

**The Impact of Power and Achievement Values on Perceived Relational Conflict at
Work, Using a Contingency Approach**

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Thesis submitted to the Lahore School of Economics in fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Masters in Philosophy in
Business Administration (Research) 2019

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation was written by me, and that the work is mine except where clearly specified otherwise in the text. Also, this work has not been presented for any other degree or qualification before.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research is an outcome of my hard work and the efforts of my supervisor Ms. Amina Talat. I thank Allah for giving me the strength to bear with the difficulties I faced during this research project and successfully concluding it. I am extremely grateful to Ms. Amina Talat for being a source of constant support and guidance. It is due to the constant supervision and detailed review of Ms. Amina Talat, that I was able to bring this research to perfection. She is a delightful person, who always welcomed and encouraged me throughout my thesis.

Also, I would like to thank a very dear friend and colleague, Zoraq Mansoor who boosted up my morale and helped me in giving references to different organizations for data collection. Lastly, I would thank my loving and supportive parents and siblings who have always shown confidence in my abilities.

ABSTRACT

Purpose: The deep level psychological differences in people may provoke constructive and/or destructive effects on team outcomes. Few studies in literature of human values have studied the individual effects of values on cognitive relationship conflict. This paper aims to study the effect of Power and achievement values on perceived relationship conflict with gender as a moderating variable.

Research Questions: This dissertation examined whether or not people high on power and achievement values perceived relationship conflict at workplace. This study also hypothesized gender as a moderator between independent variables; power and achievement values and dependent variable, perceived relationship conflict.

Method & Analysis: To answer the hypothesized research questions, this study adopts a quantitative research strategy using a positivistic approach. For data collection survey questionnaires were used. Convenience sampling was used. Sample population is employees working in software development houses. The data collected was used to analyze the measurement model statistically using the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), a path analysis was used to test the hypotheses stated using structural equation modeling (SEM) technique on statistical software AMOS. For moderation analysis, PROCESS macro model 1 was used as suggested by Hayes (2013). A total of 430 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 370 were useable for data analysis purpose, giving us a response rate of 86%.

Results: Results of CFA confirmed the reliability and validity of the constructs. SEM analysis shows that power values have a positive effect on perceived relationship conflict. Also, achievement values were found to have a negative effect on perceived relationship conflict. Furthermore, the moderation analysis shows that gender was a significant moderator in the relationship between power values and perceived relational conflict. However, it did

not act as a moderator in the relationship between achievement values and perceived relationship conflict.

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CHAPTER I

“For good ideas and true innovation, you need human interaction, conflict, argument, debate” Margaret Heffernan

1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations are gearing towards work teams so to add creativity, to improve adaptability as well as to enhance productivity and efficiency of employees through collective work (Salas et al, 2005). Individuals having diverse characteristics are brought together to work collectively for the fulfillment of assigned team tasks. Although teamwork is increasingly becoming an organizational norm, yet it poses considerable challenges to working effectively as part of a team. One such challenge is conflict because individual members add to the team processes by providing social and task relevant inputs, which allows interpersonal disagreements to plunge in team-based structures (Jehn, 1997). Team conflict is conceptually defined as “the process emerging from real or perceived incompatibilities and differences among team members” (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Conflict is a multifaceted psychological and social phenomenon concerning different dimensions and levels (Weingart, Behfar, Bendersky, Todorova & Jehn, 2015). It occurs when individuals express different ideas and have diverging opinions and interests. The different types and levels of organizational conflict are interlinked and change circumstantially (Wu, Zhao and Zuo, 2017). Perceived conflict, also known as cognitive conflict, results from misunderstanding of each other’s true status and worsens with poor communication (Cheng, Lockett & Mahama, 2007).

There have been several studies observing the relationship of diversity and conflict at work (e.g. Hobman & Bordia, 2006; Mohammed & Angell, 2004; Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999; Jehn, 1995). The deep-level differences among individuals based on their preferential value

dimensions are referred to as value diversity (Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002; Schwartz, 1992). Human values are referred to as desirable goals that vary in importance according to certain situations and serve as guiding principles for a person or a social entity, thereby promoting behaviour that is cognitively related to these goals (Schwartz et al., 2017; Kajonius, Persson & Jonason, 2015). There are ten basic human values motivated by certain goals, which are stable and outdo situations and actions (Schwartz et al., 2017; Schwartz & Butenko, 2014; Schwartz, 1994). The relative importance assigned to human values is what guides an individual's perception, behaviour and actions. Members of a work team may internalize compatible or conflicting values. Compatible values direct similar preferences and behaviours, while conflicting values guide incongruent and opposing preferences, perceptions and behaviours (Schwartz et al., 2017; Schwartz, 2012; 2010; 1992). Furthermore, conflicting values may prevent an individual from adopting one value in the pursuit of another (Schwartz et al., 2017). Hitherto, scholars developed an understanding of how deep-level diversity (psychological characteristics such as values, attitudes and personality) within a team impacts team processes and outcomes and scholars have reported mixed findings (e.g. Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz, 2011; Bell, 2007; Mohammed & Angell, 2004; Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). Therefore, to understand the deep level psychological processes, which may motivate the constructive and destructive effects of differences on team outcomes, it is important to identify and study contextual moderators to advance knowledge in the field of values-conflict literature (van Dijk, van Engen & van Knippenberg, 2012).

More than 2 decades of research in the area of human values and team outcomes has presented diversity to be consequential in team processes and outcome. Research examining the impact of differences in terms of specific human value types (such as self-enhancement

values of achievement and power) on team processes (e.g. conflict and cohesion) and outcomes (e.g. performance, creativity, efficiency) has not received much attention (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014). Furthermore, researchers have mainly addressed the manifest stage of relationship conflict (which is the display of open aggression in the shape of physical or verbal violence) in connection with value differences among members of teams (e.g. Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014; Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). According to Pondy (1992) there is a series of organizational conflict episodes, where conflict is first perceived cognitively and then manifested through the display of open aggression. Perceived conflict must be acknowledged especially when it is related to personal values fundamental to an individual's personality. Therefore, the perception of conflict pertinent to team-based structures i.e. perceived relational conflict needs to be studied as value differences among team members ultimately influences team members' affective reactions (Tekleab & Quigley, 2014). Therefore this research is set to explore how deep-level "power" and "achievement" values of an individual impact perceived relational conflict by adopting a contingency approach for better understanding and interpretation of the values-conflict relationship under scrutiny.

1.1. Statement of Problem

The 10 basic human values as explained by Schwartz (1992) are socially and psychologically meaningful variables having significant relationships with constructs relevant to team literature. Power and Achievement values (Self-enhancement) intuitively influence team processes, as individuals who are motivated to serve their self-interest are more ambitious and task-oriented, which may add to team building processes or even result in conflict under some situations. This leads us to assume that difference in prioritizing power values over achievement values, and vice versa, in team settings may have a constructive or a

destructive effect on team perceived conflict under certain conditions.

Basic human values such as power and achievement have significant relationship with interpersonal behavior. The most essential feature of the current study is the assumption that the two values of power and achievement values express similar underlying motivations as suggested by Schwartz (1994), but differ on how they influence an individual's perception of conflict.

Purpose of this research is to study the impact of achievement and power values on perceived relationship conflict as moderated by a surface-level characteristic of organizational diversity i.e. gender using the similarity-attraction paradigm and information processing perspective. This study is in line with the existing theories of similarity-attraction mechanism (Byrne, 1971), the Information Processing Perspective (Mannix and Neale 2005) and the gender socialization approach (Betz, O'Connell & Shepard, 1989), which suggest that heterogeneity in teams based on surface-level or deep-level characteristics stresses on adopting a contingency approach to comprehend and explicate the effects of value differences on perceived team conflict (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Klein, Costa, Passos & Bakker, 2015; Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione, 2015; Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz, 2011; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002).

Conflict is stimulated and is associated with negative outcomes, yet it may not always be true. Literature on team conflict distinguishes relational conflict from task conflict by arguing that they have contradictory effect on team outcomes (Hobman & Bordia, 2006). Since, the two types of team conflict are often interrelated, one type of conflict leads to another, and thereby some researchers have used them simultaneously. However, this study contemplates that individuals high on power and/or achievement values in a team may have intensified or condensed perceptions of relationship conflict respectively. Furthermore,

literature on team conflict studies manifest conflict episode as an independent or mediating variable. However, this paper studies the psychological antecedents of perceived relational conflict to fill in this research gap. Therefore, the aim is to advance the existing knowledge by investigating whether power and achievement values act as the inhibitors and/or enablers of perceived relational conflict using a contingency approach.

1.2. Scope of the study

The following research questions are proposed for this study:

1.2.1. Relationship between Power Values (PV) and Perceived Conflict

1. How does power values affect perceived relational conflict?

1.2.2. Relationship between Achievement Values (AV) and Perceived Conflict

2. How does achievement values affect perceived relational conflict?

1.2.3. Moderation of Gender between Human Values and Perceived Conflict

3. Does gender moderate the relationship between power values and perceived relationship conflict?
4. Does gender moderate the relationship between achievement values and perceived relationship conflict?

1.3. Rationale for current Study

Diversity is part and parcel of organizational life (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012). Thus, it is of key concern theoretically and practically for scholars in the field of organizational behaviour research. Teams in an organization are diverse in terms of their demographic as well as psychological composition, which may have positive or negative team outcomes (Plaut, 2010; van Knippenberg, De Dreu & Homan, 2004). The challenge is

to identifying the processes underlying the consequences of these psychological and demographic differences and how can they be managed in theory and practice (Joshi & Roh, 2009).

Psychological differences (values, traits, attitudes, personality and beliefs) fall in the category of deep-level differences, which is not apparent therefore, workforce deep-level differences have gained prominence overtime (Joshi & Roh, 2009). As a result, organizations have started to incorporate these differences into their business model and strategy in order to obtain societal approval and enjoy performance dividends (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012). This study intends to find out how surface-level characteristics can bolster or dwindle the effect of deep-level characteristics on cognitive conflict within teams. A meta-analysis incorporating prior studies on conflict literature supports mixed findings (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003), this study develops empirical support to integrate and reconcile the positive or negative effects of individual value differences in specific value types (i.e. power and achievement values) and the perception of team relationship conflict in gender diverse work places.

1.4. Contribution

Our study offers three main theoretical contributions to existing literature. Firstly, this study develops existing knowledge on basic human values by explicitly responding to the future research direction of the under-studied, but significant aspect of human values and their impact on team processes and outcomes (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Hu & Judge, 2017). Although several studies have verified the significance of values in predicting human behaviour (e.g. Schwartz et al., 2017; Tamir et al., 2016; Schwartz & Butenko, 2014; Rice, 2006), organizational climate and innovativeness (Taştan and Davoudi, 2017) and political involvement (Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione, 2015; Bai, Han &

Harms, 2015; Schwartz et al., 2013; Schwartz, Caprara & Vecchione, 2010), the focus has however remained at the integrative level of personal values (Kajonius, Persson & Jonason, 2015; Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz; 2011) and only a few empirical studies have investigated the individual role of human values (e.g. Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Arthaud-Day, Rode & Turnley, 2012) in determining team outcomes. As values are the central component of the self that motivate certain behaviours and attitudes (Schwartz, 2012), it is relevant to zoom in on the significance of individual value types to understand how attitude and behaviour differs among individuals based on the importance they assign to these values. People invoke values that elicit socially appropriate behaviours (Schwartz, 2012). There are practical, psychological and social consequences of actions in the pursuit of specific values (Parks-Leduc, Feldman & Bardi, 2014). Although it is suggested that self-enhancement motive that emphasizes self-success and self-uniqueness is typical to western (Individualistic) cultures with its prevalence in Asian cultures is low or totally absent (Heine, Lehman, Markus & Kitayama, 1999), Kurman (2003) showed that self-enhancement values significantly increased an individual's self-esteem and contributed to their overall well-being in both collectivist and individualistic cultures. It may be particularly important to study power values as they hold significance in motivating people to work for the collective interest of a group by also justifying the inherent need for a hierarchical social arrangement. Similarly, achievement values not only legitimize self-enhancing behaviour, but may also motivate efforts to gain societal approval, which may disrupt interpersonal relations hampering the attainment of group goals (Schwartz et al., 2017). As work values are an expression of the basic human values in work setting (Taştan and Davoudi, 2017), it is particularly relevant to study power and achievement values because these promote psychologically congruent self-enhancing behaviours. More specifically, power and achievement values may be particularly significant in team based organizational structures

characterized by substantial autonomy with respect to how assigned tasks are completed (Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005). Employees structure their work in accordance with their power and achievement related motivations, so to pursue work goals effectively while feeling interpersonally safe to do so (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017). Moreover, values are a product of an individual's environment such as organizational culture and life events (Rokeach, 1973), meaning people assign varying degree of importance to these values based on the environmental needs, thus studying the distinctive role of these two value types on perception of conflict presents interesting contribution to the current literature on human values.

Secondly, studies that have investigated differences in power and achievement values of team members, although empirical (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012) and conceptual work (e.g. Tekleab & Quigley, 2014; Schwartz, 2012; 2010) suggests that deep level differences in human values is linked to conflict. The focus however, has largely been on behavioral manifestation of conflict (Wu, Zhao and Zuo, 2017; Costa, Passos & Bakker, 2015; Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz, 2011; Hobman & Bordia, 2006), not on the cognitive stage of conflict where an individual perceives conflict. Several longitudinal studies have been carried out to study the factors that lead to conflict (manifest) and how it hampers or improves outcomes (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017). However, examining the individuals' perceptions of relationship conflict has not received due focus. Researchers call for an investigation of the impact of values on perceived relational conflict rather than manifest relationship conflict (e.g., de Wit et al. 2012; Shaw et al. 2011). Conflict transcends different levels and stages before it is manifested through behaviour (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013), hence studying the role of perceived interpersonal conflict is relevant to organizational behaviour research as when conflict is perceived, it negatively impacts human emotions like happiness and anxiety

digressing individuals from the society and lowering their overall satisfaction in life (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013). Furthermore, it is important to study perceived conflict to suppress the consequential episodes of conflict, which otherwise would lead to deliberate action when left unrepressed (Pondy, 1992). Therefore, we examine the effects of human values of power and achievement upon perceived relational conflict to highlight the psychology of team conflict episodes in organizations.

Thirdly, the current research adopts a contingency view in observing power and achievement values effects on perceived relationship conflict. Previous studies have mainly emphasized on the main effects of human values (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012) on human behaviour, value-trade-offs (Schwartz et al., 2017) and the hierarchical or circular formation of value structure (Schwartz & Butenko, 2014; Schwartz, 2012). Researchers have advocated the use of complex theoretical frameworks that consider moderating variables in the domain of human values (Van Knippenberg and Schippers 2007; van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). Thus, by examining gender (surface-level difference) as a moderator of power and achievement values effect, this paper makes novel contribution to the existing body of literature by elucidating under what conditions does self-enhancement values influence the perception of relational conflict. Although main effects of gender diversity on teams outcomes have been studied (e.g. Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione, 2015; Ismail, 2015; Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey, 2008; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002), the role of gender (a surface-level characteristic) in investigating the impact of human values and how conflict is perceived by either gender has largely been ignored (Lee, Choi & Kim, 2018, Joecks, Pull & Vetter, 2012). A difference in how people perceive and react to conflict highlights the significance of considering gender when studying perceptions (Wickham et al., 2016). Furthermore, as men and women internalize different values (Struch, Schwartz & van der Kloot, 2002) and perceive conflict in interpersonal relationships

differently (Brassard, Lussier & Shaver, 2009), investigating the role of gender as a moderating variable to reveal how values may impact individual team members' perception of conflict differently in gender diverse workplaces is pertinent organizational behaviour research.

1.5. Conceptual Definitions

Value differences are the deep-level distinctions within individuals based on the preferential value dimensions. Both Power and achievement values in particular may be meaningful to consider, in team based structures because such deep-level characteristics signify differences in individual, motivational goals in social interactions (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017).

1.5.1. Power values are referred to as “differences in the desire to attain social status and prestige, as well as social influence or control over people and resources” (Schwartz 1992).

1.5.2. Achievement values are referred to as “ differences in the desire to attain personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards” (Schwartz 1992).

A salient problem that prevails in teamwork could be conflict, which refers to difficulties or differences among team members upon task or interpersonal matters. Heterogeneous work places are most likely to face conflict of opinion.

1.5.3. Perceived Relationship Conflict is defined as perceived “personal incompatibility among team members expressed through bitterness and annoyance in interpersonal relationships” (Jehn, 1994). Perceived relationship conflict is the second stage of organizational conflict episodes (Pondy, 1967) that is cognitively presumed and is not expressed through open aggression as incase of manifest relational conflict.

1.6. Organization of the Study

Chapter I includes an overview of the research, the statement of problem, a background of the topic under scrutiny, the scope of the study, the rationale behind conducting this research, identifies research gap and elaborates on how this study aims to fill the gap in literature. Furthermore, this chapter also introduces the variables, which will be empirically tested and provides a conceptual definition of each variable.

Chapter II discusses how the phenomenon under examination surfaced as a potential area of interest to researchers in the field of organizational behaviour. This chapter talks about how literature developed overtime. Moreover, a thorough examination of extant literature related to and relevant for studying values and conflict is presented in this chapter. The focus is on theoretical development to signify the importance of studying conflict individuals working in a team perceive with respect to the two specific types of self-enhancement values (power and achievement).

Chapter III elaborates on the methodology to be used in detail. It covers the use of research design, research methods and data collection procedures. Additionally, it states the sample size and instruments used to test the hypotheses of the study, along with testing the constructs for reliability and validity. Lastly, this section highlights the statistical techniques appropriate for testing the stated hypotheses.

Chapter IV provides a detailed analysis of the results. It provides a brief account of statistical assumptions prior to data analysis, and interpretation of the descriptive statistics. Model fit is tested using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and for hypothesis testing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is run on AMOS. For moderation analysis, PROCESS macro is used on SPSS. The findings of the study are then analyzed and interpreted so to reject or accept the hypothesized relationships.

