계속 일하게 해 줄 수 있다고 말했다. 그렇다면, 다음중 원창수씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 현재의 자신에게 가능한 모든 대안을 가족과 함께 상의해본다
b) 상사나 경영진에게 이 문제를 호소한다
c) 입맛은 쓰지만 그대로 상황을 받아들이기로 한다
d) 당장 그 직장을 그만둔다

6. 김상범씨는 좋은 마음으로 어려운 업무에 고생하는 한 직장 동료를 도와 주었다. 그런데 그 동료는 그가 일에 정작 별로 도움이 안된다며 투덜댔다. 울컥한 김상범씨는 도와준 것만도 감사한 줄 알라며 응수했고, 두 사람은 서로 말다툼을 하게 되었다. 그렇다면, 다음중 김상범씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 도와주는 것을 그만두고 앞으로는 그냥 내버려둔다
b) 도움이 되기 위해 좀 더 분발한다
c) 도움이 못 되어 미안하다고 그 동료에게 사과한다
d) 마음을 가라앉히고 그럼 어떻게 하면 좀 더 도움이 될지 그 동료에게 물어본다

7. 장소희씨는 최근 새 직장에 다니게 되었다. 아는 사람이 하나도 없는데다 상냥하게 그녀를 챙겨주는 동료도 없어서, 그녀는 스트레스를 받고 있다. 그렇다면, 다음중 장소희씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 직장 밖 친구들과 따로 즐거운 시간을 갖는다
b) 새 직장의 업무에 전념한다
c) 스스로 다른 동료들에게 다가가 말을 걸고 인사를 튼다
d) 그 직장을 그만두고 분위기가 나은 다른 곳을 찾아본다

8. 고위 경영진 앞에서 신규 업무 분야에 대해 발표하게된 정연수씨는 요즘 염려가 이만저만이 아니다. 워낙 새로운 분야이다보니 경영진이 발표 내용을 따라오지 못할까 특히 걱정이다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 정연수씨에게 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 다 잘 될 것이라 낙관적으로 자신한다
b) 그냥 준비된 대로 발표한다
c) 발표 내용을 보다 쉽고 간결하게 만들기 위해 노력한다
d) 친구나 가족을 대상으로 예행연습을 해 본다

9. 문진혁씨는 최근 친구나 가족들과는 멀리 떨어진 지역으로 이사를 가게 되었다. 그런데, 한참이 지났는데도 친구들은 의외로 연락을 통 해오지를 않는다. 그렇다면, 다음중 문진혁씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 이사간 곳 근처에서 관심 가는 모임이나 일에 참여하며 새 고장에 적응한다
b) 자기가 먼저 친구들에게 연락을 해보는 한편, 새 고장의 친구도 사귀도록 한다
c) 우정이 식은 것으로 보이는 그 옛 친구들과는 관계를 정리한다
d) 친구들에게 어떻게 연락 한 번 안 하냐며 인간적으로 실망이라고 말한다

10. 조한나씨가 맡고 있는 팀은 지금까지 탁월한 업무성과를 유지해 왔다. 그런데 최근 중요한 프로젝트를 함께 하고 있는 다른 부서에서 보내온 작업 수준이 영 그녀의 마음에 차지를 않았다. 프로젝트를 성공적으로 마치려면 꼭 필요한 것이라 조한나씨는 어찌할까 고민하고 있다. 그렇다면, 다음중 조한나씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 고민해 봐야 소용 없으니 그냥 잊는다
b) 다시 제대로 해오라고 상대 부서에 말한다
c) 이 프로젝트를 총괄하고 있는 회사 상급자에게 문제에 관해 알린다
d) 상대 부서가 해놓은 작업은 그냥 무시하고 자신의 팀에서 아예 처음부터 새로 다 해버린다

11. 윤철우씨는 외국에서 아주 오랫동안 체류하다 최근 가족들을 보러 귀국했다. 그런데 다시 만난 가족들이 그동안 너무 많이 변해서 그는 왠지 그들로부터 소외감을 느꼈다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 윤철우씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 별 일 아니니 좀 지나면 괜찮아 질 것이라 여긴다
b) 가족들에게 왠지 소외된 기분이 든다고 말한다
c) 시간을 갖고 감을 찾을 때까지 가족들의 대화에 귀를 기울인다
d) 인간관계란 세월에 따라 변할 수 있음을 받아들인다

12. 황준구씨는 아주 좋은 조건으로 외국에 있는 회사에 취직이 되었다. 사이가 정말로 좋았던 일가친척들과 서로 못 보게 된다는 것이 문제였지만, 황준구씨와 그의 아내는 얼마 후 해외 이민을 갈 생각이다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 황준구씨에게 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 안 갈 것이었다면 애시당초 지원도 안 했을 것이라고 생각한다
b) 친척들과 정기적으로 연락할 수 있는 방법을 찾는다
c) 이번 변화가 가져다 줄 장점들에 초점을 맞춘다
d) 그 외국 회사에 가지 않기로 한다

13. 장비 관리부서에서 나온 젊은 신참 직원이 유민영씨 때문에 장비가 자꾸만 고장난다고 그에게 툴툴거렸다. 그렇다면, 다음중 유민영씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 남 탓하지 말라고 신참을 꾸짖는다
b) 별로 중요한 일도 아니니 그냥 웃고 넘어간다
c) 자신때문에 장비가 고장나는 것이 아님을 충분히 설명한다
d) 장비 사용법을 더 자세히 익힌다

14. 오혜영씨는 친한 친척들이 위독해 단체로 병원에 실려 갔다는 전화를 받았다. 그렇다면, 다음중 오혜영씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 기분이 좀 나아질 때까지 한바탕 운다
b) 다른 가족들에게 전화를 걸어 상황을 정리해 보고 나서 친척들이 입원한 병원으로 향한다
c) 할 수 있는 일이 없으니 그대로 있는다
d) 당장 병원으로 달려가 의사에게 친척들의 용태를 확인한다

