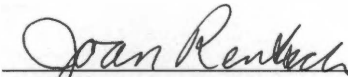
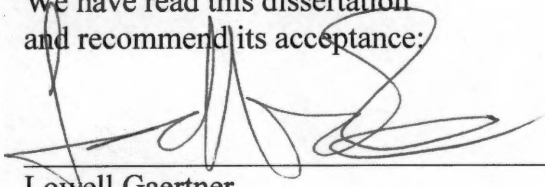


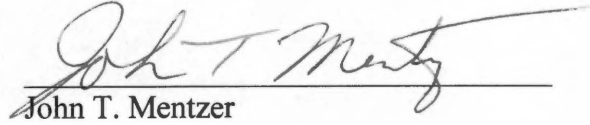
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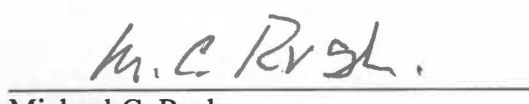
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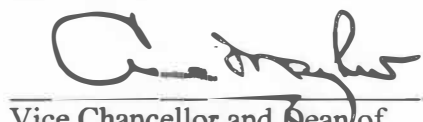
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**SOCIO-EMOTIONAL CONFLICT IN TEAMS:
A SOCIAL RELATIONS ANALYSIS AND EXPLORATION OF CAUSES**

**A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Jacqueline Zelno Bergman
August 2006**

DEDICATION

For their unfailing support and encouragement, and their invaluable friendship,
this dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Shawn Bergman, my family,
Mitch and Roseann Zelno, and the McConnells – Wendy, Terry, Ali, Katie, and Mitch,
and my friends, Wes Davenport and Erika Small.

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I may, however, be most indebted to my husband, Shawn, who responded to countless requests for help, listened to all of my frustrations and doubts, and provided constant faith and reassurance. If not for him, these pages would likely be smoldering in our fireplace.

ABSTRACT

Substantial research has consistently shown that socio-emotional conflict detracts from team performance and decreases team member satisfaction. However, little research has been done to determine what leads to this type of conflict. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine in more detail the underlying causes of socio-emotional conflict among team members from a person-perception perspective. A round-robin design and D. Kenny's (1994) social relations model (SRM) were used to examine the extent to which perceptions of socio-emotional conflict stem from individual versus relational factors. Moreover, several individual difference variables were examined to investigate who is most likely to perceive conflict with others, and who is most likely to be seen as causing conflict. The results indicated that a substantial amount of variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict is attributable to the perceiver, supporting the contention that conflict may be largely "in the eye of the beholder." A lack of significant correlations among individual difference variables and the perceiver and target effects, suggests that the reasons why team members perceive or cause conflict may be more complicated than originally thought, and draws attention to the need for further research on socio-emotional conflict in teams.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND PRESENT STUDY

Research on conflict in teams has consistently shown socio-emotional conflict to be negatively related to satisfaction and performance. In a recent meta-analysis, De Dreu and Weingart (2003) reported an average (corrected) correlation between socio-emotional conflict and team member satisfaction of $-.56$, and an average (corrected) correlation between socio-emotional conflict and team performance of $-.22$. No study included in the meta-analysis found a positive relationship between socio-emotional conflict and satisfaction, and only six of 24 studies found positive correlations between socio-emotional conflict and performance. However, despite these consistent findings, we have yet to fully understand this type of conflict that is clearly detrimental to team functioning.

Authors have typically discussed intrateam conflict as consisting of two distinct types (e.g., Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1995; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Task or cognitive conflict is disagreement among team members about the content of the task itself, and socio-emotional or relationship conflict is interpersonal incompatibilities that usually include tension, animosity, and annoyance (Jehn, 1995). This distinction does have some empirical support. Factor analyses have shown that respondents distinguish between the two types of conflict (e.g., Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1994; Zelno, 2003), and the finding that socio-emotional conflict is more strongly related to team member satisfaction than is task conflict “strongly suggests that the two constructs as measured are unique” (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003, p. 747).

However, the two types of conflict are often found to be positively and significantly correlated. De Dreu and Weingart (2003) reported an average (corrected)

correlation between task and socio-emotional conflict of .54, and single studies have found correlations as high as .75 (Ensley & Pearce, 2001). This has led many authors to theorize that the two types of conflict are causally related, most likely in such a way that socio-emotional conflict stems primarily from misinterpretations of task conflict (e.g., Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Zelno, 2003). Simons and Peterson's (2000) study of conflict in top management teams provided some initial evidence for this causal relationship, but it has yet to be determined to what extent socio-emotional conflict results from such misinterpretations, as opposed to other causes (e.g., personality traits, cognitive biases). Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine in more detail the underlying causes of perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. First, the conflict literature is briefly reviewed, with an emphasis on socio-emotional conflict and its impact on team effectiveness. Second, Kenny's (1994) social relations model (SRM) is described with regard to how it was used in the present study to investigate perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Third, relevant personality traits and cognitive biases are discussed and hypothesized to affect perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Finally, research is presented that tested these hypotheses, and the results are presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 2

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL CONFLICT

Impact on Team Effectiveness

Despite debate over the effect of task conflict on team performance (see De Dreu & Weingart, 2003), theorists and researchers agree that socio-emotional conflict detracts from team performance and erodes commitment to the team and its decisions (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Evan, 1965; Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954; Janssen, Van de Vliert, & Veenstra, 1999; Jehn, 1994). Clear and consistent empirical findings support this proposition (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003).

For example, Amason (1996) examined the effects of task and socio-emotional conflict on strategic decision-making in top management teams. Team members reported: the amounts of conflict the team experienced while making its most recent decision; the understanding of and commitment to the decision; and the affective state of the team following the decision. The results of the study indicated that socio-emotional conflict was significantly and negatively related to decision quality and affective acceptance. Amason argued that, not only did such conflict clearly decrease decision quality, but its impact on affective acceptance jeopardized the team's ability to maintain positive relationships and would, in the long run, further hinder performance.

Similarly, Pelled's (1996) field study of manufacturing teams showed the negative effects of socio-emotional conflict on performance. Consistent with her hypothesis, individual perceptions of socio-emotional conflict had a significant negative relationship with perceptions of group productivity, even after controlling for demographic dissimilarity among members.

In an investigation of the role of value similarity on conflict, Jehn (1994) studied 88 workgroups performing comparable tasks, and, as expected, found that emotional conflict was negatively related to performance and satisfaction. When group members experienced interpersonal altercations and animosity, performance suffered. Members appeared to be more concerned with resolving the interpersonal problems than with effectively completing their tasks.

Given the consistent and strong negative relationship between socio-emotional conflict and team outcomes, researchers have begun to investigate why this effect occurs. A number of theories have been offered, including that socio-emotional conflict: consumes time and energy that should be spent working on the task; gives rise to hostile attributions concerning teammates' intentions; inhibits cognitive processing of complex information; and reduces receptiveness to ideas of other team members (Evan, 1965; Janssen et al., 1999; Jehn, 1995; Pelled, 1996; Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981; Torrence, 1957). Recent empirical studies have shown support for a few of these theories.

For example, De Dreu and Van Vianen (2001) found that socio-emotional conflict can often direct team members' attention away from the task. Assuming that such conflict cannot be prevented, the authors examined how teams responded to socio-emotional conflict, distinguishing between collaborating, contending, and avoiding responses, and how those responses were related to team satisfaction and effectiveness. As expected, socio-emotional conflict was negatively related to satisfaction with the team. Contrary to predictions, socio-emotional conflict did not correlate with team effectiveness, however, closer inspection of the results indicated that the teams' responses to this conflict were differentially related to effectiveness. Collaborating and contending responses were

negatively related to effectiveness, while avoiding responses were positively related to effectiveness. It appeared that collaborating and contending responses escalated the conflict, causing team members, in effect, to direct their time and energy toward the conflict instead of toward the team's task. Avoiding responses, on the other hand, permitted the team's members to re-focus on the task.

Carnevale and Probst (1998) found indirect evidence that socio-emotional conflict can produce rigid thinking, which entails restricted judgment, reduced complexity, and an inability to consider alternative perspectives. A series of experiments were conducted, in which participants either expected or actually experienced cooperation or conflict. Those who expected or experienced cooperation were more likely to solve a functional-fixedness task and use categories more inclusively than those who expected or experienced conflict. Because the categorizations in the study had nothing to do with the expected or experienced negotiation, the authors argued that cognitive rigidity in conflict is not simply holding firm, nor a desire to "look tough" in negotiation. Rather, it suggests an unintentional change in underlying cognitive organization. An important implication of these results is that individuals expecting or experiencing conflict may not be able to perceive possible trade-offs or creative optimal solutions. In a team setting, this effect could drastically hinder performance.

Causes of Socio-Emotional Conflict

As our understanding of the impact of socio-emotional conflict on team effectiveness is increasing, the causes of socio-emotional conflict are still relatively unknown. As mentioned previously, Simons and Peterson's (2000) study of trust and conflict in top management teams provided some initial evidence that task conflict may

be one cause of socio-emotional conflict. The study focused specifically on the co-occurrence of task and socio-emotional conflict, and compared three possible explanations for why the two conflict types are consistently correlated. Findings showed that teams with low levels of intragroup trust exhibited a stronger positive association between task and socio-emotional conflict than did teams with high levels of trust. The authors interpreted this result to be consistent with the proposition that trust decreases the likelihood of misinterpretations of task conflict, and, therefore, implied that socio-emotional conflict results, at least in part, from such misinterpretations. Unfortunately, our knowledge of the causes of socio-emotional conflict does not go much beyond this indirect finding that task conflict may lead to socio-emotional conflict. Part of the problem may lie in a common practice of intrateam conflict researchers.

Researchers typically aggregate individual reports of conflict to the team level on the assumption that individual members of a team have the same conflict experiences (e.g., Amason, 1996; De Dreu & Van Vianen, 2001; Jehn & Mannix, 2001; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Zelno, 2003). In contrast, the literature on marital conflict assumes that conflict is a matter of individual perception, such that the attributions one makes about another's behavior is what determines whether conflict will have constructive or destructive consequences (Fincham & Beach, 1999; Karney & Bradbury, 2000). Furthermore, there is empirical evidence from studies of marital conflict that suggest that conflict attributions represent stable trait-like tendencies (Fincham & O'Leary, 1983). Thus, the assumption of intrateam conflict researchers that members of the same team experience the same types of conflict may not be entirely accurate.

As in marital conflict, individual perceptions and attributions may be at the core of intrateam conflict, and may be what ultimately determine whether such conflict is functional or dysfunctional. Behavior and attributions are likely to be cyclical, such that Teammate A's behavior leads to certain attributions made by Teammate B, which causes Teammate B to behave in response to those attributions, which then leads to certain attributions made by Teammate A.

For example, Teammate A may disagree with Teammate B (see Figure 1 in Appendix A; all figures/tables are presented in Appendix A). Teammate B may perceive this disagreement as a personal attack, and behaviorally respond with a sarcastic, biting remark. Teammate A then also perceives a personal attack, and dysfunctional socio-emotional conflict ensues.

However, the same initial behavior, if perceived differently, can lead to functional task conflict. Teammate C may disagree with Teammate D, and Teammate D may perceive the disagreement as good teamwork and an attempt by Teammate C to reach the best possible decision. Teammate D then responds, based on this attribution, to Teammate C with an alternative suggestion or a clarifying explanation. Teammate C then also perceives good teamwork, and functional task conflict occurs.

Thus, team members' *perceptions and attributions* regarding team member behavior may be an important determinant of intrateam conflict. Individuals may be predisposed to perceive (or not) conflict with others. As discussed in more detail in the following chapter, a significant perceiver effect, or assimilation, resulting from a social relations analysis will provide evidence that such predispositions exist.

Of course, team members may behave in such ways as to directly cause perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Although some team-related behaviors may be ambiguous and open to multiple interpretations, other behaviors may be clearly antagonistic, hostile, or belligerent. Therefore, team members' *behaviors* are also an important determinant of intrateam conflict. A significant target effect, or consensus, resulting from a social relations analysis will provide evidence that the behavior of some individuals may directly cause perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

Team Member Conflict Propensities

If the above propositions are true, that certain individuals may be predisposed to perceive socio-emotional conflict and/or cause socio-emotional conflict, it is then of interest to determine whom those individuals may be, because they are likely to impact the team's functioning and performance in different ways.

First, there may be individuals who are likely to both perceive and cause socio-emotional conflict. These individuals may be particularly disruptive in a team setting, and/or may be especially resistant to training or facilitation designed to minimize socio-emotional conflict. These individuals can be thought of as conflict "perpetuators," allowing socio-emotional conflict to arise and continue. These individuals are probably quick to anger, easily threatened by negative feedback, and ready to rationalize aggressive behavior. In other words, these individuals may be low in agreeableness, be highly sensitive to ego threat, and possess the cognitive biases congruent with those high in aggression.

On the other hand, there are also individuals who may be conflict "buffers." Team members who are unlikely to perceive or cause socio-emotional conflict may help to

protect the team from downward spirals of socio-emotional conflict. These individuals are likely to be motivated to maintain positive relationships, have stable, accurate self-views, and see little harmful intent in others' behavior. In other words, these individuals may: be high in agreeableness, be resilient to ego threat, and possess none or few of the cognitive biases congruent with aggression.

Also, there are likely to be team members who tend to perceive socio-emotional conflict, but not cause it. These individuals are likely to end up withdrawn from the team, as they perceive socio-emotional conflict, but hesitate to engage in arguments or debates. These individuals may be thought of as "disengaged." They are probably tense, insecure, and likely to see others as the cause of negative events. In other words, these individuals may be low in emotional stability, may have low self-esteem, and may utilize a negative attribution style.

Lastly, there are likely to be team members who tend to cause socio-emotional conflict, but not perceive it. These individuals can be thought as "debaters." They enjoy participating in discussions, and do not see ill intent as others also engage in the team's discussions and debates. They are possibly talkative, curious, argumentative, and self-confident. In other words, they may be high in extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience, and possess high self-esteem. Descriptions of these four types of team members are summarized in Figure 2 (see Appendix A).

If this categorization of team members is accurate, it may have significant implications for teams research and practice. For example, evidence that conflict is a matter of individual perception, i.e., that members of a team do not necessarily have the same conflict experiences, would have important implications for research on intrateam

conflict. Additionally, if team members do tend to both perceive and cause socio-emotional conflict, this would have implications for team training, facilitation, and leadership.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIAL RELATIONS MODEL

Kenny's (1994) social relations model (SRM) is a statistical technique that analyzes round-robin data consisting of interpersonal ratings and partitions the ratings into perceiver, target, relationship, and error variance. This provides an indicator of how much each variance component contributes to the ratings and, if multiple groups are assessed, can test whether each of the three variance components (perceiver, target, and relationship) are significantly different from zero. Thus, SRM can be used to evaluate the relative importance of individual factors in accounting for perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

With respect to the present study and individual perceptions of conflict, significant perceiver variance (also referred to as a perceiver effect) would indicate that there is *assimilation*, meaning that each individual sees all others as similar, or that perceptions of conflict are "in the eye of the beholder." Some individuals are likely to see conflict, while other individuals are not. Significant target variance (or a target effect) would indicate that there is *consensus*, which describes the degree of agreement among observers in their perceptions of conflict with a certain other. Some individuals may be seen by all members as causing conflict, while other individuals may be seen by all others as causing no conflict. Significant relationship variance (or a relationship effect) would indicate *uniqueness*, or that individuals are uniquely perceiving conflict with specific others. In other words, individuals are making unique adjustments to each other individual that are idiosyncratic in nature. Relationship variance is a dyadic or relational effect, and, statistically, is what emerges after the two individual-level effects (perceiver

and target) are removed. Thus, by using a round-robin design and SRM, it is possible to examine the extent to which perceptions of socio-emotional conflict stem from individual versus relational factors.