Chapter V concludes the current study by presenting a discussion on the research findings. It also presents limitations and theoretical implications of the study for human

resource managers. Lastly, it offers suggestions on the possible future research directions in the field.

CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Human Values

Values such as power, achievement, self-direction and security are an integral part of every individual and these serve to regulate a person's life. Values are referred to as desirable goals that vary in importance according to certain situations and serve as guiding principles for a person or a social entity, thereby promoting behaviour that is cognitively related to these goals (Schwartz et al., 2017; Kajonius, Persson & Jonason, 2015). To provide some theoretical organization to this multidimensional phenomenon, contemporary conceptual frameworks and discussions by researchers have categorized differences in human beings into two main characteristics; surface-level, which includes non-psychological attributes that are demographic in nature vs. deep-level that include non-visible and psychological attributes that are fundamental in nature (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002). Value differentials are the deep-level differences within individuals based on the preferential value dimensions ranging from "power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security" (Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002; Schwartz, 1992).

According to Schwartz (1994) value theory, there are ten basic human values motivated by certain goals that are quite constant and outdo situations and actions. Schwartz (1992) organized these values in a circle according to the relative importance of one to another. Therefore, prioritizing human values is what guides perception, behaviour and actions. Furthermore, in a study by Borg, Bardi & Schwartz (2015), the authors tested whether a value circle, as proposed by Schwartz (1992), existed within individuals as well as across different individuals. Also, Schwartz (1992) further elaborated on the value circle by explaining how values can be compatible and/or conflicting within an individual. Compatible

values direct similar preferences and behaviours, while conflicting values guide incongruent and opposing preferences, perceptions and behaviours. Conflicting values may also prevent an individual from adopting one value in the pursuit of another (Schwartz et al., 2017; Schwartz, 1992).

A research by Gollan & Witte (2013) found support for the idea that people can have conflicting values or pair of values but did not provide evidence that the ten basic human values form a necklace of pearls within individuals, which was presented later in another study by Borg, Bardi & Schwartz (2015). The study adopted the ‘unfolding theory of preferential choices’ to reveal that people prioritize values but tend to prioritize compatible values rather than conflicting ones in order to avoid internal conflicts (Borg, Bardi & Schwartz, 2015). Researchers have examined how human behaviour was influenced by value tradeoffs between conflicting values using gender as a moderating variable (Schwartz et al., 2017; Schwartz & Butenko, 2014). Thereby, literature presents evidence as to how different compatible and incompatible values could exist within individuals, however each individual could structure these values differently as per their own preference and priority. Similarly, in a research, Schwartz, Caprara & Vecchione (2010) show that people have a stable hierarchical value structure, which enables them to prioritize basic values.

There are two types of diversity, deep-level diversity and surface-level diversity (Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey, 2002). Deep-level difference is the disparity in psychological characteristics of human beings such as attitudes and values of a team or a group. Using the similarity-attraction paradigm Tekleab & Quigley (2014) stated how deep-level diversity strongly impacted relationship conflict on the individual level in addition to its impact on team level outcomes. In a study on the effect of cultural diversity on teams, Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen (2009) explained that value conflicts among team members’

discouraged collaboration and communication since there was no common ground to encourage a positive effect on team processes. Therefore, incompatible values can possibly create conflict perceptions within and across individuals when prioritized, leading to inconsistent and sometimes difficult decision-making.

Existing literature on variations in work group members' psychological character and performance has used mainly two different perspectives, "social categorization" and "information/decision making perspective" (Wang, Rode, Shi, Luo & Chen, 2013). The former holds that people used similarities and differences as the basis for categorizing themselves and others into groups, while making sure that one group is distinctively different from the other group. The latter holds that informational differences among group members can give rise to conflicts and to reconcile conflicting opinions, group members adopt creative solutions, which otherwise they would not as a result of which differences leads to enhanced group/team performance. Research on diversity-performance relationship carried on by van Knippenberg, De Dreu & Homan (2004) advised that task requirements, group member task ability and task motivation were important moderating variables in determining how team members' differences benefitted group performance.

"Value in diversity hypothesis" studied in Cox & Blake (1991) argues that differences in human values is inevitable and it adds value to organizational processes and outcomes by improving creativity and encouraging critical analysis of opposing perspectives on issues of importance. Contrary to this Jehn, Northcraft & Neale (1999) reported adverse affects of value differentials on workgroup outcomes and established that an individual's commitment to group tasks as well as their satisfaction and intention to stay in a group decreased using the two contextual moderators i.e. task type and task interdependence. In a study on team value incongruence and conflict, Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz (2011)

established that group leader style is a significant moderator. The authors suggest that task-focused leaders build a strong team situation, with clearly defined rules and roles, restricting the effect of team members' individual values. Although, research found significant results for the two values used in this research i.e. traditionalism and protestant work ethic, researchers did not incorporate the other human value types such as power and achievement.

The 10 motivationally distinct human values (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1992) represent three universally cognitive requirements, that are: biological needs of individuals, requirements for social interaction and group needs for survival of and collective interest of the group. Power and achievement values are related with self-interest. Although, the two different individual values have distinct characteristics, a study by Schwartz & Boehnke (2004) shows that power and achievement values are inherently motivated by congruent goals. Thus, encouraging actions triggered to pursue such compatible goals. Therefore, researchers locate achievement and power values adjacent to one another on the value circle.

Prior research on value incongruence confirms the relative importance of each value and highlights personal, social and cultural factors that lead individuals to prioritize one over another. Therefore, prioritizing certain values over others has a systematic relation with behaviour. A study conducted by Schwartz & Bardi (2001) used a sample of 77 teachers across 56 countries and found mean scores of value hierarchy in which achievement value was 6th most important value whereas, power value was the least important for them. However, students sample exhibited that students attributed more importance to achievement value than did teachers. Thus, showing that value priorities vary from person to person.

Research conducted by Taştan and Davoudi (2017) tested whether human values of power and achievement combined had a moderating positive effect between organizational climate and organizational innovativeness. Supporting prior literature, the research concluded

that managers with high power and achievement values were motivated to bring in creative and innovative ideas to work (Rice, 2006). Thus, in a socialist culture, it is likely that managers with values related to self-enhancement or self-interest, such as power and achievement, contribute to organizational innovativeness and creativity by using their power and personal characteristics to motivate and influence themselves and others.

Although extant literature verifies that power and achievement values are motivated by compatible goals, however they vary on characteristics. As work values are an expression of the basic human values in work setting (Taştan and Davoudi, 2017), it is particularly relevant to study power and achievement values because these promote psychologically congruent self-enhancing behaviours. More specifically, power and achievement values may be particularly significant in team based organizational structures characterized by substantial autonomy with respect to how assigned tasks are completed (Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005). Employees structure their work in accordance with their power and achievement related motivations, so to pursue work goals effectively while feeling interpersonally safe to do so (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017). Moreover, values are a product of an individual's environment such as organizational culture and life events (Rokeach, 1973), meaning people assign varying degree of importance to these values based on the environmental needs.

It may be relevant to study power and achievement values as they legitimize self-enhancing behaviour. Power values hold significance in motivating people to work for the collective interest of a group by also justifying the inherent need for a hierarchical social arrangement. Similarly, achievement values motivate efforts to gain societal approval, which may disrupt interpersonal relations hampering the attainment of group goals (Schwartz et al., 2017). Schwartz (1992) distinguished between the two self-enhancing values by defining that achievement values refer to exhibiting competence and excellence in everyday social

interaction, whereas power values refer to demonstrating social status. Furthermore, achievement value represent individual struggle, where power value represents the hierarchical organization of social relations. In a pan-cultural study on the relative importance of the basic 10 human values, researchers found that power value and achievement value were among the last five values showing that goals motivated by these two values were inherently extrinsic and more salient across different cultures (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). In another study conducted by Schwartz & Boehnke (2004), the authors tested whether power and achievement values can be treated as one single value due to their location on the value structure, but empirical findings rejected it. Hence, it would be safe to assume that people may value achievement over power or power over achievement and also value both achievement and power at the same time depending on the extent to which they wish to serve their personal interest and/or exercise dominance over others.

2.1.1. Achievement Value

Achievement value refers to “personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards” (Schwartz, 1992). In a study conducted on the relative significance of human values, achievement value was attributed moderate importance reflecting that it is a socially less desirable value across different cultures (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). On one side, achievement values encourage individuals to utilize their energy and resources in performing tasks that serve collective interest of a group while on the flip side; achievement values also encourage individuals to devote their efforts in proving their self-worth to an extent that they may hinder fulfillment of group goals. Therefore, assigning moderate ranking to achievement values creates a balance by motivating individuals to gratify their self-oriented goals as well as contributing to group welfare without causing any disruptions in social relations (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001).

Past literature on achievement values confirm that achievement is related with the future possibilities and it integrates past, present and future, thereby improving the irreversible properties of time. A research by (Cottle, 1969), studied the link between achievement values, anxiety and time orientations on a sample of students from a medical corpsmen program. The study reported that temporal anxiety of the respondents decreased for those valuing achievement, confirming that people who value achievement accept challenges and convert time into energy for action. Thus, people driven by achievement relate their present situation with a future outcome and this future directedness in people who value achievement encourages them to seek change and take up unfamiliar and challenging tasks. In “the achieving society,” Davis & McClelland (1962) also reported that high achievers are future oriented in comparison to low achievers. A research by Pandey & Tewary (1979) elaborated on McClelland’s work on the ‘need for achievement’ and economic growth by suggesting that achievement value is different from the need for achievement, but is more like achievement motivation, which regulates individuals’ desire for upward striving. The authors confirmed that personality factors like achievement value and internal control are better predictors of entrepreneurship by providing empirical support showing that individuals with higher achievement value and internal locus of control stood a better chance of being selected in the interview for a potential entrepreneurial role.

Achievement emotions were described as sentiments that are interrelated with achievement activities and outcomes that are evaluated according to the standard quality by ones’ self or others. Using the control-value theory (Perkun, Frenzel, Goetz & Perry, 2007), suggested that achievement emotions and social emotions overlap and that control and value appraisals determine these emotions. The study was mainly focused on how achievement emotions had an effect on the academic commitment and performance of students. It was found that positive emotions like pride and hope were positively related to academic

achievement whereas, undesirable emotions like anxiety related adversely to students' academic achievement. Moreover, the study confirmed a reciprocal link between emotions and achievement using subjective values as a moderating variable that explained the impact as well as the intensity of value on emotions.

Values have a causal influence on behaviour. A recent study on how achievement values, operationally defined as "success as per social standards," improved task performance through cognitive and motivational processes shows that gender does not impact the strength of the value-behaviour relationship under scrutiny (Schwartz et al., 2017). Values differentiated between two types in a study by Skimina, Ciecuch, Schwartz, Davidov & Algesheimer (2018) are namely value traits (guiding behaviour) and value states (guiding real-time acts). Since values are decontextualized goals, they serve as guiding principles to behaviour and perception (Schwartz, 1992). Thus, the more important goal of a value is, the more likely that it stimulates action. Talking about volitional and non-volitional actions in examining real-time behaviour (value states) that is acts that are self-chosen or forced by people or situations respectively, Skimina, Ciecuch, Schwartz, Davidov & Algesheimer (2018) observed that human values that drive behaviour simultaneously are those that are located adjacently on the value circle, which was coherent with value theory as proposed by Schwartz (1994; 1992). Furthermore, the authors also found that achievement value states were central guides of forced (non-volitional) than self-chosen (volitional) deeds.

People prioritize values in pursuit of certain goals and they often demonstrate alacrity in accepting smaller rewards for tasks that require little effort. There are two types of goals that motivate behaviour, "avoidance goals" and "approach goals" (Ballard, Farrell & Neal, 2017; Cohen, Darnon & Mollaret, 2016). Extant literature also suggests that people are more motivated by avoidance goals than by approach goals therefore a stronger inclination towards

achievement of goals that require avoiding unwanted outcomes than those that involve achieving desirable ones.

Consistent with existing research in this domain, a study “Quantifying the psychological value of goal achievement” unravels psychological values associated with goal or task achievement and validates that people overlook the value of achieving a specific goal in relation to the value of achieving multiple goals depending on whether they are avoidance or approach goals. Furthermore, research confirms that psychological values of goal achievement differ from individual to individual and pursuing intrinsically rewarding goals increases the psychological values attached to goal achievement, thereby making monetary rewards less influential (Ballard, Farrell & Neal, 2017). On the contrary, another research discussed two type of goals namely “mastery goals” (that reflect the desire to acquire knowledge and to learn) and “performance goals” (that reflect the desire to achieve positive evaluation in comparison to others), and how performance goals in other words, achievement goals express different social and individual values therefore shaping our self-perceptions and our judgement about other people (Cohen, Darnon & Mollaret, 2016). In a study on the effect of team deep-level value diversity on performance and three facets of team effectiveness (relationship and task conflict, team efficacy and cohesion), Woehr, Arciniega & Poling (2012) found that achievement value diversity was significant for all aspects of team processes (i.e. conflict and efficacy) except team cohesion and it positively influenced task performance.

Scholars have found that the content of individual values influences group outcomes. People who value decisiveness believed that their group operated better as they were happier and these values were not associated with objective performance (Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher, 1997). Values that were intuitively believed to improve group outcomes do not

actually increase performance. However, according to Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher (1997) teams that valued achievement, were more result oriented and held higher expectations were the high-performers.

2.1.2. Power Value

Power value is defined as “individual need for dominance and control” (Schwartz, 1992). Power according to Woehr, Arciniega & Poling (2012) is conceptually defined as the social prestige, control and authority over resources and people. Power value is split into power-dominance and power-resources. Power-dominance refers to power attained from exercising control over other people and power- resources means power attained from having control over social and material resources (Rogoza, Wyszynska, Maćkiewicz & Ciecuch, 2016; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1992). A pan-cultural study on value hierarchies by Schwartz & Bardi (2001) found that power value was considered the least important human value. A certain level of status stratification is necessary for the normal functioning of a society and from this emerges the dominant/submissive relationships within and across all cultures. In order to justify this social phenomenon, its is imperative for group members to understand and accept power values motivated by the goal of realizing social status, dominance, prestige and control over people and resources in order to enhance their public image and social recognition (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1992).

It is commonly believed that power values necessitate exploitation of others, thereby troubling and harming social relations. A recent study by (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017) revealed that participative safety climate was a significant moderator in the association between power value diversity and relationship conflict, i.e. in high participative safety climate, diversity in power values helped lowering relational conflict in teams. On the flip

side, power values are also compatible with self-oriented and self-gratifying goals and desires that encourage individuals to strive for group interests so as to validate social hierarchy across all cultures and societies (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). A study on power structures within teams by (van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg, 2018) states that power hierarchies within teams arouses competition and provokes fights over resources that in turn challenges the collective potential of a team. Furthermore, research elaborates on how power differences within team members facilitate an individualistic attitude, which in turn results in a conflict spillover effect. Furthermore, team members driven by power values may withhold resources such as information and manipulate others, which further stresses on power inequalities that hamper achieving mutually beneficial outcomes.

Extant research supports the idea that power hierarchies within organizations are relatively stable. However, some contend that according to situational requirements, power relationships in contemporary team settings are dynamic as power shifts between members over the course of time until task completion. Supporting the idea of “power heterarchy”, Aime, Humphrey, DeRue & Paul (2014) found that certain situations prompt shifts in power relations within groups, which as a result improves team creativity. Power within groups is conceptualized as individuals ranked according to some social criteria according to which some people are ranked high or low based on their relative access to resources, expertise and information. A conceptual study on cultural power distance and its impact on group creativity used work strategies and group leader behaviour as moderating variables to explain that the belief and acceptance of power inequalities among people has direct consequences on group creativity owing to the status differentiation in western culture (Yuan & Zhou, 2015). Similarly, in a research on leader-team dyads, Hu & Judge (2017) elaborated on power distance values, which captured how leaders behave and how their subordinates react to their actions by drawing on the dominance complementarity theory. According to this theory,

when one party assumes a dominant position, the other assumes a submissive role.

Literature on emotions and values verifies that human emotions like pride reflect success and promotes power hierarchy and social status; likewise anger is human reaction to an offensive action of others. Tamir et al. (2016) found that individuals endorsed by self-enhancement values of achievement and power had a greater desire to feel unpleasant emotions of anger, hatred and pride over pleasant emotions as these emotions indicate power, control, ego, dominance and success. Therefore, human values that are cognitively controlled breed emotions that ultimately lead to appropriate action/behaviour. People admire narcissists, who pursue success, act autonomously, enhance their ego and select short-term goals. But people dismiss narcissists who attempt to control and dominate people while defending their own ego as they are thought to be a social threat. Talking about narcissist admiration and narcissist rivalry in connection with the 10 basic human values, Rogoza, Wyszynska, Maćkiewicz & Ciecuch, (2016) reported that achievement values are predicted by narcissist admiration, while on the other hand power values are predicted by narcissist rivalry. Therefore, demonstrating that individual values of achievement and power predict narcissist behaviours of admiration and rivalry respectively. In a similar research, Kajonius, Persson & Jonason (2015) discussed the three dark aspects of personality, namely psychopathy, narcissism and Machiavellianism and their impact on social values. Since the dark triad embodies an anti-social or self-centered lifestyle, self-enhancing values of power and achievement were shown to have positive correlations with the three personality traits under discussion. Therefore, researchers referred to these higher order values of self-enhancement (Schwartz, 1992), as “dark values” since they involve dismissing others and promoting self-interest.