15. 민준서씨는 학교 공부를 본격적으로 다시 시작하게 되었다. 그러다 보니 시간도 없고 돈도 모자라, 그는 제법 상당한 실력이었던 검도를 그만두어야 했다. 학교 공부도 보람 있었지만, 그는 문득 운동이 하고 싶어질 때가 많았다. 그렇다면, 다음중 민준서씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 학교에 다니기로 했으니 학업에 전념한다
b) 공부에 좀 덜 부담이 될만한 다른 스포츠를 찾아 즐긴다
c) 학업과 레크리에이션 중 뭐가 더 중요한지 잘 생각해 본다
d) 학교에 검도부 학생이 받을 수 있는 운동 장학금이 없는지 알아 본다

16. 임태호씨는 회사를 몇년 다니다 뒤늦게 대학에 입학했다. 상큼하고 똑똑해 보이는 젊은이들과 자신이 경쟁이 될지 그는 염려가 크다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 임태호씨에게 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 학교 밖의 삶에 치중한다
b) 절대 결석하지 않고 열심히 공부한다
c) 자신과 상황이 비슷한 다른 사람들과 대화를 나눈다
d) 자신이 나이가 많은 만큼 인생 경험도 더 많으니 어린 학생들보다 훨씬 나을 것이라 생각한다

17. 나현숙씨는 그녀가 예전 제일 귀여워해 주었던 조카와 몇 개월만에 통화를 했다. 그런데 그녀의 전화를 받은 그 조카는 통화를 5분 정도 밖엔 못한다고 했다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 나현숙씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 조카는 이제 다 컸고 친척들에게는 별로 관심이 없다고 여기기로 한다
b) 시간을 내어 조카를 직접 방문해서 이야기를 나눈다
c) 사람 사이의 관계란 변하기 마련이니 가끔씩 조카에게 전화를 걸어 안부를 묻는 것으로 위안을 삼는다
d) 조카에게 화는 나지만 어쩔 수 없는 일로 여긴다

18. 지금껏 이호준씨가 전담해 왔던 어느 고객이 있었다. 그런데 그 고객이 가져온 특별히 복잡한 새 의뢰에 대해, 그의 상사가 다른 직원을 지목해 대신 일을 맡게 했다. 이호준씨는 상사가 자기 능력을 무시하는 것이 아닌가 하는 생각이 자꾸만 든다. 그렇다면, 다음중 이호준씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 지금도 잘 하고 있으니 다음 번에는 큰 일을 줄 것이라 믿는다
b) 현재 업무를 열심히 처리하여 다음에는 꼭 큰 일을 맡도록 노력한다

c) 상사에게 자신이 아닌 다른 직원에게 그 업무를 할당한 특별한 이유가 있었는지 알아본다
d) 같은 일이 반복되지 않는 한 크게 염려할 필요가 없다고 생각한다

19. 김양현씨가 외국에 장기 체류하고 있는 동안 그만 아버지가 오래 앓아 오셨던 지병으로 돌아가시고 말았다. 그렇다면, 다음중 김양현씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 가족들과 연락을 취하면서 슬픔을 달랜다
b) 그 사실은 잊고 최선을 다해 일상 생활을 계속한다
c) 아버지의 임종을 지키지 못한데 대해 스스로 자책한다
d) 아버지를 잃었다는 사실이 자신의 인생에 어떤 의미인지 곰곰히 되새겨본다

20. 최희연씨와 그녀의 올케는 평소 사이가 참 좋은 편이다. 그래서 그녀가 외출할 때는 대개 올케가 집에 와서 아기를 대신 봐 주곤 한다. 그런데 최근에 올케가 최희연씨에게, 왜 이렇게 집을 엉망으로 해 놓고 사느냐고 하면서 그래서 자기가 청소를 좀 했는데 거미줄까지 있더라고 핀잔을 주었다. 최희연씨는 기분이 썩 좋지 않았다. 그렇다면, 다음중 최희연씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 올케에게 아무리 그래도 그런 말은 기분 나쁘다고 솔직히 말한다
b) 아기를 맡길 다른 사람을 구한다
c) 공짜로 청소까지 받았으니 고마운 일이라고 생각하기로 한다
d) 올케에게 아기만 봐주면 되지 다음부터 청소는 하지 말라고 말한다

21. 안정만씨는 다니는 회사가 요즘 상태가 썩 좋지 못하고 자신의 일자리도 상당히 위태롭다는 것을 강하게 느끼곤 한다. 워낙 큰 회사인지라 아직 공식적으로 무슨 발표가 있었던 것은 아니지만, 그는 영 불안하다. 그렇다면, 다음중 안정만씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 무슨 일이 있을지 최대한 알아 보고 가족과 상의한다
b) 회사가 살아 남을 수 있도록 열심히 일한다
c) 다른 직장을 찾아 구직활동을 시작한다
d) 현재의 상황은 새출발 할 수 있는 좋은 기회라고 생각한다

22. 홍수진씨는 최근 작은 회사에서 큰 회사로 옮겼다. 큰 회사이다보니 직원들이 서로 잘 모르고 지내는 편 이었는데, 그녀는 그 점이 좀 불만이다. 그렇다면, 홍수진씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 직장 동료들과 이야기를 트고 서로 친구가 되기 위해 노력한다
b) 분위기가 좋은 다른 직장으로 이직을 고려한다
c) 좀 기다리면 상황이 스스로 호전될 것이라고 믿는다
d) 예전 직장 동료나 다른 친구들과 우정을 다지는 것으로 위안을 삼는다

23. 요구사항이 엄청 많은 어떤 고객 덕분에, 백종필씨는 상당한 시간을 그 고객에게 쏟아부어야 했다. 그런데 정작 그 고객은 일처리가 마음에 안든다며 백종필씨의 상사에게 불평을 했다. 상사가 그 고객이 이상한 것이니 자네가 이해하라며 다독이긴 했지만, 지금 그는 매우 열받은 상태다. 그렇다면, 다음중 백종필씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 직장 동료들에게 푸념을 한다
b) 그냥 참고 다른 업무를 본다
c) 숨 한 번 크게 쉬고 밖에 나가서 좀 걷는다
d) 자기가 지금껏 쭉 잘 해 왔었다는 사실을 상기하고 그런 이상한 고객도 가끔 있겠거니 한다