Furthermore, the social relations model permits the correlation of self-report or other individual-level data with the individual-level variance components (i.e., perceiver and target effects). This allows for an examination of likely correlates of perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Of course, these correlations may only be performed if the social relations analysis results in significant perceiver and target variance (Marcus, 1998). If perceptions of socio-emotional conflict are not at least partially due to perceiver characteristics, for example, then it makes little sense to investigate what personal characteristics indicate that someone is more likely to perceive conflict. Furthermore, these correlations can only be computed with individual-level variance components. Because the relationship effect is at the dyadic level of analysis, relationship effects cannot be correlated with individual-level data (Marcus, 1998).

Given what little is currently known about the causes of socio-emotional conflict, exploring what individual differences correlate with perceptions of socio-emotional conflict is of particular interest. There may be certain personality or cognitive variables that relate to the extent to which individuals perceive conflict with others and the extent to which individuals are seen as causing conflict. Thus, individual difference variables from three literature bases that appear especially relevant to perceptions of socio-emotional conflict were examined in relation to assimilation and consensus: (1) personality, specifically the Big Five; (2) self-identity; and (3) cognitive biases.

Assimilation and Correlates

Although, it was expected that all three variance components would account for significant proportions of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict, it was expected that the perceiver effect would account for the greatest proportion of variance. Across numerous studies of interpersonal perception, there is strong evidence for assimilation, with approximately 20% of the total variance in the perception of others attributable to the perceiver (Kenny, 1994). It seems obvious that people differ in the standards they set for evaluating others. Although the present study differs from “traditional” person-perception studies in that perceivers are evaluating their *interactions* with others as opposed to evaluating the traits or characteristics of others, there are theoretical and empirical reasons to believe that the perceiver effect will be significant with regard to perceptions of conflict. For instance, the research on marital conflict (e.g., Fincham & O’Leary, 1983) has found that conflict attributions may represent stable, trait-like tendencies. Individuals may possess different attribution styles, making some individuals more likely than others to attribute conflict behaviors to personal or relationship versus situational or task-related issues.

Thus, it is likely that certain “types” of people are predisposed to perceive socio-emotional conflict. Regardless of the exact behavior, certain team members may have stable tendencies to make attributions that lead to socio-emotional conflict. Such attributions may occur due to a variety of individual characteristics, such as personality, self-identity, or cognitive biases.

The intrateam conflict literature provides indirect evidence for assimilation in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. The vast majority of studies have found a

significant positive correlation between task and socio-emotional conflict (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003), and it is typically believed that this is due to task conflict degrading into socio-emotional conflict (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Zelno, 2003). In other words, team members dislike having others disagree or argue with them, so that task-related disagreements are often perceived to have personal or emotional overtones. As discussed earlier, Simons and Peterson (2000) found evidence to support this proposition. Therefore, it seems likely that people will differ significantly in the extent to which they perceive conflict with others, controlling for both how those others are behaving (target effects) and their unique relationships with those others (relationship effects). Also, this significant perceiver effect was expected to account for more of the variance than either the target or relationship effects. Specifically:

Hypothesis 1a: The perceiver effect will account for a significant proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

Hypothesis 1b: The perceiver effect will account for significantly more of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict than the target or relationship effects.

As mentioned earlier, there may be certain types of people who are predisposed to perceive socio-emotional conflict. The literature on the Big Five, self-identity, and cognitive biases suggests six individual difference variables that may lead to assimilation in perceptions of conflict.

Agreeableness. Of all the “Big Five” factors, agreeableness is probably the most concerned with interpersonal relationships (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996). It has been theorized that differences in agreeableness reflect tendencies in the regulation of

anger and frustration, implying that agreeable people may be better able to control anger and negative affect in situations involving frustration (Ahadi & Rothbart, 1994). If so, differences in agreeableness should be particularly evident in conflict situations, which elicit anger and frustration in even socially skillful individuals (Graziano et al., 1996).

Furthermore, agreeableness has been associated with the motivation to maintain positive relations with others, and this motive system may lead those high in agreeableness to generate positive perceptions of and attributions for provocative behavior (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Thus, instead of attributing socio-emotional conflict to personal or relationship issues, the agreeable person may be more inclined to attribute the conflict to situational or task-related issues. Positive attributions of conflict behavior (i.e., not attributing the conflict to personal issues) should lead the agreeable person to perceive less conflict with others, resulting in a negative relationship between agreeableness and perceiver effects in perceptions of conflict.

Empirical research has shown some support for this proposition. Bono et al. (2002) investigated the role of personality in attributions made about the nature and source of conflicts. First, their results suggested that individuals have, to some extent, stable tendencies in the attributions they make about their conflict experiences (i.e., task versus relationship) across time, partners, and situations. Second, they found that individuals who scored low on agreeableness were more likely to attribute their conflicts to relationship issues. This suggests that those low on agreeableness may be more likely to perceive socio-emotional conflict with others.

Given the theory and research on agreeableness, it seems likely to expect that team members high in agreeableness will perceive less conflict. Specifically:

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant negative correlation between agreeableness and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those high in agreeableness will tend to perceive less socio-emotional conflict than those low in agreeableness.

Emotional stability. Individual differences in emotional stability were also expected to impact perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Emotionally stable individuals are typically described as calm, self-confident, and patient, while those low in emotional stability tend to be tense, insecure, and irritable (Antonioni, 1998). Furthermore, emotional stability has been discussed as assessing the extent to which different people are differentially prepared to respond with specific emotions when given the same stimulus conditions (Larsen & Ketelaar, 1991). Low emotional stability is associated with a preparedness to respond with stronger negative than positive affect under certain circumstances. This negative emotionality typically includes stress reactions, alienation, anxiety, feeling victimized, and resentment. Thus, it is likely that in conflict situations, which often trigger anger and frustration, team members low in emotional stability will experience stronger negative emotions than those high in emotional stability. Experiencing such negative emotions should lead these team members to perceive more socio-emotional conflict than their emotionally stable teammates.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant negative correlation between emotional stability and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those low in emotional stability will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those high in emotional stability.

Extraversion and openness to experience. It was expected that extraversion and openness to experience would be related only to consensus, and, thus, these will be discussed in detail below.

Conscientiousness. No known research on conscientiousness appears relevant to perceptions of socio-emotional conflict, and no relationships seem intuitive. Thus, no formal hypotheses were made regarding this factor, and its inclusion in the present study was strictly exploratory in order to determine if further investigation of conscientiousness and conflict perceptions is warranted.

Self-esteem. Two individual difference variables related to self-identity were expected to correlate with assimilation in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict: self-esteem and sensitivity to ego threats.

Self-esteem is an individual difference variable not often discussed in the context of interpersonal interactions, but is one that clearly impacts such interactions, and was expected to relate to perceptions of socio-emotional conflict among team members. Self-esteem is generally defined as the positive or negative attitude an individual has toward oneself, and as frequently measured, reflects the feeling that one is “good enough,” not necessarily that one considers him/herself superior to others (Rosenberg, 1965).

Individuals with high self-esteem, then, respect themselves and consider themselves worthy; they do not necessarily think of themselves as better than others, but they definitely do not think of themselves as worse. Low self-esteem individuals, on the other hand, lack respect for themselves, and feel self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, and self-contempt. They dislike their evaluations of themselves, and wish they possessed more desirable qualities.

With regard to interpersonal interactions, individuals low in self-esteem are thought to be more reactive or “behaviorally plastic” (Brockner, 1988); that is, they may be more susceptible to influence by external and/or social cues. This may occur for several reasons. First, low self-esteem individuals are likely to be uncertain of the correctness of their thoughts and actions and will then rely on social cues to guide their behavior. Second, those with low self-esteem have a higher need for approval from others than do those with high self-esteem, so they are likely to behave as others want them to in order to gain approval. Third, low self-esteem individuals are more sensitive to negative feedback than are high self-esteem individuals, and are more likely to believe that the feedback is valid. Given this receptivity to social cues and, especially the desire for positive evaluations, team members low in self-esteem are likely to behave very differently in conflict situations than their high self-esteem teammates.

Duffy, Shaw, and Stark (2000) recently examined how self-esteem interacts with task and relationship conflict to impact performance and satisfaction in interdependent groups. They found that the satisfaction of high self-esteem members was less effected by the amount of relationship conflict than was the satisfaction of low self-esteem members. The authors theorized that high self-esteem individuals are not as aware of the negative social cues that accompany relationship conflict as opposed to their low self-esteem teammates. Thus, their satisfaction was not as greatly influenced by the presence of such conflict. Also, low self-esteem individuals are more likely to view relationship conflict as a reflection of their own self-worth and to consider the problem their fault, thus, driving down their satisfaction with their group experience.

Given these results, it was expected in the present study that self-esteem would be related to individual-level perceiver effects. If low self-esteem individuals are particularly sensitive to negative social cues and tend to internalize negative feedback, they should perceive more socio-emotional conflict than their high self-esteem teammates.

Hypothesis 4: There will be a significant negative correlation between self-esteem and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those low in self-esteem will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those high in self-esteem.

Sensitivity to ego threat. There are undoubtedly individual differences in the extent to which people care about the opinions of others and feel the subjective impact of ego threats (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). A growing body of evidence suggests that individuals with a very positive, yet unstable and insecure, self-view may be prone to anger and aggression when this positive self-view is threatened by negative feedback (Baumeister et al., 1996; Kernis, Grannemann, and Barclay, 1989; Papps & O'Carroll, 1998; Stucke & Sporer, 2002). To the degree to which feedback is accurate instead of random, its subjective impact will depend on whether the recipient's self-view is accurate. An unwarranted or exaggerated self-view is especially likely to be disconfirmed by accurate feedback. Furthermore, unstable or uncertain self-appraisals increase the importance of ego threats and magnify the hostile responses (Baumeister et al., 1996). Thus, individuals with inflated, unstable, or uncertain self-views may be most sensitive to ego threats.

An inflated self-view corresponds directly to the concept of narcissism (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). According to the DSM-IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994),

narcissism involves displays of self-aggrandizement and fantasies about unlimited ability and power. Narcissists react with rage, shame, or humiliation when their self-esteem is threatened, and use feelings of grandiosity to bolster and enhance a relatively fragile self-esteem. Here, the term “narcissism” is used in reference to nonclinical adults rather than the narcissistic personality disorder.

Research has supported the idea that narcissists are defensive and, at times, extremely emotionally reactive. For example, Rhodewalt and Morf (1998) investigated narcissism in a laboratory setting, and found that narcissistic participants experienced significantly more anger, anxiety, and self-esteem fluctuations after failure than did less narcissistic participants. High and low narcissists, however, did not differ in their reactions to success. The authors concluded that narcissistic anger is a response to perceived threats to a grandiose self-image, and the negative emotional reaction of narcissists after failure may influence their interpersonal behavior and result in aggressive or other antisocial acts toward others.

Although the clinical and nonclinical definitions of narcissism include both an extremely positive and a somewhat fragile self-view, the emphasis is clearly on the *level* of self-esteem. Thus, recent research on narcissism has added measurement of self-concept clarity (Campbell, 1990). Along with an inflated level of self-esteem, some individuals may also experience insecurities or temporal and situational instabilities in self-esteem. Thus, the level of self-esteem as an evaluative component of the self-concept is essentially independent from a structural component of the self-concept. This structural component includes the extent to which the self-concept is clearly defined, internally consistent, and stable.

Stucke and Sporer (2002) included self-concept clarity in their investigation of narcissism and aggression after an ego-threatening event. In a laboratory setting, participants were given bogus feedback regarding their performance on an intelligence test (indicating either success or failure), their levels of anger were assessed, and they were asked to evaluate the experiment and the experimenter having been told that their evaluations would influence future funding of the project. The results showed two significant three-way interactions, indicating that the highest levels of anger and the most negative judgments of the experiment were reported by participants who were given negative feedback and who scored high in narcissism and low in self-concept clarity. The authors argued that high narcissists felt more threatened by negative feedback, and reacted aggressively to reestablish their extremely positive self-view and to derogate the source of the ego-threat (the experiment). This seemed to be even more the case for narcissists with low self-concept clarity, because individuals with an extremely positive self-view, which is unstable or insecure, are especially sensitive to ego-threats. Thus, this combination of high narcissism and low self-concept clarity is referred to here as “sensitivity to ego threat.”

Although there does not seem to be any clear definition, ego threats are typically considered to occur when favorable views about oneself are questioned, contradicted, mocked, challenged, or otherwise jeopardized (Baumeister et al., 1996). Thus, any negative feedback that creates a discrepancy between internal (positive) and external (negative) appraisals may be seen as an ego threat, and, therefore, at least some of the socio-emotional conflict that occurs in teams is likely to stem from perceived ego threats. The disagreements, debates, and differing opinions that are common in a team setting are

likely to feel threatening to most members. In general, people do not like when others disagree with them, and “are inclined to see all disagreement as evidence of personal rejection” (Torrance, 1957, p. 318). Thus, disagreements, in the sense that they constitute negative feedback about one’s ideas and opinions, may often be perceived as ego threats.

Because disagreements and debates are frequent occurrences in a team setting, there are likely to be numerous opportunities for members to feel threatened. Members who are more sensitive to ego threats are more likely than their less sensitive teammates to experience the negative affect that accompanies such threats (Baumeister et al., 1996) and hence perceive more socio-emotional conflict when such threats occur.

Hypothesis 5: There will be a significant positive correlation between sensitivity to ego threats (high narcissism and low self-concept clarity) and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those high in sensitivity to ego threats will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those low in sensitivity to ego threats.

Attribution style. As mentioned earlier, the literature on marital conflict shows a great deal of interest in the attributions that a spouse makes for his or her partner’s behavior (e.g., Fincham & Bradbury, 1992; Fincham & O’Leary, 1983; Karney & Bradbury, 2000), and it is the attributions themselves, as opposed to the conflict, that determine whether the conflict is functional or dysfunctional. Numerous studies have documented the strong relationship between attributions and marital satisfaction (see Bradbury & Fincham, 1990, for a review). Distressed spouses are theorized to make attributions for negative events that accentuate their impact (i.e., they locate the cause of the event in their partners, see the cause as stable, and see the cause as global or

influencing many aspects of the relationship). Nondistressed spouses, on the other hand, are thought to make attributions that minimize the impact of negative events (i.e., they do not locate the cause in their partners, and they see the cause as unstable and specific).

The intrateam conflict literature, however, appears to assume, at least implicitly, an objective criterion of whether conflict is functional or dysfunctional. If the conflict stems from the task at hand, it is functional; if the conflict stems from interpersonal or emotional issues, it is dysfunctional (e.g., Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1994; Simons & Peterson, 2000). What this approach does not take into account is the very likely possibility that different people may make different attributions as to whether the conflict stems from task versus interpersonal issues, just as different spouses make different attributions for their partners' behaviors. There may not be any "objective reality" with respect to the *type* of conflict being experienced by the team. Each team member may experience a different type of conflict from the same stimulus depending on the attribution he or she makes. If the team member perceives a disagreement as being personal or emotional in nature, he or she will make an attribution of socio-emotional (i.e., dysfunctional) conflict. However, another team member could perceive the same disagreement as being strictly task-related and, thus, make an attribution of task (i.e., functional) conflict.