2.2. Gender

Surface-level diversity refers to the differences in non-psychological attributes that are demographic in nature such as gender and age. Gender dissimilarities in values are usually significant but small in size (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). People have varied fundamental values and gender differences plays a role in the relative importance they attach to these basic human values. It is relevant to study the gender differences in these value orientations as they guide behaviour across varied social roles and events (Beutel & Marini, 1995). Prior research in this domain has provided indirect evidence that suggests several gender differences exist in the relative importance of the ten basic human values explained by Schwartz (1992). The process of gendering begins as a child is born. Children as they grow are taught to act and perform in their gender specific ways, which allows the internalization of gender roles for both sexes (Eagly & Wood, 1999; Drew & Dolphyne, 1993). Since both genders undergo a different socialization process, they acquire values pertinent to their respective gender and adopt gender-appropriate behaviours (Bird & Brush, 2002). Hence, it was suggested that men and women, both are socialized to embrace diverse values, so they pursue dissimilar objectives and eventually adopt different business strategies (Carter, Williams & Reynolds, 1997).

Masculinity and femininity are socially constructed labels. Research also supports the idea that it is possible for an individual to exhibit both feminine and masculine attributes simultaneously (Spence, 1993). A study was carried out with the purpose of specifying which personal values were prototypical of men and which were typical of women in a given culture (Di Dio, Saragovi, Koestner & Aubé, 1996). In this study the authors support the view that values characterizing orientation towards agency such as accomplishment, were labeled 'masculine', and values expressing an orientation towards communion such as friendship

were labeled 'feminine'.

Men get little emotional support as compared to women (Rosenthal, Gesten & Shiffman, 1986), and this gender difference supports that differences in human values of both sexes is greatly attributable to the differences in the amount of emotional and social support received. In a research by (Beutel & Marini, 1995), the three measures of value orientations explained were namely materialism, compassion and meaning in life and this research found significant gender differences on all three accounts. Females were more compassionate, less materialistic and less competitive, and also indicated the importance of finding a meaning of life in comparison to men. Furthermore, researchers assumed that religiosity has an impact on value orientations, as the religious affiliation of U.S. adolescents is the affect of parental influence and socialization. The authors also tested whether social class levels were the basis for gender differences in values. However, it was observed that these differences in values were evident across social classes and could not be explained by the gender differences that resulted from social support or religiosity (Beutel & Marini, 1995). To see if gender differences in personal values could be replicated for transitional economies, a similar study was carried out by Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey (2008) in Ghana, a transitional society where societal privileges and relationships are learned and acquired from social institutions formally called the family and school and traditional values are communicated through proverbs and rituals somewhat altered to fit in modern needs of the society (Amu, 2005). The results from this study show that gender was a significant predictor of personal values. Women revealed 'shared values' and adopted more reactive strategies like compassion and social protection, while men revealed more 'entrepreneurial values' that is, they were more achievement-oriented and ambitious (Rokeach, 1973), showing a competitive advantage over women in terms of adopting proactive strategies (Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey, 2008).

Gender differences in human values demonstrate the distinctive styles of interpersonal relations and interaction upheld by the two genders. Women are believed to be more understanding and exhibit socially optimistic and constructive behavior such as alleviating group tensions and showing group unity, whereas men engage in task-oriented behaviour and disagreements such as giving weightage to their own opinions and suggestions. Thereby, exhibiting a rather rigid status hierarchy and more competitive behaviour than women (Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione, 2015; Beutel & Marini, 1995; Aries, 1976).

Values are beliefs that are closely linked to the self and are organized according to their relative importance (Rokeach, 1973). Personal values directly reflect the differential socialization pressures confronted by males and females. Therefore, in traditional societies it can be speculated that men are more materialistic and achievement-oriented whereas, women care about emotional security and a conflict free world. Using values related to environmentalism, researchers did not find sufficient evidence for gender differences in the structure and conceptualization of values (Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002; Beutel & Marini, 1995), however, scholars reported significant gender differences in value priorities (Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002). Scholars highlighted that “altruism,” a value closely linked to environmentalism, identified as ‘self-transcendence’ values in Schwartz work is given more priority by women over men (Dietz, Kalof & Stern, 2002). Conversely, self-interest or in Schwartz words “self-enhancement’ values are prioritized by men.

Political theorists opine that men and women have diverse values and interests and that women holding political office express values of other women and therefore represent ordinary women better than men elected for political office. To support this notion, basic human value theorists in Schwartz et al. (2013) probed into why personal values are significant and found that they are more stable and less sensitive to economic, social and

political advancements. Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione (2015) elaborated on the differences in male and female values and how their political presence in the parliament contributes to making different policies practically representing both genders through political activity.

The basic human values pointed out by Schwartz (1992), are grouped into four broad dimensions out of which self-enhancement values (power and achievement) are the main focus of this study. Self-enhancement emphasizes the pursuit of personal interest. Prior cross-cultural studies have shown that men attribute higher importance to power and achievement values than do women. Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione (2015) explored value differences in both male and female voters and found that there was no significant gender difference in self-enhancement values. These findings were opposed to the findings reported in a study conducted by Schwartz & Rubel (2005) on gender differences in personal values. Power values show the most consistent sex difference, which is universally consistent across different societies as men occupy status positions and exercise greater control over resources attained through competition. Vying for power means men also attach more importance to achievement values because that is directly related to showing competence and personal success as per social standards through direct competition. However, these differences are not consistent across all cultures and societies (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005).

According to Gottman (2014), conflict resolution is critical to shaping and maintaining relationships. A study reports that males and females exhibit differences in their perceptions owing to gender role socialization (Fletcher and Kerr, 2010). Researchers support that the way conflict is managed among people better predicts relationship outcomes, than the frequency with which conflict occurs (Stanley, Markman, & Whitton, 2002). Problem solving strategies like negotiation, compromise, compliance and withdrawal work to significantly

resolve conflicts (Wickham et al., 2016). The perception of the partner's conflict management style by an individual has a strong influence in shaping expectations regarding possible disagreements and conflicts (Wickham et al., 2016).

In a study on workplace conflict, the authors found that the type of office was a significant predictor of conflict for women than men. Gender difference was observed in interpersonal relationships, such that women experienced significant relational conflicts in a shared workspace than men (Danielsson, Bodin, Wulff & Theorell, 2015). Schneider, Holman, Diekman & McAndrew (2015) in their research have shown that men are more thick skinned and deal with criticism and conflict in their political lives, and further elaborates that men express more tolerance towards conflicting situations than do women.

Researchers in this domain have distinguished between cooperative and non-cooperative strategies to explain gender differences in conflict management (Danielsson, Bodin, Wulff & Theorell, 2015). More recently Peleg-Koriat, Weimann-Saks & Ben-Ari (2017) examined the impact of power perceptions amongst couples on conflict management methods and found women to be more relationship oriented than men as a result of which, they seek to adopt a more cooperative style to conflict management as compared to men. Also men, on the other hand, are more mission-oriented, and they espouse more constructive but non-cooperative conflict management styles (i.e. avoiding a conflict) in order to maintain relationships that they consider more valuable.

2.3. Perceived Conflict in Teams

Conflicts are unfriendly, opposing relationships between people. According to Delhey & Dragolov (2013) individuals experience exploitation, confrontations, unpleasant relationships and unfair treatment when unevenly positioned, which in turn crystallizes in conflict perceptions. Perceived conflict is negatively associated with happiness and in such

cases those who perceive conflict deviate from the society and do not enjoy life (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013).

There are five stages or conflict episodes in organizations as identified by Pondy (1967). These are Latent conflict, perceived conflict, felt conflict, manifest conflict and the conflict aftermath. Conflict between two or more individuals at work can be studied as a series of conflict episodes. Each conflict episode follows another. The focus of this research is on perceived conflict to which we turn to after briefly distinguishing between each episode of conflict.

Latent conflict arises when people in an organization compete over resources and autonomy. Latent conflict may also occur when an individual assumes role incompatibility. Perceived conflict, also known as cognitive conflict, may sometimes occur without the episode of latent conflict. Perceived conflict results from misunderstanding of each other's true status and exacerbates with poor communication. Furthermore, perceived conflict must be acknowledged especially when it is related to personal values fundamental to an individual's personality. Felt conflict on the other hand, is the personalization of perceived conflict. Manifest conflict is the display of open aggression in the shape of physical or verbal violence. Manifest conflict is behavioral and is deliberately designed to aggravate another individual in the pursuit of his/her overt or covert goals. Therefore, manifest conflict is deliberate in action. Lastly, the conflict aftermath is the episode where conflict is either resolved or suppressed. The underlying conditions for conflict are intensified and explode into a more serious form of conflict if conflict is bottled up and left unresolved (Pondy, 1992).

Conflict may ascend within or among work groups and with their supervisors owing to disagreements concerning core human values (Jehn, 1994). Conflict is conceptually defined as "the expression of differences in opinion or priority because of opposing needs or

demands” (Tjosvold, 1986). In a more recent study by de Wit, Greer & Jehn (2012), team conflict is conceptualized as “the process emerging from perceived incompatibilities or differences among group members”. Mostly teams are temporary arrangements as they are formed for a short time period to accomplish certain tasks and disband after their completion. However, just as teams have several advantages, problems are equally pertinent. A salient problem that prevails in teams could be team conflict, which refers to difficulties or differences among team members upon task or interpersonal matters. Heterogeneous teams are most likely to face conflict of opinion. Jehn (1994) provided a clear division of conflict into three distinct types namely, relationship conflict, task conflict and process conflict.

Work teams comprise of a group of individuals who are assigned tasks towards a common goal and they interact and exhibit task interdependencies for task accomplishment. According to Salas, Sims & Burke (2005), “A team is two or more individuals with specified roles interacting adaptively, interdependently, and dynamically toward a common and valued goal.” Teams have the strength to offer greater productivity, richer creativity and more resilience than individuals, which makes them a popular unit for getting work done (Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005). There are six types of work teams (Sundstrom et al., 1990; Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Our main focus is on project teams, in which individuals are brought together for a short notice from different functions and geographical locations and are allotted tasks often accompanied with tight deadlines. In project teams, individuals are expected to work effectively to execute unfamiliar tasks by utilizing essential resources and ultimately producing superior quality outcome (Ericksen & Dyer, 2004).

Rather than individuals making the entire decisions, team structures focus on interdependence and reliance on team members for the fulfillment of tasks. Due to this dependency, conflicts are evident among many teams (Tjosvold, Yu & Hui, 2004). Higher

the success rate of many teams, higher the probability that the team has effectively dealt with the negative elements lurking in the organization (Costa, Passos & Bakker, 2015). Within any organization, the underlying aim of teams is to show commendable performance that cannot be pulled off by any single individual. Members join hands and minds to achieve the desired results that may include task completed on time, feelings of pride in the accomplished task, efficient and effective work, creative solutions and in-group harmony (Lim & Klein, 2006; Salas, Sims & Burke, 2005; de Dreu & Weingart, 2003). What drives team performance down the hole is the presence of conflict within teams. The likelihood of in-group conflict requires desperate scholarly attention so to highlight contexts in which this conflict can easily be dealt with.

According to Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro (2001) teams revolve around performance episodes, which comprises of action and transition phases: the former related to getting the task done, and the later covering evaluation of what has been done and what future steps to take. Therefore, managing conflict that prevails throughout action and transition phases of team processes is inevitable (Marks, Mathieu & Zaccaro, 2001). However, Costa, Passos & Bakker (2015), opine that the impact of conflict on transitional phases of team process could have more deleterious impact on team effectiveness, mainly due to interpersonal conflict.

In a study on organizational politics and conflict, Bai, Han & Harms (2015) provided two basic models of conflict, structural model and process model, to present a theoretical explanation as to why and how conflicts emerge. Structural model discussed the contextual factors that center around goal incompatibilities and contribute to the cause of conflict (Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999). Process conflict links up the structural factors that arouse conflict with sense making, which as a result leads to behavioral manifestations of conflict (Bai, Han & Harms, 2015). Conflict is a divergent process where different ideas are

compared and contrasted (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2009). Conflict is divergent when opposing views and ideas brought in by team members contribute positively to team functioning by improving team creativity. Conflict on the other hand can also turn into a convergent process, where team members are brought together to pursue common objectives.

The optimal Distinctiveness Theory by Brewer (1991) holds that individuals seek a balance between the contradictory need for relational affiliation and individual distinctiveness. In intergroup contexts, affiliation is satisfied perceived integration, whereas uniqueness is satisfied by perceived differences. According to a study by Ricketta (2005), perceived intergroup conflict, from a cognitive perspective, arises as a result of bias and prejudice in the process of indicating dissimilarity and uniqueness. Furthermore, the author also suggested that intergroup perceived conflict increases as people resist in-group similarities. However, according to the adult attachment theory, individual differences are at the core of expectations and perceptions of relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), and these are most likely to have an affect on commitment in relationships.

Conflict works as a cycle where one party believes that the other party perceives its interests negatively and hence a disagreement or an uncomfortable situation arises (Pondy, 1967). This school of thought perceives conflict as a negative element and demands a quick panacea to get rid of any conflicting situation within an organization. On the other hand, there is seemingly some divergence of opinion as Tjosvold (1991) presumes conflict to play a positive role in pursuing organizational outcomes as they are constructive and help bring in new insights through debates, disagreements and discussions. Work of Tjosvold (1991) has influenced a large number of researches to develop a new, more positive and milder stream of knowledge on conflict where conflict is assumed to take place when individuals “care” for one another or are “concerned” about realizing goal (Jehn, Greer, Levine & Szulanski, 2008;

Ayoko, 2007; Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2007).

Elaborating on intra-group conflict in multicultural teams, Woehr, Arciniega & Poling (2012) found that both task conflict and relationship conflict significantly correlated with team effectiveness since cultural values were more deeply immersed and individuals hold on to their respective beliefs and values subconsciously, therefore they are hard to resolve. On the other hand, van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg (2018) studied inter-team conflicts where team members share incompatible goals and needs making it inevitable for them to compete over resources. Furthermore, the authors also show conflicts have a spillover effect so that means conflicts over resources permeate team boundaries, therefore influencing inter-team and intra-team performance (van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg, 2018; Sassenberg, Moskowitz, Jacoby & Hansen, 2007). In studying the link between cultural differences in a team and its performance, Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen (2009) elaborated on the role of different contextual aspects of teams such as nature of teams, team size and team tenure to explain that once conflicting perspectives arise between culturally diverse team members, conflict will remain unresolved or even exacerbate.

Extant literature focused on the traditional view of conflict, which termed conflict as a detrimental concept and an obstacle in achieving appreciable performance. The focal point of such studies was more on how conflicts arose, and how problems triggered through trivial disagreements. However, there is still a need to confront conflict positively and employ remedies to deal with it favorably rather than totally eliminating it. Barki & Hartwick (2001) claims that if conflict is managed effectively then it may lead to positive outcomes like team effectiveness and higher firm performance where conflict may not be totally perceived as a negative factor in organizations. Thus, the nature of conflict holds mixed views. It is important to consider how this conflict can be handled efficiently so as to enjoy positive

results of teamwork.

Relational conflict is highly viewed as a negative form of conflict, which hampers performance, whereas task conflict is viewed as positive as well as negative form of conflict. However, these interpersonal issues if coupled with avoiding management style may help keep things low-key where potential outburst is avoided. Team members' energy can be diverted towards the task by complicating work since asserting one's own opinion in relational conflict would necessarily encumber positive team outcomes. These findings pronounced prominent implications for practitioners and scholars.

Prior research on team conflict has shown that people perceive conflict before it is overtly expressed (Jehn, Rispens & Thatcher, 2010; Jehn, Rupert, Nauta & Van Den Bossche, 2010). Conflict asymmetry occurs when the involved parties have different perceptions of conflict. Researchers report that differences in how individual members of a team perceive conflict has a strong negative impact on team processes and outcomes as members are less respectful to each other, they communicate less and are less cohesive. Thus, conflict asymmetry between involved parties involved has an impact on how conflict escalates. A study by Chen & Ayoko (2012), suggests that certain emotional reactions are triggered during a conflict that shape conflict perceptions. But before conflict is expressed through an emotional reaction it must first be perceived. Individuals who receive expressions for disagreement or opposition, undergo a complex perceptual process of attending to and interpreting the expressions of conflict directed towards them by assessing and registering the reaction to disagreement, recognizing the problem and finally deciding to regulate his/her own reaction (Jehn, Rispens, & Thatcher, 2010). Since conflict transcends different stages before it is manifested through behaviour (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013), hence studying the role of perceived interpersonal conflict is relevant to organizational behaviour research as

when conflict is perceived, it negatively impacts human emotions like happiness and anxiety digressing individuals from the society and lowering their overall satisfaction in life (Delhey & Dragolov, 2013). Furthermore, it is important to study perceived conflict to suppress the consequential episodes of conflict, which otherwise would lead to deliberate action when left unrepressed (Pondy, 1992). Conflict can also be perceived in terms of assigned targets at work place. It is the extent to which personnel feel that performance expectations are incompatible with the dimensions of assigned task/tasks. Individuals see achievement of a goal being hindered by the achievement of other goals. Therefore, perceived conflict is more likely to come into play when there are limited resources and attainment of one goal comes at the cost of failing to achieve another goal. Therefore, Cheng, Lockett & Mahama (2007) reported that individuals' perception of their cognitive capacity to achieve targets results in increased perceived conflict at work. Furthermore, the author also argued that individuals who were assigned same tasks, perceived different levels of overall task conflict. Therefore, it is important to study perceived conflict in an organizational setting from the structural perspective of conflict as suggested by Bai, Han & Harms (2015).