24. 강민국씨에게는 주말마다 같이 만나 한잔 하면서 회사 이야기를 나누는 친한 직장 동료가 있었다. 그런데 그 동료가 다른 부서로 옮기면서 더 이상 주말모임에 나오지 않게 되었다. 강민국씨는 그 때 그 시절이 그립다. 그렇다면, 다음중 강민국씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 다른 직장 동료들을 사귄다
b) 갈 사람은 가는 법, 그냥 어쩔 수 없는 일로 받아 들인다
c) 그 사람과는 다시는 말도 하지 않는다
d) 그 직장 동료가 편한 시간으로 만나는 시간을 변경해 본다

25. 한정림씨에게는 몇년 동안이나 아주 친하게 지냈던 친구가 있었다. 그런데 그 친구가 남편을 따라 외국으로 가 버리게 되었다. 그 친구는 당분간 다시 돌아올 계획이 없다고 한다. 그렇다면, 한정림씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 친구를 깨끗이 잊는다
b) 되도록 바쁘게 다른 친구들을 만난다
c) 친구와 그 남편이 곧 돌아올 것이라고 믿는다
d) 그 친구와 이메일이나 전화, 메신저 등으로 관계를 유지한다

26. 남성탁씨는 전립선에 문제가 생겨 수술을 받게 되었다. 그는 걱정이 보통이 아니다. 특히 수술 후 엄청 아프다는 소문을 듣고는 영 마음이 놓이질 않는다. 그렇다면, 남성탁씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 수술에 관한 정보를 알아보고 마음을 되도록 진정시키려 노력한다
b) 수술 당일까지 되도록 다른 일을 만들어 수술에 대해 생각하지 않고 살도록 한다
c) 가족들에게 걱정을 털어 놓는다
d) 담당 의사에게 수술에 관해 확실히 물어 본다

27. 중요한 재료의 조달이 늦어지는 바람에 김정화씨가 맡고 있던 업무가 많이 지연되고 말았다. 그런데 그녀에 대한 실적 보고서에는 그녀의 업무 지연이, 사실은 재료 조달 문제 때문이라는 점이 전혀 언급되지 않았다. 그렇다면, 다음 중, 김정화씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 상사나 경영층에 재료 조달이 늦어졌다고 말로 설명한다
b) 다음부터는 조달 지연도 계산에 넣기로 한다
c) 다음 번 업무 실적 보고서에 재료 조달 문제가 있었음을 확실히 문서로 밝힌다
d) 아무 걱정도 하지 않는다

28. 고영주씨는 간부급 직원이 해왔던 보직을 맡아 지난 몇 개월 동안 잘 수행해 왔다. 그런데 회사에서 앞으로는 일정 기간 이상 회사에 근속한 직원만 그런 간부급 보직을 맡을 수 있게 바꾸기로 했다. 공교롭게도 고영주씨는 근속 기간이 모자라 더 이상 현재의 보직을 계속 맡지 못하게 되었다. 그렇다면, 다음 중 고영주씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 순순히 보직을 내놓고 물러난다
b) 장래 근속연수가 차면 현재의 경험을 살려 승진의 기회로 삼는다
c) 새 규정은 일단 받아 들이지만 무시 당했다는 사실 만큼은 마음에 담아 둔다
d) 경영진에 상황을 설명하고 예외를 인정해 달라고 요청한다

29. 송동엽씨는 새로 집들이를 하면서 친척들을 대대적으로 초대했다. 그런데 그는 멋진 집들이를 해야 한다는 생각에 다소 부담을 느끼고 있다. 그렇다면, 다음중 송동엽씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 친구와 친척들에게 집들이가 좀 걱정이라고 말한다
b) 마음을 가라앉히기 위해 나가서 좀 걷거나 잠시 조용히 앉아 있는다
c) 미리 계획을 세워서 철저히 준비한다
d) 설사 준비가 좀 부족해도 일가친척들은 이해해 줄 것이라고 생각한다

30. 채유리씨는 진짜 오래간만에 만나는 옛날 친한 친구와 주말을 끼고 여행을 가기로 했다. 채유리씨는 두근두근 하면서 그 여행을 고대했다. 그런데 정작 친구를 만나보니, 그녀는 예전과는 완전 딴 판이 되어 있었다. 채유리씨는 여행이 하나도 즐겁지가 않았다. 그렇다면, 채유리씨가 취할 수 있는 가장 유용한 행동은?
a) 여행을 그만 접고 각자 집에 간다
b) 둘 사이의 우정이 끝났음을 인정하고 각자의 삶을 산다
c) 사람은 바뀔 수 있고 각자는 자기 길을 가지만 그래도 함께 했던 시간은 추억으로 남음을 기억한다
d) 마음이 맞는 다른 친구들을 열심히 만난다

<u>Symbolic Patriotism</u>
1. 애국가를 부를 때 가슴이 뜨거워진다
2. 태극기를 보면 자랑스런 마음이 든다
3. 활짝 핀 무궁화를 보면 기분이 좋다

APPENDIX B
SUBORDINATE SURVEY (ENGLISH)

Introduction
Greetings, study purposes, and IRB-related information were provided here (English back-translation was omitted).