In the tradition of the marital conflict literature (e.g., Fincham & Bradbury, 1992; Fincham & O'Leary, 1983), intrateam conflict researchers need to examine the possibility that each individual possesses a certain attribution style, which reflects an enduring, trait-like tendency to attribute someone's behavior to either stable, internal causes or temporary, external causes. In the case of intrateam conflict, this attribution

style would reflect the tendency to attribute typical teammate behaviors to task-related conflict (i.e., a temporary, external cause) versus socio-emotional conflict (i.e., a stable, internal cause). It seems likely that individuals with a “negative” attribution style, meaning that they tend to attribute behaviors to stable, internal causes, would perceive more socio-emotional conflict than individuals with a “positive” attribution style. As assessed in the marital conflict literature, higher scores on an attribution measure reflect a “negative” attribution style, i.e., attributions that accentuate the impact of negative behavior, therefore:

Hypothesis 6: There will be a significant positive relationship between attribution style and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those with a “negative” attribution style will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those with a “positive” attribution style.

Aggression. Although the term “aggression” is frequently used to describe certain types of behaviors, the interest here is as it is used to denote personality. An aggressive individual: (a) chooses to use aggression to deal with frustrating situations; (b) dislikes, perhaps even hates, the target; (c) intends to harm the target; (d) has diminished self-regulatory capacities; and (e) perceives few response options to frustration and anger (James & Mazerolle, 2002). Because of the emotions and behaviors the aggressive team member is likely to experience and engage in, it is expected that aggression will be related to perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

James and colleagues (James, 1998; James & Mazerolle, 2002; James, et al., 2005) have investigated and assessed aggression by focusing on the aggressive individual’s implicit motive to aggress and how that motive impacts his or her reasoning.

In general, people like to believe that their behavior is sensible and rational. Thus, an individual with a strong motive to aggress is likely to frame and analyze events in ways that enhance the rational appeal of behaving aggressively. People who unconsciously reason in ways that rationalize aggressive behavior are said to have an implicit cognitive readiness to aggress. Having reasons already in place to justify their behavior, the aggressive individual is much more likely than others to respond aggressively in evocative situations.

Aggressive individuals are able to rationalize their behavior because they possess certain nonconscious biases that influence their reasoning. These biases have been termed “justification mechanisms” (JMs; James, 1998). Although no known research has investigated the impact of these JMs on team processes, it makes intuitive sense that team members who possess these JMs, and, thus, are cognitively ready to aggress, will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than team members who are not cognitively ready to aggress.

For example, aggressive individuals typically possess a hostile attribution bias (James, 1998; James et al., 2005). This bias consists of a tendency to see malevolent intent in the actions of others. With this bias, even benign or friendly acts may be inferred by the aggressive individual to have hidden, hostile agendas. In a team setting, where debates and heated discussions occur frequently, aggressive individuals will likely see harmful intent when their teammates disagree with their ideas or opinions.

Overall, it was expected that team members who are cognitively ready to aggress would perceive more socio-emotional conflict.

Hypothesis 7: There will be a significant positive correlation between aggression and individual-level perceiver effects, such that those high in aggression will perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those low in aggression.

Consensus and Correlates

Studies of interpersonal perception also provide some evidence for consensus. Kenny and colleagues (Kenny, Albright, Malloy, & Kashy, 1994) conducted a comprehensive review of 32 studies that examined levels of consensus with regard to the Big Five factors. The results were strongest for extraversion, which at both zero-acquaintance and long-term acquaintance showed relatively high levels of consensus, with target effects accounting for nearly 30% of the variance. The results for the remaining four factors were not nearly as strong at zero-acquaintance, but were similar at long-term acquaintance. On average, Kenny (1994) has estimated that about 15% of the total variance in the perception of others reflects consensus.

Again, the present study is quite different from those investigating perceptions of personality traits or liking, however, given the results of “traditional” person-perception studies, it seemed reasonable to expect significant target variance in this study, as well. Additionally, it makes intuitive sense that there will be team members who consistently cause socio-emotional conflict. There are certain personality traits and cognitive biases that may predispose an individual to act destructively and/or react emotionally in team settings (e.g., aggression), or that will create the perception of escalating conflict (e.g., high self-esteem, openness to experience). These traits and biases are discussed in more detail below. Specifically, it was expected that:

Hypothesis 8: The target effect will account for a significant, but smaller, proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict, than accounted for by the perceiver effect.

As mentioned above, it seems likely that some team members possess certain traits or biases that predispose them to cause socio-emotional conflict, or that create the perception of causing such conflict. The literature on the Big Five, self-identity, and cognitive biases suggests seven individual difference variables that may lead to consensus in perceptions of conflict. Many of these variables overlap with those described above with regard to assimilation, and, thus, these will be described here only briefly and primarily as they relate to consensus.

Agreeableness. Team members high in agreeableness are likely to be seen as causing less conflict than their low agreeableness teammates. The agreeable person is more likely to attribute conflict to situational or task-related issues (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997), and, in accordance with the behavior-attribution-behavior cycle (see Figure 1, Appendix A), such attributions may induce the agreeable person to respond to conflict with less negative affect and more constructive conflict tactics (Graziano et al., 1996). Furthermore, according to definitions of the Big Five factors (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997), individuals low in agreeableness are cynical, tend to experience and express hostility, prefer to compete with others, and have been described as ruthless and cruel. Teammates of those low in agreeableness should most likely perceive these individuals as causing more conflict.

Graziano et al. (1996) examined how individual differences in agreeableness related to patterns of interpersonal conflict. In addition to finding that partner's level of

agreeableness significantly and negatively related to perceived conflict, they found that level of agreeableness was related to evaluations of conflict resolution tactics, especially power tactics. Low-agreeable participants rated power assertion tactics as significantly better choices than did high-agreeable participants. This supported the authors' assertion that the agreeable person tends to respond to conflict with more constructive conflict tactics. Thus, it seemed likely to expect that team members high in agreeableness would be seen as causing less conflict. Specifically:

Hypothesis 9: There will be a significant negative correlation between agreeableness and individual-level target effects, such that those high in agreeableness will be perceived as causing less socio-emotional conflict than those low in agreeableness.

Openness to experience. Another likely correlate of consensus is openness to experience. Individuals high in openness to experience are described as, among other things, imaginative, intelligent, insightful, and curious (John & Srivastava, 1999). Such characteristics make those high in openness to experience more likely to engage in discussions regarding different ideas, opinions, and values. In a team setting, these debates may begin as primarily task-related, but given the strong positive correlation between task and socio-emotional conflict, such debates may ultimately lead to socio-emotional conflict. Thus, team members high in openness to experience may intend to engage in task-related conflict, but, instead, cause socio-emotional conflict.

Although openness to experience is the least studied of the five-factor traits (Bono et al., 2002), there is some empirical evidence linking openness to conflict. Blickle (1997) found that openness to experience was positively correlated with the tendency to

approach (versus avoid) arguments, and that openness was the best five-factor predictor of argumentativeness – the tendency to pursue intellectual arguments that are focused on positions rather than people. This argumentativeness is likely to cause others to perceive socio-emotional conflict, even though the individual intends only to engage in task-related debates. Thus, the team member high in openness should not perceive socio-emotional conflict, but is likely to cause it. In other words, openness to experience, while unrelated to assimilation, should be positively related to consensus.

Hypothesis 10: There will be a significant positive correlation between openness to experience and individual-level target effects, such that those high in openness will be perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than those low in openness.

Extraversion. Extraversion was also expected to be related to consensus in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Although extraverts are typically described as positive, social, energetic, and joyful, the extraversion factor also includes trait descriptors such as dominant, assertive, domineering, and forceful (Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990; Watson & Clark, 1997). Thus, there is not complete agreement about what constitutes the “core” of extraversion. There is clearly a positive emotionality and sociability included in extraversion, and extraverts often have a motive for affiliation (Watson & Clark, 1997). However, extraverts also appear to have a second motive for dominance or agency, and it is likely that in conflict situations, the dominance motive becomes most salient (Bono et al., 2002).

Extraversion has been found to be positively related to argumentativeness (Blickle, 1997), to anger and anger intensity in both individuals and their partners (Buss,

1991), and to the tendency to express feelings in response to conflict (Geist & Gilbert, 1996). Furthermore, Bono et al. (2002) found that extraversion played a role in conflict attributions. Although extraverts themselves did not experience more conflict, the partners of extraverts tended to attribute their conflicts to their extraverted partner or their relationship with that partner. Therefore, it was expected here that individuals high in extraversion would not perceive more conflict, but would be seen as causing more conflict than their introverted teammates.

Hypothesis 11: There will be a significant positive correlation between extraversion and individual-level target effects, such that those high in extraversion will be perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict.

Emotional stability. As discussed above, due to the tendency to experience strong negative emotions, team members low in emotional stability were expected to perceive more socio-emotional conflict than those high in emotional stability. However, those low in emotional stability should be seen as *causing* less conflict than their emotionally stable teammates. Individuals who score low on emotional stability typically report anxiety in stressful situations (Antonioni, 1998), and interpersonal conflict is somewhat stressful for most people. In order to reduce the stress and anxiety arising from conflict, those low in emotional stability are likely to simply withdraw from or avoid the conflict, thus, giving the perception of causing less conflict than their emotionally stable teammates.

Antonioni's (1998) study of the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and five styles of handling interpersonal conflict provided some support for this contention. Participants from a student sample who scored low on emotional stability reported a strong preference for using an avoiding or obliging style, as opposed to

dominating, compromising, or integrating. Additionally, Antonioni found that participants from a managerial sample scoring high on emotional stability reported a preference for using a dominating style. This could lead to emotionally stable team members being perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than their less emotionally stable teammates.

Hypothesis 12: There will be a significant positive correlation between emotional stability and individual-level target effects, such that those low in emotional stability will be perceived as causing less socio-emotional conflict than those high in emotional stability.

Self-esteem. While team members with *low* self-esteem were expected to perceive more socio-emotional conflict, team members with *high* self-esteem were expected to be seen as causing more conflict. In their investigation of how self-esteem interacts with task and relationship conflict, Duffy et al. (2000) found a significant three-way interaction among task interdependence, relationship conflict, and self-esteem predicting peer evaluations. When task interdependence was high, the relationship between relationship conflict and peer evaluations was significantly negative for high self-esteem members, but not for low self-esteem members. This finding is understandable given that high self-esteem individuals are generally convinced of their own correctness and are unlikely to view negative social cues as self-diagnostic. Thus, high self-esteem team members may be less likely than their low self-esteem teammates to “back down” in an argument or debate. Previous research has also suggested that high self-esteem individuals may stubbornly hold onto their ideas in the face of contradictory evidence (Brockner, 1988).

Given these research findings, it was expected in the present study that self-esteem would be related to individual-level target effects. If high self-esteem individuals are less receptive to negative social cues, and tend to maintain their positions in disagreements, their behavior should be such that they are perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than their low self-esteem teammates.

Hypothesis 13: There will be a significant positive correlation between self-esteem and individual-level target effects, such that those high in self-esteem will be perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than those low in self-esteem.

Sensitivity to ego threat. In addition to perceiving more socio-emotional conflict, team members highly sensitive to ego threats are likely to be seen as causing more conflict. Team members with a greater sensitivity to ego threat are more likely to perceive the disagreements and arguments that frequently occur in a team setting as threatening, and, thus, are more likely to react with anger and hostility to these threats than are their less sensitive teammates (Stucke & Sporer, 2002). Consequently, the teammates of those highly sensitive to ego threats should perceive these individuals as causing more socio-emotional conflict.

Hypothesis 14: There will be a significant positive correlation between sensitivity to ego threats (narcissism and self-concept clarity) and individual-level target effects, such that those high in sensitivity to ego threats will be perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than those low in sensitivity to ego threats.

Aggression. Aggressive individuals have justification mechanisms in place that allow them to rationalize their aggressive behavior (James, 1998). Again, no known research has investigated the impact of these JMs on team processes, however, it seems likely that team members who possess these JMs, and, thus, are cognitively ready to aggress, will be perceived by others as causing more socio-emotional conflict.

For example, aggressive individuals usually possess a retribution bias (James, 1998; James et al., 2005). This bias involves an unconscious tendency to give logical priority to reparation or retaliation over reconciliation. This bias allows the individual to rationalize using aggression under the guise of restoring respect or exacting restitution for some perceived wrong. It is this bias that often underlies justifications for aggression engendered by wounded pride, challenged self-esteem, and perceived disrespect. In intrateam conflict situations, when disagreements cause feelings of wounded pride or perceived disrespect, aggressive individuals may be particularly likely to retaliate in some fashion. Thus, it is likely that aggressive individuals will be seen as causing more socio-emotional conflict than their less aggressive teammates.

Hypothesis 15: There will be a significant positive correlation between aggression and individual-level target effects, such that those high in aggression will be perceived as causing more socio-emotional conflict than those low in aggression.

Generalized Reciprocity

One final correlate of perceptions of socio-emotional conflict may be the perceptions themselves. The social relations model allows for correlations among the different variance components, provided that these components are significant. The

correlation of interest here is known as generalized reciprocity. In interpersonal perception, each person is both a perceiver and a target. This means that each team member is simultaneously perceiving conflict (or not) and being perceived as causing conflict (or not). The question of primary interest here is whether individuals who tend to perceive conflict with others are also perceived as causing conflict.

It seems likely that there exists a cyclical cause-and-effect relationship between perceiving conflict and being perceived as causing conflict. As depicted in Figure 1 (Appendix A), team members who make negative attributions about teammates' evocative behaviors are likely to respond to those behaviors with conflict-provoking behaviors. Similarly, teammates who make positive attributions about teammates' evocative behaviors are unlikely to respond with conflict-provoking behaviors. As shown in Figure 2 (Appendix A), these two types of teammates can be thought as "perpetuators" and "buffers," respectively.

Particularly in the dynamics of a team setting, generalized reciprocity seems likely. As individuals perceive socio-emotional conflict with their teammates, be it due to low agreeableness, aggression, or sensitivity to ego threat, these same individuals are likely to respond to this perceived conflict in ways that then engender more conflict. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 16: There will be a significant positive perceiver-target correlation (i.e., generalized-reciprocity correlation) for perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

Uniqueness

Although individual differences in the perceptions of others are important, there is clearly a relational component to social perception - we do relate uniquely to others. In fact, uniqueness (or the relationship effect) typically accounts for the same amount of the variance in person perception as assimilation, approximately 20% (Kenny, 1994). The perception of others is, thus, quite idiosyncratic, yet, researchers have little understanding about why there is uniqueness. Kenny (1994) discussed uniqueness as possibly coming from one of three sources. First, the information that a perceiver uses to judge a target may be different from the information used by other perceivers. For example, a team member who has worked with one of his or her teammates previously has knowledge of the teammate that others do not. Second, two perceivers may see the same behavior, but attach different meanings to it. Third, a perceiver may utilize nonbehavioral information (e.g., his or her liking of the target) in his or her ratings.

Regardless of the reason, however, it seems likely that there will be significant relationship variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict, particularly given the affective nature of this type conflict. Person-perception studies examining liking have found uniqueness effects that are nearly twice as large as those for trait ratings (Kenny, 1994). Perceptions of liking have been shown to be very idiosyncratic. Thus, it was expected that perceptions of conflict that is related to emotional or affective issues will be significantly relational.

Hypothesis 17: The relationship effect will account for a significant proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

CHAPTER 4

THE IMPACT OF SOCIO-EMOTIONAL CONFLICT ON OUTCOMES

As Hackman (1987) discussed, most organizational tasks do not have clear right or wrong answers. “Real-world” effectiveness criteria are typically more complex than those found in a laboratory setting. Thus, Hackman argued that three criteria should be assessed to determine team effectiveness. First, the productive output (i.e., performance) of the team should meet or exceed the standards of the people who receive and/or review the output. Second, the social processes used in carrying out the work should maintain or enhance the capability of the team’s members to work together on subsequent tasks (i.e., team viability). If the team “self-destructs” as a result of working together, even if the product is acceptable, it would be hard to argue that the team has been fully effective. Third, the team experience should satisfy, rather than frustrate, the members’ needs (i.e., satisfaction). If members’ experiences with the team are upsetting or aggravating, then the costs of working with the team, from the perspective of the individual members, are likely too high.