2.3.1. Relationship Conflict

Relationship conflict refers to as “personal incompatibility among team members expressed through bitterness and annoyance in interpersonal relationships” (Jehn, 1994). Perceived relationship conflict is when an individual assumes acrimonious interpersonal ties due to personal incompatibility, which is only cognitively presumed and is not manifested through behaviour. Recent findings show empirical support that deep-level dissimilarities in teams does not result in relational conflict especially when members of a team value teamwork (Mohammed & Angell, 2004). To study the relationship between value diversity and worker morale, Jehn, Northcraft & Neale (1999) studied the mediating role of

relationship conflict and found that value diversity aggravated conflict resulting in low employee morale, satisfaction, intent to remain and commitment, which in turn impacted perceived and actual performance. Prior studies have established an inverse relationship between relational conflict and team effectiveness, however a cross-level analysis on conflict and individual-level reactions moderated by deep-level diversity suggested that diversity could either improve or exacerbate conflict among team members, thereby supporting the similarity-attraction paradigm (Tekleab & Quigley, 2014). Furthermore, Tekleab & Quigley (2014) confirmed that people with high emotional stability might overlook conflicts, which may weaken the association between relationship conflict and adverse individual-level reactions. Researchers highlighted in the past studies that anxious people perceive more conflict (Pietromonaco et al., 2004), owing to their sensitivity towards rejection (Campbell, Simpson, Boldry & Kashy, 2005). However, according to (Collins, 1996) anxious individuals assume more relational conflict. Moreover, there have been studies reporting that women perceive more conflict than men as they wish to maintain intimacy in relationships owing to their socio-cultural or even biological reasons, whereas men desire independence in relationships (Brassard, Lussier & Shaver, 2009).

Research to date found that relational conflict among team members had an adverse impact on team cohesion and hence team performance (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012; Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999). Although, past literature provides empirical support for how relationship conflict decreases worker satisfaction and negatively influences performance in non-routine tasks (Jehn, 1995; 1994, De Dreu & Weingart (2003) found that relational conflict was disruptive to team performance when moderated by group task but also found support for the information-processing perspective. According to De Dreu & Weingart (2003) conflict may be advantageous, but as it intensifies, cognitive load amplifies and information processing is obstructed, thereby hampering team performance for complex

tasks. Similarly, to test the impact of task conflict on team member satisfaction Shaw et al. (2011) used relational conflict as a moderator, found that in situations with low relationship conflict, moderate level of task conflict could be beneficial to, and positively associated with improved supervisor rated performance. However, in case of high relational conflict, team members face personal friction, which distracts them from identifying, interpreting and analyzing task relevant disagreements, thereby diminishing their ability to perform optimally in a team structure. Thus, refuting the notion that relational conflict is dysfunctional whereas task conflict is productive.

Research by De Dreu & Weingart (2003) was further extended by de Wit, Greer & Jehn (2012), in which four different task types were used as moderating variables to examine the link between relationship conflict and group performance. In contrast to the findings reported by De Dreu & Weingart (2003), this study reports that relationship conflict is more detrimental to group outcomes than other types of conflict, except in case of project tasks, where group members are brought together for a shorter span and the negative effects of relational conflict can be avoided from escalating (De Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012). Another similar study carried out by (Costa, Passos & Bakker, 2015) aimed at examining the moderating role of two types of conflict (task and relational) on the job demand-resources model of employee worker motivation and its impact on proximal (work engagement) and distal (performance) team outcomes, where it emerged that relationship conflict had no direct relationship with team performance. Hobman & Bordia (2006) found support for the role of team identification as a moderating variable in testing the relationship between value dissimilarity and conflict and also found that the impact of dissimilarity on conflict does not change with time. Furthermore, Hobman & Bordia (2006) also suggested that individuals having similar values experience less relational conflict in how they approach work as they highly identified themselves with the team.

As conflict is pivotal to team processes and perceived as situational in nature, researchers delved into studying the connection between workplace politics and conflict. In a study on organizational politics, Bai, Han & Harms (2015) concluded that relationship conflict fully mediated the relationship between organizational political climate and worker performance. Since people within one team can have several identities, the intangible benefit of trust among team members is that it nurtures pleasant working relationships. In a study on the interdependence of trust and conflict and how it adds value to construction project teams, Wu, Zhao and Zuo (2017) found that since trust offers confidence, it is crucial for project teams as the risk of conflict is minimized and team members coordinate and collaborate to add value to the project. Moreover, it was suggested that it is important to build trust and improve soft skills within teams so that the positive impact of task conflict and the destructive effect of relationship conflict could be weakened so as to realize project's added value (Wu, Zhao and Zuo, 2017). Literature on team conflict distinguishes between relational and task conflict by arguing that they have contradictory effect on team outcomes. Since, the two types of team conflict are often interrelated, one type of conflict leads to another, and thereby some researchers have used them simultaneously. Task conflict is sparked by work discrepancies, whereas relationship conflict is provoked through interpersonal differences (Jehn, 1995).

Avoiding relational conflict may not have adverse affects on team performance. These relational conflicts could include personal likings, political prejudice, situational preferences and distinctive interpersonal style. Rather than the task being the springboard for disagreements, personal tastes and opinions cause certain disputes in relation conflict. Within teams, apart from task-related problems, members may not get along quite well with each other, which may jeopardize team performance. In such a case, avoiding the confrontation of such conflict may help keep things low-key so that the situation does not aggravate. Rather

than focusing on the interpersonal tensions, if the energies are directed towards the task at hand, it may be useful to avoid conflict and help in settling the dust (Almost et al., 2016). As such interpersonal disagreements are avoidable and do not contribute to the task, they should better be overlooked. Additionally, in case of interpersonal conflict within team members, choosing to avoid confrontation may encourage better ideas flowing in by focusing on the task in an attempt to be superior to peers. Better ideas popping up may indirectly help the task and may bring about superior team performance. Thus, relationship conflict is more detrimental as inherent interpersonal disagreements are more difficult to resolve than task conflict (Jehn, 1995). Being aggressive and violent about personal behavior adds fuel to fire as it shows that the member is keeping themselves above and over other members (Song, Dyer & Thieme, 2006).

2.4. Theoretical Development and Research Hypotheses

Value differences in team settings are hypothesized to escalate team conflict (Jehn, Northcraft & Neale, 1999). However, “Value in diversity hypothesis” studied in Cox & Blake (1991) argues that divergence in human values is unavoidable and it adds value to organizational processes and outcomes by improving creativity and encouraging critical analysis of opposing perspectives on issues of importance. In this research, we propose that perceived relationship conflict may be impacted by team deep level values positively or negatively using the optimistic and pessimistic view of value disparity in teams.

Power values are compatible with self-oriented and self-gratifying goals and desires that encourage individuals to strive for team interests so as to validate social hierarchy across all cultures and societies (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). A study on power structures within teams by van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg (2018) states that power hierarchies within teams arouses competition and provokes fights over resources that in turn challenges

the collective potential of a team. Whereas, individuals who attach higher importance to achievement values are motivated to accept challenges and they put use of their resources and time to achieve desired goals that also serve the interests of other team members. Power values and achievement values individually and simultaneously could act like a two-edged sword in its impact on the relational (interpersonal) conflict. This means it is likely that differences in power and achievement values of team members may also help in reducing the perception of conflict instead of augmenting it, as it is most commonly believed.

There are two opposing theories supporting research on human values. The optimistic or complementary view of value differences theorizes enhanced creativity, work standard and task outcomes as a result of varied perspectives and viewpoints coming from individuals with diverse deep-level characteristics. On the other end, the pessimistic view or the conflicting view focuses on the interactional issues instigated as a result of the differences in individual values of people representing a group (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling, 2012).

2.4.1. The Impact of Power and Achievement Values on Perceived Relationship Conflict

Scholars support the idea that similarity in demographics and values is at the core of effective work environment (O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991). Sometimes it is very challenging to manage conflict as team members come from diverse backgrounds, having diverse values and cultural orientations making it difficult to manage as a team thus, hindering overall functioning of the team (Kodikal, Rahiman & Pakeerrappa, 2014).

Research on team dynamics mostly uses similarity-attraction mechanisms that suggest differences of beliefs, values and opinions among people are recognized and that people separate themselves from those holding opposing views and opinions (Byrne, 1971). Similarity-attraction paradigm proposes that people choose similarity in their social interactions. Team members with similar values and goals are in a position to enhance

interpersonal relationships and to avoid adverse group outcomes like conflict as compared to group members having diverse values and objectives. Therefore, research revealed that teams members exhibiting dissimilar values face rough interaction processes compared to teams with similar values (Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993).

People high on power values could become intimidating in exerting their influence on other members of the team and may become highly competitive in vying for a status position, thereby hampering team cohesion (Aime, Humphrey, DeRue & Paul, 2014) as a result giving rise to perceived relational conflict. Furthermore, people who attach greater importance to power values may withhold information and manipulate the voices of other teammates with dissimilar values (van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg, 2018) thereby increasing the perception of relationship conflict.

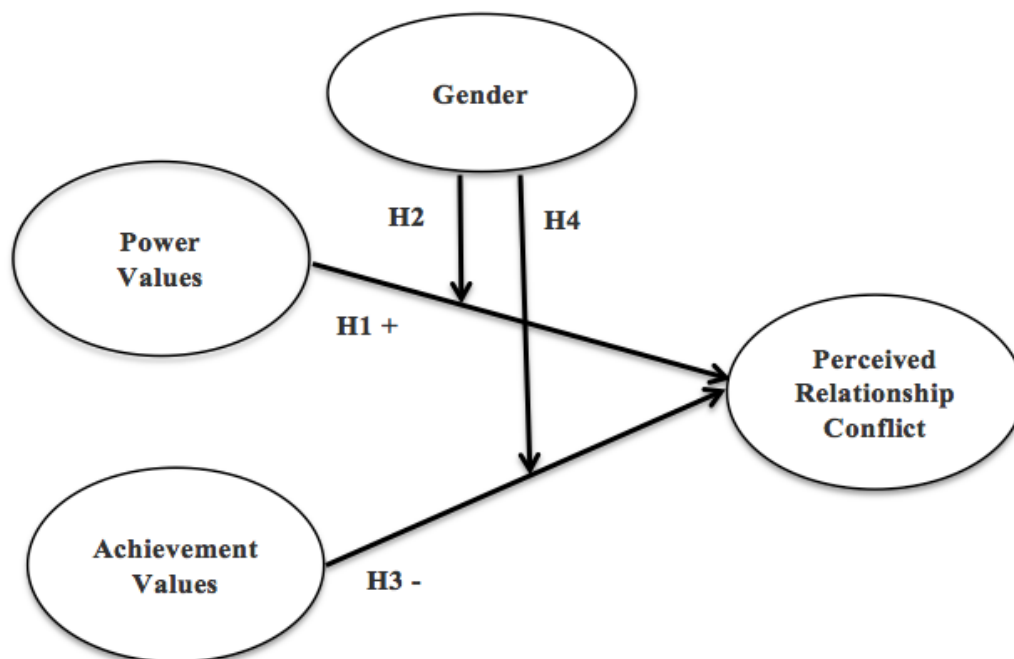
H1: Power value has a positive statistically significant effect on perceived relationship conflict.

Since achievement values are motivated by self-interest, people who assign more importance to achievement values may be encouraged to devote their efforts in proving their self-worth to an extent that they may hinder fulfillment of team goals and tasks (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Furthermore, people who are not motivated to struggle for competence and expertise according to the social standards, i.e. they are low on achievement values, may act as free-riders in team setups. Since individual contributions to team tasks cannot be clearly identified, the contentious problem of social loafing or free riding arises in case of collective assessment and evaluation of teamwork (Maiden & Perry, 2011). Some members of the team contribute less or do not contribute at all to team tasks as compared to other members as they get evaluated collectively and not individually. Taking forward the similarity-attraction paradigm, it can be theorized that this social phenomenon of social loafing and free riding as

a result of achievement value diversity, affects team coherence, results in varying work standards and gives rise to perceived relationship conflict.

On the contrary, this study adopts the information-processing perspective to support the optimistic view of diversity in human values. Information-processing perspective (Cognitive resource theory) suggests that differences among team members' attributes create opportunities, where team members can share dissimilar viewpoints and analyze an issue at hand more deeply (Woehr, Arciniega & Poling; 2012, Cox & Blake; 1991). Taking forward a separate theoretical perspective, the information-processing perspective assumes that differences in human attributes can result in better-informed decisions through innovation, creativity and alternative problem solving. The study posits, individuals high on achievement values are future-directed and result oriented (Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher, 1997; Cottle, 1969). They are likely to offer creative, ingenious ideas (Rice, 2006) and impart knowledge and actively involve in information sharing with other team members that encourages cooperative team learning, thereby improving work relationships and reducing perceived relational conflict.

H3: Achievement value has a negative statistically significant effect on perceived relationship conflict.

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework: Antecedents of Perceived Relationship Conflict

2.4.2. Gender as a Moderating Contingency for Power and Achievement Values – Perceived Relationship Conflict Link

Power and achievement value might serve as a social justification for team members' decisions and disagreements (Schwartz, 1992; Rokeach, 1973). Conflict is generally identified as negative form of disagreements between team members over task and interpersonal interactions; it is shown to have an adverse effect on team outcomes (de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). A meta-analysis by Joshi & Roh (2009) explained that the effect of workplace differences could be amplified in size after incorporating moderating variables in the study. Therefore, considering moderating variables could help us better understand the various factors (Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen, 2009) under which team deep-level differences impact team processes, theoretically and empirically.

Linking up the recommendations made by researchers on workplace disparity and conflict literature, this study adopts a contingency approach (e.g., Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014; de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; Shaw et al., 2011), to explain how power and achievement values and perceived team conflict is contingent upon the gender differences within a team. Gender differences in organizations not only impact performance of a firm but also impacts its culture and growth orientation (Dwyer, Richard & Chadwick, 2003). According to Schwartz & Rubel (2005) gender differences in value priorities reflects the differences in the conceptual definitions of values to males and females. Since values are learned and become an integral part of human value system, every value has its own meaning, thus creating a hierarchy of values that affects choices and behaviour. Prior cross-cultural studies have shown that men attribute higher importance to power and achievement values than do women. A research by Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione (2015) explored value differences in both male and female voters and found that there was no significant gender difference in self-enhancement values. These findings were opposed to the findings reported in a study conducted by Schwartz & Rubel (2005) on gender differences in personal values.

Since values are acquired and become a part of human value system, every value has its own significance, thus creating a hierarchy of values that affects choices. The rationale behind value differential in men and women may rest in the “gender socialization perspective (Betz, O’Connell & Shepard, 1989). Gender socialization approach explains that every individual undergoes a socialization process and learns different values as a result of which they bring different values to workplace, shaping up different interests and choices. A study by Ismail (2015), argued that this approach is relevant in explaining gender differences in work environments.

Furthermore, a research concluded by Amanatullah & Morris (2010) suggested that gender impacts how people choose to perceive and express conflict. Women express more conflict behaviour (Ragins & Winkel, 2011) than men, which is negatively perceived by the receiver, than men. Another study on gender and negotiations reports that women are less likely to negotiate (Weingart, Behfar, Bendersky, Todorova & Jehn, 2015). This allows us to hypothesize that such positive reactions to conflicting behaviours ultimately reduce the perception of conflict. Building on this contingency approach, we investigate the affects of gender difference on values and team perceived relationship conflict. We expect that gender differences in values may be well suited for examination as a moderating variable in the current study. Thus, using the gender socialization approach for the purpose of this study, we propose that gender moderates the impact of value on perceived relationship conflict as men and women internalize different values and assign hierarchical importance to these values based on the respective socialization process they undergo.

H2: Gender will moderate the relationship between power value and perceived relationship conflict: the association between power value and perceived relationship conflict will be significantly reduced with men as compared to women.

H4: Gender will moderate the relationship between achievement value and perceived relationship conflict: the association between achievement value and perceived relationship conflict will be significantly increased with men as compared to women.

CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

The aim of this chapter is to elaborate the methodology relevant to the research question of this study. The overall purpose of the current study is to investigate how variances in human values of individuals working in a team impacts team process i.e. conflict. This study looks into the conflict episode where an individual perceives conflict. Using the literature published in this domain of study, a conceptual framework and research hypotheses have been developed in the previous chapter. To empirically validate our hypotheses, respondents were requested to fill in the questionnaire measuring the different constructs under scrutiny. This chapter outlines the research methodology, research design, instruments, data collection procedure and statistical analyses used for this study.

To gather data for quantitative analysis, a survey approach is utilized. A research design allows scholars to objectively find answers to the research questions (Fowler, 2014). The questionnaire designed for this research has been adapted from previously validated measurement scales. However, the questionnaire items for measuring constructs of the proposed model have been worded to fit the requirements of this research.

3.1. Research Approach

The philosophical thought of a researcher is grounded in a paradigm, which directs the research approach. Paradigm consists of the epistemological, and ontological elements guiding a “way of thinking or doing” (Golicic & Davis, 2012; Frankel et al., 2005). Ontology explains the objective existence of reality and epistemology explains how knowledge is sought, understood and used (Frankel et al., 2005).

The two main epistemological research approaches in the field of research methodology are the positivist and interpretivist approaches. The positivist approach is quantitative and interpretivist approach is qualitative in nature. A quantitative research

requires an in-depth study of the literature to develop a theoretical model and research hypotheses (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). To statistically examine how differences in preferential human values among team members' effects perceived interpersonal conflict namely relational conflict, the study adopts a positivist approach. The most commonly used research method for quantitative analysis is the survey method (Orlikowski and Baroudi 1991).

The present research entails deductive reasoning as it starts with using theory to develop the hypotheses and then carrying out empirical tests to find whether the data validates the theory (Kovacs & Spens, 2006). Using deductive reasoning has several benefits as it explains the causal relationship between variables, offers a structured methodology and allows operationalizing concepts for quantitative measurement (Saunders et al.2007).

3.2. Research Design

Research design is a plan to investigate the research questions. The three research designs identified are descriptive, exploratory and casual (Williams, 2011; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Descriptive research includes the explanation of attributes of a phenomenon based on observation and is used to explain mean, standard deviation, percentages and frequencies of constructs used. It does not explore the relationship between variables (Zikmund, 2000). Exploratory research requires gathering background knowledge of the research problem and then formulating research hypotheses. Causal research explores the association between the independent and dependent variables and the strength of the relationship between variables (Williams, 2011).

A survey method is used as it allows first hand and accurate information from the sample population. Furthermore, it is a quick and efficient way to gather data and administers a big data set (Fowler, 2014; Zikmund, 2000). The two types of study designs are

longitudinal/time lag and cross-sectional (Williams, 2011; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). A cross-sectional analysis is an observational study in which a sample population responds to the survey at a given time period. A time lag is a survey method in which data is gathered over different time periods (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan & Moorman, 2008). The current study will be a cross-sectional study in which data will be collected at the same time.

A structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is used on AMOS to test the hypotheses. First, we examine the discriminant validity, construct reliability and unidimensionality of the latent constructs, using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on AMOS, and then run SEM to test the significance of hypothesized relationships of the proposed theoretical model. Standardized regression coefficients (beta estimates) will be used to show whether or not the relationship between variables is significant. After establishing the significance using path analysis, we have used Hayes' PROCESS macro on SPSS to run moderation analysis. The overall research design adopted for this study is presented in Appendix 1 (Table 3.1).

3.3. Sampling

Population refers to the subjects of interest to a study. From this population, a sample is chosen for data collection, which represents the whole population (Zikmund, 2000). The corporate sector chosen for this study is software development companies. Pakistan's computer software market has experienced steady growth overtime (Finance Division Government of Pakistan, 2019). According to economic survey of Pakistan conducted by Finance Division Government of Pakistan (2019), IT exports revenue have crossed \$3.3 billion during FY 2018- 19. Moreover, the Pakistan Software Export Board (PSEB), anticipates an increase by 3.5 % in the following five years ("Pakistan - Computer Software | export.gov", 2019). Since the IT market is a service industry working on software development projects for local and international clients, employees are embedded in teams to

work collectively on assigned projects making this industry more relevant to data collection purpose for this study. Moreover, a Study by Jirachiefpattana (2015) reports how individual values of self-direction and conformity are highly influential in guiding behaviour of employees working in Thai software industry. Results of this study reflect cultural differences in self-enhancement (Kurman, 2003) therefore, cannot be generalized to the Pakistani context considering the project-oriented nature of software development in Pakistan (Shahzad, Iqbal & Gulzar, 2014). Since, power and achievement are most common work values promoting self-enhancing behaviours, that impact employee performance, knowing whether these personal values affect behaviour of Pakistani IT professionals could be particularly relevant in studying conflict, which is one of most significant characteristic of project environment (Gobeli, 1998). Employees working in software houses all over Pakistan represent the population of this research. A sample is selected to represent the whole population (Gay and Airasian, 2011). For the current research, convenience sampling technique is employed in which the selected sample represents the target population. The rationale behind using convenience sampling is that although it would be ideal to include the entire sample population, but it is not be practically feasible for researchers (Etikan, 2016). Therefore, researchers use non-random convenience sampling when members of the target population are selected because they meet certain practical concerns such as willingness to participate, geographical proximity and accessibility. Moreover, it is easier to collect and allows researchers to make inductive inferences regarding the selected population (Etikan, 2016).

3.3.1. Sampling Size

Selecting a sample size for research is critical to statistical analyses. According to Luck and Rubin (1987), the more high-tech and sophisticated the statistical analysis is, the

larger the sample size should be.

Regression analysis is used for this research, which demands “sufficient sample size” so to give logical and credible results (Molwus et al., 2013). According to Stevens (1996), there should at least be 15 respondents for every variable. Most studies on teams have used a sample of 250 – 450 respondents depending on task requirements, team size and time frame to work on those tasks (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Tekleab & Quigley, 2014; Mohammed & Angell, 2004). Therefore, in the light of recommendations made on sample selection in prior literature, a sample size of 350 - 400 is considered adequate for this study. However, out of 430 responses collected, 370 responses were retained for data analysis.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

Data collection includes gathering information about a research question from the target population. The different methods of data collection recognized in past literature involve self- administered questionnaire surveys and face-to-face interviews over the phone calls, electronic mails and/or postal service (Zikmund, 2000). Data for this study is collected using self- administered survey (Wang et al., 2003; Pikkarainen et al.; 2004) i.e. using the traditional paper-and-pencil approach by the researcher. Although, prior studies have reported that online surveys are cost-effective and easy to handle (Kaplowitz, Hadlock, & Levine, 2004), Ballard &Prine (2002) revealed that there are no significant differences in online and traditional paper-and-pencil surveys for data collection.

The geographical location for data collection is Lahore, as there is a wide network of software houses in Lahore. Top 10 software companies of Pakistan (based on their annual software export revenue) were approached and requested to participate in data collection, out of which five agreed to participate in the data collection procedure, see Appendix 1 (Table 3.4). Past studies using an employee sample and survey as data collection tool have also used

data from four to seven organizations (Mortensen & Hinds, 2001; Randel, 2002; Madsen, Miller & John; Mauno, Kinnunen & Pyykkö, 2005; Lieu et al, 2015). Therefore, conforming to the methodology adopted by these authors, the researcher used data from five companies for this research. The researcher personally visited these software houses in person to collect data after seeking permission from the human resource manager of these software development houses.

The research is studying the perceptions of relationship conflict in employees nested in teams. Since perceived conflict is cognitive in nature we use individual level data to study this concept (Pondy, 1992). Therefore the unit of analysis for this study is employees of different software companies working on different projects in teams for at least 3 months period. The researcher wanted to make sure that constructs focused upon in analysis (particularly relational conflict) had already been developed over time (Schaeffner et al, 2015). For example, team members will be able to develop relational conflict after working together regularly for a substantial period of time in their particular teams (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017). Previous studies on relational conflict have also been conducted on teams which have worked together for at least three months in order for constructs particularly relational conflict focused in their analyses to be already developed over time (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017; Curseu & Schruijer, 2010; Jordan, Lawrence & Troth, 2006). Therefore this study will also be conducted on employees who had been working for at least three months on different projects.

3.4.1. Survey Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a cost-effective way to gather data. A cover letter was attached to each questionnaire stating the purpose of conducting this research and ensuring the secrecy of responses provided so that social desirability bias could be controlled for (Nederhof, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 2003). The questionnaire was divided in two parts. In the first part,

respondents were asked to provide their demographic data such as gender, age, and employee department and work experience. Respondents were then asked to answer questions relevant to individual personal values relevant to this study. In the second part of the questionnaire, the respondents will be asked to respond to questions relevant to their perception of conflict. In order to reduce the chance of random responses, a question stating “I am still paying attention so I will strongly agree to this statement” (Buhrmester et al., 2011), was placed halfway through the questionnaire. Refer to Appendix 2 for the survey questionnaire.

3.5. Questionnaire Design

Designing a questionnaire to fit the needs of a research is an art that requires scientific skills. Research questions drafted by the researcher are simple, easy to read and understand. A close-ended questionnaire was distributed so to keep the context same across all respondents (Frazer and Lawley, 2000). Furthermore, the design of close-ended questionnaires reduces mental strain and energy required to respond to each question (Hair et al, 2006).

3.6. Construct Measurement Scale

An ordinal scale (Likert) is used to probe into respondents’ opinions and attitude. Therefore, for questions pertaining to basic human values and conflict, an ordinal scale was used. A Likert scale allows respondents to express their level of agreement on a given statement. According to a study by Cox (1980), scale points between 5 and 9 are recommended, depending on the particular use and situation.

For measuring the constructs, a Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree) was used in which each team member was asked to rate the importance of each value items as a “motivating principle in my life” (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram,

2017). Perceived relational conflict variables were also measured on a 5- point Likert scale (Jehn, 1995).

3.7. Measures

Operationalization of constructs is required to test the theorized relationships presented in the conceptual model (Dillman, 2000). Demographic and control variables included in the survey are shown in Appendix 1 (Table 3.2). The operational definitions of the constructs are shown in (Table 3.3) Appendix 1.

3.7.1. Power Value

Six items were extracted from Schwartz (1992) to measure Power values. Employees working in teams were asked to individually rate the relative importance of each item. Respondents had to choose from a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Sample questionnaire item is, “Exercising control over others in my team is a motivating principle in my life.” The α coefficient for reliability was 0.833.

3.7.2. Achievement Value

Five items were extracted from Schwartz (1992) to measure Achievement values. Team members were asked to individually rate the relative importance of each item. Respondents had to choose from a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Sample questionnaire item is, “Being ambitious about my work is a motivating principle in my life.” The α coefficient for reliability was 0.779.

3.7.3. Perceived Relationship Conflict

Four items were extracted from Jehn (1994) to measure perception of Relationship Conflict. Respondents had to choose from a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Sample questionnaire item is, “There is friction among members of my team.” The α coefficient for reliability was 0.770.

3.7.4. Demographic Variables

Respondents were asked to mention their gender and age. Also the respondents shared information about project duration and their prior work experience. Gender is used as a moderating variable in this study. Age, salary, marital status, project duration, education and work experience were treated as control variables.

3.8. Data Analysis

The prime goal of “the statistical techniques are to assist in establishing the plausibility of the theoretical model and to estimate the extent to which the various explanatory factors seem to be influencing the dependent variable” (Cooley, 1978). This research begins the data analysis by first performing a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on the data collected using Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE), to make sure that items with factor loadings of less than 0.5 were dropped for final model analyses and structural equation modeling. After, dropping out items with factor loadings of less than 0.5, the measurement model was examined to check for construct reliability and validity through CFA and model fit indexes were also checked to ensure model fit. After establishing model fitness, a structural equation modeling technique was used to analyze the paths between latent constructs of the hypothesized theoretical framework.

Structural Equation Modeling is a multivariate technique used for statistical analyses. It allows the researchers to establish whether a relationship exists between multiple independent and dependent latent constructs (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair et al., 1998). Additionally, SEM assists in evaluating the measurement model and the structural model at the same time (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, the use of SEM has become popular for statistical analysis especially in the field of marketing and management (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The current study aims to test the relationship between the two latent independent variables and one latent dependent variable. Consequently, Structural

Equation Modeling seems to be an ideal statistical technique for analysis of structural paths of the hypothesized model shown in Figure 1 in chapter 2.

In addition to path analysis, a moderation analysis was conducted to examine whether or not gender moderates the relationship between human values (i.e., Power and Achievement values) and perceived relationship conflict. Conceptually, a moderating variable is expected to change the strength of a causal relationship between an independent and dependent variable (Wu & Zumbo, 2007). In the present study, moderation analyses was used to test the hypotheses that males with high power and achievement values demonstrate more perceived relationship conflict as compared to women. Statistically, a moderator is the interaction effect in multiple regression analysis. In moderated regression analysis, the independent variable has an its own direct effect on the dependent variable, whereas the interaction term, which is the multiplicative term of independent and moderating variable represents moderation.

CHAPTER IV

4. RESULTS

4.1. Data and Sample Statistics

In total 430 questionnaires were distributed out of which 370 were considered usable for final data analysis. After filtering out unusable questionnaires, there were no responses with missing values. Outliers were not found as the study used a 5- point Likert scale, which eliminates the problem of reporting extreme values in data collection. Table 4.1 presents the descriptive analysis of the latent constructs.

Table 4.1.1: Mean and Standard Deviation

Constructs	Mean	Standard Deviation
Power Value	2.17	0.84
Achievement Value	4.04	0.78
Perceived Relationship Conflict	3.17	1.01

There were 296 males and 74 females, see Appendix 1 (Table 4.1.2). According to Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (2018), men comprise of 77.9% of the employed workforce in Punjab in 2017-18. Only 27.3% of the employed workforce in Punjab as of 2017-18 comprises of females (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2018) which means that the proportion of employed males to employed females is not equal explaining the gender sample imbalance. 77% of the respondents fell in the age bracket of 25 to 45 years. 15.7% were more than 45 years old and only 7.3% were 24 years old or less than 24 years, see Appendix 1 (Table 4.1.3). A large percentage of the respondents, 60.5% were married with children, 25.7% were single, 11.4% were married without children and a small proportion of 2.4% were divorced, see Appendix 1 (Table 4.1.4). 46.5% of the respondents earned more than 65001 but less than 85000, 24.9% earned more than 35001 but less than 65000, 24% earned more than 85001 and only 4.3% respondents had a monthly salary of less than Rs. 35000, see

Appendix 1 (Table 4.1.5). 70.5% of the respondents' had completed their bachelors, 27.6% of the respondents' had completed their masters and 1.9% of the respondents were college graduates, see Appendix 1 (Table 4.1.6).

4.2. Frequency Distribution of Data

Before any statistical analysis is performed, the data is scrutinized to test the most crucial assumption of normality, which is a prerequisite for conducting parametric tests. According to Brown and Moore (2012), it is the preliminary step to check for normal distribution of data, after which a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique is applied to test hypotheses. It is the usual procedure in statistics to trust the central limit theorem according to which data is considered normal if sample size is equal to exceed 30. The present study, however, has used a large sample size ($n= 370$) thereby fulfilling the assumption of normal distribution of data (Schreiber et.al, 2006).

Additionally, Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) and Shapiro-Wilk (SW) are also used to test for normality assumption (Field, 2013). According to Shapiro, Wilk & Chen (1968), for smaller sample size (i.e. < 50 cases), it is recommended to use Shapiro-Wilk test, whereas for large sample sizes (i.e. > 50 cases) it is recommended to use Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality. A p-value of greater than 0.05, signifies that data is normally distributed. Furthermore, it is recommended to look at the graphical representation of normality using P-P plot or Q-Q plot (Field, 2013). For this study, P-P plots were used to test normality assumption for each construct on SPSS. P-P plots show that Power value (PV), Achievement value (AV) and Perceived relationship conflict (RC) are on a straight line depicting normality as observations lie linearly on the straight line.

4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis, also known as the measurement model, helps in examining the relationship between all observed and unobserved constructs. There is theoretical support justifying the construction of linkages between all constructs (Schreiber et.al, 2006), and CFA helps determine the correlation and covariance between observed and unobserved variables. Unobserved variables are constructs that cannot be measured directly, also often referred to as latent variables. Observed variables on the other hand are those that can be measured and also called indicators or measured variables (Schreiber et.al, 2006). According to

Brown and Moore (2012), each factor is comprised of measured variables which may correlate with each other. With CFA, a covariance matrix of the latent factors can be estimated that helps researchers analyze how well the covariance matrix of the estimated model fit with actual observed covariance matrix of the original data (Schreiber et al., 2006). The aim is to achieve the smallest difference between observed and estimated model so to proceed further with statistical analyses. Additionally, CFA tests the theoretical association between measured variables and latent factors, and also tests the validity and reliability of latent constructs (Brown and Moore, 2012). The present study conducted performed CFA on AMOS to check for construct validity and reliability.

4.3.1. Results of CFA

Maximum likelihood Estimation (MLE) method was used for the measurement model. Goodness of fit indicators, which indicates whether the parameter estimates can reproduce the observed relationship between constructs (Hoyle, 2000) was used to evaluate the measurement model shown in Appendix 1, figure 4.3.

Fit indexes:

Degrees of freedom = 32, Probability level = 0.000, Chi-square = 90.558, Incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.957, Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.957, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.939, Goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.956 and Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07. Values for model fit indexes i.e. GFI, CFI, IFI, and TLI are greater than 0.94, which denotes that the model is a good fit (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017). Furthermore, RMSEA is 0.07, which falls in the acceptable range of less than 0.08. Thereby concluding model fitness. Table 4.3.1 shows values of all model fit indexes.

Table 4.3.1 Model Fit Summary (Measurement Model)

Fit Index	Cutoff Value (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017; Schreiber et al., 2006; Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008)	Model Estimate
Chi square/degree of freedom (CMIN/DF)	$\leq 2 - 3$	2.830
Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI)	≥ 0.94	0.956
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	≥ 0.94	0.939
Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥ 0.94	0.957
Incremental fit index (IFI)	≥ 0.94	0.957
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	$< 0.06 - 0.08$	0.070

According to Schreiber et al. (2006), CFI, RMSEA and TLI indexes are sufficient to determine model fitness. The cutoff point for CFI and TLI model fit indexes is 0.9 or greater and the cutoff point for RMSEA is less than 0.08 (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017; Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008). Moreover, CMIN/DF (chi-sq/df) is an important index used for estimation model fitness (Schreiber et al., 2006). This ratio tests the null hypothesis stating that the variance and covariance matrix of estimated model and sample population are significantly not different. The criteria for acceptance for CMIN/DF is that the value should be less than or equal to 3. A value between 1 and 3 indicates good fit thereby accepting the

null hypothesis. CMIN/DF of 2.830 for the current study accepts the null hypothesis stated before.

Factor Loadings:

CFA results show regression weights for all items (indicators) used to measure latent factors. Items with factor loadings less than 0.5 were eliminated from the model, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), to perform further statistical analyses. The current study dropped 2 items for power values, 2 items for Achievement values and 1 item for perceived relationship conflict. Factor loadings or retained items are reported in Table 4.3.2 below.

Table 4.3.2: Factor Loadings of Items of Constructs (Measurement Model)

Indicators	Latent Constructs	Factor Loading
PV1	Power Value	0.695
PV3		0.740
PV5		0.793
PV6		0.770
AV1	Achievement Value	0.729
AV2		0.701
AV5		0.792
RC1	Perceived Relationship Conflict	0.987
RC2		0.722
RC4		0.530

Reliability Analysis:

Results for correlation and covariance between latent variables are shown in Table 4.3.4 and 4.3.5 respectively. Construct reliability and validity were computed using factor loadings of each item and the correlations between the latent variables. Microsoft Excel tool developed by the Professor of Marketing, Michael Korchia was used to compute reliability and validity of constructs. Table 4.3.3 below presents the reliability and validity results of the constructs under scrutiny in the current study.

According to Hair et.al (2012) reliability of a construct holds when the value is equal to or exceeds 0.7, reliability for all three constructs is above 0.70. For construct reliability to hold the value for AVE must exceed 0.5 and discriminant validity holds if the values for ASV (Average shared variance) is less than AVE (Average variance extracted) (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017). Lastly, Cronbach's alpha, which is used to test the reliability of scale used to operationalize the variable. Cronbach's alpha of 0.7 and above indicates the scale used to measure the latent construct is reliable (Hair et.al, 2012).