Demographics
1. Do you agree to participate in the survey?
Yes   No

2. Department
Ward 31   Health Center
Ward 41   Orderly
Ward 51   Physical Therapy
Ward 61   Inssurance & Documentation
Anaesthetics   Radiology
Surgery   Bursar Operations
Outpatients   Pathology Lab
ER   Procurement
ICU   Other

3. Name

4. E-Mail (optional)

5. Gender
Male   Female

6. What is your age

7. How long have you worked with this supervisor? [Relationship Tenure]

8. Is it hard to accomplish all of your tasks without the supervisor's input? [Task Interdependence]

9. How much does your job include being creative? [Task Routineness]

Procedural Justice
1. I am able to express my views and feelings during those procedures
2. I have influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures
3. Those procedures are applied consistently
4. Those procedures are free of bias
5. Those procedures are based on accurate information
6. I am able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures
7. Those procedures uphold ethical and moral standards

Interactional Justice
1. When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with kindness and consideration
2. When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor treats me with respect and dignity
3. When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor is sensitive to my personal needs
4. When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor deals with me in a truthful manner
5. When decisions are made about my job, my supervisor shows concern for my rights as an employee
6. Concerning decisions made about my job, my supervisor discusses the implications of the decisions with me
7. My supervisor offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job
8. When making decisions about my job, my supervisor offers explanations that make sense to me
9. My supervisor explains very clearly any decision made about my job

Abusive Supervision
My supervisor _____

1. Ridicules me
2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. Gives me the silent treatment
4. Puts me down in front of others
5. Invades my privacy
6. Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment
9. Breaks promises he/she makes
10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
11. Makes negative comments about me to others
12. Is rude to me
13. Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers
14. Tells me I'm incompetent
15. Lies to me

Emotion Management Ability
In this test, you will be presented with a few brief details about an emotional situation, and asked to choose from four responses the most effective course of action to manage both the emotions the person is feeling and the problems they face in that situation. Although more than one course of action might be acceptable, you are asked to choose what you think the most effective response for that person in that situation would be.

Remember, you are not necessarily choosing what you would do, or the nicest thing to do, but choosing the most effective response for that situation.

Note. Numbers in parentheses refer to expert scoring schemes: (1) the mean rating of experts (rate-the-extent ratings) / (2) the proportion of experts selecting that option (multiple-choice

ratings). This study uses the multiple-choice option. For detailed scoring development procedures, see MacCann and Roberts (2008).

1. Lee's workmate fails to deliver an important piece of information on time, causing Lee to fall behind schedule also. What action would be the most effective for Lee?
a) Work harder to compensate (3.2/0)
b) Get angry with the workmate (2.6/0)
c) Explain the urgency of the situation to the workmate (5.2/1.000)
d) Never rely on that workmate again (2.4/0)

2. Rhea has left her job to be a full-time mother, which she loves, but she misses the company and companionship of her workmates. What action would be the most effective for Rhea?
a) Enjoy being a full-time mom (2.8/0)
b) Try to see her old workmates socially, inviting them out (4.4/.250)
c) Join a playgroup or social group of new mothers (4.8/.667)
d) See if she can find part time work (2.8/.083)

3. Pete has specific skills that his workmates do not and he feels that his workload is higher because of it. What action would be the most effective for Pete?
a) Speak to his boss about this (4.6/.833)
b) Start looking for a new job (2.4/0)
c) Be very proud of his unique skills (3.2/.083)
d) Speak to his workmates about this (3.8/.083)

4. Wai-Hin and Connie have shared an office for years but Wai-Hin gets a new job and Connie loses contact with her. What action would be the most effective for Connie?
a) Just accept that she is gone and the friendship is over (2.6/0)
b) Ring Wai-Hin an ask her out for lunch or coffee to catch up (4.6/0)
c) Contact Wai-Hin and arrange to catch up but also make friends with her replacement (5.6/.917)
d) Spend time getting to know the other people in the office, and strike up new friendships (4.4/.083)

5. Manual is only a few years from retirement when he finds out his position will no longer exist, although he will still have a job with a less prestigious role. What action would be the most effective for Manual?
a) Carefully consider his options and discuss it with his family (5.0/.750)
b) Talk to his boss or the management about it (4.4/.250)
c) Accept the situation, but still feel bitter about it (2.0/0)
d) Walk out of that job (1.0/0)

6. Alan helps Trudy, a peer he works with occasionally, with a difficult task. Trudy complains that Alan's work isn't very good, and Alan responds that Trudy should be grateful he is doing her a favor. They argue. What action would be the most effective for Alan?
a) Stop helping Trudy and don't help her again (1.8/.167)
b) Try harder to help appropriately (2.8/.083)
c) Apologize to Trudy (2.8/.083)
d) Diffuse the argument by asking for advice (4.6/.667)

7. Surbhi starts a new job where he doesn't know anyone and finds that no one is particularly friendly. What action would be the most effective for Surbhi?
a) Have fun with his friends outside of work hours (3.8/0)
b) Concentrate on doing his work well at the new job (4.0/.167)
c) Make an effort to talk to people and be friendly himself (5.4/.833)
d) Leave the job and find one with a better environment (2.4/0)

8. Darla is nervous about presenting her work to a group of seniors who might not understand it, as they don't know much about her area. What action would be the most effective for Darla?
a) Be positive and confident, knowing it will go well (4.0/0)
b) Just give the presentation (2.8/0)
c) Work on her presentation, simplifying the explanations (5.2/.667)
d) Practice presenting to laypeople such as friends or family (5.2/.333)

9. Andre moves away from the city his friends and family are in. He finds his friends make less effort to keep in contact than he thought they would. What action would be the most effective for Andre?
a) Try to adjust to life in the new city by joining clubs and activities there (4.8/0)
b) He should make the effort to contact them, but also try to meet people in his new city (5.6/1.000)
c) Let go of his old friends, who have shown themselves to be unreliable (2.2/0)
d) Tell his friends he is disappointed in them for not contacting him (3.2/0)

10. Helga's team has been performing very well. They receive poor-quality work from another team that they must incorporate into their own project. What action would be the most effective for Helga?
a) Don't worry about it (1.8/0)
b) Tell the other team they must re-do their work (4.6/.417)
c) Tell the project manager about the situation (4.6/.583)
d) Re-do the other team's work to get it up to scratch (2.6/0)

11. Clayton has been overseas for a long time and returns to visit his family. So much has changed that Clayton feels left out. What action would be the most effective for Clayton?
a) Nothing – it will sort itself out soon enough (2.6/0)
b) Tell his family he feels left out (4.4/.167)
c) Spend time listening and getting involved again (5.4/.750)
d) Reflect that relationships can change with time (4.6/.083)

12. Daniel has been accepted for a prestigious position in a different country from his family, who he is close to. He and his wife decide it is worth relocating. What action would be the most effective for Daniel?
a) Realize he shouldn't have applied for the job if he didn't want to leave (1.4/0)
b) Set up a system for staying in touch, like weekly phone calls or emails (5.0/.833)
c) Think about the great opportunities this change offers (4.8/.167)
d) Don't take the position (1.2/0)