As discussed in some detail earlier, there is clear and consistent empirical evidence to show that socio-emotional conflict detracts from team performance, erodes commitment to the team, and decreases member satisfaction (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Evan, 1965; Guetzkow & Gyr, 1954; Janssen, Van de Vliert, & Veenstra, 1999; Jehn, 1994; Simons & Peterson, 2000; Zelno, 2003). In other words, socio-emotional conflict has a negative effect on performance, viability, and satisfaction. These findings were expected to be replicated in the present study. Specifically,

Hypothesis 18: There will be significant negative correlations between both individual-level effects (perceiver and target) and individual-level performance, satisfaction, and viability.

A heuristic of all hypotheses is presented in Figure 3 (see Appendix A).

CHAPTER 5

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 127 undergraduate students at a large southeastern university working in teams of five to six members on five class projects during the course of one semester. The sample consisted of 57 males (44.9%), 68 females (53.5%), and 2 participants of unreported gender. Participants ranged in age from 19 to 34, with an average age of 21.92 ($SD = 1.9$). 87.9% of the participants were Caucasian, and 74.6% were currently employed. Participants received course credit in exchange for their participation. Data from one participant were dropped due to incomplete responses.

Measures

Socio-emotional conflict. Perceptions of socio-emotional conflict were assessed using a revised version of the emotional conflict subscale of the Intragroup Conflict Scale (Jehn, 1994; Appendix B). Four items assessed each team member's perceptions of the amount of friction, personality clashes, anger, and emotional conflict present in the interactions with each of his/her teammates. Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*none*) to 5 (*a lot*). Previous studies using the original subscale have resulted in reliability coefficients of .83 to .87 for affective conflict (Amason & Sapienza, 1997; Jehn, 1994; Simons & Peterson, 2000). The internal consistency reliability estimate across the ratings used for the present sample was .93.

Personality. Personality was assessed using Saucier's (1994) shortened marker set of Goldberg's (1992) measure of the Big Five personality factors (Appendix C). This scale consists of 40 adjectives assessing the Big Five personality factors (8 items for each

factor). Responses were made on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*), and item responses were summed to create scores for each factor. This 40-item subset has demonstrated lower inter-scale correlations, less use of difficult items, and higher mean inter-item correlations than Goldberg's original 100 adjective markers, and the scale demonstrates adequate reliability (Saucier, 1994). The internal consistency reliability estimates for the present sample for the five subscales were .78 for agreeableness, .75 for openness to experience, .76 for conscientiousness, .89 for extraversion, and .69 for emotional stability. These estimates are similar to reliability estimates found in previous research, e.g., .86 for agreeableness, .77 for openness to experience, .77 for conscientiousness, .87 for extraversion, and .74 for emotional stability (Palmer & Loveland, 2004).

Self-esteem. Self-esteem was assessed using Rosenberg's (1965) 10-item measure (Appendix D). Responses were made based on the original 4-point Guttman scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). The scale has demonstrated strong internal consistency in previous studies (e.g., $\alpha = .84$; Duffy et al., 2000). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .87.

Sensitivity to ego threats. As discussed earlier, sensitivity to ego threats was operationalized as a combination of narcissism and self-concept clarity. Narcissism was assessed using the 40-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Appendix E). Instead of the original dichotomous response format, a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very much*) was utilized to adapt the response format to the other personality measures administered in the present study (see Stucke & Sporer, 2002). The inventory with this type of response format has shown high internal

consistency ($\alpha = .93$; Stucke & Sporer, 2002). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .93.

Self-concept clarity was assessed using the 12-item Self-Concept Scale developed by Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley, and Lehman (1996; Appendix F). The measure utilized a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The scale has demonstrated high internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$) and strong evidence of a single, general factor (Campbell et al., 1996). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .88.

Attribution style. Attribution style was assessed using a scale developed specifically for this study (Appendix G). Based on the Relationship Attribution Measure (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992), the scale was designed to assess different types of attributions made regarding typical behavior in a team setting. Respondents were presented with eight stimulus events consisting of hypothetical teammate behaviors (e.g., your teammate disagrees with your opinion about the team's task; your teammate responds sarcastically to something you say). Each stimulus event was followed by six items developed by Fincham and Bradbury (1992) designed to assess three aspects of causal attributions (locus, stability, and globality) and three aspects of responsibility attributions (intentionality, motivation, and justification). Responses were made on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*).

Negative behaviors were of particular interest because such behaviors have been shown in the marital conflict literature to be related more consistently and more strongly to marital satisfaction than are attributions for positive events (Fincham & Bradbury,

1992). It is also probable that negative events are more likely to trigger the attribution process than are positive events. Thus, all eight stimulus events were negative behaviors.

Four of the stimulus events were chosen from a previous study (Zelno, 2003) during which four-person teams engaged in a complex, ill-defined, decision-making task. Coding of the videotaped discussions revealed four typical negative behaviors that occurred during heated team deliberations: questioning another's competence, refusing to compromise, responding sarcastically to another, and responding condescendingly to another.

The other four stimulus events were modified versions of the items from the task conflict subscale of the Intragroup Conflict Scale (Jehn, 1994). Given evidence that team members often misattribute task conflict as personal attacks (and, thus, its relationship to socio-emotional conflict; Simons & Peterson, 2000), it is likely that team members may make negative attributions regarding task conflict behaviors.

Prior to the present study, in order to confirm its reliability, the Teammate Behavior Attribution Measure (T-BAM) was administered to 108 undergraduate students. Scores on the instrument were examined based on events. In other words, each respondent had two scores: one score reflecting his/her responses to the negative events, and one score reflecting his/her responses to the task conflict events. In the pilot study, the Teammate Behavior Attribution Measure demonstrated high internal consistency for both the negative events subscale ($\alpha = .93$) and the task conflict events subscale ($\alpha = .91$).

In the present study, the Teammate Behavior Attribution Measure again demonstrated high internal consistency for both the negative events subscale ($\alpha = .89$) and the task conflict events subscale ($\alpha = .88$).

Aggression. Aggression was assessed using the Conditional Reasoning Test of Aggression (CRT-A; James & McIntyre, 2000). The CRT-A consists of 25 items that appear to be straightforward inductive reasoning problems. Respondents were given premises built around themes known to trigger justification mechanisms in aggressive individuals, and were asked to select the conclusion that most reasonably follows from the premises. The CRT-A has been shown to be a reliable and valid measure of aggression (see James & McIntyre, 2000). The internal consistency (Kuder-Richardson) reliability estimate for the present sample was .80.

Performance. Performance was measured with three items assessing members' perceptions of the overall quality of the team's performance, the efficiency with which the team performed assigned tasks, and the ease with which team members worked together (Appendix H). Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*unacceptable*) to 5 (*outstanding*). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .86.

Satisfaction. Individual satisfaction with the team was measured using a single item and the Kunin (1955) faces scale (Appendix I). The single item asked respondents how satisfied they were working with their teams on a scale from 1 (*very unsatisfied*) to 5 (*very satisfied*). Members responded to the faces scale by circling the face that indicated how happy they were working in their teams. Previous studies have shown that the

combination of these two items reliably assess satisfaction (e.g., $\alpha = .88$; Jehn, 1994). The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .91.

Viability. Team viability was assessed using a 9-item measure that utilizes a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*; Rentsch & Hutchison, 1998; Appendix J). Sample items included: "The people on this team have 'team spirit'" and "Team members would be willing to work with each other again." The internal consistency reliability estimate for the present sample was .97.

Demographics and work experience. Participants were asked to provide basic demographic information (e.g., gender, age, race), and to provide information on their current and previous work experience (Appendix K).

Task contributions. At the end of the semester, participants were asked to rate the contribution of each team member (including themselves) to each of the five projects. For each project, members were provided with a brief description of the project, and were asked to rate how much each member of the team contributed to the project by distributing 100 points among all of the team's members (see Appendix L).

Team Projects

As mentioned above, participants worked in teams of five to six members on five class projects during the course of one semester. For Project 1, teams were to imagine opening a local restaurant. Each team submitted a written report on what each member's respective management role would be, which building blocks of competitive advantage they would need in order to succeed, and the decisions that had to be made about primary management functions. Each team also gave a brief presentation. No parameters, other than a time limit, were given for presentations; each team's members decided for

themselves who presented which portions of the project. For Project 2, teams were to imagine opening a copying business near their campus. Each team had to submit a detailed analysis of the task environment of the copying business, and list some of the steps they would take to help their business succeed in that environment. Each team again gave a brief presentation. For Project 3, teams simulated the top-management team of a large corporation, and had to decide on the following year's production strategy. Each team member received fairly extensive background information, including information that only he or she had. Each team submitted a detailed report on their team's decisions, their rationale for each decision, and their decision-making process. For Project 4, teams had to debate whether or not money is the primary motivator of people. Teams had to submit a written report on each side's main arguments, key counterarguments, and whether the entire group could agree on one side of the debate. For Project 5, each team simulated the jury in a felony drug possession case. Each team submitted a written report on their team's verdict, their primary supporting arguments, and a detailed analysis of the group dynamics (e.g., leadership, trust, conflict) the team experienced during deliberations.

Although an effort was made to select projects requiring at least a moderate amount of interdependence among team members, it was of primary importance that the projects relate closely to the course content and the material being covered at that point in the semester. Thus, the selection of projects was somewhat limited, and it is possible that the projects did not require at least a moderate amount of interdependence. To assess the amount of task interdependence, three experts were asked to read brief descriptions of each project and rate the amount of task interdependence inherent in each project on a

scale ranging from 1 (*low task interdependence*) to 5 (*high task interdependence*; see Appendix M). The level of inter-rater agreement was assessed using r_{wg} (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The mean r_{wg} across all five projects was 0.95. The mean task interdependence ratings for each of the five projects were 3.67, 2.33, 5.00, 3.00, and 3.67, respectively. The mean task interdependence rating across all five projects was 3.53. Thus, it appears that, across all of the projects, team members were at least moderately dependent upon one another for successful task completion.

Design and Procedure

Throughout the course of the semester, teams completed the five class projects described above, which were worth a total of 30% of participants' final grades in the course. At the start of the semester, participants individually completed measures of the Big Five personality traits, self-esteem, narcissism, self-concept clarity, attribution style, and aggression. During the second week of the semester, participants were randomly assigned to teams of five and six. During the sixth week of the semester (Time 1), after completing two of the five class projects, participants completed measures of socio-emotional conflict, perceptions of team performance, and satisfaction with the team. During the ninth week of the semester (Time 2), after completing the third of the five class projects, and during the fourteenth week of the semester (Time 3), after completing the final two class projects, participants again completed measures of socio-emotional conflict, perceptions of team performance, and satisfaction with the team. At Time 3, participants also completed a measure of viability. A summary of the procedure is presented in Table 1 (see Appendix A).

Regarding the measurement of socio-emotional conflict, in order to conduct the social relations analysis, a round-robin design was employed such that each team member rated each of his/her teammates on all four socio-emotional conflict items. Furthermore, as referred to above, multiple measures of socio-emotional conflict were completed (at Times 1, 2, and 3). At Time 1, members were still relatively unacquainted, and Time 1 ratings showed the least amount of conflict overall. Thus, ratings at Time 2 and Time 3 were used in the all analyses.

The SOREMO Program

Most of the analyses were conducted within the framework of the social relations model, using the SOREMO program (Kenny, 1998). The SOREMO program was developed to analyze round robin data using a social relations model approach (Kenny, 1994; Kenny & La Voie, 1984).

As discussed earlier, three types of effects are of interest: (1) a perceiver effect, which indicates assimilation; (2) a target effect, which indicates consensus; and (3) a relationship effect, which indicates uniqueness. The program partitions the variance in round robin ratings into perceiver, target, and relationship components, and outputs the relative variance of each component (the average for each effect across all groups; Kenny, 1998). These variance estimates are theoretical variances, and not the actual variances of scores (Kenny, 1994). Ordinarily, the amount of variance in the means (perceiver and target) depends on the number of targets and perceivers, respectively, over which the means are averaged. Thus, the SRM program was designed to forecast what the variance would be if there were an infinite number of perceivers and targets, as it is

preferable that a measure of target variance, for example, not depend on the number of perceivers.

As described thus far, the relationship effect is confounded with error variance, as the relationship effect, statistically, is what emerges after the perceiver and target effects are removed. In order to separate relationship variance from error variance, multiple measures of the construct of interest are needed. Multiple measures can be obtained either by utilizing different measures of the theoretical construct or by employing the same measure at multiple points in time. When multiple measures are used, the SRM program calculates the amount of stable variance versus unstable variance. Stable variance is that which replicates across measures, and unstable variance is that which is unique to each measure. Although change across time (i.e., unstable variance) is not necessarily error (meaningful changes in perception may occur as people interact), such change is treated as error in SRM (Kenny, 1994); thus, the amount of unstable variance is considered to be the amount of error variance. The stable variance is then partitioned into perceiver, target, and relationship components.

The SRM program also allows for significance tests, whereby the mean of the estimate across groups is tested to determine if it is significantly different from zero. The reliabilities of the perceiver and target effects are also calculated, as well as correlations among the perceiver and target effects and individual-level variables (e.g., personality scores).

Tests of the correlations among the effects and individual-level variables are ordinary tests of partial correlations with group effects partialled (i.e., the correlations are computed with the group means subtracted; Kenny, 1998). For tests of these correlations,

the degrees of freedom are the total number of persons minus the number of groups minus one. The correlations that are computed (and thus reported), however, are the disattenuated correlations which take into account the reliability of the perceiver and target effects. Additionally, these correlations are calculated with the “pure” effect, which means that, the program controls for the other effects when calculating correlations among the effects and individual-level data (Marcus, 1998). Thus, for example, a correlation between agreeableness and the perceiver effect is not confounded with the target effect.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Means and standard deviations were calculated for all variables of interest.

Pearson correlations were also calculated to determine the relationships among these variables. These statistics and correlations are presented in Table 2 (see Appendix A).

As expected, none of the personality variables were significantly correlated with the outcome variables (performance, satisfaction, and viability). There were, however, strong, significant correlations among the three outcome variables. Performance and satisfaction were correlated at $r = .79, p < .01$; performance and viability were correlated at $r = .81, p < .01$; and satisfaction and viability were correlated at $r = .86, p < .01$.

Despite these high correlations, the three outcome variables were included in the analyses as separate variables, and the results, discussed below, indicated some distinctions among them.

Also, as expected, the two attribution style subscales were significantly correlated, $r = .48, p < .01$. These were also included in the analyses as separate variables, and demonstrated differential relationships with assimilation and consensus.

Additionally, there were some fairly high correlations among several of the individual-difference variables (e.g., self-esteem and extraversion were correlated at $r = .48, p < .01$). However, because the relationship of each of these variables to assimilation and consensus was tested independently of the other individual-difference variables, these intercorrelations were unlikely to impact the results.

Tests of Hypotheses

As mentioned above, most of the analyses were conducted within the framework of the social relations model, using the SOREMO program (Kenny, 1998). Unfortunately, the significance testing procedure in SRM differs from classical analysis of variance and multiple regression, making it difficult to determine the level of power in SRM studies (Lashley & Kenny, 1998). However, the results of a monte carlo study conducted by Lashley and Kenny (1998) indicated that a study utilizing 25 groups of four members would have power of approximately .92 to detect a .3 variance estimate. Therefore, the study's sample size of 25 groups of 5 to 6 members likely provided sufficient power to find the expected effects.