Table 4.3.3: Reliability and Validity of Constructs

No.	Variable	No. Of items Retained	Construct Reliability (Holds if > 0.7)	Convergent Validity (AVE) (Holds if AVE > 0.5)	Discriminant Validity (ASV) (Holds if ASV < AVE)	Cronbach's Alpha (> 0.7)
1	Power Value	4	0.837	0.563	0.04	0.833
2	Achievement Value	3	0.785	0.550	0.04	0.779
3	Perceived Relationship Conflict	3	0.804	0.592	0.07	0.770

Table 4.3.4: Correlation Matrix

	Power Value	Achievement Value	Perceived Relationship Conflict
Power Value	1	-0.018	0.333
Achievement Value	-0.018	1	- 0.304
Perceived Relationship Conflict	0.333	- 0.304	1

Table 4.3.5: Covariance Matrix

	Power Value	Achievement Value	Perceived Relationship Conflict
Power Value	1	-0.006	0.170
Achievement Value	-0.006	1	-0.259
Perceived Relationship Conflict	0.170	-0.259	1

4.4. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

After establishing fitness of the measurement model in CFA, structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed on AMOS, a statistical technique that allows testing multiple regressions at one time. SEM is path analysis where beta values and significance level of direct relationships between independent and dependent variables is established (Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2011).

Endogenous variable (i.e. perceived relationship conflict) is the dependent variable and exogenous variables (i.e. power value and achievement value) are independent variables in SEM (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017). SEM model to run path analysis in AMOS is shown in Appendix 1, Figure 4.4.

The structural model CMIN/DF value came out to be 2.746. Table 4.4.1 shows the fit indexes for SEM model and Table 4.4.2 presents regression results of two hypothesized structural paths of SEM model shown in figure above. Results show that Power value has a significant positive affect on perceived relationship conflict, and achievement value has a significant negative affect on perceived relationship conflict. Therefore, we accept hypotheses 1 and 3 as stated in chapter 2.

Table 4.4.1: Model Fit Summary of Structural Model

Fit Index	Cutoff Value (Hair, Babin & Krey, 2017; Schreiber et al., 2006; Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008)	Model Estimate
Chi square/degree of freedom (CMIN/DF)	$\leq 2 - 3$	2.746
Goodness of Fit Statistic (GFI)	≥ 0.94	0.956
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	≥ 0.94	0.942
Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥ 0.94	0.958
Incremental fit index (IFI)	≥ 0.94	0.958
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	$< 0.06 - 0.08$	0.069

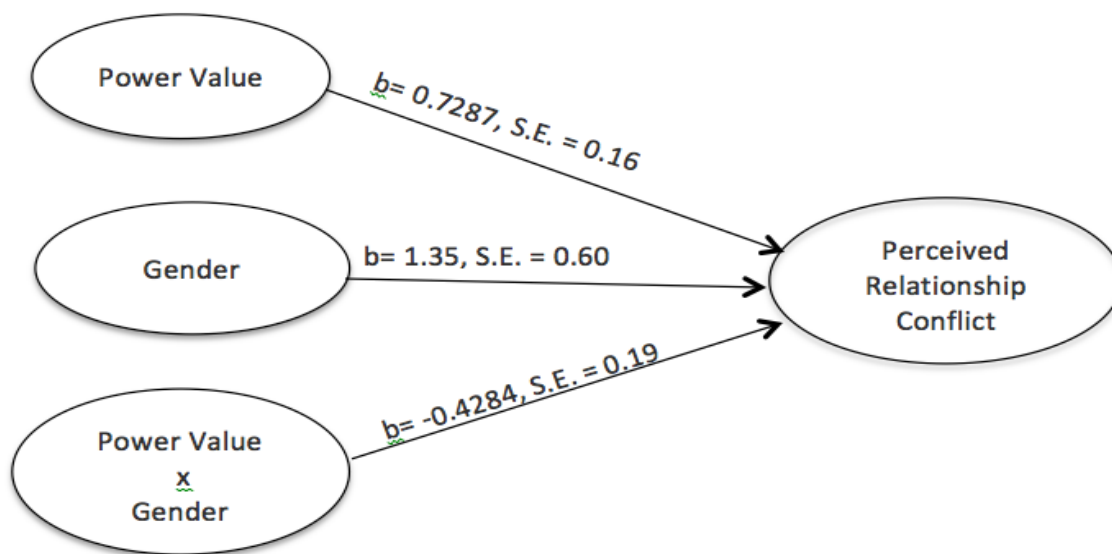
Table 4.4.2: Regression Results of Structural Model

Path	Coefficients/Beta	T-value	P value
Power Value → Perceived Relationship Conflict	0.329	2.86	***
Achievement Value → Perceived Relationship Conflict	-0.300	-3.16	***

(* Indicates p-value < 0.001)

4.5. Moderation Analysis

PROCESS macro developed by Hayes (2013) was used on SPSS for moderation analysis. To test hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 4, model 1 of PROCESS macro was used for simple moderation (Hayes & Hayes, 2018). Perceived relationship conflict was moved to the dependent variable box (Y), Power value was moved to independent variable box (X), and Gender was put in the moderator box (W). The result for Hypothesis 2 is shown below in Figure 4.5 (a).

Figure 4.5 (a) Path Coefficient Moderation Analyses (PROCESS macro) – H2**Linear Equation:**

Perceived relationship conflict = 1.15 + 0.7287 (Power value) + 1.35 (Gender) – 0.428 (power value x Gender)

The interaction term of moderating variable (gender) with independent variable (power value) came out statistically significant ($\beta = -0.428$, S.E. 1.926, p-value < 0.05). This shows that gender significantly reduced the impact of power value on perceived relationship conflict. In addition to the level of significance, we look at the conditional effects of the dichotomous moderating variable (Hayes & Hayes, 2018; Bolin, 2014; Prado, Korelo & Silva, 2014) i.e. the effect size for male and females. The effect size (i.e. conditional betas) comes out to be different for both categories of our moderating variable gender, with both genders having statistically significant p values at 95% confidence interval, as shown in Table 4.5.1 and 4.5.2 below, we confirm that gender is a statically significant moderator in studying the relationship between power values and perceived relationship conflict.

Table 4.5.1: Moderation Results (H2)

Path	Beta	S.E.	T-value	P value	Effect Size (Conditional Betas)	
Power Value × Gender	-0.4284	0.1926	-2.224	0.026*	0.7287	0.3004
					Moderation exists	

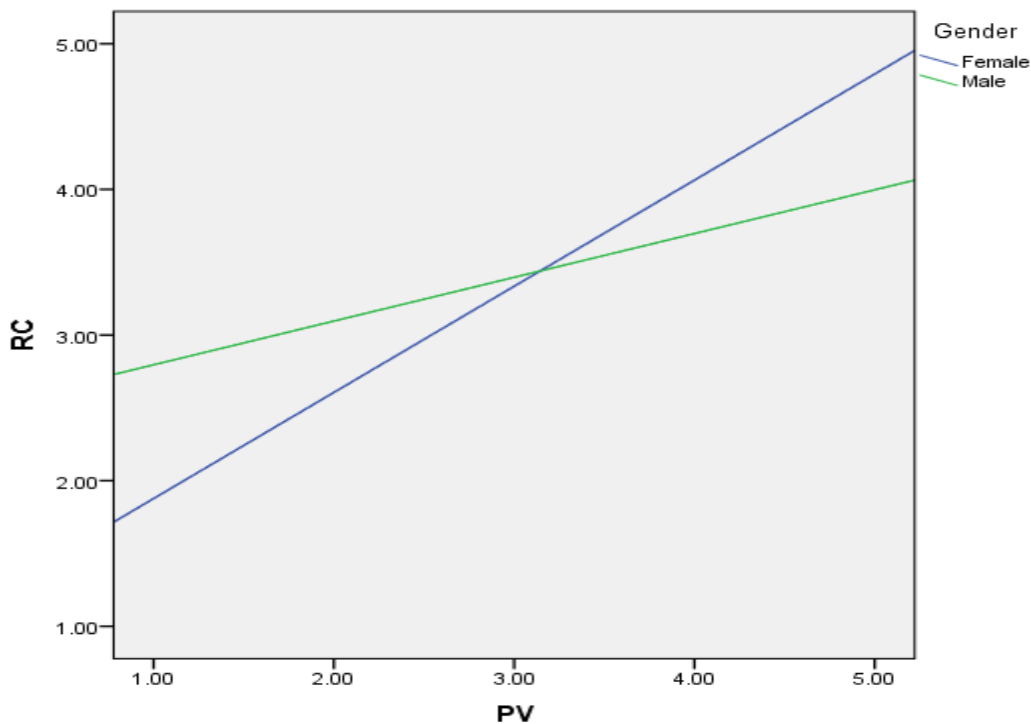
(* Indicates p-value < 0.05)

Table 4.5.2: Conditional Effect Size

Gender	Effect	S.E	T-value	P-value	LLCI	ULCI
Female (0)	0.7287	0.1639	4.4473	0.000	0.4065	1.0510
Male (1)	0.3004	0.1013	2.9662	0.0032	0.1012	0.4995

(* Indicates p-value < 0.05)

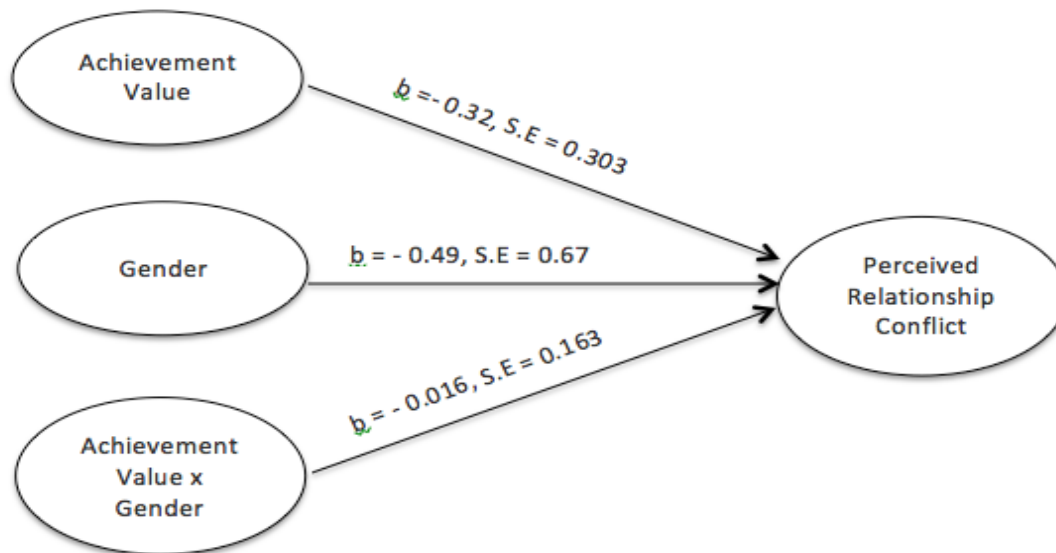
Figure 4.5.1 Moderation Plot (H2: Accept)



To test hypothesis 4, the same procedure was repeated on PROCESS macro. Perceived relationship conflict was moved to the dependent variable box (Y), Achievement

value was moved to independent variable box (X), and Gender was put in the moderator box (W). The result for Hypothesis 4 is shown below in Figure 4.5 (b).

Figure 4.5 (b) Path Coefficient Moderation Analyses (PROCESS macro) – H4



Linear Equation:

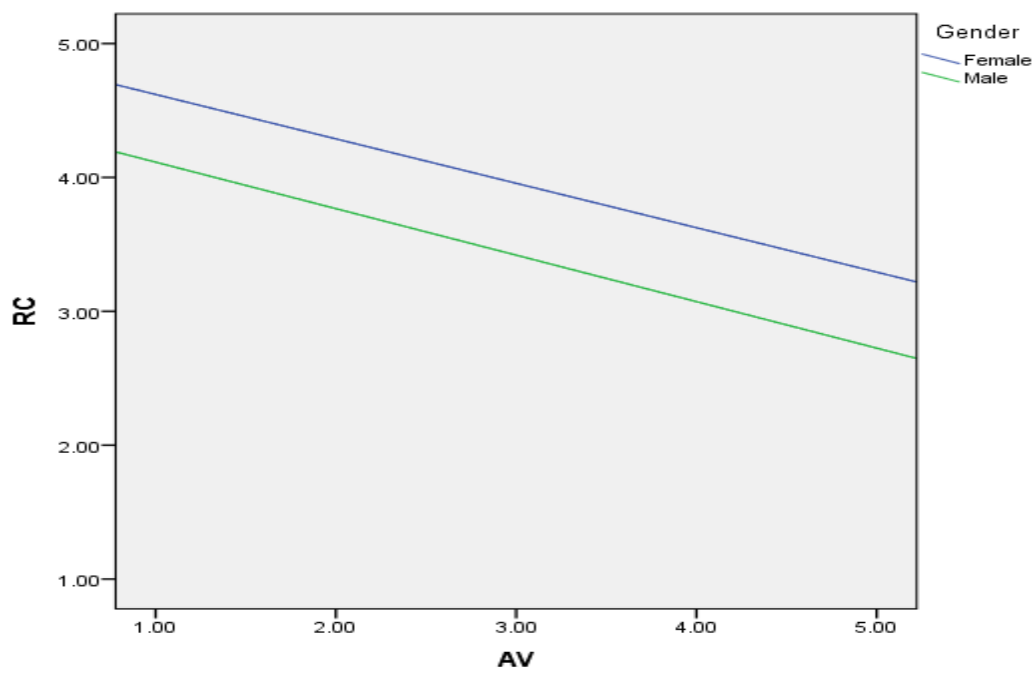
Perceived relationship conflict = 5.44 – 0.32(Achievement value) – 0.49 (Gender) – 0.016 (Achievement value x Gender)

The interaction term of moderating variable (Bolin, 2014), gender with independent variable (achievement value) came out to be statistically insignificant ($\beta = -0.016$, S.E. 0.163, p-value > 0.05). This shows that gender does not moderate the relationship between achievement value and perceived relationship conflict.

Table 4.5.3: Moderation Results (H4)

Path	Beta	S.E.	T-value	P value	Effect Size
Achievement Value × Gender	-0.016	0.1634	0.095	0.924	Moderation does not exist

Figure 4.5.2 Moderation Plot (H4: Fail to Accept)



CHAPTER IV

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Key Findings and Discussion

The goal of this research was to study the impact of differences in basic human value profiles of employees working in a team setting. The aim was mainly to see whether the differences in prioritizing core human values (Schwartz et al., 2017) of power and achievement propelled or inhibited perceived organizational conflict. Power and achievement values are related with self-interest and self-enhancement. Although, the two different individual values have distinct characteristics, but prior research shows that power and achievement values are inherently motivated by congruent goals (Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Research by Chun and Choi (2014) suggests that relationship conflict is evident when members perceive differences in personality characteristics such as values and beliefs.

This research produced four major findings. Firstly, people with high power values perceived more relationship conflict at work. This finding was in line with the existing literature on power values (Woehr et. al., 2012). Theoretically, power value must be related to relationship conflict as compared to other types of conflict, as power values, which are motivated by the inherent goals to control and exercise authority over others, is inseparably tied to affective outcomes (Schwartz 2012; 2010). Relationship conflict indicates emotional components therefore it can be referred to as emotional conflict interchangeably (Jehn 1995; Jehn and Mannix, 2001). It is reasonable to believe that people motivated to be powerful may be perceived as power hungry and domineering by their colleagues, as a result of which there is decreased interpersonal attraction, as suggested by Byrne (1971). On the other hand, people assigning lesser importance to power values may be perceived as those who lack interest in assigned team tasks, which could possibly give rise to perceived relationship

conflict among employees working on a project owing to the deep-level differences in their value structure. Furthermore, people who attach greater importance to power values may withhold information and manipulate the voices of other teammates (van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg, 2018) thereby increasing the perception of relationship conflict.

Although there is enough evidence supporting that differences in personal power values can affect relationship conflict, the current study adopts a contingency approach to understand under which conditions the strength of the link between value differences and behaviour could change. As men and women internalize different values and assign hierarchical importance to these values based on the respective socialization process they undergo (Bird & Brush, 2002), it is useful to study gender as a moderating variable. Since gender is a surface-level characteristic, it is better suited to explicate the conditions under which the strength of the relationship between deep-level value differences and perceived relationship conflict could change.

More recently Peleg-Koriat, Weimann-Saks & Ben-Ari (2017) examined the impact of power perceptions amongst couples on conflict management methods and found women to be more relationship oriented than men as a result of which, they seek to adopt a more cooperative style to conflict management as compared to men. The present study found an interesting outcome that the interaction between power values and gender was a significant predictor of perceived relationship conflict. The significant positive association between power values and relational conflict was significantly moderated by gender, which implies that at particular levels of power values males and females perceive different levels of relational conflict. This difference in perceptions of relational conflict by males and females is also supported by findings of previous studies which indicate that people perceive different levels of conflict (Jehn, Rispens & Thatcher, 2010; Jehn, Rupert, Nauta & Van Den Bossche, 2010) and gender in particular impacts how people choose to perceive and express conflict

(Amanatullah & Morris (2010). The findings indicated that males with high power values had significantly reduced perceived relationship conflict as compared to females. This finding is aligned with the results of a study by Holman, Diekman & McAndrew (2015) according to which men are more thick skinned as compared to females and deal with criticism and conflict in their political lives. Furthermore, men motivated by power are more tolerant towards conflicting situations than women (Holman, Diekman & McAndrew, 2015) which further explains why males perceived comparatively less relational conflict at high power values as compared to females.