13. A junior employee making routine adjustments to some of Teo's equipment accuses Teo of causing the equipment malfunction. What action would be the most effective for Teo?
a) Reprimand the employee for making such accusations (2.0/0)
b) Ignore the accusation, it is not important (2.6/.500)
c) Explain that malfunctions were not his fault (3.4/.500)
d) Learn more about using the equipment so that it doesn't break (4.8/0)

14. Mei Ling answers the phone and hears that close relatives are in hospital critically ill. What action would be the most effective for Mei Ling?
a) Let herself cry and express emotion for as long as she feels like (4.4/.083)
b) Speak to other family to calm herself and find out what is happening, then visit the hospital (5.4/.917)
c) There is nothing she can do (1.4/0)
d) Visit the hospital and ask staff about their condition (4.8/0)

15. Upon entering full-time study, Vincent cannot afford the time or money he used to spend on water-polo training, which he was quite good at. Although he enjoys full-time study, he misses training. What action would be the most effective for Vincent?
a) Concentrate on studying hard, to pass his course (3.4/0)
b) See if there is a local league or a less expensive and less time-consuming sport (5.0/.667)
c) Think deeply about whether sport or study is more important to him (3.0/.083)
d) Find out about sporting scholarships or bursaries (5.0/.250)

16. Greg has just gone back to university after a lapse of several years. He is surrounded by younger students who seem very confident about their ability and he is unsure whether he can compete with them. What action would be the most effective for Greg?
a) Focus on his life outside the university (2.0/0)
b) Study hard and attend all lectures (4.8/.250)
c) Talk to others in his situation (5.4/.750)
d) Realize he is better than the younger students as he has more life experience (2.8/0)

17. Shona has not spoken to her nephew for months, whereas when he was younger they were very close. She rings him but he can only talk for five minutes. What action would be the most effective for Shona?
a) Realize that he is growing up and might not want to spend so much time with his family any more (4.2/0)
b) Make plans to drop by and visit him in person and have a good chat (4.0/.250)
c) Understand that relationships change, but keep calling him from time to time (4.8/.750)
d) Be upset about it, but realize there is nothing she can do (1.4/0)

18. Joel has always dealt with one particular client but on a very complex job his boss gives the task to a co-worker instead. Joel wonders whether his boss thinks he can't handle the important jobs. What action would be the most effective for Joel?
a) Believe he is performing well and will be given the next complex job (3.4/0)
b) Do good work so that he will be given the complex tasks in future (4.0/.167)
c) Ask his boss why the co-worker was given the job (4.2/.750)
d) Not worry about this unless it happens again (3.2/.083)

19. Hasina is overseas when she finds out that her father has passed away from an illness he has had for years. What action would be the most effective for Hasina?
a) Contact her close relatives for information and support (5.6/1.00)
b) Try not to think about it, going on with her daily life as best she can (2.00/0)
c) Feel terrible that she left the country at such a time (1.4/0)
d) Think deeply about the more profound meaning of this loss (4.0/0)

20. Mina and her sister-in-law normally get along quite well, and the sister-in-law regularly baby-sits for her for a small fee. Lately she has also been cleaning away cobwebs, commenting on the mess, which Mina finds insulting. What action would be the most effective for Mina?
a) Tell her sister-in-law these comments upset her (4.6/.750)
b) Get a new babysitter (2.0/0)
c) Be grateful her house is being cleaned for free (2.6/.167)
d) Tell her only to baby-sit, not to clean (3.0/.083)

21. Juno is fairly sure his company is going down and his job is under threat. It is a large company and nothing official has been said. What action would be the most effective for Juno?
a) Find out what is happening and discuss his concerns with his family (5.0/.750)
b) Try to keep the company afloat by working harder (2.0/0)
c) Start applying for other jobs (3.8/.250)
d) Think of these events as an opportunity for a new start (4.8/0)

22. Mallory moves from a small company to a very large one, where there is little personal contact, which she misses. What action would be the most effective for Mallory?
a) Talk to her workmates, try to create social contacts and make friends (5.2/.917)
b) Start looking for a new job so she can leave that environment (2.2/0)
c) Just give it time, and things will be okay (2.8/0)
d) Concentrate on her outside-work friends and colleagues from previous jobs (3.0/.083)

23. A demanding client takes up a lot of Jill's time and then asks to speak to Jill's boss about her performance. Although Jill's boss assures her that her performance is fine, Jill feels upset. What action would be the most effective for Jill?
a) Talk to her friends or workmates about it (3.4/0)
b) Ignore the incident and move on to her next task (2.2/0)
c) Calm down by taking deep breaths or going for a short walk (3.8/.083)
d) Think that she has been successful in the past and this client being difficult is not her fault (4.4/.917)

24. Blair and Flynn usually go to a cafe after the working week and chat about what's going on in the company. After Blair's job is moved to a different section in the company, he stops coming to the cafe. Flynn misses these Friday talks. What action would be the most effective for Flynn?
a) Go to the cafe or socialize with other workers (3.8/.167)
b) Don't worry about it, ignore the changes and let Blair be (2.0/0)
c) Not talk to Blair again (1.2/0)
d) Invite Blair again, maybe rescheduling for another time (5.2/.833)

25. Michelle's friend Dara is moving overseas to live with her partner. They have been good friends for many years and Dara is unlikely to come back. What action would be the most effective for Michelle?
a) Forget about Dara (1.6/0)
b) Spend time with other friends, keeping herself busy (3.6/.083)
c) Think that Dara and her partner will return soon (1.6/0)
d) Make sure she keeps in contact through email, phone or letter writing (5.2/.917)

26. Dorian needs to have some prostate surgery and is quite scared about the process. He has heard that it is quite painful. What action would be the most effective for Dorian?
a) Find out as much as he can about the procedure and focus on calming down (5.4/.333)
b) Keep busy in the meantime so he doesn't think about the impending surgery (3.4/0)
c) Talk to his family about his concerns (4.4/0)
d) Talk to his doctor about what will happen (5.2/.667)