For tests of all hypotheses, ratings of socio-emotional conflict at Time 2 and Time 3 were used as multiple replications, and the variance in ratings was partitioned across replications. That is, all analyses were conducted using the variance in ratings across both Time 2 and Time 3. See Figure 3 (Appendix A) for a heuristic of all hypotheses.

The results of the social relations analysis indicated that 66% of the variance in the ratings was stable variance, and 34% of the variance was unstable. In other words, 66% of the variance was consistent across replications (i.e., the two points in time), and 34% of the variance was unique to each replication. Additionally, the results indicated that, at both times, both the perceiver and target effects had adequate reliability, .75 and .61 at Time 2, and .83 and .66 at Time 3, respectively. Thus, the perceiver and target effects can be meaningfully interpreted (Kenny, 1998).

Because change across time (i.e., unstable variance) is treated as error in SRM (Kenny, 1994), the perceiver, target, and relationship effects presented here were

partitioned from the amount of stable variance only. The 34% of unstable variance is, thus, the amount of error variance.

With regard to the perceiver effect, the results of the analysis indicated that 33%, $t(24) = 2.55, p < .01$, of the variance in ratings of socio-emotional conflict was attributable to the perceiver. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was supported. The perceiver effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

With regard to the target effect, the results indicated that 16%, $t(24) = 2.26, p < .05$, of the variance in ratings of socio-emotional conflict was attributable to the target. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported. The target effect accounted for a significant, but smaller, proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict.

With regard to the relationship effect, the results indicated that 17%, $t(24) = 2.66, p < .01$, of the variance in ratings of socio-emotional conflict was attributable to the unique relationship between individuals. Thus, Hypothesis 17 was also supported. The relationship effect accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. The results of the variance partitioning are presented in Table 3 (see Appendix A).

In order to test Hypothesis 1b, construct variances and covariances computed in SOREMO were transferred to a separate file. This was then used as input for tests of whether the mean of the perceiver variance minus the mean of the target variance was significantly different from zero, and whether the mean of the perceiver variance minus the mean of the relationship variance was significantly different from zero. The results of two one-sample t -tests indicated that the amount of perceiver variance was significantly larger than the amount of target variance, $t(24) = 1.78, p < .05$. However, the amount of

perceiver variance was not significantly larger than the amount of relationship variance, $t(24) = 1.47, p = .08$. Thus, Hypothesis 1b was partially supported.

Because the social relations analysis resulted in significant perceiver and target effects, it was possible to then test Hypotheses 2 through 7, and 9 through 15 (refer to Figure 3, Appendix A). In order to test Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 15, the SOREMO program was used to compute correlations between the individual difference variables and the perceiver and target effects. In other words, the perceiver and target effects were correlated with the participants' self-reported agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, emotional stability, self-esteem, attribution style, and aggression.

With regard to correlates of the perceiver effect, the results indicated that correlations with agreeableness, emotional stability, self-esteem, attribution style, and aggression were not significant. Thus, Hypotheses 2, 3, 4, 6, and 7 were not supported.

With regard to correlates of the target effect, the results indicated that correlations with agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, emotional stability, self-esteem, and aggression were not significant. Thus, Hypotheses 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 15 were not supported.

Tests of Hypotheses 5 and 14 (sensitivity to ego threat) were conducted using multiple regression. Sensitivity to ego threat was operationalized as an interaction between narcissism and self-concept clarity. Thus, in order to test Hypothesis 5, the perceiver effect (after having been computed in SOREMO) was regressed onto narcissism, self-concept clarity, and the interaction term. The results of the analysis

indicated that the addition of the interaction term to the regression model did not result in a significant change in R^2 . Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

In order to test Hypothesis 14, the target effect (after having been computed in SOREMO and transferred to SPSS) was regressed onto narcissism, self-concept clarity, and the interaction term. The results of the analysis indicated that the addition of the interaction term to the regression model was significant, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$. However, further examination of the interaction revealed that it was not in the hypothesized direction. The results indicated that those higher in narcissism and *higher* in self-concept clarity had a significantly larger target effect. Thus, Hypothesis 14 was not supported.

In Hypothesis 16, it was predicted that there would be a significant positive perceiver-target correlation (i.e., generalized-reciprocity correlation) for perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. The results indicated that the generalized-reciprocity correlation was not significant, $r = .36$, thus, Hypothesis 16 was not supported.

In order to test Hypothesis 18, individual-level perceptions of performance, member satisfaction, and viability (all collected at Time 3) were correlated with the perceiver and target effects, using the SOREMO program. The results indicated significant negative correlations between the perceiver effect and perceptions of performance, member satisfaction, and viability, $r = -.43$, $-.52$, and $-.36$, respectively, $p < .05$. The results further indicated significant negative correlations between the target effect and perceptions of performance and satisfaction, $r = -.27$, $-.23$, respectively, $p < .05$. The correlation between the target effect and viability was not significant. Thus, overall, Hypothesis 18 was supported.

The correlations between the SRM effects and each of the study variables are presented in Table 4 (see Appendix A).

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

The present study used Kenny's (1994) social relations model to examine perceptions of socio-emotional conflict from a person-perception perspective. The variance in ratings of socio-emotional conflict among team members was partitioned into two individual-level components (the perceiver effect and the target effect) and one dyadic-level component (the relationship effect). The perceiver effect indicates the extent to which there is assimilation, or the degree to which individuals have a tendency to see all others as similar. The target effect indicates the extent to which there is consensus, or the amount of agreement among observers in their perceptions of another. The relationship effect indicates the extent to which there is uniqueness, or the degree to which individuals are relating uniquely to one another.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the extent to which perceptions of socio-emotional conflict stem from individual versus relational factors, and to investigate relevant personality traits and cognitive biases thought to affect perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. First, the empirical findings are summarized, and additional possible causes of assimilation and consensus are discussed. Second, the study's contributions are highlighted, and limitations are addressed. Finally, the study's implications are discussed, emphasizing the need for future research.

Summary of Empirical Findings

The results of the present study indicated that perceptions of socio-emotional conflict may be largely "in the eye of the beholder." The largest proportion of the variance in perceptions of conflict was attributable to the perceiver (33%). People

apparently differ significantly in the extent to which they perceive conflict with others. Some individuals tend to see conflict, while other individuals do not. The results also indicated that a significant portion of the variance in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict was attributable to the target (16%). There was some agreement among team members as to who “caused” conflict. Additionally, there was a significant amount of relationship variance (17%), indicating that, to some extent, perceptions of socio-emotional conflict stemmed from one’s unique dyadic relationship with another.

Research on intrateam conflict tends to assume that conflict is dysfunctional when the source of the conflict is interpersonal relationships (i.e., socio-emotional conflict). The present study, however, provides some evidence that this assumption may not be entirely valid. Relationship variance, which indicates the extent to which perceptions of conflict are relational, accounted for only 17% of the variance in conflict perceptions. Furthermore, target variance, which indicates the extent to which perceptions of conflict stem from the target being rated, accounted for only 16% of the variance. The perceiver effect (33%) was as large as the target and relationship effects together. Who an individual is plays as large a role in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict as does with whom the individual interacts. Thus, perceptions of socio-emotional conflict appear to be as *intrapersonal* as they are *interpersonal*.

Assimilation/perceiver effect. Unfortunately, the present study shed little light on *why* perceptions of socio-emotional conflict largely stem from the perceiver. Several individual difference variables were expected to correlate with assimilation; however, none of the hypothesized relationships were significant.

Two personality traits not included in these hypotheses were significantly correlated with assimilation. Expected to relate positively to consensus, openness to experience was, instead, significantly, negatively related to assimilation, $r = -.18, p < .05$. Team members high in openness to experience perceived less socio-emotional conflict than their low openness teammates. Individuals high in openness to experience tend to be insightful and curious, and more likely to discuss different ideas, opinions, and values (John & Srivastava, 1999). This result suggests that such individuals may be more comfortable with debates and discussions, and, thus, do not perceive socio-emotional conflict as readily as their low openness teammates.

Narcissism was expected to influence conflict perceptions only in conjunction with self-concept clarity. It was found, however, to be significantly, positively related to assimilation, $r = .18, p < .05$. Team members high in narcissism perceived more socio-emotional conflict than their less narcissistic teammates. Individuals high in narcissism tend to be primarily self-focused, and research has shown that narcissists are often defensive, and, at times, extremely emotionally reactive (Rhodewalt & Morf, 1998). Team members high in narcissism may have likely taken disagreement or rejection as a personal attack, and, thus, experienced highly negative emotional reactions to any perceived threats. This may have led them to perceive more socio-emotional conflict than their less narcissistic teammates.

Consensus/target effect. The present study also shed little light on what may cause consensus in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. Again, several individual difference variables were expected to correlate with consensus; however, none of the hypothesized relationships were significant.

Two individual-difference variables not included in these hypotheses were found to be significantly correlated with consensus. Low self-concept clarity was expected to influence conflict perceptions in conjunction with high narcissism, however, self-concept clarity was found to be significantly, positively related to consensus, $r = .24, p < .05$. Team members with high self-concept clarity were rated by their teammates as causing more conflict than team members low in self-concept clarity. Individuals high in self-concept clarity possess a self-concept that is clearly defined, internally consistent, and stable. In this study, self-concept clarity may have performed a function similar to that expected of self-esteem. Individuals with high self-esteem are likely to be more certain of the correctness of their thoughts and ideas, less sensitive to negative feedback, and less concerned about receiving approval from others (Brockner, 1988). Thus, those with high self-esteem may be unlikely to back down during an argument, and may stubbornly hold onto ideas and opinions. Results showed that self-esteem and self-concept clarity were significantly correlated, $r = .47, p < .01$; however, self-esteem was not significantly related to consensus. Therefore, causing perceptions of conflict appeared to have more to do with the *stability* of one's identity than the absolute level of self-esteem.

Additionally, self-concept clarity was found to interact with narcissism to influence consensus. Team members high in narcissism and high in self-concept clarity were found to have a significantly larger target effect than team members with any other combination of these traits. That is, team members with an inflated and stable self-view were seen by others as causing conflict. Interestingly, these high narcissism/high self-concept clarity team members did not tend to *perceive* conflict. It is likely that this combination of narcissism and self-concept clarity leads one to feel extremely confident,

even arrogant, in his/her opinions, and very unlikely to back down during an argument. Thus, these individuals did not necessarily perceive conflict, as their self-assurance protected them from feeling threatened, but their arrogant attitudes and stubborn behavior were likely to be seen by others as obnoxious and conflict-invoking.

Expected to be significantly related to assimilation, attribution style regarding task conflict was, instead, found to be significantly positively related to consensus, $r = .29, p < .01$. Team members who tend to make internal and stable attributions for task-related disagreements were seen as causing more conflict than members who do not tend to make such attributions. Yet, team members who tend to make negative (i.e., internal and stable) attributions for disagreements did not *perceive* significantly more socio-emotional conflict than members without this tendency. One possible reason for this unexpected finding may be that attribution style influences conflict perceptions in a more complicated manner than straightforward, simple correlations can capture. This possibility is discussed further below.

Another possibility was that the two types of attributions, causal versus responsibility, differentially influenced conflict perceptions. As discussed earlier, each stimulus event included in the attribution style measure was followed by six items designed to assess three aspects of causal attributions (locus, stability, and globality) and three aspects of responsibility attributions (intentionality, motivation, and justification; Fincham and Bradbury, 1992). Post hoc, attribution style scores, with regard to both negative behaviors and to task conflict behaviors, were calculated to represent each type of attribution, and scores were correlated with perceiver and target effects. The results indicated that, consistent with other findings, attribution style with regard to negative

behaviors showed no significant relationships between causal attributions and perceiver or target effects, nor were there significant relationships between responsibility attributions and perceiver or target effects. With regard to task conflict behaviors, the relationships between the perceiver effect and both causal and responsibility attributions were not significant. Additionally, the correlation between the target effect and causal attributions was not significant. There was a significant relationship between the target effect and responsibility attributions, $r = .19, p = .04$. However, this correlation is smaller than the correlation between the target effect and the “total” attribution style score with regard to task conflict behaviors, $r = .22, p = .02$. Thus, perhaps responsibility attributions play a larger role in causing conflict than do causal attributions, but overall, the two types of attributions, causal versus responsibility, did not differentially influence conflict perceptions in any substantial manner.

Categorization of conflict propensities. A categorization of team member conflict propensities was presented in Figure 2 (Appendix A), and it was proposed that team members may fall into one of four categories depending on their tendencies to perceive and cause conflict. The results of the present study provided some support for this categorization. The significant perceiver and target effects indicated that certain individuals may be predisposed to perceive socio-emotional conflict and/or cause socio-emotional conflict.

Unfortunately, very few of the individual difference variables expected to cause an individual to act as a “buffer,” or a “perpetuator,” for example, were found to be significantly related to assimilation or consensus. Team members high in openness to experience were proposed to act as “debaters,” those who enjoy engaging in discussions

and debates and who are unlikely to see ill intent when others also do so. These team members were significantly less likely to perceive socio-emotional conflict, but they were not significantly more likely to cause perceptions of conflict.

It was also proposed that team members with a high sensitivity to ego threat (i.e., those high in narcissism and low in self-concept clarity) would act as “perpetuators.” These team members were thought to be quite disruptive in team settings, allowing conflict to arise and continue, as they would likely both perceive and cause socio-emotional conflict. However, the results indicated that this combination of traits did not operate as expected. Team members high in narcissism were significantly more likely to perceive socio-emotional conflict, but it was team members who were *high* in self-concept clarity who were seen as causing significantly more conflict.

Overall, there does appear to be some support for the categorization of team members as either “buffers,” “debaters,” “disengaged,” or “perpetuators,” and a few of the individual difference variables examined in the present study may play a role in these types of behaviors. However, the combination of variables proposed here does not appear to accurately describe these categories.

Generalized reciprocity. It was also expected that there would be a positive correlation between the perceiver effect and the target effect, which means that those individuals who tend to perceive conflict would also tend to be seen as causing conflict. This generalized-reciprocity correlation, although in the right direction, was not significant. It remains intuitive that individuals who perceive conflict would be more likely to respond to those perceptions with conflict-invoking behaviors, so, perhaps the lack of significant generalized reciprocity is due to individuals causing conflict but not

perceiving it. One way this may occur is through a breakdown in teamwork. Functional teams have members who are committed to the team and its task, and who, therefore, fully participate and do their fair shares of the work. Sometimes, unfortunately, not all team members are committed, and do not fully participate and do their fair shares. Such team members are likely to be seen as *causing* conflict by their teammates, but may not be *perceiving* that conflict. In the present study, for example, there was some anecdotal evidence of team members not fully participating in the team projects. In particular, numerous comments to the instructor centered on concerns that certain team members were not attending all team meetings. Thus, non-participation often meant being absent from meetings or work sessions. In such instances, these team members, who were likely being seen as *causing* conflict, were not present to *perceive* that conflict. Therefore, the relationship between the perceiver effect and the target effect may have been minimized.

In an attempt to capture the extent to which non-participation occurred in the present study, participants were asked at the end of the semester to rate the contribution of each team member (including themselves) to each of the five projects (see Appendix K). As described earlier, members were asked to do so by distributing 100 points among all of the team's members (including themselves). Thus, assigning more points to one's teammates necessarily meant assigning fewer points to oneself. Ratings were then aggregated across teammates (excluding self-ratings) and across projects, so that scores represented the average amount that each team member believed their teammates contributed to the projects. This task contribution variable was positively significantly correlated with consensus, $r = .46, p < .001$. Team members who rated their teammates as contributing more to the projects (and, thus, rated themselves as contributing less) were

seen as causing more conflict than those members who rated their teammates as contributing less (and rated themselves as contributing more). The task contribution variable was not, however, related to assimilation. This supports the contention that team members who did not participate were seen by their teammates as causing conflict, but were often not present to perceive that conflict.