As per findings of this study, females with high power values, on the contrary, had significantly more perceived relational conflict as compared to males. One potential explanation behind this finding can be that according to previous studies women who express gender incongruent behavior are less acceptable socially, which suggests that certain roles are more particular to men than women in cultural and social context e.g. characteristics like dominance and control are believed to be more pertinent to men as compared to women (Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993). Thus when women rather than men hold managerial positions which require them to be dominant and assertive, their colleagues find that out of place and give negative non-verbal affective responses (Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993). As a result, women holding on high power values are less effective in handling conflict as compared to men who are considered fit for assertive and powerful roles and not subjected to stigma of gender incongruent behavior. This explanation is in line with the findings of the present study that women holding on high power values, which is considered a gender incongruent norm, perceive more relationship conflict than men. Another potential explanation behind women with high power values perceiving more relationship conflict as compared to men can be that women experience more occupational stress and have a weaker sense of coherence in work setting, which causes anxiety and social resentment, therefore

reducing their wellbeing and ability to cope with conflicts arising in tough work environment as compared to their male counterparts (Ryland & Greenfeld, 2011). Furthermore women are also less likely to negotiate (Weingart, Behfar, Bendersky, Todorova & Jehn, 2015) which also explains why they perceive more relationship conflict at high power values as compared to men who comparatively express more tolerance towards conflicting situations (Schneider, Holman, Diekman & McAndrew, 2015).

In contrast, differences in achievement values had a significant unique effect on perceived relationship conflict. This study reports that people who are motivated to high achieve more perceived less relationship conflict. Perkun, Frenzel, Goetz & Perry (2007) suggested that achievement values motivate positive emotions; therefore it can be rightly assumed that the chances of negative sentiments such as perceived relationship conflict are reduced. People high on achievement values are future-oriented and are encouraged to utilize their energy and resources in performing tasks that serve collective interest of a group by devoting their efforts in proving their self-worth (Schwartz et al., 2017). Thus, achievement values are motivated by different goals that vary from one individual to another. Consequently shaping up our self-perceptions and our judgement about other people (Cohen, Darnon & Mollaret, 2016), which could be a plausible justification to explain the negative but significant affect between achievement values and cognitive conflict.

Prior researchers have reported mixed findings, one set of scholars support that there is no difference between men and women in how they internalize achievement values (Schwartz et al., 2017; Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione, 2015), however, the second set of researchers opine considerable differences among men and women in terms of self-enhancement values (Ismail, 2015; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). Surprisingly, this study found that the interaction between achievement value and gender had no significant effect on

perceived relationship conflict. Achievement values are motivated by the inherent goal to succeed, to be ambitious, to be intelligent and to prove competence and capability. Both genders are achievement oriented and ambitious (Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey, 2008), especially in work environment. Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that men and women are not different in the pursuit of achieving “success demonstrated through competence as per social standards” (Schwartz, 1992).

5.2. Theoretical Implications

Notably, a very small proportion of people have acutely different value preferences. People with strong preferential values are more likely to face situations that challenge their personal values and create emotional discomfort. To date, research on values has not thoroughly examined, neither empirically nor theoretically, the implications of complementary and conflicting values having distinct motivational content on a person’s behaviour or experience. This research has taken the scholarship forward by disclosing this research lacuna in theoretical understanding of human values. Furthermore, the value – conflict relationship of this study suggest that these associations may not generalize to societies characterized by different cultures (Gollan & Witte, 2013), as culture is an important factor to be considered when shaping values.

Theoretically, people prioritize complementing values and avoid conflicting values. As explained by Schwartz (1992) these values form a circular structure according to the relative importance of one to another. A study by Schwartz & Boehnke (2004) shows that power and achievement values are inherently motivated by congruent goals. Thus, encouraging actions triggered to pursue such compatible goals. Therefore, researchers locate achievement and power values adjacent to one another on the value circle. Contrary to the theory of complementing circular values, the findings of this research suggest that power and

achievement values may have different responses to conflict owing to the social, biological and psychological (Borg, Bardi & Schwartz, 2015) variations across people. This presents an interesting theoretical implication of Schwartz value circle theory, as people high on power values are more likely to develop emotional conflict perceptions as a result of their psychological makeup, than people high on achievement values as reported in the current study. The findings of this study presents another valuable theoretical implication on the higher-order values theory presented by Schwartz & Butenko (2014), highlighting that values motivated by congruent goals may not necessarily be expected to bear similar outcomes. Therefore, it is not unusual to find contradictory outcomes with compatible human values and a reconceptualization of compatible human value types is further warranted.

This study considered gender as a moderator to understand the association between values and perceived relational conflict. In doing so, the present study has built upon extant literature on values, which solely examined the direct effects of value on behaviour (Schwartz et al., 2017; Woehr et al. 2012). However, only one recent study by Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram (2017) has recognized the inclusion of situational moderators in studying the impact of power values diversity in teams on relationship conflict. This research explicitly recognized the need for incorporating surface-level differences in understanding the impact of deep-level differences between people on the affective components. Previously, gender was mainly used as a control variable, however using a contingency approach to investigate the impact of self-enhancement values on perceived relational conflict, this study found that the role of gender in value-conflict link supports theory on complementary fit (Humphrey, Hollenbeck, Meyer & Ilgen, 2007). Specifically, in the presence of more men, power values are complemented by entrepreneurial traits of encouragement and acceptance among employees, thereby reducing the chances of perceived conflict with each other. Therefore, incorporating contextual moderators like leader support and organizational

culture, in addition to surface-level characteristics of employees like age and ethnicity could be theoretically crucial in advancing the knowledge gap in value - conflict relationships in organizations.

Furthermore, it is important to recognize that psychological variables like values are deep-level characteristics of a self or personality that are not directly visible, however play a significant role in determining human behaviour. Conceptualizing the stages of conflict episodes has important theoretical implications as conflict escalates overtime suggesting the scholarship on conflict to further shed light on the psychological process of organizational conflict than to focus on conflict after it has occurred.

5.3. Practical Implications

This study investigated the psychological antecedents of perceived conflict for the first time. In doing so the study has offered several implications for managers. Firstly, managers must focus on understanding and stimulating certain characteristics that may foster a more favorable organizational climate. It can be highly beneficial for managers to train employees to stimulate values such as self-direction and conformity, to balance out the adverse effects of power value differences. This in turn can also contribute to the overall wellbeing of the organization and adds to employees' social welfare.

As the study was focused on individual differences in employee value profiles, it must be considered that such deep-level characteristics may quickly manifest in team structures as employees are brought together to work closely on challenging tasks accompanied with tight deadlines and high performance expectations. Practically, it is useful for managers to consider arranging team-building sessions with employees to analyze and to discuss their value profiles. This exercise could help managers to assess the potential for any future conflict in teams comprising of employees with varying value profiles. As a result of this

team development exercise, managers can ensure that team efficacy and individual performance of an employee will not be compromised. Furthermore, in case of such deep-level differences among employees, managers will be able to take an action before teams are formed.

It is important to realize a conflict situation so it can be either managed or resolved. Unresolved conflicts may have deleterious effects on not only interpersonal relationships, but also has negative health consequences as it will add to stress and anxiety and will also have organizational consequences thereby adversely affecting work performance. Therefore, conflicts can be costly at the individual, societal and organizational level (Danielsson, Bodin, Wulff & Theorell, 2015). It is important for managers and team leaders to realize that gender differences could potentially increase perceptions of conflict within members of team and to eradicate these certain team building techniques must be considered. Such psychological differences may become prominent to an extent where teamwork may be disrupted due to the prevalence of conflicting opinions and work values. Therefore, team leaders must foster cooperation so to avoid the negative effects of value diversity at work. It may become imperative for managers and team leaders to work towards mitigating the damaging effects of deep-level psychological differences among employees. Encouraging workload sharing, developing contingency plans, and providing supportive leadership can possibly help avoiding the escalation of organizational conflict. It is relevant for managers to recognize that individual values are not visible, but still play an import role in influencing goal accomplishment and indirectly affect team functioning. Thus, team-building efforts from a practical perspective can facilitate employees in overcoming perceived incompatibility in interpersonal relationships.

5.4. Limitations

There are a few limitations of the study. One limitation that may have influenced our results could be that majority of the sample (80%) comprised of male employees. A balanced representation of male and female respondents in studies using an employee sample is contingent upon the organizations that participate in the study (Drummond et al, 2017). The overrepresentation of men in this study is also a reflection of the organization that participated (Shahzad, Iqbal & Gulzar, 2014). IT industry in Punjab, Pakistan is substantially male dominant with an employment to population ratio of 79% male workforce and only 21% female workforce (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics, 2018). Therefore, achieving a gender-balanced sample was not practically possible. This predicament has also been faced by past researches that also had to collect data from organizations in order to test their hypotheses (Collins, Burrus & Meyer, 2014; Spector & Zhou, 2014; Loi, Lou & Hine, 2015; Drummond et al, 2017).

Furthermore, the data was collected from employees working in teams in different software development companies. Generalizability of findings with respect to the sample used for this study is limited. Since data was collected from employees of the software development companies, findings of this study will only be relevant to this particular industry. The data was gathered at one time period due to time constraints; however, collecting data at different time periods could better explain how perceived conflict escalates among employees overtime.

This research was primarily focused on project teams, where individuals are brought together on a short notice from different functions and are allotted tasks that are often accompanied with tight deadlines. In project teams, individuals are expected to work effectively to execute unfamiliar tasks by utilizing essential resources and ultimately

producing superior quality outcome (Ericksen & Dyer, 2004). Selecting the team type could be relevant to studying the impact of human values on perceived conflict. Results of the present study cannot be generalized to other types of teams where individuals deep-level differences could impact relationship conflict. One such type could be intellectual teams (Bell, 2007) such as design and creative teams where intellectual capability naturally increases chances of perceived relationship conflict at work. Additionally, individual perception of conflict due to value differences within employees working in an organization would have existed regardless of team membership. Also research findings cannot be replicated to individuals outside the context of work environment.

5.5. Future Research Directions

Researchers have laid emphasis on the use of more complex models using different moderator in studying the relationship between value differences and conflict in particular (Van Knippenberg and Schippers 2007). Relatedly, this research incorporates gender, which is a surface-level characteristic, as a moderator to study the differences in how both genders internalize values that stimulate certain emotions and behaviour. Other surface level differences such as age, work experience, employee education could be pertinent in studying how individuals perceived conflict in the context of organizations. Moreover, the use of contextual moderators in studying the impact of values on conflict, such as task interdependence, leader support, workload sharing (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017) and organizational climate could be possible future research directions. Another interesting future study could be studying the interaction between achievement and power values to study how multiple values can predict employee behaviour (Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram, 2017). Additionally, future researchers could incorporate environmental stimuli to understand the psychology of differences in human values and cognitive conflict at work

places, as their work environment could affect individuals' perceptions. It will be an interesting addition to current literature to study the role of combined workstations and territorial infringement in studying how difference in personal values of employees impacts their perceptions of conflict at work. Adopting a contingency approach helps in elucidating the conditions under which power and achievement values are most likely to differentially impact perceived relationship conflict.

Further, although this study is focused on power and achievement values, researchers interested in this domain could study other specific types of in the context organizational behaviour. Past studies have broadly talked about values in general as if they were equivalent. Therefore future research can be directed towards studying the role of specific value types that are conceptually pertinent in organizations. Researchers could possibly look into moral foundations, personality traits and other conflicting or complementary values as mediating variables in examining the impact power and achievement value on behaviour and attitudes. This study was conducted in Pakistan, which is to a large extent, recognized as a collectivistic society. In future, researchers can add to existing literature on human values and conflict by studying the value – conflict link in a predominantly individualist culture.

Presently, the impact of achievement value was studied in connection with perceived relationship conflict. A possible future research direction could be to study the impact of achievement values on perceived task conflict. Furthermore, researchers could incorporate the use of other organization conflict and conflict episodes to study the impact of value differentials on overall organizational functioning. Status conflict is relatively newer conflict type that must be investigated in studying value diversity and employee performance.

5.6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study is one of the few studies to underline in what way and under

what conditions basic human values of power and achievement impact perceived intra-team relationship conflict. By adopting a contingency approach recommended by scholars in the field of values and conflict, the current study has helped in explaining the conditional effects of power and achievement value differences on individual perceptions of conflict at work.

This study supports research on complementary effects of value differences in individuals at work place, and has suggested that people high on achievement values are future-directed and result oriented (Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher, 1997; Cottle, 1969). They are likely to offer creative, ingenious ideas (Rice, 2006) and impart knowledge and actively involve in information sharing with other members that encourages cooperative work environment, thereby reducing the perceptions of relationship conflict. On the contrary, research on conflicting view of value differences is also supported by the current research as it is proposed that people high on power values could become intimidating in exerting their influence on others and may become highly competitive in vying for a status position (Aime, Humphrey, DeRue & Paul, 2014), resulting in deteriorating interpersonal relationships, and consequently increasing relationship conflict perceptions. Furthermore, people who attach greater importance to power values withhold information and manipulate the voices of others (van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg, 2018) resulting in increased perceived relationship conflict.

Our findings support the utility of surface-level variable gender to better explicate the situation under which the differences in employee values is likely to impact the perception of relationship conflict. Findings show that gender differences in upholding power values is likely to reduce perceived relationship conflict. On the other hand, people high on achievement value, do not perceive relationship conflict as they are more self-directed and goal oriented. Therefore, gender does not appear to have a significant effect, as both genders

are equally motivated to achieve certain goals and to be successful in an organizational environment. Exerting control, being authoritative and dominating over others is a gender norm appropriate to men as compared to women (Best & Thomas, 2004). However, being successful, intelligent and proving one's capability and potential to others is not a gender norm specific to either gender. Therefore, this paper has added to literature by advocating the use of surface-level moderator i.e. gender, which was previously treated as a control variable. The use of more complex models to investigate psychological variables in an organizational context is advocated in this study.

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Appendix 1**Table 1.6. Conceptual Definitions**

#	Variable	Conceptual Definition	Authors (Year)
1	Power Value	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.	Schwartz (1992)
2	Achievement Value	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.	Schwartz (1992)
3	Perceived Relationship Conflict	Perceived personal incompatibility in interpersonal relationships.	Jehn (1994)

Table 3.1: Research Approach

Research Philosophy	Positivist
Research Strategy	Quantitative
Time Horizon	Cross-sectional Analysis
Data Collection Method	Survey questionnaire

Table 3.2 Demographic and Control Variables

Demographic Variables	
Age	Gender
Control Variables	
Work Experience	Age
Project Duration	Education
Marital Status	Salary

Table 3.3 Operational Definitions

Construct	Operational Definition <i>(5-point Likert scale)</i>	Author
Power Value	6 items measuring social power, wealth, authority, preserving my public image and social recognition. <i>“Exercising control over others in my team is a motivating principle in my life.”</i>	Schwartz (1992)
Achievement Value	5 items measuring being ambitious, being influential, being capable, being intelligent and self-respect. <i>“Being ambitious about my work is a motivating principle in my life.”</i>	Schwartz (1992)
Perceived Relationship Conflict	4 items measuring friction, personality conflicts, interpersonal tensions and emotional conflict. <i>“There is friction among members of my team.”</i>	Jehn (1995)

Table 3.4: Sample collected from each company

Company Name	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Data
I2c	107	25%
LiveGreeter	81	19%
Big Immersive	77	18%
Systems Limited	92	21%
TRG Global	73	17%

Table 4.1.2: Gender

Gender	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Male	296	80%
Female	74	20%

Table 4.1.3: Age Group

Age Group	Number of Respondents	Percentage
24 and less	27	7.3%
25 - 45	285	77%
46 - 65	58	15.7%
66 and Above	0	0%

Table 4.1.4: Marital Status

Marital Status	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Single	95	25.7%
Married with Children	224	60.5%
Married without Children	42	11.4%
Divorced with children	7	1.9%
Divorced without children	2	0.5%

Table 4.1.5: Salary

Salary	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Less than Rs. 35000	16	4.3%
Rs. 35001 – Rs. 65000	92	24.9%
Rs. 65001 – Rs. 85000	172	46.5%
Rs. 85001 and above	90	24.3%

Table 4.1.6: Education

Education	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Masters	102	27.6%
Bachelors	261	70.5%
College Graduates	7	1.9%

Figure 4.3: Measurement Model with latent variables (Items with factor loadings less than 0.5 were dropped)