27. Hannah's access to essential resources has been delayed and her work is way behind schedule. Her progress report makes no mention of the lack of resources. What action would be the most effective for Hannah?
a) Explain the lack of resources to her boss or to management (5.0/.167)
b) Learn that she should plan ahead for next time (3.4/0)
c) Document the lack of resources in her progress report (5.2/.833)
d) Don't worry about it (1.4/0)

28. Alana has been acting in a high-ranking role for several months. A decision is made that only long-term employees can now act in these roles, and Alana has not been with the company long enough to do so. What action would be the most effective for Alana?
a) Quit that position (2.4/.083)
b) Use that experience to get promoted when she is long term (4.2/.583)
c) Accept this new rule, but feel hard-done-by (1.8/0)
d) Ask management if an exception can be made (4.8/.333)

29. Jacob is having a large family gathering to celebrate him moving into his new home. He wants the day to go smoothly and is a little nervous about it. What action would be the most effective for Jacob?
a) Talk to friends or relatives to ease his worries (3.6/.083)
b) Try to calm down, perhaps go for a short walk or meditate (3.8/.083)
c) Prepare ahead of time so he has everything he needs available (5.2/.417)
d) Accept that things aren't going to be perfect but the family will understand (4.4/.417)

30. Julie hasn't seen Ka for ages and looks forward to their weekend trip away. However, Ka has changed a lot and Julie finds that she is no longer an interesting companion. What action would be the most effective for Julie?
a) Cancel the trip and go home (2.0/0)
b) Realize that it is time to give up the friendship and move on (3.2/0)
c) Understand that people change, so move on, but remember the good times (4.6/.917)
d) Concentrate on her other, more rewarding friendships (4.4/.08)

Symbolic Patriotism
1. I feel good when I see my country flag is flying
2. I feel good when I hear the national anthem
3. I feel proud when I see the national flower blooming

APPENDIX C
SUPERVISOR SURVEY (KOREAN)

<u>Introduction</u>

안녕하십니까? 바쁜 시간 중에서도 이렇게 저희 연구에 협조해 주심에 고개 숙여 감사 드립니다. 저희는 의료기관 종사자의 감성 지능지수와 업무성과의 상관관계를 연구하고 있습니다. 감성 지능지수란, 일반 지능지수 (IQ)와 대비되는 새로운 연구분야로서, 직원의 대인관계 및 업무성과 를 향상시키는 주요한 요인으로 주목 받고 있는 주제입니다. 특히 이번 연구에서는, 직원의 감성 지수가 상사와의 대인관계를 개선시키고, 동료 직원과의 협동심을 고취하며, 직무 스트레스에 대한 적응력을 향상시키는지에 초점을 맞추고 있습니다.

그래서, 간부급 보직을 맡고 계신 여러분을 저희 설문에 특별히 모시고자 합니다. 현재 담당하고 계신 부서의 부하 직원들의 인간관계와 협동심, 스트레스 적응력 등을 개별적으로 심층 평가해 주십사 정중히 부탁 드립니다. 평가해 주신 자료는, 저희들이 별도 설문을 통해 측정한 직원들의 감성지수와 비교하여, 감성 지능지수가 높은 직원일수록 보다 좋은 업무성과를 보이는지 알아 보는데 사용될 예정입니다.

본 연구는 루이지아나 주립대학 연구윤리 위원회 (Institutional Review Board)의 윤리 규정을 철저히 준수하고 있으며, 참가자의 개인 신상 정보를 엄격히 보호합니다. 본 설문을 통해 수집된 모든 정보는 통계처리를 거쳐 오직 학술적 목적의 연구 데이터로만 사용될 뿐, 참가자의 직장 경영층이나 상사, 동료, 혹은 부하직원을 포함한 그 누구에게도 결코 공개되지 않습니다. 개인 정보 보호와 연구 윤리 규정 준수에 관한 의문점이 있으시면, STRESSEQ@LSU.EDU 로 메일 주십시오. 부하 직원에 대한 평가 내용은 어떤 경우에도 결코 공개되지 않으며 여러분의 신상은 절대적으로 보호됨을 다시 한 번 강조 드립니다.

설문에 참여해 주심에 다시 한번 진심으로 감사 드립니다.

<u>Demographics</u>

1. 설문에 참여하시겠습니까?
예   아니오

2. 부서명

31 병동	검진센터
41 병동	관리부
51 병동	물리치료실
61 병동	심사.기록부
마취과	영상의학과
수술실	원무부
외래	진단 검사의학과
응급실	총무부
중환자실	기타

3. 성별
남성   여성

4. 나이 (만 나이를 숫자로 적어 주세요. 예: 21, 48, 59 등)

5. 현재 맡고 계신 부서의 총 인원은?

6. 현재 맡고 계신 부서의 정규직 직원의 수는? [Size]

7. 현재 맡고 계신 부서에서, 올 해 (2009년) 새로 부서에 들어온 직원의 비율은? [Turnover]

Task Conflict
부하 직원 이름: _____

1. 업무와 관련해서, 나와 생각이 다를 때도 있다
2. 직장 내에서 나와 의견이 서로 일치하지 않을 때도 있다
3. 나와 일 문제로 의견이 상충할 때도 있다
4. 나와 업무상 견해가 다를 때도 있다

Relationship Conflict
1. 나와 정서적 마찰이 있다
2. 나와는 서로 성격이 안 맞는다
3. 나와의 사이에 인간적인 불협화음이 존재한다
4. 나와의 사이에 감정적인 골이 패어 있다

OCBI
1. 동료가 자리를 비운 동안 그의 업무를 거들어 준다
2. 동료가 업무로 골치를 썩일 때 자기 시간을 내어 자진해서 도와 준다
3. 휴가를 쓰려는 동료를 위해 자기 업무 일정을 기분 좋게 조정해 준다
4. 부서에 새로 들어온 동료를 따뜻하게 잘 챙겨 준다
5. 개인적으로 힘들고 업무로 피곤한 상황에서도 동료 직원에게 진심으로 잘 대한다
6. 업무와 관련한 일이 아닐지라도 동료를 돕기 위해 자기 시간을 할애한다
7. 동료의 업무 처리를 도와 준다
8. 동료 직원에게 도움이 될 수 있다면, 자기 것을 아까와 하지 않고 나눈다