Team outcomes. The present study also replicated previous findings concerning the harmful impact of socio-emotional conflict on team outcomes. Team members who perceived more socio-emotional conflict rated their team's performance and viability as lower, and had lower satisfaction with their teams than did team members who perceived less socio-emotional conflict. Additionally, team members who were seen as causing conflict rated their team's performance and their own satisfaction lower than did team members who were seen as causing little or no conflict. These correlations with consensus, however, while significant, were not as strong as the correlations among these outcomes and *perceiving* socio-emotional conflict. Furthermore, team members seen as causing conflict did not rate their team's viability lower than those seen as causing little or no conflict. These findings are understandable given that team members who are seen as causing conflict may or may not also be perceiving conflict. That is, they may not be aware that any conflict is occurring. If so, they would not feel the impact of conflict as would those individuals who actually perceive the conflict.

Possible Causes of Assimilation and Consensus

Still largely unexplained, however, are the causes of assimilation and consensus in perceptions of socio-emotional conflict. None of the hypothesized relationships in the present study were significant, and the unexpected significant relationships accounted for

little overall variance. Yet, it seems unlikely that personality does not have a significant influence on perceptions of conflict. When individuals perceive conflict, they perceive some incompatibility with another regarding interests, goals, or behaviors (Rentsch & Zelno, 2003). In other words, perceiving conflict means that the individual perceives a possible threat to what he/she wants. When this occurs, the individual must decide how to respond (e.g., direct confrontation, subtle persuasion, avoidance). Thus, an individual perceiving conflict is free to make a personally evocative decision, and this is the condition under which personality most heavily influences behavior (James & Mazerolle, 2002).

In retrospect, what does seem likely is that the causes of assimilation and consensus in conflict perceptions are more complicated than simple, linear relationships with single individual-difference variables. For example, it may be certain combinations of and/or interactions among multiple individual differences that cause assimilation in conflict perceptions.

One possible interaction is that between personality and sex. For example, it is possible that being high in agreeableness leads to perceiving less conflict, but only for females, or perhaps being high in self-esteem leads to causing more conflict, but only for males. Thus, post hoc, sex was examined as a possible moderator of the relationships between the various personality variables and the perceiver and target effects. Using multiple regression, the perceiver/target effects were regressed onto each personality variable and sex (Step 1), with the interaction term added in Step 2. For none of the relationships, however, was the change in R^2 nor the interaction term significant. Thus,

sex did not appear to play a role in the relationship between personality and assimilation or consensus in conflict perceptions.

Perhaps more likely than interactions among individual difference variables is that assimilation and consensus in conflict perceptions stem from complicated interactions *among* individuals and their respective personality traits and behaviors. For example, perceptions of conflict may be influenced, in part, by personalism (Jones, 1990). If another's behavior directly affects the perceiver, the perceiver is more likely to infer that the behavior is caused by the target (i.e., make an internal attribution), and take the behavior personally. This means that if Joe sees Mike disagree with Sue, Joe is likely to think that Mike is simply sharing an opinion. However, if Mike disagrees with Joe, Joe is likely to think that Mike is personally attacking him. Hence, the same behavior, Mike voicing a disagreement, is perceived differently by his teammates, depending on the target of the behavior. Personalism, then, may help to explain low consensus, as the same behavior is seen differently by different perceivers. How individuals respond to others may be partly due to idiosyncratic, as opposed to systematic, attributional biases (Kenny, 1994).

Additionally, the effect of personalism may be heightened for individuals with a negative attribution style. Individuals with a negative attribution style may not be more likely to perceive conflict with others in general; instead, they may be more likely to perceive conflict when they are the target of the behavior. When this occurs, they then respond with conflict-invoking behaviors, leading others to see them as causing conflict. This potentially explains why attribution style related only marginally to assimilation, but significantly to consensus.

Overall, the relationship between individual differences and assimilation or consensus may be fairly complex. It is likely that individual differences, such as personality, do impact perceptions of conflict, however, only given circumstances that trigger that specific trait. Again, for example, attribution style regarding task conflict may be related to assimilation, but only when the individual is the target of the disagreement. Perhaps when an individual is the target of a disagreement, an individual with a positive attribution style is less likely to perceive conflict, while an individual with a negative attribution style is more likely perceive conflict. Similarly, consensus in conflict perceptions may be the result of interactions between individual differences and situational factors. For example, perhaps individuals high on aggression are more likely to cause conflict, but only when their ideas are ignored or negated. When someone else's ideas are ignored or negated, aggressive individuals are probably just as unlikely as non-aggressive individuals to engage in conflict.

Contributions

The present study makes theoretical, methodological, and statistical contributions to the intrateam conflict literature. Theoretically, this is the first known study to examine intrateam conflict from a person-perception perspective. This perspective provides a fresh conceptual view of socio-emotional conflict in teams, diverging from the traditional approach where ratings of conflict are aggregated to the team level under the assumption that all members experience the same amounts of the same types of conflict. A person-perception perspective helps to broaden our conceptualization of socio-emotional conflict and its possible sources, e.g., individual attributions for and behavioral responses to task conflict behaviors.

Methodologically, the present study utilized a longitudinal field study and a round-robin design. Participants worked together over the course of 15 weeks on projects with meaningful outcomes, and participants rated their perceptions of conflict with every other team member. This methodology provided a robust data set with which to examine perceptions of conflict. Also, the results should safely generalize to other contexts. The present study utilized an undergraduate student population, and the present findings are certainly expected to generalize to the age group of 18 to 22. Additionally, the present findings may generalize to teams in work organizations, because participants were fairly representative of young working adults (74.6% of participants were currently employed, and 96.8% had some work experience). Moreover, the tendency to perceive and/or cause conflict in group settings, if indeed the result of enduring personality traits and cognitive biases, is likely to be a general human characteristic, and, thus, the present findings may generalize across persons and settings.

Statistically, the present study is the first known study to utilize a social relations analysis to investigate conflict perceptions, providing a unique way to test the proposed hypotheses. Moreover, the resulting variance components are similar in magnitude to other studies using social relations analysis, providing some evidence that the use of SRM in this context was valid. Although the size of variance components can differ quite drastically depending on the trait being assessed, Kenny (1994) found that, across numerous studies of person perception, the general “rule” is 20-20 and 15-45. In other words, the perceiver effect typically accounts for approximately 20% of the variance, the target effect typically accounts for 20%, the relationship effect typically accounts for

15%, and approximately 45% of the variance is error. The variance components found in the present study (see Table 4 in Appendix A) are not out of line with this rule.

Limitations

Threats to internal validity. With greater external validity, come some sacrifices in internal validity. First and foremost was the inability to control for history, or the possibility that an observed effect is due to an event (other than the treatment of interest) which occurred between two times of measurement (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In a field setting, it is not usually possible to insulate participants from “outside” influences, as can be done in the laboratory. Therefore, it is possible that the present findings were influenced by outside events that occurred during the course of the study.

One type of such an event is also a limitation inherent in the social relations model. The model includes the assumption that dyadic relationships are independent of one another. In real-life groups of well-acquainted people, this assumption is often violated. It is possible, and perhaps likely, that team members discussed their relationships with and perceptions of other team members with one another. Although the consequences of this violation are unknown, it is possible that it may have affected the results of the present study. For example, if Joe shares with Sue his perceptions of Tom, Sue may later have perceptions of Tom that reflect not only her own interactions with Tom *but also* Joe’s interactions with Tom. Tom’s perceptions of Sue, however, may stem solely from his direct interactions with Sue. Thus, the assumption of independent dyadic relationships is violated, and the reciprocity between Sue and Tom is adversely affected.

Additionally, if team members discussed their interactions with and perceptions of other team members with one another, it may have influenced the present findings

with regard to consensus. As in the above example, the amount of consensus between Joe and Sue with regard to Tom's behavior may increase if they discuss and come to agreement on interpretations of Tom's behavior.

Another "outside" event may have occurred because teams were free to interact as they saw fit. Thus, the amount of time that teams spent with all members present is unknown and may have varied among teams. This means that the extent to which perceivers observed the same set of target behaviors (or "overlap") is also unknown and may have varied among teams. Overlap is critical in determining the degree of consensus (Kenny, 1994), as perceivers observing a target at different times and displaying different behaviors are less likely to agree on that target's behavior. If team members interacted in subsets or if members interacted with one another in a different context (e.g., two team members had a second class together), this decrease in the amount of overlap may have lowered the amount of consensus in perceptions of conflict.

A second potential threat to the internal validity of the present study is ambiguity about the direction of causal influence (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Fortunately, for most of the relationships investigated, this is likely not a concern. With correlations between personality traits and perceptions of conflict, for example, one direction of causal influence is relatively implausible (i.e., it is implausible to infer that perceptions of conflict caused an individual to have a certain personality trait). Regarding correlations between the outcome variables and the perceiver and target effects, temporal antecedence allows for some confidence in the direction of causal influence (i.e., team members' perceptions of their teammates as they worked on their projects occurred before they were asked at the end of the semester to rate their satisfaction, their team's performance,

and their team's viability). However, it is still possible that team members' perceptions of how well their team was performing throughout the semester influenced the amount of conflict they perceived with their teammates.

Task interdependence. As discussed earlier, the team projects completed by participants were selected, first and foremost, to relate to the course content, with task interdependence being a secondary concern. Thus, it was possible that differences in the amount of interdependence required by the tasks influenced ratings of conflict and relationships among conflict and team outcomes. Tasks that are highly interdependent typically require substantially more interaction among team members than do low interdependence tasks. This increased need for coordination and communication also means an increased likelihood of conflict (De Dreu & Van de Vliert, 1997). The team project completed before Time 2 conflict ratings were collected was rated by experts as highly interdependent, while the two team projects completed before Time 3 conflict ratings were collected were rated by experts as moderately interdependent. Thus, it was possible that the amount of task interdependence caused significant differences between Time 2 ratings and Time 3 ratings.

Several post hoc analyses were conducted to examine the possible influence of interdependence on conflict ratings and their relationship to team outcomes. First, mean ratings of conflict at Time 2 and Time 3 were computed and a paired sample t-test was conducted to determine if the means were significantly different. At Time 2, $M = 1.29$, and at Time 3, $M = 1.35$. The results of the t-test indicated that the mean conflict ratings were not significantly different, $t(122) = -1.62, p = .11$.

Next, ratings of conflict at Time 2 and at Time 3 were correlated with performance and satisfaction at Time 2 and at Time 3, respectively, and the correlations were tested for significant differences. The results indicated that the correlation between conflict and performance at Time 2 ($r = -.57, p < .01$) was not significantly different than the correlation between conflict and performance at Time 3 ($r = -.45, p < .01$), $z = -1.27, p = .20$. Additionally, the correlation between conflict and satisfaction at Time 2 ($r = -.57, p < .01$) was not significantly different than the correlation between conflict and satisfaction at Time 3 ($r = -.59, p < .01$), $z = -0.23, p = .81$.

Overall, it does not appear that the amount of task interdependence influenced the amount of conflict perceived nor did it appear to influence the relationships among conflict and team outcomes.

Differences between rating times. As described in Table 1 (Appendix A), participants completed Time 2 ratings at Week 9 of the semester, and completed Time 3 ratings at Week 14. Between rating times, five weeks passed and teams completed two team projects. Thus, post hoc analyses were conducted in order to determine if any psychometric or correlational differences existed between the two rating times.

First, reliability estimates were calculated and compared across times. With regard to the conflict scale, the reliability coefficients at Time 2 and Time 3 were identical, $\alpha = .93$. With regard to the SRM effects, the reliability estimates of the perceiver effect at both times were comparable, Time 2 = .75 and Time 3 = .83. Similarly, the reliability estimates of the target effect at both times were comparable, although slightly lower, Time 2 = .61 and Time 3 = .66. Thus, there did not appear to be any substantial differences in reliability estimates across times.

Second, as discussed above, the results of a paired sample t-test indicated that there was no significant difference in mean ratings of conflict across times, $t(122) = -1.62, p = .11$.

Third, correlations among the individual difference variables, the outcome variables, and the perceiver and target effects were calculated for Time 2 and for Time 3, and were compared to determine if the pattern of relationships differed across rating times (see Tables 5 and 6, Appendix A). The results indicated that, in general, the pattern of relationships among the study variables and the perceiver and target effects at Time 2 were quite similar to the pattern of relationships at Time 3.

Overall, there did not appear to be any psychometric or correlational differences between ratings at Time 2 and ratings at Time 3.

Potential priming. With regard to attribution style and conflict perception, there existed the possibility that the attribution style measure (see Appendix G) acted to prime participants to be more sensitive to intrateam conflict, thereby directly influencing participants' ratings of conflict with their teammates. This seems unlikely, however, for practical, conceptual, and statistical reasons. First, participants completed all individual difference measures on Day 1 of the semester (see Table 2 in Appendix A). It was not until 6 weeks later that participants provided the first set of conflict ratings. This time lag provides some assurance that priming was unlikely. Second, the attribution style measure and the conflict scale are conceptually distinct. Although both include conflict items, the items tap two different types of conflict. The attribution style measure asked respondents to rate the attributions they would make about task conflict behaviors (i.e., disagreements about the task), while the conflict scale addressed perceptions of socio-emotional conflict

(i.e., friction, anger, and interpersonal incompatibilities). This also provides some assurance that priming was unlikely. Third, post hoc analyses showed little evidence of priming. For example, if priming occurred, it would be expected that correlations between the perceiver effect and attribution style would be largest at Time 1 and decrease across Times 2 and 3. The results indicated that this correlation did decrease from Time 1 to Time 2 ($r = .16$ and $.07$, respectively). However, the correlation at Time 3 was equal to that at Time 1 ($r = .16$). Additionally, none of these correlations were significant at $p < .05$, and this Time 1 correlation was smaller than correlations between the perceiver effect and individual difference variables that were not expected to prime participants (e.g., agreeableness, openness to experience, narcissism). Taking all of this into consideration, it seems unlikely that the attribution style measure primed participants to be more sensitive to socio-emotional conflict.

Lastly, another limitation of the present study was the inability to include an objective indicator of team performance. Teams were graded on each of the five projects, with these grades worth a total of 30% of students' final grades in the course. However, as is typical in work teams, members were rewarded equally for team performance. Each member of a team received the same grade for each project. This resulted in zero within-team variance in objective team performance, which means any correlations with this variable and the perceiver and target effects calculated by SRM would be zero.

Implications and Future Research

The results of the present study have some important implications for both practice and future research. In practice, the possibility that individuals have different propensities to perceive and cause conflict has implications for team training and

leadership interventions. Primarily, it may be helpful in team settings to increase team member awareness of their own and their teammates' attribution styles. For example, understanding that a teammate may be likely to make internal attributions for task-related disagreements may allow an individual to carefully preface or phrase his or her opinions to help minimize socio-emotional conflict. Similarly, if team leaders are aware of team members' propensities, they can help to minimize socio-emotional conflict by conducting interventions or more carefully facilitating meetings and discussions. For example, knowing that a certain team member has a propensity to perceive conflict with others, the team leader can intervene during team discussions to re-phrase or clarify statements that may be misinterpreted as personal attacks.

With regard to research, the implicit assumption of many intrateam conflict researchers that all members of a team experience the same amount and types of conflict may not be accurate. The large perceiver effect found in the present study suggests that perceptions of conflict may be primarily a function of the individual doing the perceiving. Although the target and the situation likely play a role, we may no longer be able to assume that all team members interpret their teammates' behaviors similarly. Thus, researchers may need to reconsider the common practice of aggregating conflict perceptions to the team level. Although aggregating scores provides important information about team-level dynamics, there is clearly a need to incorporate individual-level perceptions and examine the role they may play in team-level outcomes.