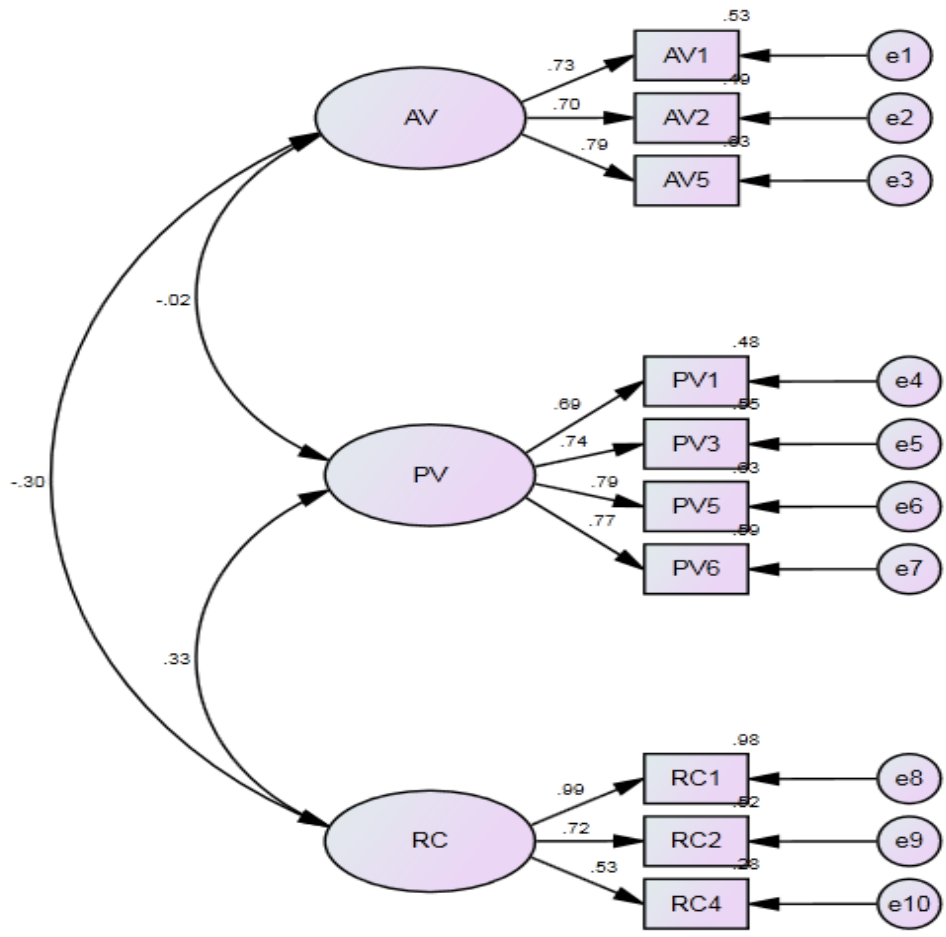
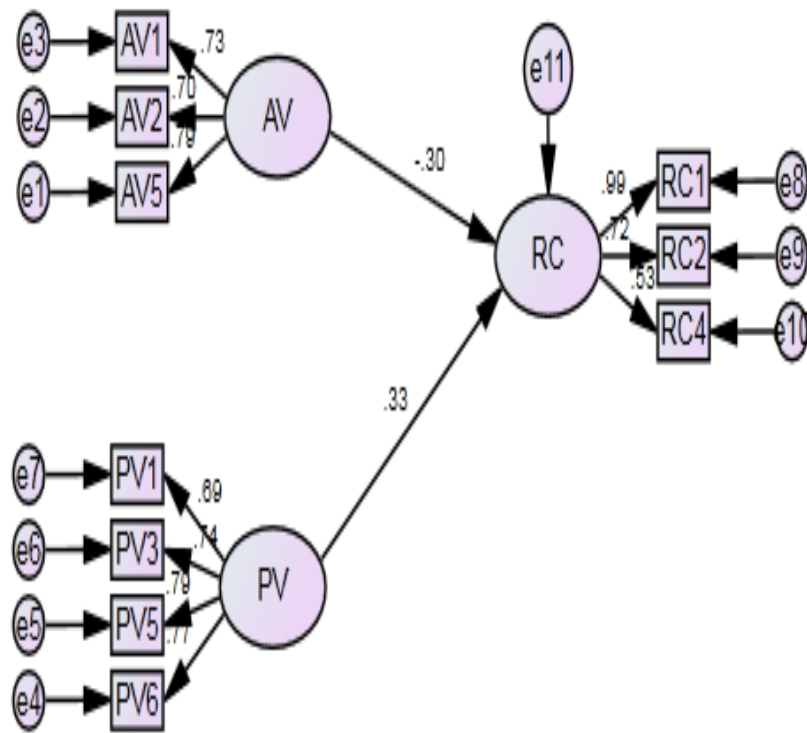


Figure 4.4: Structural Equation Model



Appendix 2

QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for participating in this survey. I am conducting research on human values and perceived conflict as part of my thesis for MPhil degree from Lahore School of Economics. I assure you this information will be used only for the academic purposes. Your honest input will be highly appreciated.

Please encircle your choice:

Name: _____

Project duration: _____

1. Please select your gender:

- a) Male
- b) Female

2. Age:

- a) 24 and less
- b) 25 - 45
- c) 46 - 65
- d) 66 and Above

3. Experience:

4. Your marital status

- a) Single
- b) Married with children
- c) Married without children
- d) Divorced with children
- e) Divorced without children

5. Your education (Please mention the highest degree you have completed)

- a) Masters
- b) Bachelors
- c) College Graduate

6. Your take home salary (in rupees)

- a) Less than 35,000
- b) 35,001 – 65,000
- c) 65,001 – 85,000
- d) 85001 and above

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Exercising control over others in my team is a motivating principle in my life.					
Holding a dominant position in my team is a motivating principle in my life.					
Having the authority to lead my team is a motivating principle in my life.					
Having access to material resources is a motivating principle in my life.					
Preserving my public image is a motivating principle in my life.					
Being respected by others in my team is a motivating principle in my life.					
Being ambitious about my work is a motivating principle in my life.					
Being influential in my work is a motivating principle in my life.					
I am still paying attention so I will strongly agree to this statement					
Proving my capability to others is a motivating principle in my life.					
Being Intelligent is a motivating principle in my life.					
Respecting and appreciating my work is a motivating principle in my life.					
There is friction among members of my team.					
Personality conflicts are evident in my team.					
There is tension among members of my team.					
There is emotional conflict among members of my team.					

Appendix 3
LITERATURE REVIEW TABLE

Authors (Year)	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Dependent Variables	Methodology	Sample
Van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg (2018)	Inter-team conflict	Intra- team Power struggle	Intra-team Power Structure	Team Performance	Hierarchical Regression; PRPCESS Macro – Bootstrap SPSS	85 students teams
Hu & Judge (2017)	Leader Traits (Extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness)	Team Potency Relational identification with Team Leader	Team Power Distance Value	Team Performance	ANOVA, Multilevel SEM	71 R&D teams of technicians and engineers
Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram (2017)	Power Value Diversity	Relationship Conflict	Participative work climate, Workload Sharing	Team Performance	Multi-level Path Analysis (MPLUS)	60 Student Teams
Schwartz et al., (2017)	Human Value tradeoffs	—	Gender	Behaviour	Multi-group CFA; Regression Analysis	Residents of 4 countries – Convenience Sampling
Peleg-Koriat, I., Weimann-Saks, D., & Ben-Ari, R. (2017)	Power perception of partners	Perceived quality of relationship	—	Conflict Management Strategy	OLS regression SPSS	Couples, Spouse
Wu, Zhao and Zuo (2017)	Calculated Trust Relational Trust	Relationship, Task & Process Conflict	—	Project's Added Value	SEM	Construction Project Teams – 407 Employees
Taştan and Davoudi (2017)	Organizational climate	—	Power & Achievement vales	Organization- al Innovativeness	CFA, SEM	312 Employees of Innovative companies
Almost et al. (2016)	Antecedents of Interpersonal Conflict	—	—	Interpersonal Conflict	Integrative Literature Review	Healthcare Teams
Wickham (2016)	Gender and Sexual Orientation	—	Gender	Accuracy and Bias in conflict perceptions	SEM	Same sex and heterosexual Couples

Rogoza, Wyszynska, Maćkiewicz & Ciecuch (2016)	Narcissism (Admiration & Rivalry)	—	—	Basic Human Values	SEM	1012 Polish Adults - Convenience
Tamir et al. (2016)	Core Human Values	—	Gender	Desirability of Value Consistent Emotions	ANOVA	200 Students
Kajonius, Persson & Jonason (2015)	Dark Triad traits (Dark Values)	—	Gender Country	Human Values	Regression Analysis	385 Students
Yuan & Zhou (2015)	Power Distance (Status Differentiation)	—	Group Leader Behaviour Work Strategies	Group Creativity	Conceptual Paper	—
Weingart et al. (2015)	Conflict Perception and expressions	—	Cultural context and characteristic of the disputants	Conflict reaction	Conceptual Paper	—
Danielsson, C., Bodin, L., Wulff, C., & Theorell, T. (2015)	Office type	—	Gender and Noise	Workplace conflict	Logistic Regression	Employees
Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione (2015)	Self-Enhancement, Self-Transcendence, Openness To Change & Conservation	—	Gender	Political Orientation, Political Involvement	ANCOVA	233 National Politicians, Local Politicians & Ordinary Citizens
Ismail (2015)	Gender Differences	—	—	Personal Values	ANOVA	137 Students
Schneider et al., (2015)	Gender	Conflict perceptions	—	Interest in power	ANOVA	Students
	Conflict Perception	Interest in power	—	Political ambition		
Bai, Han & Harms (2015)	Political Climate	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	—	Creativity, OCB, In-role Performance	Multi-Level CFA, SEM	349 subordinates & 78 supervisors – 18 industries
Costa, Passos & Bakker (2015)	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	—	—	Team Work Engagement;	Regression Analysis, Bootstrap Method	82 Research Team
	Job Resources	Team Work Engagement	Task Conflict,	Team Performance		

			Relationship Conflict			
Aime, Humphrey, DeRue & Paul (2014)	Power Heterarchy	—	Perceived Legitimacy for power expression	Team Creativity	Multi-level Regression Analysis	45 Student Teams
Schwartz & Butenko (2014)	Values (Refined Theory 19 values)	—	Gender	Behaviour	CFA, SEM, Regression Analysis	266 Students
Tekleab & Quigley (2014)	Relationship Conflict	—	Deep-level diversity	Team satisfaction	Longitudinal Hierarchical Linear Modeling.	53 Student Teams
Schwartz et al. (2013)	Basic Human Values	—	—	Core Political Values	Multi-dimensional Scale Analysis	Adults of 15 Countries
Woehr, Arciniega & Poling (2012)	Value Diversity	Task and Relationship Conflict	—	Team cohesion & Team efficacy	Team- Based exercise (Chinese Bridge) Hierarchical Regression	60 Student Teams
de Wit, Greer & Jehn (2012)	Task, Relationship & Process Conflict	—	Task Type Cultural context Organizational level Cooccurrence of conflict	Group Visibility, Group Performance	WLS regression on SPSS macro	116 empirical studies. Meta-analysis – electronic database
Arthaud-Day, Rode & Turnley, 2012	Personal Values Self-Enhancement, Self-Transcendence, Openness To Change & Conservation	—	Self-direction, Group Power	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	Hierarchical linear modeling (HLM)	Student Teams
Joecks, Pull & Vetter (2012)	Gender Diversity	—	—	Firm Performance	OLS Regression	160 German Public Ltd Companies
Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz (2011)	Value Diversity	—	Team Leadership	Team Conflict	Longitudinal Study; Hierarchical Regression Analysis	102 Resident teams of American National service program.
			Team Conflict	Team Effectiveness		

Shaw et al. (2011)	Task Conflict	—	Relationship Conflict	Team Performance, Team Member Satisfaction	Hierarchical Linear Modeling	87 Employee teams of Taiwanese Firm
Schwartz, Caprara & Vecchione (2010)	Basic Human Values	Core Political Values	—	Voting Choice	CFA, Multi-dimensional Scaling Analysis (SPSS)	1030 Psychology Students
Stahl, Maznevski, Voigt & Jonsen (2009)	Cultural Diversity	Creativity, Conflict, Communication, Satisfaction & Social Integration	Task complexity, Team size Team dispersion, team tenure	Team Performance	Moderator Analysis	Meta Analysis of 108 Empirical Studies on team processes and performance
Jehn, Greer, Levine & Szulanski (2008)	Task, Relationship & Process Conflict	Trust, Respect & Cohesiveness	Emotions, Norm Resolution Efficacy & Importance	Group Productivity, Group Viability	Hierarchical Regression	53 Students Teams
Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey (2008)	Gender	Business Strategies, Personal Values	—	Performance	SEM	600 owner managers of Small Retailers
Ayoko (2007)	Conflict Events	Group Productive & Destructive Reactions	Communication Openness	Group Tasks	Multiple Regression Analysis	150 Employees Culturally Heterogeneous organization
Hobman & Bordia (2006)	Age, Ethnicity, Gender, Value Dissimilarities	Team Identification	Team Identification	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	Multi-Level Modeling	27 Student Teams
Song, Dyer & Thieme (2006)	Conflict-handling Strategies	Destructive Conflict, Constructive Conflict	—	Innovative Performance	CFA, Path Analysis	290 Employees of R&D, Marketing firms
Schwartz & Rubel (2005)	Gender Difference	—	—	Basic Human Values	Hierarchical Linear Modeling	Students, Adults
Mohammed & Angell (2004)	Surface-level (Gender & Ethnicity) Deep-level Diversity (Time Urgency & Extraversion)	—	Team Orientation, Team Process	Relationship Conflict	Hierarchical Regression	45 Students Teams

De Dreu & Weingart (2003)	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	—	Group Task	Team Member Satisfaction, Team Performance	ANOVA	Meta Analysis
Dwyer, Richard & Chadwick (2003)	Growth Orientation Organizational Culture	—	Gender Diversity	Productivity, ROE	Hierarchical Regression Analysis	535 Bank Employees
Dietz, Kalof & Stern (2002)	Gender Differences	Self-Enhancement Self Transcendence , Openness To Change & Conservation	—	Environment-alism	MANOVA	Telephonic surveys of 345 Residents
Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey (2002)	Deep-level & Surface-level Diversity, Team Reward Contingency	Team Social Integration	Collaboration	Team Task Performance	Regression Analysis	144 Student Teams
Jehn, Northcraft & Neale (1999)	Social, Value & Informational diversity	Task, Relationship & Process Conflict	Task Interdependence Task type	Satisfaction, Intent to Remain & Commitment	Regression Analysis.	92 workgroups Employees of Household Goods industry
Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin (1999)	Demographic, Functional and Tenure Diversity	Task Conflict, Emotional Conflict	Task Routinene Group Longevi	Team Performance	Regression Analysis	45 Corporate Teams
Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher (1997)	Group Value Congruence Demographic Dissimilarity (Age and Sex)	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	—	Group Performance, Member Satisfaction	Regression Analysis	88 Student Teams
Beutel & Marini (1995)	Gender difference Religiosity, Social Support	—	—	Values – Compassion, Materialism & Meaning	Regression Analysis	3500 Students of Public and Private Schools
Jehn (1995)	Relationship Conflict, Task Conflict	Satisfaction, Liking for Members, Intent to Remain	Interdependenc Group Norms, Task Type	Individual Performance Group Performance	Hierarchical Regression Analysis	105 workgroups Employees of Freight Transportation Firms
Jehn (1994)	Group Value-Fit, Group Value Consensus	Task Conflict, Emotional Conflict	—	Group Performance, Individual Satisfaction	Regression Analysis	88 workgroups Employees &Part-time Students

MAIN THEORY OF RESEARCH ON HUMAN VALUES

Authors (Year)	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Dependent Variables	Theory
Van Bunderen, Greer & van Knippenberg (2018)	Inter-team conflict	Intra- team Power struggle	Intra-team Power Structure	Team Performance	Conflict spill-over theory
Hu & Judge (2017)	Leader Traits (Extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness)	Team Potency Relational identification with Team Leader	Team Power Distance Value	Team Performance	Dominance complementarity theory
Alipour, Mohammed & Raghuram (2017)	Power Value Diversity	Relationship Conflict	Participative work climate, Workload Sharing	Team Performance	Similarity attraction paradigm
Schwartz et al., (2017)	Human Value tradeoffs	—	Gender	Behaviour	Schwartz value theory
Taştan and Davoudi (2017)	Organizational climate	—	Power & Achievement values	Organizational Innovativeness	Dynamic capabilities theory, Schwartz value theory
Rogoza, Wyszynska, Maćkiewicz & Ciecuch (2016)	Narcissism (Admiration & Rivalry)	—	—	Basic Human Values	Schwartz value theory
Tamir et al. (2016)	Core Human Values	—	Gender	Desirability of Value Consistent Emotions	Schwartz value theory
Kajonius, Persson & Jonason (2015)	Dark Triad traits (Dark Values)	—	Gender Country	Human Values	Schwartz value theory
Yuan & Zhou (2015)	Power Distance (Status Differentiation)	—	Group Leader Behaviour Work Strategies	Group Creativity	Information processing perspective
Francescato, Mebane & Vecchione (2015)	Self-Enhancement, Self-Transcendence, Openness To Change &	—	Gender	Political Orientation, Political Involvement	Politics of presence theorists. Schwartz value theory

	Conservation				
Ismail (2015)	Gender Differences	—	—	Personal Values	Social role theory
Aime, Humphrey, DeRue & Paul (2014)	Power Heterarchy	—	Perceived Legitimacy for power expression	Team Creativity	Social exchange theory
Schwartz & Butenko (2014)	Values (Refined Theory 19 values)	—	Gender	Behaviour	Schwartz value theory
Tekleab & Quigley (2014)	Relationship Conflict	—	Deep-level diversity	Team satisfaction	Similarity–attraction paradigm
Schwartz et al. (2013)	Basic Human Values	—	—	Core Political Values	Schwartz value theory
Woehr, Arciniega & Poling (2012)	Value Diversity	Task and Relationship Conflict	—	Team cohesion & Team efficacy	Social attraction theory, Cognitive resource theory (Information Processing) Similarity–attraction paradigm
Klein, Knight, Ziegert, Lim & Saltz (2011)	Value Diversity	—	Team Leadership	Team Conflict	Similarity–attraction paradigm, Social categorization and social identity theory
			Team Conflict	Team Effectiveness	
Schwartz, Caprara & Vecchione (2010)	Basic Human Values	Core Political Values	—	Voting Choice	Schwartz value theory
Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey (2008)	Gender	Business Strategies, Personal Values	—	Performance	Social identity theory
Hobman & Bordia (2006)	Age, Ethnicity, Gender, Value Dissimilarities	Team Identification	Team Identification	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	Social identity theory
Schwartz & Rubel (2005)	Gender Difference	—	—	Basic Human Values	Social role theory, Schwartz value theory
Mohammed & Angell (2004)	Surface-level Diversity (Gender & Ethnicity) Deep-level Diversity (Time Urgency & Extraversion)	—	Team Orientation, Team Process	Relationship Conflict	Similarity–attraction paradigm, Social identity theory

Dietz, Kalof & Stern (2002)	Gender Differences	Self-Enhancement Self-Transcendence, Openness To Change & Conservation	—	Environmentalism	Gender Socialization Perspective
Harrison, Price, Gavin & Florey (2002)	Deep-level & Surface-level Diversity, Team Reward Contingency	Team Social Integration	Collaboration	Team Task Performance	Social categorization theory Similarity–attraction paradigm,
Jehn, Chadwick & Thatcher (1997)	Group Value Congruence Demographic Dissimilarity (Age and Sex)	Task Conflict, Relationship Conflict	—	Group Performance, Member Satisfaction	Similarity attraction paradigm