OCBO
1. 누가 시키지 않아도 직장에 도움이 될만한 일이라면 알아서 참여한다
2. 직장 내에서 일어나는 일에 관심이 있다
3. 다른 직원들이 직장에 대해 험담을 할 때도 우리 직장을 옹호하는 편이다
4. 우리 직장의 직원이라는 사실을 외부 사람에게 자랑스럽게 이야기한다
5. 직장을 위해 뭔가 아이디어를 내놓곤 한다
6. 직장에 대해 애사심을 보인다
7. 직장에 무슨 문제가 생기면 해결을 위해 적극적으로 나선다
8. 우리 직장이 어떤 평판을 받고 있는지 관심을 갖는다

WDBI
1. 동료에게 상처 주는 말을 하기도 한다
2. 일을 하면서 남에게 무례하게 대하기도 한다
3. 업무 중에 남에게 신경질을 부리기도 한다
4. 동료 직원에 대해 비웃는 태도를 보일 때도 있다

WDBO
1. 업무에 영 정성을 들이지 않는다
2. 일부러 천천히 슬렁슬렁 일한다
3. 하라는 일은 안 하고 딴 생각에 빠져 있다
4. 휴식 시간을 너무 자주 오래 갖는다
5. 자기 일을 제대로 못해서 남이 뒤치다꺼리를 하게 만든다
6. 직장에 나와서 직무와 무관한 개인 용무를 본다
7. 허락 없이 늦게 출근한다

APPENDIX D
SUPERVISOR SURVEY (ENGLISH)

Introduction

Greetings, study purposes, and IRB-related information were provided here (English back-translation was omitted).

Demographics

1. Do you agree to participate in the survey?

Yes   No

2. Department

Ward 31	Health Center
Ward 41	Orderly
Ward 51	Physical Therapy
Ward 61	Inssurance & Documentation
Anaesthetics	Radiology
Surgery	Bursar Operations
Outpatients	Pathology Lab
ER	Procurement
ICU	Other

3. Gender

Male   Female

4. What is your age

5. How long have you supervised your current department?

6. How many full-time members do you supervise in your department? [Size]

7. What is the percentage of membership change in your department during 2009? [Turnover]

Task Conflict

1. The subordinate and I disagree about oppinions regarding the work being done
2. There are conflicts about ideas between the subordinate and me
3. There is conflict about the work between the subordinate and me
4. There are differences of oppinion between the subordinate and me

Relationship Conflict

1. There is friction between the subordinate and me
2. Personality conflicts are evident between the subordinate and me
3. There is tension between the subordinate and me
4. There is emotional conflict between the subordinate and me

OCBI
This subordinate _____

1. Helps others who have been absent
2. Willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems
3. Adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off
4. Goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group
5. Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers even under the most trying business or personal situations
6. Gives up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems
7. Assists others with their duties
8. Shares personal property with others to help their work

OCBO
1. Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image
2. Keeps up with developments in the organization
3. Defends the organization when other employees criticize it
4. Shows pride when representing the organization in public
5. Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization
6. Expresses loyalty toward the organization
7. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems
8. Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization

WDBI
This subordinate _____

1. Says something hurtful to someone at work
2. Acts rudely toward someone at work
3. Loses his/her temper while at work
4. Makes fun of someone at work

WDBO
1. Puts little effort into his/her work
2. Intentionally works slower than he/she could work
3. Spends too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
4. Takes an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at his/her workplace
5. Leaves his/her work for someone else to finish
6. Works on a personal matter instead of work for the organization
7. Comes in late to work without permission
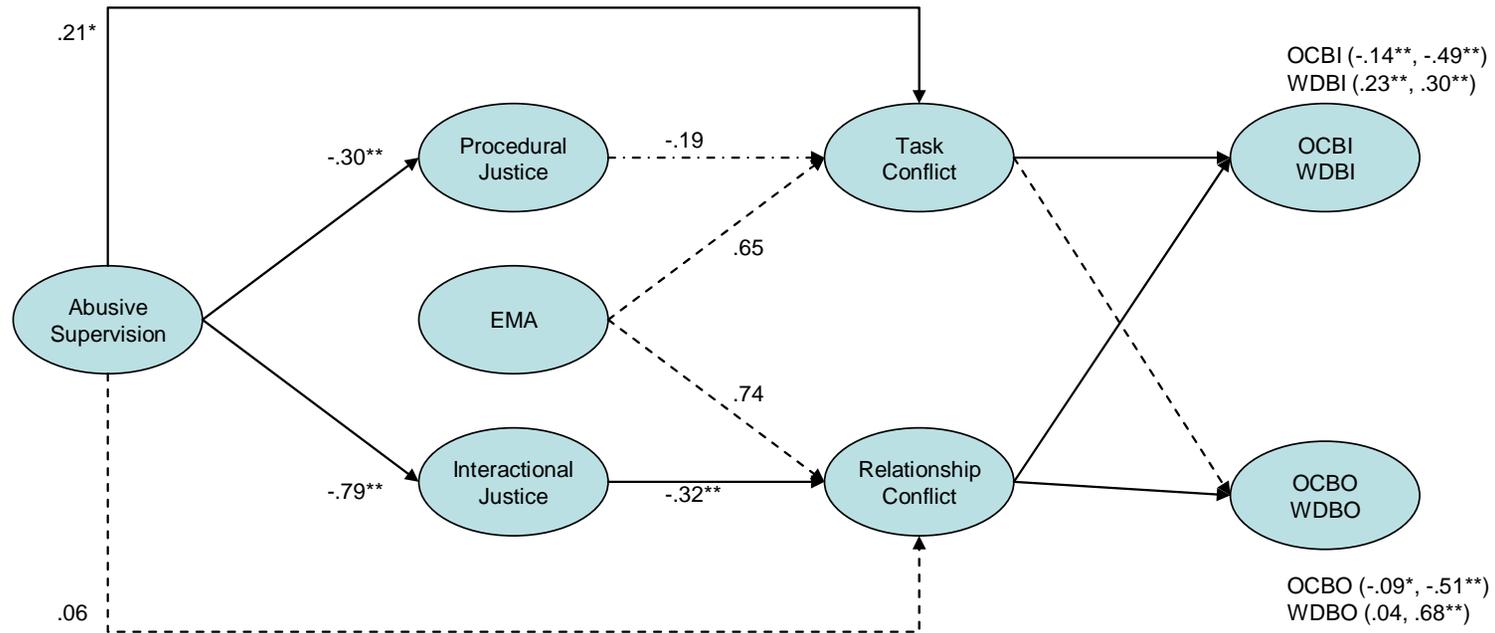
BASIC STRUCTURAL MODEL