Overall, the results of the present study clearly show the need for more research on the dynamics of intrateam conflict. The current findings showed that perceptions of conflict may be largely due to the perceiver; however, what leads to assimilation in

conflict perceptions is largely unknown, as are the causes of consensus. Until we understand what leads to these effects, our ability to develop effective training programs or interventions to minimize socio-emotional conflict and its impact on performance and satisfaction is severely limited.

Thus, researchers need to further examine correlates of the perceiver and target effects. Although, a few related individual differences were uncovered in the present study, clearly there is much more to an individual's propensity to perceive or cause conflict. Other possible correlates include personality traits and cognitive biases not examined in the present study, as well as emotions, mood, and interactions among individual difference variables and situational factors, both intrapersonally and interpersonally.

Concluding Remarks

Overall, the present study helped to further our understanding of socio-emotional conflict and its possible causes. Socio-emotional conflict appears to be largely in the "eye of the beholder," although significant amounts of variance in perceptions were attributable to the target and to unique dyadic relationships. The lack of significant correlates of these effects, while disappointing, highlights the possibility that what causes an individual to see or engage in conflict is more complicated than simply, for example, having low self-esteem or being disagreeable. Given the harmful, and undisputed, effects that socio-emotional conflict has on a team and its performance, it is imperative that we increase our understanding of its causes so that we can learn how to minimize its occurrence.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

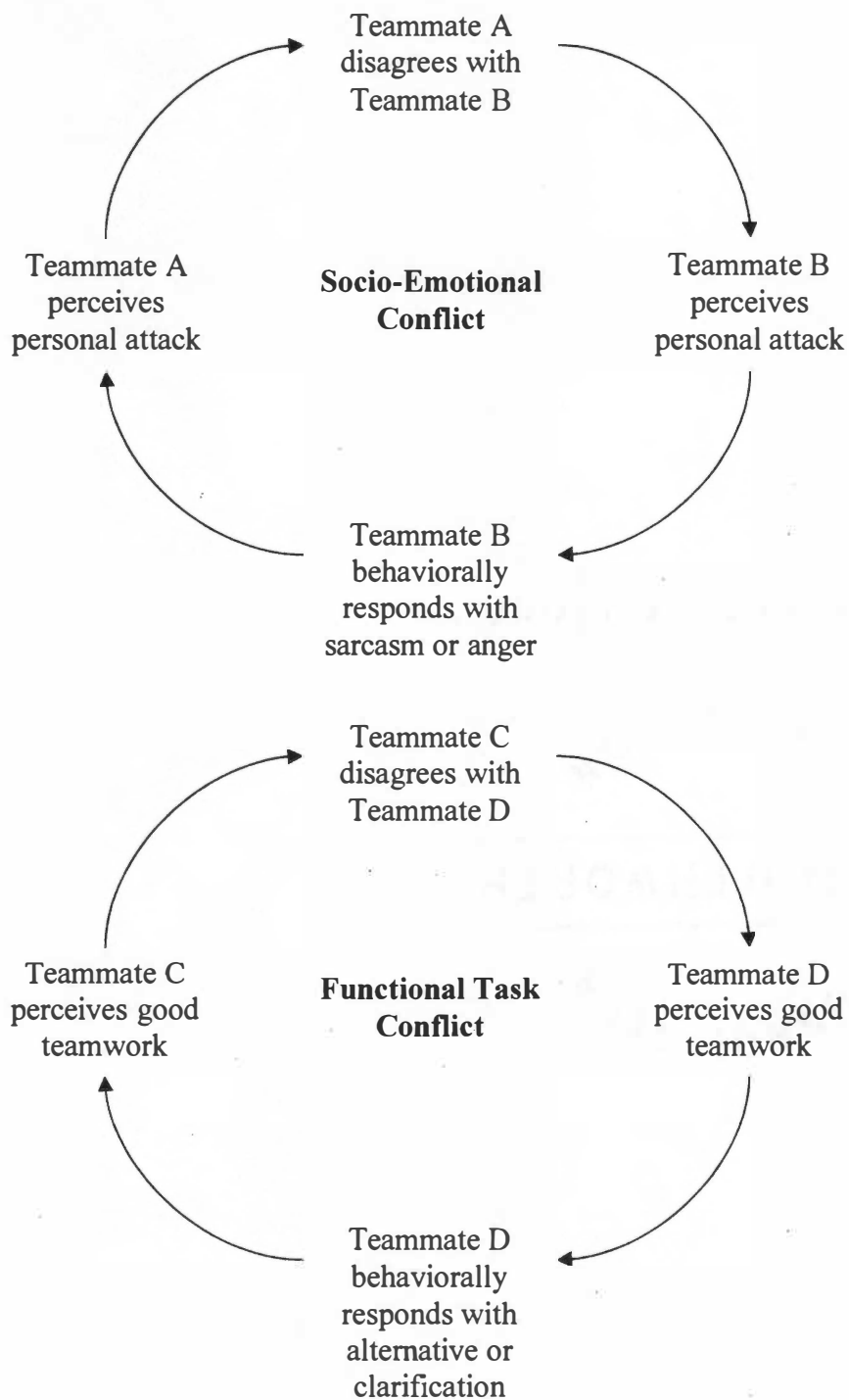


Figure 1. Behavior-attribution-behavior cycle

Likelihood of perceiving conflict	High	“Disengaged” • Low emotional stability • Low self-esteem • Negative attribution style	“Perpetuators” • Low agreeableness • High sensitivity to ego threat • High aggression
	Low	“Buffers” • High agreeableness • Low sensitivity to ego threat • Low aggression	“Debaters” • High extraversion • High emotional stability • High openness • High self-esteem
		Low	High
		Likelihood of causing conflict	

Figure 2. Categorization of team member conflict propensities

Step 2: Correlations w/ individual-level variance components

- Agreeableness (-) H2
- Emotional stability (-) H3
- Self-esteem (-) H4
- Sensitivity to ego threat (+) H5
- Attribution style (+) H6
- Aggression (+) H7

- Agreeableness (-) H9
- Openness (+) H10
- Extraversion (+) H11
- Emotional stability (+) H12
- Self-esteem (+) H13
- Sensitivity to ego threat (+) H14
- Aggression (+) H15

The relationship effect measures how a specific individual uniquely perceives another specific individual. Because these are unique adjustments that an individual makes to another, they are idiosyncratic in nature, and, thus, no a priori hypotheses are made concerning the correlates of this effect. Furthermore, SRM cannot compute correlations between relationship effects and individual-level data.

Step 1: Social Relations Analysis

Jehn's socio-emotional conflict subscale

H1a & 1b
Assimilation
(perceiver effect)

Average level of perceptions of conflict across dyadic partners; extent to which one perceives conflict with everyone

H8
Consensus
(target effect)

Average level of perceptions of conflict elicited from a range of others; extent to which one is perceived as causing conflict

H17
Uniqueness
(relationship effect)

What emerges after perceiver and target effects are removed; extent to which one uniquely perceives conflict with a specific other

Step 3: Correlations w/ individual-level outcomes

H16

Generalized reciprocity – a person who tends to perceive conflict with others will also be perceived as causing conflict

Outcomes H18

- Performance
- Satisfaction
- Viability

- Significant and greatest proportion of variance
- ▨ Significant proportion of variance

Figure 3. Heuristic of hypotheses

Table 1

Summary of Procedure

	Time	Action
<i>Time 1</i>	Day 1 of semester	Survey administered ▪ Goldberg Adjective Checklist ▪ Self-esteem ▪ Narcissistic Personality Inventory ▪ Self-Concept Clarity scale ▪ Teammate Behavior Attribution Measure ▪ CRT-A
	Week 2 of semester	Participants assigned to teams Project 1 distributed
	Week 4 of semester	Project 1 completed
	Week 5 of semester	Project 2 distributed
	Week 6 of semester	Project 2 completed Survey administered ▪ Socio-emotional conflict ▪ Perceptions of team performance ▪ Satisfaction with team
<i>Time 2</i>	Week 8 of semester	Project 3 distributed
	Week 9 of semester	Project 3 completed Survey administered ▪ Socio-emotional conflict ▪ Perceptions of team performance ▪ Satisfaction with team
<i>Time 3</i>	Week 11 of semester	Project 4 distributed
	Week 12 of semester	Project 4 completed
	Week 13 of semester	Project 5 distributed
	Week 14 of semester	Project 5 completed Survey administered ▪ Socio-emotional conflict ▪ Perceptions of team performance ▪ Satisfaction with team ▪ Team viability

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Agreeableness	5.67	.67	.78						
2. Openness to experience	5.26	.72	.29**	.75					
3. Conscientiousness	5.29	.76	.24**	.07	.76				
4. Extraversion	4.79	1.12	.18*	.29**	.07	.86			
5. Emotional stability	4.49	.80	.04	-.05	.03	.02	.69		
6. Narcissism	2.99	.57	-.17	.22*	-.01	.46**	-.14	.93	
7. Self-concept clarity	3.32	.72	-.07	-.18	.22*	.22*	.28**	.06	.88
8. Ego threat (dummy coded)	.26	.44	-.05	.16	-.23**	.12	-.19*	.44**	-.46**
9. Self esteem	3.31	.45	.07	.17	.29**	.48**	.31**	.37**	.47**
10. Attribution style – task conflict events	3.16	.59	-.08	-.09	-.08	-.05	.07	.16	.03
11. Attribution style – negative events	4.04	.68	-.17	.07	-.20*	-.00	-.11	.25**	-.13
12. Aggression	3.99	2.13	-.08	-.16	-.00	-.23*	.00	.00	.03
13. Performance	4.33	.74	.01	.03	.07	-.03	.12	.04	-.01
14. Satisfaction	10.57	2.21	.07	.04	.06	-.01	.10	-.05	.09
15. Viability	5.51	1.36	.09	.00	.04	-.04	.14	.03	.13

Note. Scale reliability estimates are presented along the diagonal. N = 121 to 126

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

Table 2, Continued

Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Agreeableness								
2. Openness to experience								
3. Conscientiousness								
4. Extraversion								
5. Emotional stability								
6. Narcissism								
7. Self-concept clarity								
8. Ego threat (dummy coded)	--							
9. Self esteem	-.02	.87						
10. Attribution style – task conflict events	.02	.14	.88					
11. Attribution style – negative events	.19*	.09	.43**	.89				
12. Aggression	-.04	-.10	.21*	.11	.80			
13. Performance	.11	.02	-.06	-.01	-.13	.86		
14. Satisfaction	.01	-.02	-.05	-.02	-.08	.79**	.91	
15. Viability	-.01	.01	.04	-.03	-.06	.81**	.86**	.97

Note. Scale reliability estimates are presented along the diagonal. N = 121 to 126

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

Table 3

Results of Variance Partitioning

Perceiver	Target	Relationship	Error
.33**	.16*	.17**	.34

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 4

Correlations among Study Variables and Perceiver and Target Effects

Variable	Perceiver effect	Target effect
1. Agreeableness	-.04	.10
2. Openness to experience	-.18*	-.02
3. Conscientiousness	-.13	-.13
4. Extraversion	.05	.17
5. Emotional stability	.06	.06
6. Narcissism	.18*	.13
7. Self-concept clarity	.08	.24*
8. Self esteem	.09	.03
9. Attribution style – task conflict events	.13	.29**
10. Attribution style – negative events	.08	-.02
11. Aggression	.05	-.06
12. Performance	-.43**	-.27*
13. Satisfaction	-.52**	-.23*
14. Viability	-.36**	-.01

N = 121 to 126

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

Table 5

Correlations among Study Variables and the Perceiver Effect

Variable	Time 2	Time 3
1. Agreeableness	-.05	-.02
2. Openness to experience	-.13	-.21*
3. Conscientiousness	-.11	-.13
4. Extraversion	.04	.04
5. Emotional stability	.01	.09
6. Narcissism	.13	.20*
7. Self-concept clarity	.02	.11
8. Self esteem	.03	.13
9. Attribution style – task conflict events	.07	.16
10. Attribution style – negative events	.07	.09
11. Aggression	.03	.05
12. Performance	-.45**	-.39**
13. Satisfaction	-.53**	-.47**
14. Viability	-.40**	-.31**

N = 121 to 126

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

Table 6

Correlations among Study Variables and the Target Effect

Variable	Time 2	Time 3
1. Agreeableness	.14	.08
2. Openness to experience	-.01	-.04
3. Conscientiousness	-.17	-.07
4. Extraversion	.15	.19
5. Emotional stability	.02	.12
6. Narcissism	.13	.11
7. Self-concept clarity	.19	.27*
8. Self esteem	.04	.03
9. Attribution style – task conflict events	.18	.37*
10. Attribution style – negative events	.05	-.09
11. Aggression	-.06	-.04
12. Performance	-.29**	-.22*
13. Satisfaction	-.26*	-.17
14. Viability	-.04	.03

N = 121 to 126

* p < .05

** p < .01

Appendix B

Socio-Emotional Conflict

Please respond to the following questions using a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 = none, and 5 = a lot.

	None			A lot	
1. How much friction was present in your interactions with Teammate A?	1	2	3	4	5
2. To what extent were personality clashes present in your interactions with Teammate A?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How much anger was present in your interactions with Teammate A?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How much emotional conflict was there in your interactions with Teammate A?	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Jehn, 1994.
Present sample, $\alpha = .93$

Appendix C

Personality

Please use this list of common human traits to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly your same age.

Before each trait, please write the number indicating how accurately that trait describes you, using the following rating scale. If there are any words that you do not know or understand, please write 9.

Very Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Neither Accurate Nor Inaccurate	Somewhat Accurate	Accurate	Very Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
_____	Bashful				_____	Moody
_____	Bold				_____	Organized
_____	Careless				_____	Philosophical
_____	Cold				_____	Practical
_____	Complex				_____	Quiet
_____	Cooperative				_____	Relaxed
_____	Creative				_____	Rude
_____	Deep				_____	Shy
_____	Disorganized				_____	Sloppy
_____	Efficient				_____	Sympathetic
_____	Energetic				_____	Systematic
_____	Envious				_____	Talkative
_____	Extraverted				_____	Temperamental
_____	Fretful				_____	Touchy
_____	Harsh				_____	Uncreative
_____	Imaginative				_____	Unenvious
_____	Inefficient				_____	Unintellectual
_____	Intellectual				_____	Unsympathetic
_____	Jealous				_____	Warm
_____	Kind				_____	Withdrawn

Subscales for Goldberg adjective checklist:

Agreeableness: 4, 6, 15, 20, 27, 30, 38, 39

Openness to Experience: 5, 7, 8, 16, 18, 23, 35, 37

Conscientiousness: 3, 9, 10, 17, 22, 24, 29, 31

Extraversion: 1, 2, 11, 13, 25, 28, 32, 40

Emotional Stability: 12, 14, 19, 21, 26, 33, 34, 36

Reverse Score: 1, 3, 4, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 19, 21, 25, 27, 28, 29, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 40

Source: Saucier, 1994.

Present sample: agreeableness, $\alpha = .78$; openness to experience, $\alpha = .75$;
conscientiousness, $\alpha = .76$; extraversion, $\alpha = .89$; emotional stability $\alpha = .69$.

Appendix D

Self-Esteem

For each of the following statements, circle the number that indicates the extent to which you agree with that statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4
2. At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4
4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4
5. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4
6. I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4
7. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4
9. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4
10. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4

Reverse score: 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10

Source: Rosenberg, 1965.

Present sample: $\alpha = .87$

Appendix E

Narcissism

For each of the following statements, select the number that indicates the extent to which each statement describes you.

	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much
1. I have a natural talent for influencing people.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Modesty doesn't become me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I would do almost anything on a dare.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I ruled the world it would be a much better place.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can usually talk my way out of anything.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I like to be the center of attention.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I will be a success.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I think I am a special person.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I see myself as a good leader.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am assertive.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I like to have authority over other people.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I find it easy to manipulate people.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I like to display my body.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I can read people like a book.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I like to take responsibility for making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I like to look at my body.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.	1	2	3	4	5

	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much
21. I always know what I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Everybody likes to hear my stories.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I expect a great deal from other people.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I like to be complimented.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I have a strong will to power.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I like to start new fads and fashions.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I like to look at myself in the mirror.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I really like to be the center of attention.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I can live my life in any way I want to.	1	2	3	4	5
32. People always seem to recognize my authority.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I would prefer to be a leader.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I am going to be a great person.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I am a born leader.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I wish somebody would someday write my biography.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I am more capable than other people.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I am an extraordinary person.	1	2	3	4	5

Subscale designations for NPI items:

1. I have a natural talent for influencing people.	Authority
2. Modesty doesn't become me.	Exhibitionism
3. I would do almost anything on a dare.	Exhibitionism
4. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.	Superiority
5. If I ruled the world it would be a much better place.	Entitlement
6. I can usually talk my way out of anything.	Exploitativeness
7. I like to be the center of attention.	Exhibitionism
8. I will be a success.	Authority
9. I think I am a special person.	Superiority
10. I see myself as a good leader.	Authority
11. I am assertive.	Authority
12. I like to have authority over other people.	Authority
13. I find it easy to manipulate people.	Exploitativeness
14. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.	Entitlement
15. I like to display my body.	Vanity
16. I can read people like a book.	Exploitativeness
17. I like to take responsibility for making decisions.	Self-sufficiency
18. I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.	Entitlement
19. I like to look at my body.	Vanity
20. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.	Exhibitionism
21. I always know what I am doing.	Self-sufficiency
22. I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.	Self-sufficiency
23. Everybody likes to hear my stories.	Exploitativeness
24. I expect a great deal from other people.	Entitlement
25. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.	Entitlement
26. I like to be complimented.	Superiority
27. I have a strong will to power.	Entitlement
28. I like to start new fads and fashions.	Exhibitionism
29. I like to look at myself in the mirror.	Vanity
30. I really like to be the center of attention.	Exhibitionism
31. I can live my life in any way I want to.	Self-sufficiency
32. People always seem to recognize my authority.	Authority
33. I would prefer to be a leader.	Authority
34. I am going to be a great person.	Self-sufficiency
35. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.	Exploitativeness
36. I am a born leader.	Authority
37. I wish somebody would someday write my biography.	Superiority
38. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.	Exhibitionism
39. I am more capable than other people.	Self-sufficiency
40. I am an extraordinary person.	Superiority

Source: Raskin & Terry, 1988

Present sample: $\alpha = .93$

Appendix F

Self-Concept Clarity

For each of the following statements, select the number that indicates the extent to which you agree with that statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My beliefs about myself often conflict with one another.	1	2	3	4	5
2. On one day I might have one opinion of myself and on another day I might have a different opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I spend a lot of time wondering about what kind of person I really am.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sometimes I feel that I am not really the person that I appear to be.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When I think about the kind of person I have been in the past, I'm not sure what I was really like.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I seldom experience conflict between the different aspects of my personality.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sometimes I think I know other people better than I know myself.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My beliefs about myself seem to change very frequently.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If I were asked to describe my personality, my description might end up being different from one day to another day.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Even if I wanted to, I don't think I would tell someone what I'm really like.	1	2	3	4	5
11. In general, I have a clear sense of who I am and what I am.	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is often hard for me to make up my mind about things because I don't really know what I want.	1	2	3	4	5

Reverse score: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12

Source: Campbell, Trapnell, Heine, Katz, Lavalley, & Lehman, 1996.

Present sample: $\alpha = .88$

Appendix G

Attribution Style

Listed on the following pages are twelve hypothetical behaviors that may occur in a team setting. In other words, these behaviors are things that your teammate might do. Imagine your teammate performing each behavior and then read the statements that follow it. Please circle the number that indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement, using the rating scale below:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Agree strongly

1. Your teammate offers an opinion different from yours regarding the task.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate offered a different opinion is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate offered a different opinion is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate offered a different opinion on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for offering a different opinion. |

2. Your teammate responds condescendingly to something you say.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate responded condescendingly is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate responded condescendingly is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate responded condescendingly on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for responding condescendingly. |

1	2	3	4	5	6
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Agree strongly

3. Your teammate disagrees about the work being done.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about the work being done is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about the work being done is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate disagreed about the work being done on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for disagreeing about the work being done. |

4. Your teammate questions your competence.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate questioned my competence is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate questioned my competence is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate questioned my competence on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for questioning my competence. |

1 Disagree strongly	2 Disagree	3 Disagree somewhat	4 Agree somewhat	5 Agree	6 Agree strongly
---------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	------------------------	------------	------------------------

5. Your teammate disagrees about the task you are working on.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about the task is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about the task is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate disagreed about the task on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for disagreeing about the task. |

6. Your teammate refuses to compromise even after others have made concessions.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in) |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate refused to compromise is <i>not</i> likely to change |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate refused to compromise is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate refused to compromise on purpose rather than unintentionally |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for refusing to compromise |

1	2	3	4	5	6
Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree	Agree strongly

7. Your teammate disagrees about ideas regarding the task.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about ideas is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate disagreed about ideas is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate disagreed about ideas on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for disagreeing about ideas. |

8. Your teammate responds sarcastically to something you say.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was due to something about him or her (e.g., the type of person he/she is, the mood he/she was in). |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate responded sarcastically is <i>not</i> likely to change. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | The reason my teammate responded sarcastically is something that affects other aspects of our working relationship. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate responded sarcastically on purpose rather than unintentionally. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate's behavior was motivated by selfish rather than <i>unselfish</i> concerns. |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | My teammate deserves to be blamed for responding sarcastically. |

Stimulus events 1, 3, 5, and 7 are task conflict events.

Stimulus events 2, 4, 6, and 8 are negative events.

The first 3 items under each stimulus event assess causal attributions.

The final 3 items under each stimulus event assess responsibility attributions.

Source of items: Fincham & Bradbury, 1992.

Present sample: negative events subscale, $\alpha = .93$; task conflict events subscale, $\alpha = .91$

Appendix H

Performance

Please think about how your team has performed up to this point in time, and rate the following aspects of your team's performance using a 5-point scale, where 1 = unacceptable and 5 = outstanding.

	Unacceptable	Poor	Fair	Good	Outstanding
1. Overall quality of team's performance	1	2	3	4	5
2. Efficiency with which team performs assigned tasks	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ease with which team has worked together on assigned tasks	1	2	3	4	5

Present sample: $\alpha = .86$

Appendix I

Satisfaction

Please think about the team with which you worked during this semester, and respond to the following two items.

1. Please circle the number below that indicates how satisfied you were working with this team.

1
Very
Unsatisfied

2
Somewhat
Unsatisfied

3
Neither
Unsatisfied Nor
Satisfied

4
Somewhat
Satisfied

5
Very
Satisfied

2. Please circle the face below that indicates the way you feel about working with this group in general.



Source: Jehn, 1994; Kunin, 1955.
Present sample: $\alpha = .91$

Appendix J

Viability

Please think about the team on which you worked during this semester. For each statement, select the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The people on this team have “team spirit.”	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Team members are satisfied with working on this team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Team members actively participate in meeting the team’s goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The people on this team are “team players.”	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Members are highly committed to the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Team members would enjoy working together as a team in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Team members are motivated to work on this team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Members give their best effort for the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Team members would be willing to work with each other again.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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Source: Rentsch & Hutchison, 1998.

Present sample: $\alpha = .97$

Appendix K

Please provide the following information:

Major: _____ GPA: _____ Class rank: Freshman
(circle one) Sophomore
Junior
Senior
Graduate

Age: _____ Gender: Male
(circle one) Female Race: Black
(circle one) Asian
Hispanic
Native American
Caucasian

Are you currently employed? (please circle) Yes No

[If yes, please answer the following 3 questions; if no, please go to question 4 below.]

1. If yes, how many hours, on average, do you work per week? _____

2. If yes, how many years/months have you worked for your current employer? _____

3. If yes, what kind of work are you currently performing?

- _____ Clerical (bookkeeping, data entry, secretarial, etc.)
- _____ Construction/landscaping
- _____ Financial (accounting, banking, etc.)
- _____ Food service (restaurants, bars, cafeterias, etc.)
- _____ Healthcare (nursing, medicine, etc.)
- _____ Manufacturing
- _____ Retail (clothing, groceries, household goods, home improvement, pharmacy, etc.)
- _____ Tourism/entertainment/arts (Dollywood, museums, theaters, etc.)
- _____ Other (please specify): _____

4. If no, have you previously been employed? (please circle) Yes No

[If yes, please answer the following 3 questions; if no, please skip these questions.]

5. If yes, how long ago did you stop working for your most recent employer? _____

6. If yes, how many hours, on average, did you work per week for your most recent employer? _____

7. If yes, how many years/months did you work for your most recent employer? _____

Appendix L

Task Contributions

Each of the group exercises you completed this semester is listed and briefly described below. For each exercise, please rate how much each member of your team (including yourself) contributed to the exercise, by dividing up 100 points among all of the members of your team. You may not need all of the blanks provided, depending on the size of your team.

As you've done previously, please provide the initials for each member of your team below (this time, including yourself). Complete each set of ratings so that for each set "Teammate A" refers to the team member whose initials you entered next to Teammate A below, "Teammate B" refers to the team member whose initials you entered below, and so on. A list of all teams and their members is provided at the back of this packet, should you need to refresh your memory. (This list will be removed from each packet upon receipt in order to maintain anonymity.)

My initials: _____ Teammate C's initials: _____
Teammate A's initials: _____ Teammate D's initials: _____
Teammate B's initials: _____ Teammate E's initials: _____

Exercise 1: opening a local restaurant

You and your partners were to imagine opening a local restaurant. You were to decide what your respective management roles would be, which building blocks of competitive advantage you would need in order to succeed, and the decisions that had to be made about planning, organizing, leading, and controlling.

My contribution = _____
Teammate A's contribution = _____
Teammate B's contribution = _____
Teammate C's contribution = _____
Teammate D's contribution = _____
Teammate E's contribution = _____
Total = 100

Exercise 2: opening a printing and copying business

You and your partners were to imagine opening a copying business near the campus of UT. You were to do a detailed analysis of the task environment of the copying business to discover what opportunities and threats you would encounter.

My contribution = _____
Teammate A's contribution = _____
Teammate B's contribution = _____
Teammate C's contribution = _____
Teammate D's contribution = _____
Teammate E's contribution = _____
Total = 100

Exercise 3: Porsche exercise

Your team simulated the top-management team of Porsche of America, and had to decide on the following year's production strategy for the Porsche 911 Carrera (i.e., total production volume, percentage of body styles, and whether to offer a turbo option).

My contribution = _____
Teammate A's contribution = _____
Teammate B's contribution = _____
Teammate C's contribution = _____
Teammate D's contribution = _____
Teammate E's contribution = _____
Total = 100 _____

Exercise 4: Money/motivation debate

Your team debated whether or not money is the primary motivator of people. You were to report on each side's main arguments, and whether you felt your entire group could agree on one side of the debate.

My contribution = _____
Teammate A's contribution = _____
Teammate B's contribution = _____
Teammate C's contribution = _____
Teammate D's contribution = _____
Teammate E's contribution = _____
Total = 100 _____

Exercise 5: Mock jury task

Your team simulated the jury in a felony drug possession case. You were to report on the group dynamics your team experienced during your deliberations.

My contribution = _____
Teammate A's contribution = _____
Teammate B's contribution = _____
Teammate C's contribution = _____
Teammate D's contribution = _____
Teammate E's contribution = _____
Total = 100 _____

Appendix M

Task Interdependence

Teams of 5 to 6 completed five class projects over the course of one semester. These five projects are described below. Please read each of the descriptions and rate each project on the amount of task interdependence inherent in each project. Task interdependence is defined as group members interacting and depending on one another to accomplish their work. Please rate each project using a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 = low task interdependence, and 5 = high task interdependence. Please circle your rating on the scale presented after each description.

Project 1

Teams were to imagine opening a local restaurant. They were to decide what their respective management roles would be, and how they would build a competitive advantage in order to succeed. They also had to make a variety of decisions relating to how they would handle the four primary functions of management (planning, organizing, leading, controlling). Each team had to submit a detailed written report and give a brief presentation in class.

1	2	3	4	5
Low interdependence: team performance is the sum of individual performances; no interaction or coordination among members is necessary		Moderate interdependence: team performance requires some interaction and coordination among members		High interdependence: team performance requires mutual interactions and coordination among members; final output cannot be obtained unless all members interactively collaborate

Project 2

Teams were to imagine opening a copying business near their university's campus. They were to conduct a detailed analysis of the task environment of the copying business in order to discover the opportunities and threats they would encounter. They also had to list some of the steps they would take to help their business succeed given that environment. Each team had to submit a detailed written report and give a brief presentation in class.

1	2	3	4	5
Low interdependence: team performance is the sum of individual performances; no interaction or coordination among members is necessary		Moderate interdependence: team performance requires some interaction and coordination among members		High interdependence: team performance requires mutual interactions and coordination among members; final output cannot be obtained unless all members interactively collaborate

Project 3

Teams simulated the top-management team of a large corporation, with each team member playing the role of a different executive. Teams had to decide on the following year's production strategy. Each team member received fairly extensive background information, including information that only he or she had. Each team had to submit a written report of their team's decisions, rationale, and decision-making process.

1	2	3	4	5
Low interdependence: team performance is the sum of individual performances; no interaction or coordination among members is necessary		Moderate interdependence: team performance requires some interaction and coordination among members		High interdependence: team performance requires mutual interactions and coordination among members; final output cannot be obtained unless all members interactively collaborate

Project 4

Teams debated whether or not money is the primary motivator of people. Each team submitted a written report detailing each side's main arguments, key counterarguments, and whether the team could agree on one side of the debate.

1	2	3	4	5
Low interdependence: team performance is the sum of individual performances; no interaction or coordination among members is necessary		Moderate interdependence: team performance requires some interaction and coordination among members		High interdependence: team performance requires mutual interactions and coordination among members; final output cannot be obtained unless all members interactively collaborate

Project 5

Each team simulated the jury in a felony drug possession case. Each team submitted a report on their team's verdict, their primary supporting arguments, and a detailed analysis of their team's dynamics (e.g., leadership, trust, conflict).

1	2	3	4	5
Low interdependence: team performance is the sum of individual performances; no interaction or coordination among members is necessary		Moderate interdependence: team performance requires some interaction and coordination among members		High interdependence: team performance requires mutual interactions and coordination among members; final output cannot be obtained unless all members interactively collaborate

VITA

Jacqueline Zelno Bergman was born in Pittsburgh, PA, on May 17, 1969. She was raised in Slippery Rock, PA, and graduated from Slippery Rock Area High School in 1987. She attended Dickinson College, in Carlisle, PA, and received a B.A. in Russian language and Russian and Soviet area studies in 1991. From 1991 to 1998, she worked for the management consulting firm of McKinsey & Company, Inc., in Atlanta, GA. She then attended The University of Tennessee, Chattanooga, and received an M.S. in industrial/organizational psychology in 2000.

Jacqueline is currently pursuing her doctorate in industrial/organizational psychology at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, and is a Visiting Assistant Professor at Appalachian State University, Boone, NC.