Note. EMA (emotion management ability), dashed lines refer to nonsignificance
For OCB and WDB, the first coefficients are for task conflict, and the second coefficients are for relationship conflict
* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

APPENDIX F
STRUCTURAL INTERACTION MODEL
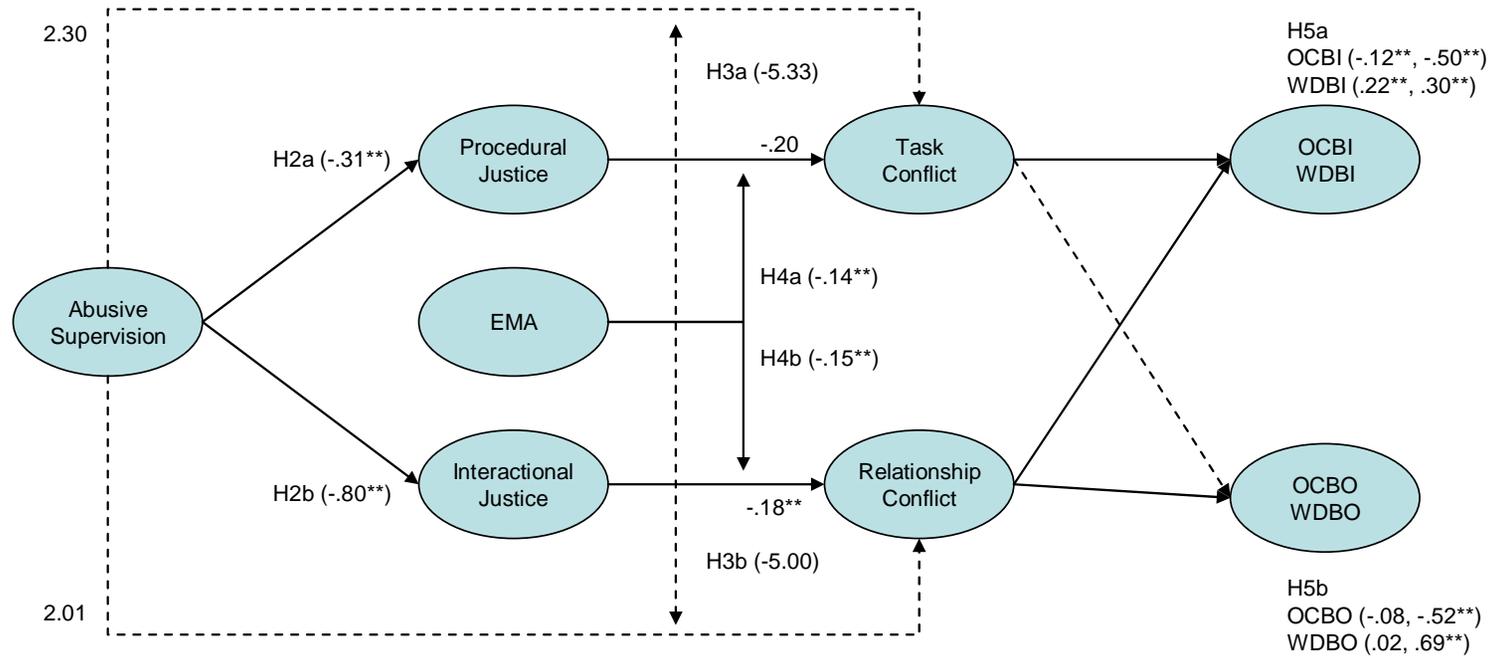
Note. EMA (emotion management ability), dashed lines refer to nonsignificance
For OCB and WDB, the first coefficients are for task conflict, and the second coefficients are for relationship conflict
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

VITA

Sungwon Choi graduated in business administration from Yonsei University at Wonju in South Korea in 1997. He received a master's degree in business administration from the same institution in 1999. In 2003, he earned his second master's degree in human resource management from Texas A&M University. He finished his doctorate at Louisiana State University in 2010, majoring in management.

His research interests include organizational behavior, management, human resources, and research method. He has particularly focused on emotions, emotional intelligence, conflict, workplace deviance behavior, equity, trust, and measurement validation using structural equations. His research was published in *Korean Business Review* and *Korean Management Education Review*. He has multiple manuscripts under review in *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *European Review of Psychology*, and *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. He refereed articles for *Career Development International* and *Journal of Labor Relations*. He has also reviewed conference papers for the Academy of Management and the Southern Management Association meetings in the specialty of organizational behavior and research methods. He presented his work in the annual meetings of the Academy of Management, the American Psychological Association, and the Southern Management Association. He has also performed as a discussant and chair of many sessions in those meetings. He taught multiple classes at Louisiana State University. His teaching interests cover management, OB/HR, and basic statistics.

Sungwon likes reading—ranging from Sumerian myth to Japanese NT novels. He also likes watching baseball games, and his favorite team is the Dusan Bears. He loves the luscious body and floral bouquet of pricey wines though he is very budget-sensitive. His dreams include:

publishing ten AMJ papers in five years, going to Alaska to see the aurora borealis, losing fifteen

pounds by the end of next month, surviving until North and South Korea become reunited, and

doing something he wouldn't dare confess here.